

**DISCOURSES OF MULTICULTURAL TEAMS: IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY PRACTICE
IN OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING**

by

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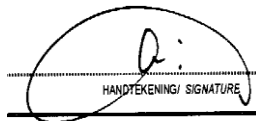
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DECLARATION

I declare that:

DISCOURSES OF MULTICULTURAL TEAMS: IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY PRACTICE IN OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING

is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.



HANDEKENING/ SIGNATURE

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to the memory of dear departed mother, Martha F. Nyoni whom I miss every day, maternal grandfather, Gabriel Chapota and maternal grandmother Laiza Phuhe. To them I am forever grateful for having brought me up to become what I am today. It is also dedicated to my uncle Elvis Nyoni, cousin, Ntombizodwa, my half-brother Siphon and his daughter Shaillet.

Overall I sincerely dedicate this thesis to all democracies in transition in Africa whose democratic policies are aimed at building multicultural nations in response to colonial borders that divided its peoples along ethnic lines. Increased cultural diversity, however, is calling for new types of democratic policies, which recognize particularistic identity claims and, at the same time, strengthen social integration in the national polity.

The International Bill of Human Rights, consisting of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), adopted and proclaimed by the UN General Assembly in Resolution 217A (III) (1948) refers;

Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinctions of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status (General Assembly Resolution 217 A III).

It can be concluded that globalization intensifies the above-mentioned dynamics of ethnic mobilization and eventually exacerbates the conflict between different ethnic groups over political power thus new inclusive policies are needed to manage paradoxes in multicultural societies.

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This thesis arose partly out of years of research that has been done since I came to Unisa. By that time, I had worked with a great number of people whose contribution in assorted ways to the research and the making of the thesis deserved special mention. It is a pleasure to convey my gratitude to them all in my humble acknowledgment.

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RESEARCH ABSTRACT

Although a number of researchers have attempted to identify measures to account for the core elements of effective intercultural/multicultural teams of community of practice (CoP) in open and distance learning (ODL) formal institutions, there is no consensus on those measures. Previous studies also suggest important differences in teamwork across cultures but they do not adequately address the complexity of issues affecting culturally diverse teams and do not identify the specific factors that contribute to these differences (Earley & Gibson 2002). The purpose of the study was to collect views and experiences of multicultural lecturers from the six Unisa colleges and the Directorate for Curriculum and Learning Development (DCLD) personnel on the operationalization of Unisa Framework for the implementation of a team approach to curriculum and learning development. Soon after South Africa's independence in 1994, Unisa had to respond to a new paradigm shift by realigning their curricula to meet the new national and global economic demands and social justice. The process relates to major revisions of programmes and modules, as well as new programmes and modules.

The study adopts a qualitative research approach and uses Van Dijk (2009) critical discourse analysis (CDA) as a methodology and data analysis strategy. Sociocognitive Approach (SCA) theory as espoused by Van Dijk (2009) is underpinned by a narrative research design. A purposive sampling method was employed to collect data and critically analysed views and experiences of interracial/multicultural academic lecturers, a Director and DCLD education consultants engaged in collective partnerships in the craft of ODL curriculum and learning development at Unisa in South Africa. I used the Unisa Framework for a team approach to curriculum and learning development at Unisa as a model. Previous discourse studies in this area suggest that differences in communication practices may be attributed to power differentials or language competence. In particular it surfaces key tensions within subject expertise autonomy, such as those between commitments to reform and efficiency that may have a significant impact on the outcomes of subsequent policy compliance. In my analysis of the research participants' discourses, it emerged that a culture of dichotomy; "us and them" inhibits the operationalization of the Unisa Framework for the implementation of team approach to curriculum and learning development which may be attributed to the failure to manage multicultural identity issues.

TITLE OF THESIS:

DISCOURSES OF MULTICULTURAL TEAMS: IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY PRACTICE IN OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING

Key terms:

Critical discourse analysis (CDA); Critical theory; Policy implementation; Team approach; Open and Distance Learning (ODL); Reflexivity; Curriculum development; Multiculturalism; Unisa; DCLD

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

Academic employee	Any person appointed to teach or to do research at a public higher education institution and any other employee designated as such by the council of that institution;
APO	Academic Planning Office
BCCAD	Bureau for Counselling, Career and Academic Development
CDA	Critical Discourse Analysis
CHE	Council on Higher Education
DCLD	Directorate for Curriculum and Learning Development
DMI	Directorate: Management Information
DHET	Department of Higher Education and Training; [Definition of 'Department of Education' substituted by s. 1 (a) of Act 26 of 2010.]
DPAR	Directorate: Programme Accreditation and Registration
DPC	Directorate: Planning and Coordination
DQA	Directorate: Quality Assurance
DQA	Directorate: Quality Assurance
HEQF	Higher Education Qualifications Framework; [Definition of 'HEQF' inserted by s(1) (a) of Act 39 of 2008.]
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
ODL	Open and Distance Learning
PMO	Project Management Office
SAQA	South African Qualifications Authority
TSDL	Tutorial Services, Group Discussions and Work Integrated Learning
CRT	Critical Race Theory
TBVC	Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei
NCHE	National Commission on Higher Education
OBE	Outcomes Based Education
K	Knowledge
TA	Team Approach
IIEP	International Institute for Educational Planning
IICBA	International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa

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1.1 INTRODUCTION

The growing social demand for education and training for undergraduates, short developmental courses, professional development, to name but three: opportunities for open and distance learning (ODL) have been augmented and harnessed, which contribute in a significant way to the efforts made for human capital formation through conventional systems. Open learning and distance education refers to approaches to learning that focus on freeing learners from constraints of time and place while offering flexible learning opportunities. For many students, open and distance learning (ODL) is a way of combining work and family responsibilities with educational opportunities. Distance education (sometimes referred to as “distributed learning” or “distance learning”) is any educational process in which all or most of the teaching is conducted by someone geographically removed from the learner, with all or most of the communication between lecturers and students being conducted through electronic or print mediums United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO 2001).

Researchers posit that a successful open and distance learning (ODL) system is a result of coordinated efforts between a strong organization, instructional and staff members, and learners (Owen & Demb 2004; Yoon 2003). For cross-national ODL ventures, flexible and supportive policies and institutional adjustments are viewed as additional necessities (Bailey 1999). Coordinated efforts can be broken down into teams dependent on skills and knowledge. At the University of South Africa (Unisa) teams can be composed of multicultural coordinators, authors, referees, instructional designers, editors (structural and style editors), graphic artists, and media specialists and so on. The material development strategies for each subject is centred on the team approach to compare teaching techniques for traditional and distance learning and emphasize the need for planning and the role of each team member for example.

This study focused on analysing views and experiences of academics drawn from six colleges and Directorate for Curriculum and Learning Development (DCLD) education consultants engaged in Open and Distance Learning (ODL) curriculum and learning materials at Unisa.

1.2 BACKGROUND/CONTEXTUALISATION

Open and distance learning (ODL) is fast becoming an accepted and indispensable part of the mainstream of educational systems in both developed and developing countries, with particular emphasis for the latter (UNESCO 2001). The globalization of distance education provides many opportunities for developing countries for the realization of their education system-wide goals (UNESCO 2001). Two main factors have led to an explosion of interest in distance learning: the growing need for continual skills upgrading and retraining; and the technological advances that have made it possible to teach more and more subjects at a distance (Anderson 2001). In this research context, the term distance learning is used as a synonym for the more comprehensive and precise term distance education. As Anderson (2001) points out, there is an important distinction between distance learning and open learning. He contends that distance learning begins with a method – it is a way of teaching that does not require the presence of the teacher and learners in the same place at the same time. This is what Thompson (2001) calls the “situation of co-presence”. But open learning began with a purpose – to develop new strategies at an affordable cost, to include all who seek higher levels of education and training.

Throughout the post-1994 period of higher education policy articulation in South Africa, from the Department of Education (DoE)’s *Technology Enhanced Learning Investigation* (July 1996) to the *National Plan for Higher Education* (February 2001), there was a consistent (if sometimes implicit) insistence that, if South Africa was going to transform Higher Education, and simultaneously pursue the potentially divergent goals of access, quality and redress in an affordable way – in other words, to “reconfigure the eternally challenging triangle of cost-access-quality in the directions of lower costs, greater access, and higher quality” – then distance education would need to be expanded and sustained. In line with the current thinking on education transformation, the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) concurs with the Council on Higher Education (CHE) that: “ ... a single predominantly dedicated distance institution that provides innovative and quality programmes, especially at the undergraduate level, is required for the country”. The University of South Africa (Unisa) provides opportunities for students in South Africa, Africa and other parts of the world to access

quality education from different geographic positions using ODL pedagogy. ODL has become the *de facto* mainstream mode of delivery for Unisa. One of Unisa's fundamental principles contained in the Tuition Policy (2005) states that, "...purpose is to meet Africa's changing needs, foster teaching and research, and provide quality education at tertiary level".

1.2.1 Unisa's purpose and role as a comprehensive ODL university

Comprehensiveness includes cooperative education, an educational strategy that develops and expands on partnerships with industry, professional bodies and local communities. To do this, Unisa cooperates with these partners in developing curricula, designing learning materials, and facilitating work-integrated learning opportunities (Tuition Policy 2005).

1.2.2 The open and distance learning (ODL) design and development process

The unique nature of teaching at a distance requires the use and systematic integration of various areas of expertise. The design, development and teaching of programmes and courses are the responsibility of course teams whose specific roles and responsibilities are clearly delineated. The teams include members of academic departments and members of relevant support departments. The teams also take into account the perspectives and opinions of various stakeholders including students and employer bodies.

As an approach contributing to social and economic empowerment, ODL is fast becoming an accepted and indispensable part of mainstream education systems in both developed and developing countries, with particular emphasis for the latter. Based on the four pillars of learning to know, learning to do, learning to be and learning to live together, it (ODL) provides the enhanced opportunities that are essential for full citizenship in the knowledge society (UNESCO 2002, 1)

The above crucial assertion marks the underlying fundamental acknowledgement by UNESCO in its preamble about the need to re-examine approaches to education provisioning in a neo-liberalized complex global village particularly in developing countries. It provides a unique

opportunity for ODL education institutions to re-examine and re-think their teaching, learning experiences and research in order to be effective and relevant in their service delivery obligations. The strategies might include the incorporation of hybrid modes of teaching and learning techniques in a society in transition. Processes of policy engagements in multiracial settings are beset with power relations contestations that are engrained with racial undertones, socio-political influences and other influences be-known to stakeholders. Foucault (1972) in his book, *Archaeology of Knowledge* makes use of a critical ontology to reveal the relationship between knowledge and power in such engagements. ODL institutions' ontological and epistemological frames of policy articulation and operationalization are not insulated from such knowledge and power contestations. This is particularly so with academics who want to retain academic freedom and Directorate for Curriculum and Learning Development (DCLD) education consultants who on the other hand would like to advise on the content delivery in line with ODL principles and practices.

1.2.3 The role of DCLD education consultancy and team approach at Unisa

DCLD Education Consultants are uniquely placed to provide a broad overview of practices, challenges and opportunities in curriculum development at Unisa. Although each Education Consultant has specific academic expertise and background in various disciplines, their role is not to develop curricula, but rather to provide academics and other stakeholders with informed, critical support and leadership regarding the development of their curricula.

1.2.4 Discourses of team approach on curriculum and learning development

Over the last thirty years, numerous companies and/or organizations have adopted the team approach, which is built on the assumption that decisions reached by a group are superior, on average, to decisions made by individuals (LaFasto & Larson 2001; Kinlaw 1998; Purser & Cabana 1998). In the context of the study, however, team approach in ODL requires everyone to be proficient both in their human relations skills as well as in their technical abilities (Burpitt & Bigoness 1997). There seems to be general agreement that inherent flaws in hierarchical systems of management are increasingly rendering these systems obsolete in academia (Newman et al.

2004; Axelrod 2000; Hickman 1998). If universities are to remain responsive to the needs of an increasingly diverse ODL student population, realizing this model is necessary (Axelrod 2000; Bensimon & Neumann 1993). Besides higher education has much to gain from implementing the team approach (Cranton 1998). For the purposes of this study, a “team” is defined as a group of skilled individuals responsible for providing a complete service within a large work environment of which all members are expected to know the jobs assigned to every person on the team (LaFasto & Larson 2001; Huszczo 1996). These teams typically have the authority to implement, not just recommend, specific courses of action related to quality and productivity enhancement (Franz 2004; Lewis 1998; Jewell & Reitz 1981). The research was therefore meant to identify most appropriate rules of engagement in the processes of establishing teams as the policy requires on horizontal basis.

1.2.5 Transformation and reform of curriculum and instruction

Transformation in this study contextually refers to a dynamic, focused and relatively short-term process, designed to fundamentally reshape ODL curriculum and instruction at Unisa. Transformation can be distinguished from the broader, longer-term and on-going process of curriculum reform which will be required to ensure that Unisa keeps in step with the changing needs and requirements both locally and globally.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT/RESEARCH STATEMENT

South Africa’s national effort to accommodate mass higher education necessitated a paradigm shift related to the drive to equip graduates for the changing world of work in the contemporary knowledge society and global age (Barnett 1994; Scott 1995; Blackstone 2001). The new paradigm shift is expressed in the form of ideas such as developing student capability (Stephenson & Weil 1992), key skills and lifelong learning (Barnett 1994; Whitston 1998 & Rawson 2000). Critical explorations of the skills agenda place the learning experiences and student development at the core of curriculum design or rearticulation and delivery. The challenge is to develop models that can cater for a more multicultural student population and yet are suited to different academic and professional domains. Unisa as a mega open and distance

learning (ODL) higher education institution in compliance with national laws reacted to these reforms. The problem statement is therefore that the knowledge, skills, competencies and values (combined to represent “graduate attributes”) developed by higher education may in varying degree be out of sync with the needs and expectations of employers and, at the same time, with the demands of a rapidly changing world of work (Higher Education South Africa & The South African Qualifications Authority 2009). The three key areas of higher education namely: access, knowledge reproduction and knowledge production frame curriculum design and learning development activities at Unisa. The multiracial composition of staff at Unisa is expected to work as a unified, invigorated, and modernised team and be more responsive to South Africa’s agenda for economic and social reconstruction (Cloete, Fehnel, Maasen, Moja, Perold & Gibbon 2002). Thus the Unisa Framework for the implementation of a team approach to curriculum and learning development is used as a model to craft responsive curriculum and learning experiences.

1.4 STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

The purpose of this research was to review and assess the extent to which Unisa has achieved one of its Tuition Policy (2005) objectives in the last five years. This was achieved by analysing the progress made in the areas of quality curriculum and learning development and was done with specific reference to the six colleges and DCLD. The study was important as it hoped to shed some light on how to improve quality of curriculum and learning instruction through the establishment of effective and functional interdisciplinary multicultural teams. The purpose was not really to pass judgment on existing efforts but to identify weaknesses and to define ways and manners in which to strengthen team approach processes to curriculum and learning development.

The research strove towards a holistic understanding of how multicultural teams relate and interact with each other during the process of implementing the Unisa Framework for the implementation of a team approach to curriculum and learning development under scrutiny. It attempted to understand how people of different racial backgrounds saw things and events concerning the policy on a daily basis given unequal power relations. Such new insight and understanding was meant to extend experience or add strength to what is already known through

previous research or assist in developing or augment existing theory on team approach in ODL pedagogy and practices.

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

One of the leading critical realists, Archer (2003) asserts that individuals often engage in a specific “agential enterprise” which she refers to as a “project”. When deliberating over a curriculum design project, agents engage in a process of “reflexive determination”, which refers to the personal process undertaken by individuals in identifying the causal mechanisms linking structure to their agency. What I call reflexive indicator entails lens not only for identifying the structures, institutions, mechanisms, rules, resources, etc., deemed to enable or constrain wider organizational performance, but also constructing strategies to use them to pursue their personal goals.

Under such circumstances the challenge will be to craft policy strategies that promote multicultural collective partnerships. To a large extent, understanding and managing policy operationalization processes in multicultural organisations creates a stable, predictable and sustainable delivery system. The research was therefore intended to explore discourses of multiracial collective partnerships in ODL curriculum craft at Unisa.

1.5.1 Tertiary institutions as hotbeds for critical discourse

Reflexivity becomes an important exercise in situations where there is uncritical co-opting of managerial procedures or processes into the educational domain, with little regard for the origin of or consequences for what would constitute an effective ODL institution in a democratic society. Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) on team approach emphasizes the need for interdisciplinary work in order to gain a proper understanding of how language functions in constituting and transmitting knowledge, in organizing social institutions or in exercising power (Graham 2002; Lemke 2002; Martin & Wodak 2003). CDA fundamentally is interested in analysing opaque as well as transparent structural relationships of dominance, discrimination, power and control as manifested in language. CDA was used to critically investigate social

inequality as it was constituted, legitimized, and so on, through language use (or in discourse). By adopting a critical discourse analysis approach, I was able to thus endorse Habermas's claim that "language is also a medium of domination and social force in inherent processes of constructive engagement".

1.5.2 Institutes engaged in ODL provisioning

ODL at the tertiary level is offered by single-mode institutions, an increasing number of traditional universities, "dual-mode" institutions, consortia of universities and virtual universities. In addition, recent years have seen the increasing emergence of new non-traditional providers of higher education such as private companies. Irrespective of whatever mode an ODL institution adopts, it does not therefore require a sophisticated rocket scientist to attest to the *realia* that effective organisations in multinational transitional institutions need order, stability and direction in order to effectively achieve their outcomes. For example, instruments framed in the form of legislation, policies and/or frameworks are fundamental in the control, manipulation and management of human activity in any given formal organisation. It becomes essential to constantly re-visit policy articulation and operationalization processes from philosophical and epistemological frameworks. This will assist all affected stakeholders to understand relationally how power, ideology, knowledge, race, social mores (values and customs), class and change are embedded in these processes in education practices. Practitioners in communities of practice in formal organisations need to constantly reflect upon the critical intent of the wider policy practice and to turn "a reflexive lens upon their experience as effective policy implementers" (Dzvimbo 2010). There are a number of reasons why this should be done. Before naming but one, it is useful to define reflection as being careful mental consideration or concentration, and reflexivity as being the ability to direct back on oneself. In the case of professional development, this means directing new work experiences back into one's professional practice. This constant introspection and objective analysis of one's practice, might lead to a more refined good practice regime and thereby avoiding fault lines and at the same time reward excellence.

1.5.3 Issues of transformation in ODL ‘team approach’ context

Issues such as ethics, gender, race, validity, reciprocity, sexuality, voice, empowerment, authorship, and readership can be brought into the open and allowed to “breathe” as important discourse matters (Dzvimbo 2010). The reform in policy practice in transitional societies like South Africa must begin to break with the past and chart an untainted way forward that include facets as posited by Dzvimbo (2010). Mugabe (1980) elaborates,

The wrongs of the past must now stand forgiven and forgotten. If ever we look to the past, let us do so for the lesson the past has taught us, namely that oppression and racism are inequalities that must never again find scope in our political and social system. It could never be a correct justification that because whites oppressed us yesterday when they had power, the blacks must oppress them today because they have power.

The enunciation in the University of South Africa (Unisa) Tuition Policy 2005 on the establishment of teams to curriculum and learning development can be problematic at times. Given Unisa’s apartheid past, some academics are scared of certain changes that are prescribed for they believe that such changes threaten their power bases. But such changes can be a good starting point for inclusion of diverse views or voices and the experiences of academic staff in the marrying of practice and empowerment in the craft of learning experiences.

The research project was therefore intended to explore and analyse views and experiences of professional academic and DCLD’s education consultants on the implementation of a “team approach” to curriculum and learning development using a critical discourse analysis approach.

1.6 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The study is framed within the context of the centrality of multicultural education to developmental education as articulated by transformational agendas in post-colonial states. Policy articulation is always part of a selective tradition, someone’s selection, and some group’s vision of legitimate knowledge. It means the footprints of a dominant group retain an indelible mark that refuses to be erased. Arguably, in post-colonial states, the dominant group that was in power before emancipation continue to imprint policy articulation processes. In multicultural

societies compromises include diversity. If diversity is an empirical condition—the existence of multiple group identities in a society—multiculturalism names a particular posture towards this reality (Bruch, Jehangir, Lundell, Higbee & Miksch 2003). There are many definitions of multiculturalism and multicultural education. I am inspired by the work of Banks (2001, 2), who defines multicultural education as, “an idea, an educational reform movement, and a process”. As an idea, multicultural education policy seeks to create equal educational opportunities for all students, including those from different racial, ethnic, and social-class groups. Multicultural education policy tries to create equal educational opportunities for all students by changing the total ODL institutional environment so that it reflects the diverse cultures and groups within society and within the nation’s higher education (HE). Multicultural education is a process because its goals are ideals that lecturers and administrators should constantly strive to achieve (Banks 2001, 2). Banks’ (2001) definition explicitly moves beyond recognition of different social group membership (i.e., diversity) to advocate a method for transforming educational institutions so that they might more fully enable the participation of all citizens within South Africa’s multicultural society irrespective of colour, creed or religion. Exploiting this transformative method, Bell and Griffin (1997) advocate sequencing learning activities so that students move from a personal understanding of social group identity (e.g., diversity training) to an institutional or structural approach to social justice (multicultural education). According to Bell and Griffin (1997), programmes concerned with diversity focus on helping students describe and understand their own experiences as members of different social groups and listen to others talk about their experiences and perspectives.

Multicultural education is more than just making sure all voices have access and are heard, although this is critical. It concerns itself with “neutralizing the impact of unshared power in teaching and research” (Hill 1999, 229). The transformative agenda of multicultural education at Unisa should move beyond celebrating diversity to providing meaningful access to all students and employees. Multicultural education, described as transforming access, builds on the work of Sleeter & Grant (2003, 195) who advocate “Education that is multicultural and social reconstructionist”. Education that is multicultural means that the entire educational programme is redesigned to reflect the concerns of diverse cultural groups. The phrase *Education that is Multicultural and Social Reconstructionist* is adopted by lecturers who want to identify with a

more assertive and transforming educational position (Sleeter & Grant 2003, 195). Education that is multicultural and social reconstructionist deals directly with structural inequality and prepares all involved to transform society so that it better serves the interests of all groups, especially those groups who historically have been marginalized. The goal is to promote structural equity and cultural pluralism. Instruction, while involving students actively in decision making, builds on diverse learning styles and is collaborative. Further, it incorporates the skills and knowledge that students bring to the centres of teaching and learning. Rather than focusing exclusively on diversity and classroom issues, the work of higher education must be, “reconceived to be unimplementable without the central participation of the currently excluded and marginalized” (Hill 1999, 228). Developmental education, with its overt access mission, is situated to contribute to the reconceptualization of higher education in ways that see the participation of the currently marginalized and excluded as a central concern.

1.7 OBJECTIVES AND RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The restructuring of the higher education institutional landscape through the National Plan on Higher Education (2001), accompanied by institutional mergers and incorporations, has posed additional governance and leadership challenges for institutions such as the re-organisation of multi-campus systems often characterized by different academic cultures, traditions, races, politics and other embedded fears for staff. The transformation of institutions and/or organizations or systems are associated with conflict, resistance, protests, struggles – and power, power structures and power relations (Foucault 1972 & 1975). Transformation relates to issues of power and responsibilities as dealt with by Councils, the university leadership, senior administrators, academics, staff, students, policy makers and other external stakeholders. Issues of curriculum reform and instruction are no exceptions in mega universities such as Unisa. As Unisa continues with its political and social transformational/reform journey, renewed focus on curriculum reform is especially crucial. Inherent in this statement is a key conceptual issue: a successful transformation process requires development of a new curriculum and learning approach that incorporates divergent (multicultural) professional dynamics.

One of the main issues in the rationale for this study was the opportunity to study the team approach processes adopted by DCLD consultants and academics drawn from the six colleges at Unisa. The university inherited by the new mega university in many ways promoted and defended the social and economic system of apartheid. As such, it was characterised by a number of problematic policies and practices which, if left unchanged, could seriously compromise the ability of the new university to achieve its major goals of reconstruction and development, nation building and national reconciliation, and community empowerment and democratic participation (National Plan on Higher Education (2001)). The systems of service provisioning that were developed under Apartheid were discriminatory and exclusionary, particularly towards black South Africans (the term black is used in this document to refer to members of the African, Indian and Coloured communities). It was concerned more with the application of rules and procedures than with the development of a culture and ethos of service.

Panel members of the Council for Higher Education (CHE 2010) interviewed a cross section of academics that seemed to be experiencing ODL as primarily systems and technology, managed in a top-down fashion, while they felt that there was not sufficient space to deal with issues pertaining to the disciplines. The Panel concluded that it was apparent, given the size of the institution and the complexity of most processes; academics often have no idea of what happens outside their own work sphere. The Panel found problems and even resistance among Unisa's staff. In order for Unisa to effectively address the need to produce quality ODL compliant curriculum and learning, stakeholders with divergent knowledge and skills need to forge sustainable partnerships. The study thereof sought to capture voices and experiences of academic lecturers and DCLD education consultants participating in teams engaged in ODL curriculum and learning development at Unisa. It was important that such diverse voices and experiences from diverse groups of academics are contextually captured and analysed in order to define rules of engagement, given the apartheid past practices and determine good practices for team approach.

The study frame was confined within the following specific objectives:

- 1.7.1** To explore discursive type (views and experiences) of multicultural academic lecturers and DCLD education consultants on an issue of a ‘team approach’ to curriculum and learning development discourse at Unisa and;
- 1.7.2** To determine how multicultural academics engage the Directorate of curriculum and learning development (DCLD) on processes of curriculum and learning development using a ‘team approach’ strategy at Unisa;
- 1.7.3** To analyse the text genres and discursive types that are outcomes of the process of production and interpretation of text such as policy Frameworks, books, policy documents etc.;
- 1.7.4** To determine the nature of discourses that emerge from the consultative interaction between DCLD and Colleges lecturers and understand how these (discourses) advance the operationalisation of the Framework.

1.8 THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Race remains a major determinant of graduation rates in South African higher education institutions. For both contact and ODL universities in almost all areas, the black student completion rate is less than half the white student completion rate. The figures are particularly bad for first generation students of whom only one in five graduated in regulation time (Department of Education Report 2006). The difficulties black students and first generation students have in completing their degrees on time have major implications for social mobility and the effectiveness of the education system at creating the equitable skills base that will be essential for overcoming the inequalities of apartheid (Department of Education Report 2006). Despite the significant increases in enrolment a number of challenges remain. Throughput rates have not improved as fast as enrolment rates. In order to improve the quality of instruction at universities, systems in place must be seen to be independent but inter-related. The study used the following two main questions to analyse the views and experiences of academic lecturers, the

Director and Educational Consultants from DCLD on issues of multicultural curricula and learning experience policy operationalization using the multiracial team approach principle:

1. What are the views and experiences of multicultural professional academic staff and DCLD education consultants on the practical operationalization of team approach model?
2. How do those views and experiences relate to the development of curricular and teaching and learning materials in line with the Unisa's Framework for the implementation of a team approach to curriculum and learning development at Unisa?

1.9 CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS (CDA) AS RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research adopted a qualitative approach framed by a critical and narrative research enquiry. It incorporated Van Dijk's (2009) critical discourse analysis (CDA) analytical lens to analyse narratives and discursive texts of multicultural lecturers and education consultants on how the Framework for implementation of team approach in curriculum design and learning development is operationalized at Unisa.

The connection between theory and discourse in CDA can be described in terms of the model for theoretical and methodological research procedures as illustrated in Figure 1.1

Empirical research as a circular approach: Van Dijk's (2009) Sociocognitive approach (SCA)

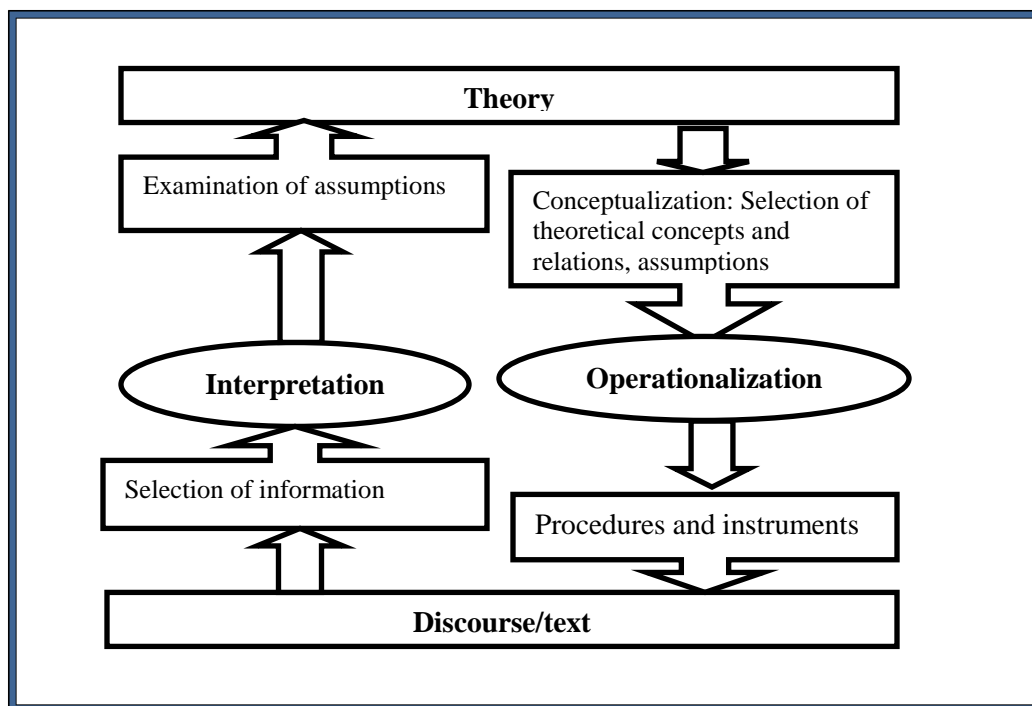


Figure 1.1 *Empirical research as a circular process. An adaptation of Van Dijk's (2009) CDA Model*

The figure illustrates the cyclical approach for doing CDA research. The cyclical CDA research starts from theory and proceed clockwise going through the following steps; selection of theoretical concepts; operationalization; procedures and instruments; discourse/text; selection of information; interpretation and ultimately the examination of assumptions.

Van Dijk's (2009) Sociocognitive Approach (SCA) theory serves as a framework systematizing phenomena of social reality. The approach is in the tradition of social representation theory (e.g. Moscovici 2000). Its focal triad is construed between discourse, cognition and society. Discourse is seen as a communicative event, including conversational interaction, written text, as well as associated gestures, face work, typographical layout, images and any other 'semiotic' or multi-media dimension of signification. Van Dijk (2009) relies on socio-cognitive theory-splints and understands linguistics in a broad "structural-functional" sense. He argues that CDA should be based on a sound theory of context. Within this claim, the theory of social representations plays a main part. Van Dijk (2009) proffers that social actors involved in discourse do not only use their

individual experiences and strategies, they rely mainly upon collective frames of perceptions, called social representations. These socially shared perceptions form the link between the social system and the individual cognitive system, and perform the translation, homogenization and coordination between external requirements and subjective experience. Social representations are bound to specific social groups and do not span society as a whole. They are dynamic constructs and subject to permanent change. Together, they constitute a hierarchical order of mutual dependency (Duveen & Lloyd 1990). These context models control the “pragmatic” part of discourse, whereas event models do so with the “semantic” part. Three forms of social representations are relevant to understand discourse:

- knowledge (personal, group, cultural)
- attitudes (not in the social psychology understanding)
- ideologies: Discourses take place within society, and can only be understood in the interplay of social situation, action, actor and societal structures (Duveen & Lloyd 1990).

In this study the academic lecturers and DLCD consultants were considered as social actors with diverse cultural capital. In order to understand the interactions of these social players, I employed thick descriptions and interviews with the respective participants. The thick descriptions and interviews, characteristic of critical narrative study research, not only served illuminative purposes but were also used to document lecturers’ and education consultants’ views on multicultural team approach. The interviewing process pulled together to create narratives that were used to better understand how team approach processes worked in multicultural ODL institutions.

1.10 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

I used five distinct data collecting instruments namely; semi-structured interviews, online blogging, observations, structured focus group and document analysis. However observations were made during the employment of the other four.

Strategy 1: Analysing views and experiences on team approach to ODL curriculum and learning development at Unisa

1.10.1 Structured interviews

Formal qualitative semi-structured interviewing methods were used. I used a tape recorder or Dictaphone to record observational data, by dictating the field into the recorder or Dictaphone. Initially there were seven (7) interview sessions; one for each sample of participants. This saved a great deal of time while increasing the comprehensiveness of the report.

1.10.2 Online blogging

Blogging is a mechanism for exchanging views and experiences. In the process I analysed by observing how such views and experiences were articulated by academic lecturers and DCLD personnel including the Director on the operationalization process using text in form of expressions. Establishing a blog was negotiated between ICT at Unisa and myself.

1.10.3 Observation

Observational research techniques solely involve the researcher or researchers making observations. There are many positive aspects of the observational research approach. Namely, observations are usually flexible and do not necessarily need to be structured around a hypothesis. I observed how discourses were crafted during blogging by participants namely; DCLD subject advisors and academic lecturers.

1.10.4 Focus Group

Van Dijk (2001, 87) observes, “Who is allowed or obliged to participate, and in what role, may be decided by the chairperson or by other powerful participants who control the interaction”.

Van Dijk (2001) gives an example of the effect of positioning and the presence of props of power, such as the robes of a judge and the uniform of a police officer. Oblivious of the power and effect of powerful actors in a communication event, I observed cues, body language, text used and facial expressions that might be indicative of where power lies during the four focus group sessions we held. I tape recorded the sessions and took down notes.

1.10.5 Document analysis

Luke (2002) posits that, “CDA involves a principled and transparent shunting back and forth between the microanalysis of texts using varied tools of linguistics, semiotic and literary analysis of social formations, institutions and power relations that these texts index and construct”. I explored Unisa policy documents, books, theses, dissertations and other related literature on policy operationalization.

Strategy 2: Understanding the dynamics of the implementation processes of team approach to curriculum and learning development in ODL at Unisa.

A series of consultative processes between and among DCLD subject advisors, academic lecturers and other related parties involved with the curriculum and development process from the six colleges were analysed as way of gaining an insight into how the processes complied with the Unisa Framework for the implementation of a team approach to curriculum and learning development. The same approach was used to purposively select participants from the six colleges.

In this strategy I also used semi-structured interviews, online blogs and observations.

1.11 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Qualitative data analysis involves “working with data, organizing it, breaking it into manageable units, synthesizing it, searching for patterns, discovering what is important and what is to be learned, and deciding what one will tell others” (Bogdan & Biklen 2003, 145). Qualitative researchers tend to use inductive analysis of data, meaning that the critical themes emerge out of

the data (Patton 2002, 454). The data analysis was carried out on artifacts (text messages) from an anonymous knowledge-sharing environment using CDA, where certain generic specific genres and discursive types (Roode, Speight, Pollock & Webber 2004) were identified by examining issues of power and domination. There was a subjective judgment when identifying these text genres and discursive types (see Table 2) and applying them to sections of text (Roode et al. 2004).

In the context of this study, neutrality discursive type refers to discourses that were not taking sides on a topic of discussion. Corporatism discursive type refers to discourses that imply collaboration; technological optimism refers to discourses that acknowledge the technology’s potentials. The pragmatism discursive type refers to discourse addressing practical issues. Legitimacy discourse discursive type refers to authoritative discourse, and technocracy discursive type refers to technocratic discourse. The text genres and discursive types are outcomes of the process of production and interpretation of text. It followed that an iterative analysis (moving from text to social action) of CDA (i.e., Description, Interpretation, and Explanation) would help unravel social practices embodied in text (See Table 1.1).

Table 1.1: Text genres (TG) and discursive types (TD) (adapted from Roode et al., 2004)

Text Genre (TG)	Discursive Type (DT)
Confidence	Neutrality
Factual Information	Corporation
Humour	Technological optimism
Persuasion	Pragmatism
Uncertainty	Legitimacy
	Technocracy

The data analysis was carried out on artefacts (text messages) from an online blogging platform using CDA, where certain generic specific genres and discursive types (Roode, Speight, Pollock & Webber 2004) are identified by examining issues of power and domination. In the context of this study, **neutrality discursive** type refers to discourses that are not taking sides on a topic of discussion. **Corporatism discursive** type refers to discourses that imply collaboration; **policy optimism** refers to discourses that acknowledge the policy’s potentials. The **pragmatism discursive** type refers to discourse addressing

practical issues. **Legitimacy discourse** discursive type refers to authoritative discourse, and technocracy discursive type refers to technocratic discourse.

1.12 LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS

The research findings were confined within Unisa as a mega ODL institute and do not by any means reflect what transpires in other conventional or ODL institutes in South Africa or elsewhere. Since this research project was scheduled to be completed within the timeframe of four years, this constrained the wider exploration of issues relating to the topic. The following are some of the limitations:

- Only a small sample at Unisa was included in the study.
- Other Directors, Deans and their deputies were left out and the other bulk of the academic lecturers.
- The study looked at how academic lecturers and DCLD personnel collectively engaged each other during the processes of curriculum design and development.

1.13 KEY OPERATIONAL CONCEPTS

In a research study the researcher needs to ensure that the reader understands what is meant by the terms and concepts that are used in the research. To ensure this any concepts or terms referred to, were clearly defined (Parahoo 2006, 26). The following operational or key concepts were used to help confine the research within the conceptual framework;

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| (i) Critical discourse analysis (CDA) | (ii) Critical theory |
| (iii) Policy implementation | (viii) Team approach |
| (v) Open and Distance Learning (ODL) | (vi) Reflexivity |
| (vii) Curriculum development | (viii) Multiculturalism |
| (ix) Unisa | (x) DCLD |

1.13.1 Definition of key operational concepts

(a) Critical discourse analysis (CDA)

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context. With such dissident research, critical discourse analysts take explicit position, and thus want to understand, expose, and ultimately resist social inequality (Van Dijk 2001)

(b) Critical theory

An on-going sociological examination of the ideas and influence of Karl Marx (1963), especially as they apply to the values and institutions of capitalist societies and to the role of an ideology designed to foster economic, political, and social change.

(c) Policy implementation

Policy implementation is the carrying out of a basic decision that addresses a problem, stipulates the objectives to be pursued, and structures an implementation process.

(d) Team approach

Refers to a group of skilled individuals responsible for providing a complete service within a large work environment of which all members are expected to know the jobs assigned to every person on the team (LaFasto & Larson 2001; Huszczo 1996).

(e) Open and Distance Learning (ODL)

The concept open and distance learning education represent approaches that focus on opening access to education and training provision, freeing learners from the constraints

of time and place, and offering flexible learning opportunities to individuals and groups of learners (UNESCO 2002, 1).

(f) Curriculum development

Curriculum development describes all the ways in which training or teaching organisation plans and guides learning. This learning can take place in groups or with individual learners. It can take place inside or outside a classroom. It can take place in an institutional setting like a school, college or training centre, or in a village or a field. It is central to the teaching and learning process (Rogers & Taylor 1998).

(g) DCLD (Directorate for Curriculum and Learning Development)

It is a dedicated directorate within Unisa's systemic structures that plays a consultative role with other academics in the designing and development of curriculum and related learning materials in line with ODL principles and practices.

(h) Unisa (University of South Africa)

A comprehensive dedicated Open and Distance Learning institute in South Africa.

(i) Multiculturalism

Multiculturalism as a philosophy in South African context usually consists of individual members of diverse origin with different cultures, values and identities, who have to work together in team structures, resulting in a scenario with the potential for conflict to escalate (Brett et al. 2006). A multicultural team at Unisa can aggregate employees of diverse cultural background to work together on a project and that can pose a challenge for conflict and cooperative management efforts.

(j) Reflexivity

Reflexivity involves reflecting on the way in which research is carried out and understanding how the process of doing research shapes its outcomes (Hardy et al. 2001).

1.14 CHAPTER SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The research project was intended to explore and analyse views and experiences of academic lecturers and DCLD Education consultants on consultative processes that happen between themselves on issues of curriculum and learning development in line with Tuition Policy (2005) and other legislative instruments at Unisa. The study sought to use Van Dijk (2009) critical discourse analysis (CDA) to explore key team approach discourses that could be used to better understand the processes of curriculum and learning development. Reflexive critical discourse analysis provided a useful analytical tool for analysing the complexities of the policy operationalization processes in multiracial engagements. In particular it surfaced key tensions within policy, such as those between commitments to reform and efficiency that may have a significant impact on the outcomes of subsequent policy implementation. The chapter contextualised the research problem, research question, and statement of purpose, rationale as well as the research methodology that was used. The study was divided into five chapters namely: Chapter One: Introduction of the research problem. Chapter Two: Literature review. Chapter Three: CDA as methodology. Chapter Four: CDA of document analysis, Chapter Five: CDA of data collected through instruments such as structured interviews, structured focus group, online blogging and observations and Chapter Six: Findings, discussions, recommendations and conclusions.

1.15 PROJECTION FOR THE NEXT CHAPTER

In line with my theoretical framework, the next chapter discusses related literature. The issues include ODL historical pedagogical perspectives and trends in the world, Asia and the Pacific, Africa in general, Sub-Saharan Africa, Southern Africa Community (SADC) and South Africa in

particular. The chapter also looks at multiculturalism theory and practice in collective partnerships as it relates to the operationalization of policy.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Multicultural education in South African is no longer a myth but a reality. Higher Education curricula imperatives thus entail a dual focus on who is included and excluded in the current system as well as how they are included and excluded. The crisis in quality provisioning of education to the majority of South Africans is well known (Fleisch 2008; Bloch 2009) and is high on the national agenda. A typical statement in respect of such curricula transformation dilemma would be the following randomly selected judgment by Jansen (2003, 29):

... (While) there has been a slow but inevitable deracialisation of former white institutions, principally in the distribution of students, higher education remains visibly marked by racially skewed staffing patterns, resource disparities, differential research productivity, gross differences in student pass and progression rates, and resilient symbols of dominance and traditions of exclusion. ...

A number of studies argue that universities are not producing enough black graduates with relevant qualifications for the labour market. Others point out that the labour market has discrimination problems of its own, most conspicuous in a deliberate refusal to employ graduates from historically black universities. There are a number of factors that might contribute towards poor thorough put rate. It is also highly possible that perhaps curricula still followed by some South African universities have become irrelevant and absolute in a multiracial society we find ourselves in. The study analysed how multiracial practitioners work in collective partnerships in developing open and distance learning (ODL) aligned curriculum and learning materials that speak to multiracial societies like South Africa. Gollnick and Chinn (2002) supports this view and are convinced that lecturers today are faced with an overwhelming challenge to prepare students from diverse cultural backgrounds to live in a rapidly changing society and a world in which some groups have greater societal benefits than others because of race, ethnicity, gender, class, language, religion, ability, or age. It could therefore be expected, that the universities are culturally diverse.

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter discusses reviewed literature as contextualised by the focus of multicultural education to developmental education underpinned by transformational agendas in post-colonial states. Open and distance learning (ODL) policy making is always a selective tradition, someone's selection, and some group's vision of legitimate knowledge. It follows therefore that the footprints of a dominant group maintains a mark that lingers on despite political and leadership changes. In post-colonial universities particularly in Africa and elsewhere, the dominant group that was in power before independence continue to influence policy articulation processes. More often than not, during independence societies would have become multiracial.

My research study was guided by my argument that policy articulation and implementation/operationalization in ODL multicultural transitional institutes need to deeply understand multicultural cultural dynamics, consult widely, horizontally and vertically, in order to craft policies and/or frameworks that are acceptable by the collective in such multicultural organisations. I further looked into epistemologies and ontologies of team approaches in relation to multiculturalism in organisations. Finally, I suggest that for "team approach" strategies to be effective in multicultural ODL transitional organisations, divergent views must be given space to breathe during the formation of teams more so by multiracial or interracial members of the communities of practices (COPs) particularly in post conflict windows.

2.3 LITERATURE REVIEW

An extensive body of literature exists on the systemic nature of ODL provision and the implications of changing elements of institutional subsystems on the whole system including policy operationalization (COL 2001, 2004; GDEnet, Rowntree 1992; Holmberg 1995; Moore & Kearsley 1996; Rumble 1997; Peters 1998; Perraton 2002).

On the other hand diversity and multiculturalism (or multicultural education) as often used interchangeably; have become central to developmental education. However numerous social science research studies provide evidence that admitting a diverse student body enhances

learning for all students (Astin 1993; Chang 1999; Gurin 2002; Maruyama, Nirebim, Gudeman, & Marin 2000). Research concentrate on multicultural students but little has been done on equipping multiracial facilitators with knowledge and skills to both cope in multiracial academia. More research initiatives are needed in multicultural collective partnerships in ODL. The literature reviewed looked at ODL andragogy (pedagogy) in countries in the West, Asia and the Pacific, Africa, Sub-Sahara Africa, Southern Africa Development Community and South Africa.

2.4 OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING CONTEXTUAL INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

According to Barr and Tagg (1995), universities are moving away from a faculty-centred and lecture-based paradigm to a model where learners are the focus; where faculty members become learning environment designers, and where students are taught critical thinking skills. There is noticeable change in the way conventional universities are conducting their businesses today. Some of these institutes are slowly introducing some form of distance education (DE) in order to reach out to prospective students from far flung geo-areas in the globe more so in South Africa post 1994. An important implication of this shift is the need for a recommitment to creating an ideal teaching and learning environment for students by employing new pedagogies and technologies, where appropriate. Fascinating as it may, one is therefore intrigued to understand this sudden policy change by these institutions in adapting their systems and practices in favour of ODL joining the ranks of Unisa and other open universities elsewhere in the global village and the impact it has on policy articulation and operationalization.

2.4.1 Brief Open and Distance Learning historical perspective

Distance education is not a new concept but can be traced as far back as the first century. Apostle Paul wrote to the early Christian churches, instructing them from a distance (even when he was under “house arrest” in Rome). This was probably the first type of “correspondence course”, which was the only method of learning at a distance until the advent of the telephone (Anon). Distance education has progressed through correspondence, sound and video signals (telephones, radio and television) and computer technology supported learning (Tatkovic & Ruzic 2006). But

commencing in the 19th century particularly in the United Kingdom during the era of Sir Isaac Pitman (1813–1897), interaction between student and lecturer on print shorthand courses was facilitated through the use of rudimentary postal services and possibly telephone. In the United States of America, Pennsylvania State University (Penn State), established its first distance learning network in 1886. Penn State used the state of the art technology of the day - U.S. Mail - to communicate with its distributed students (Moore 1996). In close scrutiny, this was a form of correspondence system of education slowly shaping up in that part of the globe. Students had to grapple with their studies at home or work places and submit assignments through the post for assessment. In the early 60s streaming through to the 1980s, motivated by the example of the UK Open University, governments around the world, began to see open and distance education as a vehicle for achieving accelerated national development goals, resulting in an improvement “in the qualifications of the workforce to operate in a new economic climate and improving access and equity for individuals who previously had been excluded from education beyond school” (Calvert 2005, 228).

There is evidence that indicates that those third world countries who soon after having freed themselves from the yoke of political bondage, were faced with a huge backlog of uneducated youth and adults and had to embrace distance education in order to fast track skills development (Ansari, 2001). At the same time they were expected to transform socio-economic and political disparities that existed at that time. The critical scarcity of qualified technocrats forced some African countries for example to look to accelerated kind of education, ODL was another alternate route. The massification of education was therefore necessary in order to accommodate as many deserving students as possible. Correspondence and distance education were the most accommodating educational approaches that reached out to a large number of potential students cost effectively. South Africa post 1994 experienced the same predicament that of skills shortage and the general demand for quality education until today. The University of South Africa (Unisa) started its own form of correspondence education as from 1946 but the acceleration of ODL gained momentum post 1994.

2.4.2 Open and Distance Learning definition in context

The terms “distance education” or “distance learning” have been applied interchangeably by many different researchers and other education practitioners to a great variety of programmes, providers, audiences, and media. Open and distance learning has to do with teaching and learning albeit at a distance. It involves the reciprocal construction of meanings from coded and non-coded information that a lecturer shares with the students. Open and distance learning uses the same theories of learning as those of conventional education institutions except that the placement of a student in ODL is at a distance and that of a conventional institute is on campus. ODL is variously defined from different perspectives by many different researchers.

Holmberg (1995, 161-165) views distance education as education which either does not imply the physical presence of the teacher appointed to dispense it in the place where it is received or in which the teacher is present only on occasion or for selected tasks. This is rather a loose definition and does not clearly specify the location of the receiver of tuition at a given time and space. Frankly speaking, ODL does not necessarily require spatial presence. Conventional systems can also deliver lectures using different blended methods and converge at lecture halls to further pursue tuition under consideration. With the availability of technology, tasks can be posted on the net for students to access without the teacher being present. Again this definition does not provide a clear position of the teacher when expected to be present for selected tasks. The differences between ODL and correspondence education are not clearly distinguishable. To give clarity Keegan (1990, 44) defines ODL to include:

- i) The influence of an educational organisation both in the planning and preparation of learning materials and the provision of student support services, (this distinguishes it from the private study and teach yourself programmes)
- ii) The use of technical media –print, audio, video or computer- to unite teacher and learner and carry the content of the course.
- iii) The provision of two-way communication so that the student may benefit from or even initiate dialogues (this distinguishes it from uses of technology in education) and

- iv) The quasi-permanent absence of the learning group throughout the length of the learning process so that people are usually taught as individuals and not as groups, with the possibility of occasional meeting for both didactic and socialisation purposes.

ODL institutions today operate as a coordinated system that communicates with a number of interconnected sub-systems that are designed to produce student centred material and services in order to maximise teaching and learning by using a variety of available technologies. Keegan (1990) closely looks at the desired functionality status quo of ODL in line with education theories and student centeredness. The point in italic (i) stresses the need for the inclusion of systems that support the learner or student. The author interestingly touches on the need to incorporate the use of available technology to unite the lecturer and student in line with the adaptive theory. Adaptive theory requires that institutions must endeavour to utilise available resources in the construction of knowledge. Education theorists such as Piaget, Skinner, and Brunner emphasize the need for occasional contact for both didactic and socialisation purposes and that it is positive for the cognitive and affective development of a learner. Keegan (1990) also indicates that there is room for a face-to-face opportunity for students to share experiences with their lecturers. One may further add that peer-to-peer engagement on academic discourse in locations of choice may be organised without being sanctioned by the ODL institute or lecturer for purposes of continuous learning.

Garrison and Shale (1990, 25) state, they wished to “avoid the restrictive trap of describing distance education based upon its existing forms and structures”. These were clear attempts to focus on the functionality basis of education first by placing the teaching and learning transaction at the core of distance education practice. This was also an attempt to break loose of the organizational assumptions of the industrial model.

The term open and distance learning (ODL) reflects both the fact that all or most of the teaching is conducted by someone removed in time and space from the learner, and that the mission aims to include greater dimensions of openness and flexibility, whether in terms of access, curriculum or other elements of structure (UNESCO 2002, 8).

The description of distance education as an industrialized form of teaching and learning was first made by Peters (1993) in his seminal work. The importance of his definition is now widely accepted and he highlighted the relevant characteristics of distance education as follows:

- the division of labour in the teaching process itself which allows a rationalisation of the elements of the teaching process;
- the use of technical equipment to ensure a product of constant quality in theoretically unlimited volumes;
- the application of organisational principles to cut down unnecessary effort on the part of those teaching and those learning;
- the use of technical media such as television and radio to replace teachers and cater for volume;
- the testing of the product, the teaching package, to eliminate mistakes and guarantee a standard;
- the monitoring of the teaching system by scientific methods to maintain quality and standards.

The author dwells extensively on the didactical paradigms of distance education. He deliberately separates distance education organisational structure from that one of didactical. The concept of industrialisation serves to illustrate similarities between what transpires in the production of goods and services in industrialized economies with what similarly should be happening with distance education didactical approaches. The bulleted points above serve to explain what typically happen in production sectors.

I somehow agree with Peters (1998) particularly on the suggestion that didactical processes in distance education can be compared to what transpires in the industrial sectors. Any institution that adopts distance education as their preferred approach to education, should seriously consider dividing it into dedicated units that handle different but inter-connected responsibilities. For example one unit can be responsible for management, the other for the production of interactive modules, the other one for distribution, the other one for evaluation and so on and so forth (division of labour). Failure by one unit to deliver might seriously hamper the functionality of the

entire system and that can have detrimental effects on the effective delivery of the service to the stakeholders.

Distance education is indeed a typical society (Peters 1993). This, he contends, not only applies to its inherent industrial principles and trends but also to the fact that distance education has been capable of meeting educational needs typical of an individualised economy and that it could attract and keep highly motivated students who wish to improve their vocational or professional status as well as their income.

What is common with Peters (1998); Garrison and Shale (1990); Keegan (1990); Holmberg (1995) and Taylor (2001) is that they all place the student outside the university campus. In other words education material packages are conveyed to the student by different blended delivery modes and students reciprocate by relaying responses interactively, in the form of answered units back to the source of delivery (campus). What is important to note here is the fact that the difference between correspondence and distance education is narrowing of the gap between student and campus in terms of striving to maintain contact with students through different blended approaches even to the extent of establishing ad hoc face-to-face contact. Open and distance learning (ODL) is therefore an education approach that combines the scholarly environment of a traditional university with that of an ODL institution that offers instruction, community and industrial response, open access, the use of designated advisory groups and work experience to students who are not physically on campus at any given time and space.

I might as well add that ODL is no longer for adult working individuals but the landscape is slowly changing. Some ODL institutions are now enrolling young post high school students who prefer to use the platform to further their education by taking advantage of the availability of digital technology. It is important to look at how teaching and learning began to unfold in ODL education environment. To begin with, I am inclined to explore learning theories below.

2.5 THE COMPLEXITY OF EDUCATION THEORIES IN ODL: FROM STRUCTURAL TO FUNCTIONAL GOOD PRACTICES

Training and continuing professional development of ODL functionaries are important for the success of this system. The search for ODL andragogy theory must continue so that practices thereof are underpinned by tried and tested methodologies. As the definitions above might suggest, theory concerns itself with understanding, explanation and prediction. ODL as an education phenomenon demands a standalone well-crafted understanding of what it is with its dynamics. The approach itself requires some definition and explanation so practitioners and participants in ODL understand the rationale behind the principles, systems and practices in place.

Holmberg (1995, 175-185) reiterates the need for theory by stating that,

One consequence of such understanding and explanation will be that hypotheses can be developed and submitted to falsification attempts. This will lead to insights telling us what in distance education is to be expected under what conditions and circumstances, thus paving the way for corroborated practical methodological application.

He goes on to define theory for distance education (Holmberg 2001, 11), as: “a series of hypotheses linked together logically to explain and calculate events and applications. These hypotheses are of the type ‘if A then B’, or ‘the greater A is, the greater/smaller B is’”.

He posits further (Holmberg 2001, 11) by stating that distance education has a special relationship with independent students since it has always been comprised of individual adults with jobs and commitments who prefer this kind of study because it can be done in their spare time. But with changing times due to socio-economic global influences, I might add here that it is no longer only the working class who want to pursue their studies in their spare time anymore but students are drawn from all other social groups in society. The implosion of the digital era has made it even more possible and comfortable for other social groups to study through open and distance learning (ODL) education.

Keegan (1995, 7) reaffirmed the continued need for a theory of distance education by stating that a firmly based theory of distance education is one that can provide the touchstone against which, “financial, educational, and social undertakings can be made with confidence..”

A general analysis of distance education, its philosophy and theory, theoreticians and researchers aim to locate and explore explanatory and interpretative theories based on true logical thoughts; which is to say they aim to explore theories which describe structured qualities of the world and which, with the help of certain initial preconditions, allow us to make conclusions that demand explanations. To understand distance education it is necessary to have a theoretical framework that encompasses this whole area of education. This also requires an insight into the history of distance education.

2.5.1 Theory of industrialization of teaching

After examining a research base that included an extensive analysis of the European distance teaching organizations of the 1960s, Peters (1998) proposed that distance education could be analysed by comparison with the industrial production of goods. Peters (1998) stated that from many points of view, conventional, oral, group-based education was a pre-industrial form of education, implying that distance teaching could not have existed before the industrial era. Based on economic and industrial theory, Peters (1998) proposed the following new categories (terminology) for the analysis of distance education; rationalization: the use of methodical measures to reduce the required amount of input of power, time, and money; division of labour: the division of a task into simpler components or subtasks; mechanization: the use of machines in a work process. Peters (1998) noted that distance education would be impossible without machines; assembly line: methods of work in which workers remain stationary while objects they are working on move past them. In traditional distance education programs, materials for both teacher and student are not the product of one individual; mass production: the production of goods in large quantities. Because demand outstrips supply at colleges and universities, there has been a trend toward large-scale operations; preparatory work: determining how workers, machines, and materials can usefully relate to each other during each phase of the production process. The success of distance education depends on a preparatory phase; planning: the system of decisions that determines an operation prior to its being carried out; organization: creating

general or permanent arrangements for purpose-oriented activity. Organization makes it possible for students to receive predetermined instructional units at appointed times; scientific control methods: methods by which work processes are analysed systematically, particularly by time studies, and in accordance with the results obtained from measurements and empirical data; formalization: the predetermination of the phases of the manufacturing process. In distance education, all the points in the cycle must be determined exactly; standardization: the limitations of manufacture to a restricted number of types of one product to make these more suitable for their purpose, cheaper to produce, and easier to replace; change of function: the change of the role or job of the worker in the production process. The original role of knowledge provider as lecturer is divided into those of study unit author and marker; objectification: the loss, in the production process, of the subjective element that had previously determined work to a considerable degree. In distance education most teaching functions are objectified; concentration and centralization: because of the large amount of capital required for mass production and the division of labour, there has been a movement toward large industrial concerns with a concentration of capital, a centralized administration, and a market that is monopolized.

Peters concludes that for distance teaching to be effective, the principle of division of labour is a critical element. In his theory of industrialization, the teaching process is gradually restructured through increased mechanization and automation.

Peters (1998) also noted the following; the development of distance study courses is just as important as the preparatory work that takes place prior to the production process; the effectiveness of the teaching process is particularly dependent on planning and organization.

- Courses must be formalized and expectations from students standardized.
- The teaching process is largely objectified.
- The function of academics teaching at a distance has changed considerably vis-a-vis university teachers in conventional teaching.
- Distance study can only be economical with a concentration of the available resources and a centralized administration.

According to Peters (1998, 20-23) when decisions about the process of teaching and learning are made, the industrial structures characteristic of distance teaching should be taken into account. It will appear that ODL has been an established approach in the provisioning of education for the time immemorial and is seriously systems driven. I would like to explore the trends of ODL in Asia and the Pacific.

2.6 TRENDS OF OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING (ODL) IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

In the 1970s and 1980s, many countries in the Asia and the Pacific (AP) region established at least one Open University at the national level to meet the social demand for education. Some countries such as Bangladesh established its own open university in the 1990s. With limited resources and the need to expand education rapidly, countries in the region saw ODL institutions as an alternative mode of delivery to widen access to education, to satisfy continuing educational needs of adults, to expand trained workforce, and/or to train teachers to improve quality of schooling.

Several studies (for example, Farrell, 2001; Jung, 2004; Lockwood & Gooley, 2001; OECD, 2004; UNESCO, 2003) have attempted to review current changes in ODL for higher education at the national or institutional level. These studies reveal that ODL institutions in a globalized context are still at the early stages of development. Asia has over seventy universities that are dedicated to open access to education, including seven out of eleven of the world's mega universities (universities with over one hundred thousand active students in degree-level courses) serving six million active students all together (Daniel, 1996). Quite a few distance teaching universities or programmes such as the Bangladeshi Open University, the Hanoi Open University, the Open University Malaysia, and the Open and Distance Learning Programme in Singapore, have been established since the 1990s and now provide tertiary level education to those seeking continuing education opportunities. Virtual universities are growing fast and, with over seventeen of such in Korea alone.

ODL in Asia and the Pacific (AP) region has many unique features. The most distinctive feature is huge student population in ODL institutions. For example, at least seven ODL institutions in the AP region are mega universities (universities with over one hundred thousand active students in degree-level courses). Allama Iqbal Open University (AIOU) (Pakistan), Anadolu (Turkey), China Central Radio and Television University (CCRTVU) (China), Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) (India), Korea National Open University (KNOU) (Korea), Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University (STOU) (Thailand), Universitas Terbuka (UT) (Indonesia), and Payame Noor University (PNU) (Iran) have more than five million active students all together as of 2004. Besides these well-known mega universities, quite a few distance teaching universities in the region have been established more recently and provided tertiary level education to those seeking continuing education opportunities. With two thirds of the global population, the AP region is known to have over five hundred million potential students for ODL institutions (Jegade & Shive 2001).

2.7 TRENDS OF OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING IN AFRICA

In Africa UNESCO was involved in the in-service training of all of Botswana's unqualified teachers in the late 1960s and 1970s. Open and distance learning has also been used in non-formal education and community development by national and international organizations. One early example is the pan- African INADES-Formation (African Institute for Economic and Social Development), established in 1962 in the Côte d'Ivoire, with national offices in ten countries (UNESCO, 1991). Correspondence education has been the main medium of instruction in the region, with radio also widely used. Radio transmitters reach over sixty per cent of the population whereas television coverage is usually confined to major towns. Interactive technologies have been of limited value in a region in which the availability of telephone lines is about five times lower than the average low-income country and where the telephones are concentrated in urban, relatively privileged, areas. Recent estimates for the number of personal computers in Africa put the average at about three per thousand people in 1996. Some of the wealthier countries such as Botswana, Mauritius and South Africa have higher levels of penetration, at least five per thousand. Internet access has grown rapidly, and while only eleven countries had local access in 1996, by April 1999, only the Republic of Congo (Brazzaville),

Eritrea and Somalia were still without local Internet service (Economic Commission for Africa, 2002). In the past it seems that open and distance learning has had a relatively low impact on education in the region. The main reasons concern not only lack of infrastructure, but also include underfunding, lack of training of those involved, as well as the fragmented institutional base which results in both duplication of programmes and insufficient concentration of the limited resources. The situation seems to have improved over the past five years, with evidence of growing commitment by African governments to the development of information communication technologies (ICTs) along with interest in the application of those technologies for distance education. Notable events in this regard were the 1996 Information Society and Development Conference, held in South Africa, and the Economic Commission for Africa's African Information Society Initiative (AIS). Other important initiatives in recent years include a task force on an African Distance Learning Programme (ADLP) convened for the Economic Commission for Africa's First African Development Forum; a UNESCO International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa (IICBA), inaugurated in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia in May 1999, with distance education as one of its priority areas; the UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning's (IIEP.s) transformation of its existing training courses into distance learning format including a course on teacher training and development.

Malawi has two dedicated distance education providers, one a private school and the other a department of the Ministry of Education, Sports and Culture. The University of Malawi has been exploring possibilities for offering distance education programmes, and the Domasi College of Education has taken the initiative to adopt distance learning as an approach to the training of teachers. The College has collaborated with the Commonwealth of Learning and is developing modules for this purpose. MIITEP, an in-service programme run by the Teacher Development Unit to train untrained and under qualified teachers, employs open and distance learning methods for delivery of the programme. In addition, the newly established Mzuzu University is also planning to offer teacher education courses through distance education. International providers, such as the Rapid Results College, also operate in Malawi. Distance education in Tanzania is organized through the Distance Education Association of Tanzania (DEATA), a national association established in December 1992. Its membership is currently made up of the Ministry of Education and Culture, the Open University of Tanzania, the University of Dar es Salaam, the

Vocational Education and Training Authority, the Muhimbili University College for Health Sciences, the Southern African Extension Unit, the Institute of Adult Education, and the Cooperative College Moshi. These organizations enrol over eighteen thousand students between them. In addition to more traditionally expected roles for open and distance learning (such as higher education or providing schooling to adults), there are various innovative applications of distance education. These include educating Burundian refugees, training local counsellors, and offering civic education.

In Zimbabwe, the Centre for Distance Education was established by the University of Zimbabwe in 1993 and in 1996 became the University College of Distance Education. The college received its university charter in 1999, and was transformed into a fully-fledged university known as the Zimbabwe Open University (ZOU). Among other things, the university's mission is to adapt, develop, and implement new courses and programmes to meet the needs of a changing knowledge base, employment sector, and socio-economic, political, and international environment. The University offers programmes leading to Bachelor's degrees in Education, Bachelor of Arts in English and Communication Studies, Bachelor of Science in Agriculture and an Undergraduate Diploma in Classroom Text and Discourse (DCTD).

In Africa, there is much to be gained from enhanced regional collaboration on policy issues, development of delivery systems and sharing of materials. There are now many initiatives to establish networking through national and regional associations in order to strengthen and improve capacities for open and distance learning in the region. Among projects that exemplify this collaborative approach are:

- Training of Upper Primary and Junior Secondary Science; Technology and Mathematics Teachers in Africa by Distance. This programme is supported by the Commonwealth of Learning and countries included are Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe;
- Training for primary school principals, using print materials and Internet, coordinated by CIFFAD, the International Francophone Consortium of Distance

and Open Learning Institutions. CIFFAD also has a project in Senegal, Guinea and the Côte di Voire to improve the teaching of French at the secondary level.

Some lessons acquired from the studies of open and distance learning in the African context has been summarized by the South African Institute for Distance Education (1999).

2.8 ODL CURRENT EFFORTS IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA AND SADC REGION

Africa Ministers' Conference on Open and Distance Learning which was hosted and convened by South Africa in Cape Town (2004) identified two major challenges to distance education in Africa. First, it was essential to manage access, quality, and cost in order to ensure affordability and learner success. Second, it was necessary to ensure quality in distance education provision. One key strategy recommended for tackling the first challenge was to encourage partnership and collaboration in design and development of programmes and courseware across African borders, as well as across institutions in use of under-used, decentralised facilities such as learning and ICT centres. ACDE has since taken up the initiative and currently putting together projects that can possibly be funded by the African Union (AU)

Southern African Development Community (SADC) through its secretariat ; (namely the Centre for Distance Education (SADC-CDE) currently based in Gaborone, Botswana) document (2006) sets itself imperatives that they hope to achieve in the promotion of Open and distance learning (ODL) systems which they hope will capacitate its regional inhabitants. Countries in this region have a long history in the use of distance education and educational technologies. There are many success stories in the Region, for example the Botswana College for Open and Distance Learning and the Namibian College of Open Learning, which have already demonstrated the potential for using distance education to expand access to schooling. Similarly, there is a long and notable history of use of Interactive Radio Instruction in Zambia, particularly to support primary education. The Region also boasts one of the oldest and largest distance education institutions in higher education, the University of South Africa (Unisa), and new open universities have been developed during the past twelve years in Southern Africa (Tanzania in East Africa and Zimbabwe in Southern Africa). The project will develop the capacity of

educational institutions within SADC to be able to design and implement better quality ODL programmes. The benefit of this is that it will ensure that money already being spent on ODL within the Region will lead to better quality programmes and thus an improved return on investment.

2.9 THE CRITICAL OVERVIEW OF THE STATUS OF SOME AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES

Certain specific criticalities about Africa's provisioning of education need to be visited in order to learn from their principles and practices. One critical area of assessment was to look at the quality of performance on their ODL delivery systems. The quality of performance of African universities can, according to Sawyerr (2002), be assessed through the use of indirect indicators such as:

- the calibre and commitment of the teaching and research staff;
- the range and quality of the curriculum and pedagogy; and
- the quality and extent of educational facilities, including the means of accessing traditional as well as world-wide knowledge.

In his book 'Educate or Perish' Ki-Zerbo (1990) presented an urgent call to educators in Africa to set immediately to the task of designing an education that is of Africa and for Africa. He acknowledged the importance of Africa's returning to her roots, to restore the culture and true independence of Africa. It is not possible to solve the problems of Education for All without a national pool of expertise and an indigenous capacity for research (Damiba 1991, 11). Nyerere (1968, 52) contends, 'accept the values appropriate to our kind of future, not those of our colonial past' 'This means that the educational system of Tanzania must emphasise co-operative endeavour, not individual advancement' (Nyerere 1968, 52). Aklilu Habte, the former Vice Chancellor of the University of Addis Ababa stated that:

The truly African university must be one that draws its inspiration from its environment, not a transplanted tree, but one growing from a seed that is planted and nurtured in the African soil (quoted in Karani 1998).

I agree with Obanya (1999), Wiredu (1984) and Mazrui (1987) that African researchers need to develop national policies of higher education and develop academic fields from African roots. However, given the poor economic conditions of most of African countries, the majority of African universities' are poorly subsidised hence are compelled by unfavourable circumstances to commodify certain popular programmes at the expense of indigenous curricular perspectives or will be forced to compromise on quality (Nyerere 1968). African universities compete with other social demands such as primary health, security, infrastructural development to name but a few. African governments expect universities to generate income over and above the subsidy they receive from state grants. Universities need to implant their own footprints particularly in African curriculum development and management paradigms in order to compete as equals with their counterparts in the education globe. In order for Unisa to cater for multicultural identities in the postcolonial/post-apartheid university, it must strive to articulate policies that offer the previously disadvantaged intellectuals space to influence curricula content that speak to the African people. African universities must also learn to receive grants sourced from elsewhere on their own terms rather than the other way round.

2.10 THE IMPACT OF ODL AS A PREFERRED MODE OF TEACHING AND LEARNING IN SOUTH AFRICA

Evidence of increasing internationalization is generally manifest in a significant increase in the cross-border activities of higher education institutions. Cross-border higher education is partly influenced by the growing worldwide demand for higher education and is characterized by increased mobility of students, courses and programmes and increased mobility of institutions across national borders.

According to South Africa's Council on Higher Education from 1995 to 1999 as a result of the growth of new dual mode institutions such as University of Pretoria, University of Johannesburg

and insignificant others, enrolment in the long-established single mode institutions (University of South Africa & Technikon SA) dropped by forty thousand students, or twenty one per cent. These drew thirty one per cent new distance students, an increase of one hundred and eleven per cent, according to the Council. Most of those students were school teachers trying to upgrade their qualifications in pursuit of promotion and salary increases. At the University of Pretoria there are now thirty thousand distance learners, with about twenty five thousand studying for a further diploma in education management, taught through open and distance learning. University of Johannesburg had more than seven thousand students registered for distance courses and about thirteen thousand students in traditional instruction. Post 1994 the education landscape was set to transform in line with the Constitutional imperatives and its subordinate law, The Education Act, 101 of 1997.

2.11 UNISA'S CONCEPTUAL VIEW OF ODL

ODL is described as follows in Unisa's ODL Policy (2008, 2), "ODL is a multi-dimensional concept aimed at bridging the time, geographical, economic, social, educational and communication distance between student and institution, student and academics, student and courseware and student and peers". Open and distance learning focuses on removing barriers to access learning, flexibility of learning provision, student-centeredness, supporting students and constructing learning programmes with the expectation that students can succeed. The operationalization of ODL policy and its subordinate frameworks in multicultural environment presents its own unique challenges. At Unisa for example experts with knowledge and skills in curriculum and learning development come from a deeply fragmented society under apartheid and still dominate the processes by influencing the kind of curricula and learning development to follow. It will be interesting to ascertain how many among such experts are knowledgeable about multiracial perspectives that can be included in curriculum and learning development in line with Africanisation philosophy. It will be wrong to believe that the operationalization of policies in a multicultural university like Unisa will be like any 'normal' university's expectations. Different groups of people have different tastes, fears, political persuasions, guilty consciousness, and uncertainties to deal with in multiracial challenges. No amount of organisational pressure, policies or legislative instruments designed to address the growing pains associated with trying

to implement the ODL Policy in the current Unisa climate will make different multicultural groups appreciate the need to work together but the onus must lie with individuals themselves by agreeing to chart their way forward as a collective.

2.12 COMMUNITIES OF PRACTICE (COPS) IN MULTICULTURAL COMMUNITIES (TCS)

The term “community of practice” (CoP) was coined by Wenger and Lave in the early 1990s to describe “a group of people who share a concern, a set of problems or a passion about a topic, and who deepen their knowledge and expertise by interacting on an on-going basis” (Wenger, McDermott & Synder 2002). CoPs are characterized by mutual learning, shared practice and joint exploration of ideas.

Because CoPs are characterised by a community, a bound group of people, they can create trusted relationships for the exchange and practice of ideas. At their best, CoPs are naturally self-incentivising. Members tend to stay involved and invested in CoPs because of the inherent rewards of social learning and collaboration. This also means that many CoPs emerge naturally from existing relationships and allegiances. CoPs can provide a social container for linking and learning between practitioners, knowledge producers and policy processes to analyse address and explore solutions to problems. It is about the making sense of and the interpretation of knowledge within the members’ specific contexts. The third application is involving policy makers in the process of generating knowledge. The domains of research and policy making are by no means distinct – they are often criss-crossed by complex social networks. In this context, the strategies that will make an impact are those that recognise and build upon these relationships creating discourse coalitions.

Due to they focus on relationships, areas of shared interest and how that interest manifests in practice, CoPs are one way to bridge knowledge, policy and practice (Hearn & White 2009)

2.13 CONTROL OF INTERNAL POLITICS

Controlling politics is critical to team decision making because internal politics produce poor team performance and jeopardize organizational effectiveness. Politics consume team members' time. Politics distract team members and dissipate their energy. Strategic team members are busy people, and politics draw them away from their responsibilities. Another reason politics lead to poor performance is that they restrict information flow within the team. Politics entice team members to withhold information from one another in order to “jockey for position”.

Strategic decision making is inherently political. It involves complex issues with high stakes, conflicting viewpoints, and uncertain outcomes. However, not all joint/interagency teams engage in politics. In the Cuban missile crisis, President Kennedy's advisory team relied on open and forthright discussion with full access to information in group meetings. Although there was substantial conflict within the team, there was little evidence of politics. Internal politics are defined as tactics and covert ploys team members use to enhance their power to influence decisions. These actions include off-line lobbying, withholding or manipulating information, controlling agendas, or behind-the-scenes coalition building. In contrast, a lack of internal politics within teams is demonstrated by open and frank discussions, with a full sharing of information, and in meetings open to all team members.

The team leader is responsible for controlling internal politics. The first and perhaps most important step for reducing politics that results from conflicting aims or purposes is to understand that information hiding, deception, and games are part of organizational life. Techniques for controlling internal politics include:

- Conduct open and frank discussions.
- Fully share information.
- Make meetings open to all members.
- Avoid micro-management.
- Empower team members.

My intention was to assess the influence of internal politics in the power struggle between academics and DCLD education consultants. One of the factors that I explored such as the apartheid legacy was clearly playing out differently for black and white team members respectively. The “us and them” dichotomy clearly showed in every data collection session. Under such racially polarised environment, finding solutions is nearly impossible and constructive partnerships are also difficult to establish.

2.14 CRITICAL RACE THEORY (CRT) IN EDUCATION POLICY ARTICULATION

As several studies have shown, over the last half-century issues of racism, ‘race relations’ and ‘race’ equity have featured differently in education policy. From early post-war ignorance and neglect (Lynch 1972), through periods of overt assimilationist and integrationist policies (Tomlinson, 1977; Mullard 1982), it has been clear that, although the particular measures meant to address ethnic diversity have changed from time to time. One constant feature has been a place on the margins of education policy. They argue that critical race theory (CRT) provides a powerful tool to understand how the subordination and marginalization of people of colour is created and maintained in the United States. CRT observably draws from a broad literature base in law, sociology, and history. Thus is being extended in areas such as education (Ladson-Billings, 1996; Ladson- Billings & Tate 1995; Solórzano 1997, 1998; Tate 1997) and women’s studies (Wing 1996). Indeed, for the purposes of my study, I specifically introduce some of the tenets of CRT to the discussion on multiracial team formations in education provisioning in South Africa. CRT represents a paradigm shift in discourse about race and racism in multicultural education.

CRT consists of basic insights; perspectives, methods, and pedagogies that seek to identify, analyse, and transform those structural and cultural aspects of team formation that maintain subordinate and dominant racial positions in and out of the multiracial groups (Matsuda, Lawrence, Delgado & Crenshaw 1993; Tierney 1993). CRT in policy implementation has at least the following five elements that form its basic model: (a) the centrality of race and racism and their inter-sectionality with other forms of subordination, (b) the challenge to dominant ideology, (c) the commitment to social justice, (d) the centrality of experiential knowledge, and (e) a trans-

disciplinary perspective (Solórzano, 1997, 1998; Solórzano & Delgado (1993), in press; Solórzano & Yosso 2001, 2002). The use of CRT as a powerful tool that provides an understanding of how the subordination and marginalisation of people of colour in the United States can equally be used by post conflict countries like South Africa to establish multiracial communities of practice (CoPs) that can work as a collective to design and develop curricular that appeal to epistemic African perspectives. South Africa for example has a plethora of legislative instruments that are promulgated precisely to redress previous injustices referred to in the Constitution, Higher Education Act 1997, (Act 101 of 1997) and Employment Equity 1998 (Act 58 of 1998) based on race, gender, class and ethnicity. But good exercise of rationale, reason and “decolonization of mind” should prevail at all times in order to avoid alienation of the “conquered race”. The metaphor “decolonization of mind” as coined by Chinweizu (1987) can be inferred to mean the riddance of the psychological colonial implants that were meant to subjugate the African mind and make him subservient to the master. Decolonization, if it is to be successful as a reaction against such a deep, powerful, and long lasting colonization of the mind, cannot but be itself as radical as its opponent. It must, therefore, eradicate not only its surface manifestations and the concomitant ‘colonial system’, but its epistemic roots as well (Chinweizu 1987). “The central objective in decolonizing the African mind is to overthrow the authority which alien traditions exercise over the African” (Chinweizu 1987). Of course the achievement of this aim also requires action in other areas of life, as the motto further stresses. Hotep and Hotep (2008) assert, “This demands the dismantling of white supremacist beliefs and the structures which uphold them, in every area of African life”. In the African institutions of higher education context, decolonization of mind can be achieved by embedding in their curricular perspectives that foster African socio-cultural and political practices.

2.15 CULTURE AND ETHNICITY IN TRANSITIONAL INSTITUTIONS

“Culture” is defined as the belief systems and value orientations that influence customs, norms, practices, and social institutions, including psychological processes (language, care taking practices, media, educational systems) and organizations (media, educational systems; Fiske, Kitayama, Markus & Nisbett 1998). Inherent in this definition is the acknowledgement that all individuals are cultural beings and have a cultural, ethnic, and racial heritage. Culture has been

described as the embodiment of a worldview through learned and transmitted beliefs, values, and practices, including religious and spiritual traditions (Fiske et al. 1993). It also encompasses a way of living informed by the historical, economic, ecological, and political forces on a group.

Ethnicity is an inherent characteristic of humanity. Thus any grouping of humans includes some ethnic component. However, there are groupings of humans that do not in themselves constitute ethnicity (are not sufficiently integrative as to be primary factors in group self-identity). Unions, office workgroups, sports teams, and other social groups do not constitute ethnicity. Yet every individual has ethnicity. It is a matter of discovering and defining it. Such interests and activities may be components of ethnicity. The rural-urban migration stream has been shown highly responsive to change. It is in such situations that individuals and families sometimes coalesce into new ethnic identities (people groups). The same can be said of employees emerging from divergent socio-economic and political persuasions. In this study, I argued that culture is an important factor in how people interact and how they learn. I further argue that it is important to acknowledge the diversity that makes up Unisa and embrace it in order to create a healthy environment for team work where everyone has a voice.

2.16 MULTICULTURALISM AND DIVERSITY.

Multiculturalism, as a systematic and comprehensive response to cultural and ethnic diversity, with educational, linguistic, economic and social components and specific institutional mechanisms, has been adopted by a few countries, notably Australia, Canada and Sweden.

The terms “multiculturalism” and “diversity” have been used interchangeably to include aspects of identity stemming from gender, sexual orientation, disability, socioeconomic status, or age. Multiculturalism, in an absolute sense, recognizes the broad scope of dimensions of race, ethnicity, language, sexual orientation, gender, age, disability, class status, education, religious/spiritual orientation, and other cultural dimensions.

The philosophy behind the transformative change was based on the notion that teaching and learning practices had to be re-aligned in order to comply with ODL principles and practices. Guba & Lincoln (2003; 2005) emphasise the need to involve stakeholders in an empowering

evaluation and ... not [to] exclude them if they seem to have “insufficient knowledge or sophistication”. This can be achieved through interaction where common social constructs, ideas and concepts are generated that shape the thinking and operation, and ultimately effectively function as a collective in ODL-driven working environments (epistemology).

Since the merger in 2004 much has happened. Epistemological and ontological discourses took place regarding the best practices dispensations in policy-making in open and distance learning (ODL) in the new Unisa’s six colleges. As an indication that change is indeed taking place, ODL information bill boards abound on Unisa’s main campus, reminding everyone that ODL practices are playing a critical role in the education and learning transformation process.

2.17 MULTICULTURAL CURRICULA TRANSFORMATION AND REFORM

Historically speaking, multicultural education emerged during the civil rights movement of the 1960s and 1970s. Although multicultural education is an outgrowth of the ethnic studies movement of the 1960s, it has deep historical roots in the African-American ethnic studies movement that emerged in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century. Multicultural education is an idea, an educational reform movement, and a process (Banks 2004). As an idea, multicultural education seeks to create equal educational opportunities for all students, including those from different racial, ethnic, and social-class groups. Equity pedagogy exists when lecturers modify their teaching and learning methodologies in ways that facilitate the academic achievement of students from diverse racial, cultural, and social-class groups (Banks & Banks, 2004).

Multicultural education is designed to develop citizens in democratic society-by considering the needs of all students. It makes explicit how issues of race, ethnicity, culture, language, religion, gender, and abilities/disabilities are intertwined with educational process, content and context. The concept of the Africanisation of curricula is an attempt to infuse a variety of perspectives, discussions of social contexts, including views of equity and justice and to engender critical thinking and the development of self-awareness. This goal will be accomplished by cultivating

in students attitudes, values, habits, and skills so that they can become social change agents who are committed to reforming society in order to eradicate ethnic and racial disparities in opportunities and are willing to act upon this commitment.

2.18 MULTICULTURAL CONSTITUTIONAL IMPERATIVES IN EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

South African stereotypes are no simple black-and-white matter. Historically, the nation was made up of a number of widely different cultural groups that under normal circumstances might have amalgamated into a singular hybrid called “the South African”. But the deeply divisive policy of apartheid only further entrenched initial differences, and while “affirmative action” policies, still in place for more than fifteen years after the dismantling of apartheid, were intended to redress the imbalance, they have ironically further highlighted the importance of race. Broadly speaking, approximately 76% of some 38 million people are black, 12.8% are white, 2.6% are Asian, and 8.5% are ‘coloured’ (the apartheid term for those of mixed descent) (Statistic South Africa 2000). Beyond these are smaller but no less significant groups, descendants of Lebanese, Italian, Portuguese, Hungarian, and Greek settlers, as well as the estimated 130,000-strong Jewish community. South Africa prefers the use of “cultural diversity” instead of multiculturalism as is the case with some former British colonies.

2.19 POWER AND POWER RELATIONS DISCOURSES

Michel Foucault's (1972) genealogy and social criticism and analysis of the uses of discourse to exercise power (such as his analysis of how knowledge is created in our societies and with what purpose or effect) provided the framework for the research. Foucault (1972) sought to show how the development of knowledge was intertwined with the mechanisms of (political) power. Unlike Marx (1963), Foucault (1972) had no underlying belief in a deep underlying truth or structure: there was no objective viewpoint from which one could analyse discourse or society. Foucault focused on the way that knowledge and the increase of the power of the state over the individual has developed in the modern era.

The words of those in power are conceived as “self-evident truths” and the words of those that are not in power are dismissed as irrelevant, inappropriate, or without substance (van Dijk 2000). One of the central attributes of dominant discourse is its power to interpret conditions, issues, and events in favour of the elite. The discourse of the marginalised is seen as a threat to the propaganda efforts of the elite. It is for this reason that curriculum developers must engage in critical discourse analysis—to make the voices of the marginalised foot soldiers (curriculum developers) heard and to take the voice of those in power into question to reveal hidden agendas and motives that serve self-interests, maintain superiority, and ensure others’ subjugation (Henry & Tator 2002). Discourse refers to expressing oneself using words. Discourses are ubiquitous ways of knowing, valuing, and experiencing the world. Discourses can be used for an assertion of power and knowledge, and they can be used for resistance and critique.

Discourses are used in everyday contexts for building power and knowledge, for regulation and normalisation, for the development of new knowledge and power relations, and for hegemony (excess influence or authority of one nation over another). It tries to illuminate ways in which the dominant forces in a society construct versions of reality that favour their interests. By unmasking such practices, the research was aimed at supporting curriculum and learning developers and encouraging them to craft their own best practice framework (Foucault 2000). Discourse always involves power and ideologies, is connected to the past and the current context (is historical), and can be interpreted differently by people because they have different backgrounds, knowledge, and power positions—therefore, the “right” interpretation does not exist whereas a more or less plausible or adequate interpretation is likely (Fairclough 2003; Wodak & Ludwig 1999). The research focused on body language, utterances, symbols, visual images, and other forms of semiotics (signs and symbols) as a means of discourse (Fairclough 2003).

Discourse analysis does not provide a tangible answer to problems based on scientific research, but it enables access to the ontological and epistemological assumptions behind a project, a policy, a statement, a method of research, or - to provide an example from the field of policy development - a statement of intent. In other words, discourse analysis will help to reveal the

hidden motivations behind a text or behind the choice of a particular method of research to interpret that text.

2.20 WHAT IS POLICY?

Menou (1991, 50) defines a policy as “a set of principles which guide a regular course of action” and lists the following components:

- an image of the desired state of affairs, as a goal or set of goals, which are to be achieved or pursued;
- specific means by which the realisation of the goals is to be brought about;
- the assessment of responsibilities for implementing the means;
- a set of rules or guidelines regulating the implementation of the means.

However, policy as a statement of intent contextually can be crafted in the form of symbols, text or discourse by any given organisation. Recent approaches to policy analysis in education have been influenced more generally by discourse theory perspectives (Ball 1990; Yeatman 1990; Taylor 1997; Taylor, Rizvi, Lingard & Henry 1997). Viewed from that angle, policy making is seen as an arena of struggle over meaning, or as “the politics of discourse”(Yeatman 1990), and policies are seen as the outcomes of struggles “between contenders of competing objectives, where language - or more specifically discourse - is used tactically” (Fulcher 1989, 7). This kind of approach has been valuable in illuminating the politics of discourse in policy arenas and in exploring the relationship between policy texts and their historical, political, social and cultural contexts. The power to articulate policy focuses on how social relations, identity, knowledge and power are constructed through written and spoken texts in communities.

2.21 POLICY AS SUBORDINATE TO LAW

It is important to understand the difference between a policy and a law. A policy outlines what an organisation hopes to achieve and the methods and principles it will use to achieve them. It states the goals of the organisation. A policy document is not a law but it will often identify new laws needed to achieve its goals. Laws set out standards, procedures and principles that must be

followed. If a law is not followed, those responsible for breaking them can be prosecuted in court. So, policy sets out the goals and planned activities of an organisation but it may be necessary to pass a law to enable an organisation to put in place the necessary institutional and legal frameworks to achieve their aims.

2.22 THEORETICAL MODELS OF PUBLIC POLICYMAKING

The “Policy Process Theory” just described is a good model to describe public policymaking, but it has little explanatory power. In other words, you cannot make predictions from this model. It simply states that a policy first begins on an agenda; it is then formulated, adopted, implemented and evaluated. But it has no theoretical framework to allow one to predict how a policy ends up on the agenda, or if a policy will be adopted. The “Political Systems Theory” is another descriptive model which treats the government like an organism which responds to inputs and stimuli and creates outputs. The inputs are demands and support. These go through a filter, enter the government system and are processed into public policy and then the results feedback as an input. This theory does contain a few prediction capabilities from the fact that this model implies that the purpose of government is to survive. Yet it treats government like a box, which simply processes inputs neutrally, implying that all of the important decisions and bargaining happen outside of government in the environment. Thus, the “Policy Process Theory” is a much better descriptive model of how policymaking occurs. There are a few models which have much better explanatory power, and allow for much more prediction. Yet they all have their flaws, and must be used carefully when used to make predictions.

“Group theory” (pluralists) assumes the following is true for public policymaking:

- most demands and supports for policy are manifest through organized groups;
- no single group can monopolize power;
- the most influential group will be decided by the amount of competition and the qualities of the competing groups;
- policy results from compromise;
- political actors are objective referees who state which group won.

However, this theory overstates the importance of groups and ignores the role that public officials play in policymaking. Some policies are made by judges (with no dominant group winning), and the President has great influence over what policy areas are given attention. Additionally, not all interests are represented by groups and a few groups do monopolize the influence over some policy areas (for example, the American Medical Association). Thus, many of the premises of “Group Theory” can be challenged, yet the model does focus attention on the importance of interest groups in the policy process. It also allows for predicting policy outcomes by evaluating the groups involved. For example, if a policy on the agenda is supported by a well-organized, well-lead interest group with little competition, this theory says that that policy has a good chance of being approved. Another explanatory theory is the “Elite Theory” which says that society is stratified with the masses at the bottom and ruling-class elite at the top. These elites are the rich and well-educated, who share common beliefs and use their influence to dictate public policies. The most serious flaw in this theory is that no such ruling-class can be identified. Yet, if this class could be found, then any policy which went against this class could be predicted to fail.

Rational-choice theory argues that policymakers pursue their own self-interest instead of any national-interest. They also vote based upon their own goals instead of for any other reason. Anderson gives the example of a politician who will approve of an agency which will trouble his constituents so that he can help them out and get re-elected. This model alerts us to the importance of self-interest in policymaking.

The principal-agent theory was originally used to show the relationship between management (the principal) and labour (the agent). This theory can also be applied to political situations. This theory rests upon a number of assumptions:

- there is a conflict of interests;
- there is unobservable behaviour;
- there is a ‘moral hazard’ (loopholes in contracts), and ‘adverse selection’ (some workers will cheat and be incompetent);
- cheating and deception are everywhere.

By comparing the ultimate goals of those involved in a policy-making process, we can immediately see where the conflict is going to occur. The problem with this theory is that it is overly pessimistic - not all policies are confrontational in nature. The next three models discussed are really decision-making models instead of public policy models, but the two activities are closely related. The three models are the rational-comprehensive theory, the incremental theory, and mixed scanning.

The rational-comprehensive theory is a very well thought-out, step-by-step map to making good public policy decisions. The steps involved in this theory are:

- identify the problem and define it;
- decide on the goals to be reached to solve the problem;
- identify all of the alternatives to reaching this goal;
- evaluate the consequences of each of the alternatives;
- compare the alternatives and their consequences and choose the one which best reaches the goal with the least adverse consequences.

As logical as the model sounds, it, too, has many problems. First, it assumes that there is a best way to solve a problem and that decision makers are able to define the problem. It also assumes that the goals of the policy are clear before it is implemented, though, when you cannot define the problem, it's hard to set goals to reach the resolution of the problem. This model also assumes that the policymakers can foresee the consequences of all the alternatives. And finally, this model ignores the politics of policymaking, and the sunk costs from prior policy implementation. Yet, despite these shortfalls, this model has the positive feature of focusing on goals in policymaking. The near opposite of the rational-comprehensive theory is the incremental theory. Many political scientists take issue with incrementalism pointing out that it is not the way a government should be run. Yet, it is still highly touted as the way that officials actually do make decisions. This theory makes the opposite assumptions of the rational-comprehensive theory. Incrementalism assumes:

- the goals are unclear;
- the problem, goals and implementation are intertwined and will evolve;

- alternatives and goals are formed as learned;
- policymakers are not free to choose the best alternatives because they must consider the feasibility and acceptability of possible policies.

This model basically means that instead of jumping straight to a goal, as the rational-comprehensive theory suggests, that one take tiny steps toward a goal until the goal becomes clearer. But one of the harshest criticisms of this model is that it does not allow movement toward a goal. Goal setting is really nowhere to be found, just small changes from year to year. Each of these models would answer the question, “who is in control?”, differently. The group theorist would say that groups control; the elite theorists would say that there is some group of elites at the top of the hierarchy pulling the strings; the rational-choice theorists would say that the politicians are ruled by their own self-interests. When it comes to which of these public policy models is closest to what empirically is happening, I would have to say that the theory of incrementalism is the most accurate picture of reality. This is especially evident when we look at the bureaucracy. Giant policy changes are rarely seen in the typical agency, but the policies change often a little bit at a time. Implementation of a controversial policy is also often broken into tiny steps to ‘soften the blow’ (e.g. the way minimum wage was raised a little each year). Even legislation of policy seems to be incremental, with the bill going from one committee to another, taking one more step towards authorization.

As far as normatively which model should be the model used, I would have to say that some combination of the rational-comprehensive and incremental model should be used. When these two models are combined, you end up with the Mixed Scanning model of decision making. Mixed scanning permits decision-makers to utilize both the rational-comprehensive and incremental theories in different situations, it is a kind of ‘compromise’ approach. The implementation is incremental for a while, but once enough information is acquired about how the policy could cause problems and whether it is feasible to continue, the agency involved should jump right to the goal. The agency could switch between incremental and rational approaches based upon the nature of the decisions to be made.

What people need is “flexible stability”. You cannot have a nation run by a government that makes huge jumps from A to point B (rational-comprehensive model), it should only take such

actions in time of crisis. Yet the government cannot be so stable that it does not respond to demands for change. Current public policy is static, freezing in time the political culture of the time the policy was made; as the culture changes, the policy should evolve. Yet, a pure incremental model does not seem to strive for a goal - the goal changes as the policy is implemented. In other words, the incremental method of policymaking does not strive to reach any goal. The incremental model needs to be modified to allow for searching for alternatives and striving for goals. If an altered incremental model (similar to the mixed scanning model) could be implemented, it should be the model to pattern government after.

2.23 ETHOS OR CULTURE OF POLICY IMPLEMENTERS

Ethos is the characteristic spirit of a culture, era, community, institution etc., as manifested in its attitudes, aspirations, customs etc.; the character of an individual as represented by his or her values and beliefs; the prevalent tone of a literary work in this respect. In fact, implementation involves trade-offs, compromises and operating with often poor or no communication.’ to understanding the policy in practice – on condition that they experienced a general sense of power, helpfulness and self-efficacy (Enderlin-Lampe 2002).

2.24 THE MEANING OF POLICY IMPLEMENTATION

Although the United States of America (USA) and Western Europe have passed through different phases of policy implementation research, South Africa is currently in the midst of the implementation era. Scholars, like Pressman and Wildavsky (1973) already started in the sixties and the seventies with implementation research; however, a common theory is still lacking. There is still some confusion regarding the beginning of implementation, when it ends, and how many types of implementation there are. Implementation, according to Pressman and Wildavsky (1973, xiii-xv), “means just what Webster [dictionary] and Roget [thesaurus] say it does: to carry out, accomplish, fulfil, produce, complete”. According to their seminal book on the subject: “Policies imply theories... Policies become programs when, by authoritative action, the initial conditions are created... Implementation, then, is the ability to forge subsequent links in the causal chain so as to obtain the desired result”. A more specific definition is provided by Van

Meter and Van Horn (1974, 447-8): “Policy implementation encompasses those actions by public or private individuals (or groups) that are directed at the achievement of objectives set forth in prior policy decisions”. They make a clear distinction between the interrelated concepts of implementation, performance, impact and stress.

2.25 POLICY CONCEPTUALIZATION PROCESS OF TEAM APPROACH

Katzenbach and Smith (1993) view a team as a, “small number of people with complementary skills who are committed to a common purpose, performance goals and approach for which they hold themselves mutually accountable”. Open and distance learning institutions are organisations established to translate their visions into programmes and actions to deliver “outcomes”. In such systems, there exist sub-systems designed to support complex but inter-dependent roles designed to deliver “outcomes”. In order to harmonise the functions of the sub-systems policies must be put in place. Failure to do so, sub-systems will fail to work in tandem to achieve the set “outcomes”. In the 1980s organisations depended on the traditional modes of delivery. Policies adopted then relied heavily on simple linear processes. From about 2000 this changed and organisations were about achieving targets and outcomes. For organisations to successfully achieve fundamental targets and outcomes, policy implementers need to be conversant with what to do, how to do it and when to do it. Organisations need to allow policy implementers to partake in the processes of policy conceptualisation and making. Poorly crafted policies and initiatives can wreck delivery by diverting management time – carrying out instructions gets in the way of better outcomes. Successful delivery therefore depends on a rounded understanding of the links between implementation, targets and outcomes. According to Mulgan, Tucker and Sanders (2007), the traditional model of delivery can be understood as a relatively simple linear process:

- Managers identify a priority and the broad outlines of a solution (eg in the form of a new policy).
- Policy-makers in high offices design a policy to put this into effect, assembling the right collection of tools: legislation, funding, incentives, new institutions and directives.
- The job of implementation is then handed over to a different group of staff, an agency or local government.

- The goal is achieved.

The implication of this model is that implementation and delivery are more likely to succeed if there is:

- a tight process with few intermediaries
- simple lines of accountability
- clear prescription to minimise the scope for fudge
- tough penalties and rewards on each link in the chain to perform their task

Modern policy needs to be soundly based, enduring and coherent. Organisations need to be able to harness support from colleagues working in a similar area of policy in different domains or sub-systems. The aim of better policy-making is better policy acceptable to colleagues and related stakeholders. Good quality policy-making depends on high quality information and evidence. Modern policy-making calls for the need to improve the organisation's capacity to make best use of evidence, and the need to improve the accessibility of the evidence available to policy-makers. In other words management structures within organisations need to share vision, targets and outcomes for example with their employees and collectively craft policies that will be used to achieve those goals.

Bullock, Mountford and Stanley (2001) suggest four critical areas that an organisation can employ to cultivate the right skills, culture and approaches to perform its tasks, and to ensure that policy-makers across sub-systems have access to the best research, evidence and international experience:

- Training and development
All professionals at all levels and disciplines must be equipped with a range of programmes and events that reflect the priorities of improving effectiveness and support improved policy-making.
- Promotion of best practice in policy-making
Support the process of identifying, analysing and promoting best practice in policy-making. It identifies what works, shares good and innovative ideas around sub-systems, and promotes their integration into policy-making.
- Promotion of evidence-based policy-making

Identify, co-ordinate, encourage and enable the best ways of making research evidence and other resources accessible in order to support better policy-making. It leads on the development of knowledge pools and other resources for cross-cutting policy areas.

- Promotion of excellence in organisational policy research and evaluation

Promotion of excellence in organisational policy research and evaluation provides a centre of expertise and advice in research and evaluation to ensure that institutional researchers are equipped to provide high quality research and analysis to support policy-making. It provides consultancy and advice on evaluation, undertakes a review of pilots, and runs a series of policy evaluation seminars. It also undertakes the design of a national demonstration project on retention and advancement in employment.

The outcomes-orientated policy-making process should take into account the impact on the needs of all people directly or indirectly affected by the policy, and involves key stakeholders directly.

An inclusive approach (team approach) may include the following aspects:

- Consults those responsible for service delivery/implementation
- Consults those at the receiving end or otherwise affected by the policy
- Carries out an impact assessment
- Seeks feedback on policy from recipients and front line deliverers

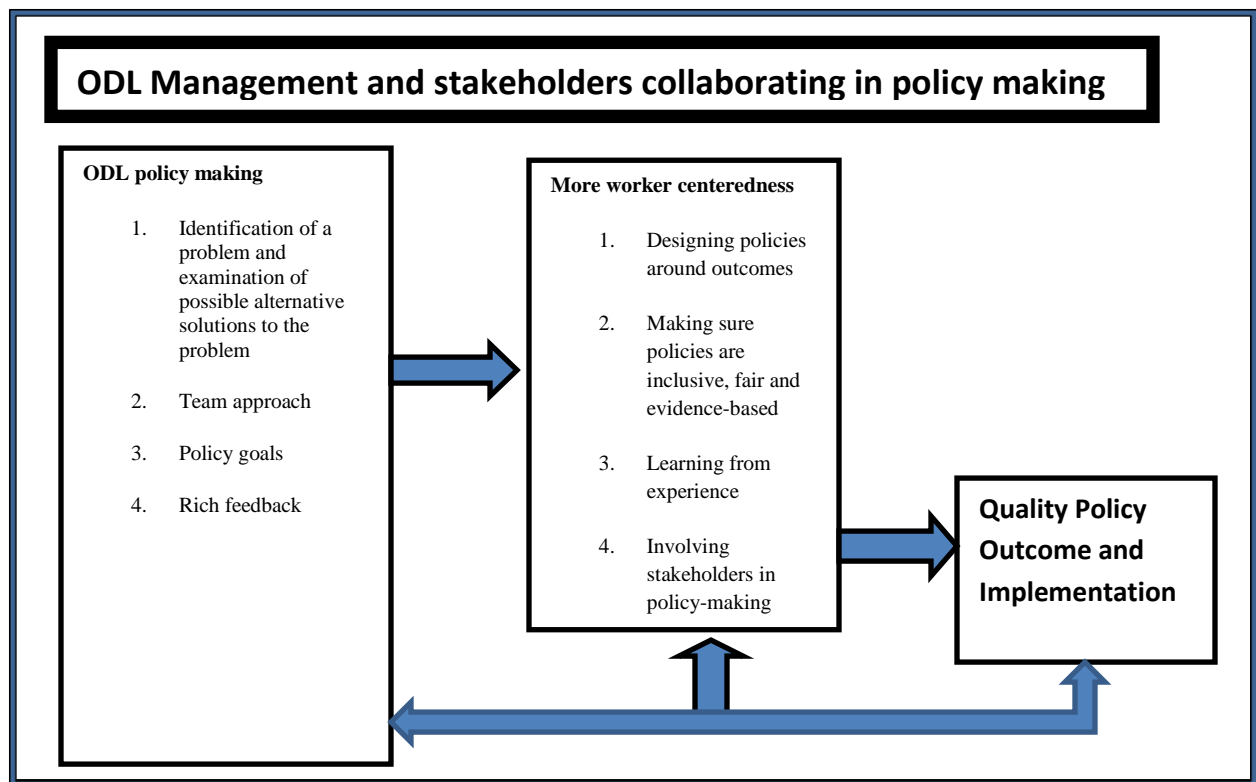


Figure 2.1: Collaborative Functional Process model (Nyoni 2010)

As shown in **figure 1**, the best worker outcomes follow from a combination of activities: encouraging institutional development as managers using the best practices in policy; engaging workers with high levels of involvement in the policy making process, with other workers, and with institution; and implementing regular, thoughtful, and periodic evaluation procedures to provide an on-going feedback: to workers about the progress of their implementation processes, to advisors about the efficacy of their mentorship, and to colleges/departments about how well their programme is meeting its objectives (Nyoni 2010).

Overcoming resistance in Open and Distance Learning (ODL) in Education policy making process is the cornerstone for harmonising multicultural groups in an organisation.

A resistance to change is a sign that something is wrong. Transforming organisations are staffed with people who harbour different feelings, fears, and perceptions, have different cultures, language and political orientations. If organisations can be understood from the stated background, powers that be need to sell a proposal for reform or change. Leaders should find out

causes of resistance and work to overcome them. Some effective ways of overcoming resistance to organisational change are;

- Education, information and communication
- Consultation
- Participation and involvement
- Support
- Negotiation and agreement

Providing good communication and education advocacies about a planned change is essential to overcome resistance to change. Communication should be honest, sincere, legitimate and truthful. In education advocacies, it is important for change agent to communicate with the client system in language it uses and understands. Negotiating for possible agreement before implementation is yet another avenue or technique of overcoming resistance to change. During the negotiations, the change agent should democratically and in a friendly manner solicit for change.

2.26 TEAM APPROACH AS A STRATEGY FOR POLICY IMPLEMENTATION AT UNISA

The strategy uses a multi-disciplinary team approach. Steering group and working groups should comprise of frontline workers, clients and additional individuals who have an enhanced knowledge or expertise in this area.

The purpose of the framework is to provide a bridge between policy and open distance learning (ODL) practice at Unisa. It incorporates –

- the team approach advocated by the *Tuition Policy* as part of international best practice in the design and development of learning experiences and environments for distance education students; and

- developing the Council on Higher Education (CHE) and Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) quality regime. (Unisa 2010 Framework)

It is very important to note that getting the concept wrong can lead to disastrous consequences in terms of deliverables in open and distance learning. The concept refers to sorting out curriculum imperatives, designing and subsequent delivery of materials to students. The re-conceptualisation and development of policies or frameworks must consider the aspirations and the desires of the autonomous sub-systems that exist in the organisation but are simultaneously expected to work towards achieving organisational targets and outcomes. Fostering institutional change and transformation in line with the institutional identity includes revisiting policies, systems, processes, culture, internal politics and procedures to ensure compliance with the ODL business model. Unisa's 2010 Institutional Operational Plan (IOP) emphasises the assurance of quality in the curriculum and learning development process but provides very scant detail on how to do it in multi-cultural and multi-racial communities like Unisa.

2.27 CURRICULA CRAFTING AND INNOVATION IN OPEN DISTANCE EDUCATION

Unisa is one of the key stakeholders in the provision of education in South Africa, African continent and the world at large. In order to stay in line with socio-economic as well as political influences, Unisa needed to make adjustments with regard to ODL policy but also with regard to its students' and stakeholders' expectations. Naturally these adjustments would also have an effect on curriculum change and innovation. The changes would impact on ODL teaching approaches. There is need to move away from 1st and 2nd generation of ODL practice to 5th generation. 5th generation ODL practice is characterised by appropriate resources, learner support, admission criteria, assessment and flexible learning. Some of the reasons for this are the lack of an ODL national policy as well as support mechanisms to assist lecturers cope with systemic transformation. Policy-making processes must never be the preserve for the elite only but efforts must be made to encourage the masses of workers to participate in these processes as well.

2.28 GOOD PRACTICE MODEL (S): A PRE-REQUISITE FOR EFFECTIVE IMPLEMENTATION OF CURRICULUM AND LEARNING DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

Fundamental to the successful cascading of ODL principles and practices at Unisa by its five colleges, is a collective home-grown constructivist good practice model that can be used by all those involved in the implementation of ODL practices. Change phobia and feelings of uncertainty can lead to resistance and thus policies need to be drawn up that can be used to build capacity and confidence in all stakeholders involved in the ODL implementation efforts.

2.28.1 Trust

In transitional societies like South Africa, trust can be seen to be either the glue that holds a democratic society together or else it is the lubricant that makes a democratic society smoothly function particularly so in formal organizations such as Unisa. When turning to transitional societies the prognosis for the existence of trust appears bleaker. Bahry, Kosolapov, Kozyreva and Wilson (2005) contend that there should be little reason to expect trust among strangers. At best, if there is any trust, it will appear among limited networks composed of friends and family. However, such a form of trust remains localized and does little to foster connections across strangers (Bahry et al. 2005). Indeed, the absence of generalized trust is thought to slow the development of cohesive multicultural institutions. Rousseau, Sitkin, Burr and Camerer (1998) concluded that most scholars can agree on a fundamental definition of trust. They noted that 'confident expectations' and a 'willingness to be vulnerable' are critical components of most definitions of trust. Consistent with this view, I define trust as the extent to which one believes that others will not act to exploit one's vulnerabilities (Barney & Hansen 1994; Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman 1995; McAllister 1995). Thus the term general trust is used to refer to one's overall belief that another individual, group or organization will not act to exploit one's vulnerabilities.

Much of the literature on trust has focused on generalized trust. This concept is based on a general willingness to trust strangers in society. Most scholars contend that credible political

institutions cause generalized trust. But, there are multiple forms of trust. Perhaps at the other end of the spectrum is particularized (strategic) trust.

2.28.2 Effective communication

In trying to implement a culturally sensitive approach to a group of people, challenges sometimes arise when encountering a multi-lingual group of people. Likewise in determining effective communication strategies, we must give more than passing consideration to multi-cultural groupings made up of segments of different ethnic groups who speak the same language.

This will involve both formal and informal research to learn who the people group as a whole are. Standard people group profile formats may be used, even for a particular social segment. Such profile formats can be enhanced with any sociological and demographic tools and information. Ideally a worldview investigation will be conducted over a long period of relationship. This is the same procedure in principle for a multi-cultural or international group as for a unitary tribe or ethnic group. A more complex multi-cultural group, however, will require more careful investigation to understand its segment and sub-identities, which are identified by the same factors as any ethno-linguistic group and its various socio-economic segments.

Much of this is accomplished through initial language learning in the community setting. Language, social interaction and underlying worldview values are all intertwined and will be involved in the overall interaction with the ethnic community or segment. Where English is the common language of the target group, more intense focus can be placed on the cultural worldview investigation.

2.29 CHAPTER SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Conclusions drawn from literature review consulted suggest that the first attempts at the creation of theoretical approaches in the field of distance learning started in the 1950s (Keegan 2000, 81). ODL is viewed as a mode of education service delivery that places the physical presence of the student outside university campus whose interactive with lecturers is by use of an array of technology available [Peters (1993); Garrison & Shale (1990); Keegan (1990); Holmberg (1995)

and Taylor (2001)]. As pointed out by Holmberg (1980), theoretical approaches provide the potential for hypotheses concerning (i) what one can expect from distance learning, (ii) under what conditions and circumstances and (iii) through which practices and procedures (Simonson, Schlosser, Schlosser & Hanson 1999). Keegan (2000) classifies the developed theories in four groups. The first includes the theories of independence and autonomy, the second the theory of industrialization of teaching, the third the theories of interaction and communication and finally, while the fourth aims at explaining distance learning through a combination of the theories of communication with the philosophy of education. One of these theories is the Theory of Transactional Distance by Moore (1990) that provides the broad framework of the pedagogy of distance education, allows the generation of almost infinite number of hypotheses for research and resulted in “a typology of all educational programmes having [as a] distinguishing characteristic of separation of learner and teacher” (Keegan 2000). The process of literature review was extended to include the conceptualization practical inclusion and dissemination of ODL in Africa, Asia and the Pacific and South Africa. The aim was to understand current views on ODL and different policy models that are used in leadership and management.

Multicultural policy articulated in highly politicized contexts can be very difficult to conceive particularly so among divergent multicultural group of people. Multicultural educational reform policy in South Africa developed in response to high-profile racial and ethnic conflicts remain a perpetual goal to achieve. The development of policy in these contexts may serve at least three purposes: For the institute, development of the policy demonstrates they have ‘done something’ in response to the incidents; for marginalized community groups there is recognition that their concerns have been heard (i.e. tangible recognition they have been given ‘voice’). For lecturers and administrators, the multicultural policy delineates guidelines and procedures that tell them ‘what action to take’ in response to emotionally charged situations. Implementation efforts usually focus on curriculum infusion and staff development utilizing a contributions approach (Banks 2001), even when the stated policy is more far ranging. This gap between stated diversity policies and practices was also noted in Britain during the 1980s and early 1990s (Troyna 1992). To help bridge this gap, some policy analysts point to the importance of advocates and leadership at the institution level or such multicultural policy frameworks may be largely symbolic.

First, utilizing the consensus panel approach Banks et al. (2001) suggests that a multidisciplinary panel of multiculturalists, educational historians, and policy analysts could jointly examine the knowledge base on multicultural policy, past and present. Thus, the nature and context of the present study is the critical understanding of the views and experiences of multicultural lecturers found in CoPs at Unisa on the operationalization of the 2006 Framework for curriculum and learning development for multicultural students in ODL in South Africa, Africa and beyond. It meant to, on the other hand continue the theoretical processing of the fundamental concepts of the ODL theory if any and its incorporation into the epistemological framework of realism.

Researchers such as Banks (2001) on the discussion of the effectiveness of multicultural curriculum interventions; Slavin (2001) on the effects of cooperative learning and interracial contact; Lee (1993) and Ladson-Billings (2001) on how culturally responsive teaching influences student learning fail to address the need to capture the views and experiences of multicultural lecturers who are expected, through the use of team approaches, to consider multicultural perspectives when designing their curricula and learning materials. It will appear, by reading through some of the research findings, the assumption is that lecturers are expected to understand and articulate issues of race, ethnicity, culture, language, religion, gender, and abilities/disabilities and incorporate them in educational processes, content and context. An extended discussion of studies in the first genre is presented in this entry.

Likewise, despite the addition of some diverse content into the curriculum, I argue that most information is still presented from a Eurocentric perspective which is superficial as compared to multiculturalism. Current curricular policy frameworks, though they include more and more diverse content, fail to make any real strides toward full inclusion. Likewise, they fail to break free from Eurocentric perspectives (Gorski 2010). As a result, they continue to cheat all students out of a deep, multicultural understanding of the world around them. Curriculum transformation efforts are necessary to replace practices that simply further identify some as "the norm" and everyone else as "the other" with practices that provide all students with a more complete and accurate understanding of society, the world, and themselves and that include lecturers who find themselves having to teach in multicultural institutions. On the other hand CDA done by other researchers influenced by Eurocentric normative perspectives generally fail to take into

cognizance the context of indigenous languages perspectives and practices. The study used CDA as influenced by indigenous textuality and discourses peculiar to specific multicultural group of people who share common cultural identikit (Butale 2008).

2.30 PROJECTION FOR THE NEXT CHAPTER

In the next chapter I discuss the most preferred mode of research methodology. Critical discourse analysis (CDA) was adopted within the framework qualitative approach underpinned by critical and narrative research design.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

I analysed bi-lingual and multilingual multicultural groups of participants, on voluntary basis (homogeneous and heterogeneous groups) in intercultural decision-making “team approach” based consultative engagements. A number of studies examined other non-linguistic factors, such as member relationships, face-saving, politeness, indirectness, and their effects on cross-cultural communication (Bargiela-Chiappini et al. 2007; Charles 1996; Miller 1994; Planken 2005; Rogerson-Revell 2007; Scollon & Scollon 2003). Qualitative data sources included observations of study related components and participant observations (fieldwork), structured interviews, blogging, structured focus groups and document analysis. Analysis involved scrutinising discursive texts, the researcher’s impressions and reactions. The study used qualitative research approach, guided by critical theory research paradigm, underpinned by narrative research design combined with critical discourse analysis (CDA) framed by an underlying critical epistemology.

3.1.1 Philosophical perspectives

Any qualitative research is based on some form of some underlying assumption and/or assumptions about what constitute trustworthy research methods and which ones are appropriate. In order to conduct and/or evaluate qualitative research, it is important to know and fully conceptualize what these philosophical assumptions are. Qualitative research paradigms can be positivism, post-positivism, critical theory, and constructivism (Lincoln & Guba 2005). The following four paragraphs further discuss an underlying philosophical assumption as underpinned by underlying epistemology research.

3.1.2 Critical research epistemology

As a critical researcher I assume that social reality is historically constituted and that it is produced and reproduced by people. Although people can consciously act to change their social

and economic circumstances, I recognize that their ability to do so is constrained by various forms of social, cultural and political domination (Habermas 2005; Adorno 1973; Horkheimer 1982; Lukacs 1971 & Marcuse 1973). It is possible therefore that multicultural group of people who are expected to form communities of practices to be bogged down by constraints such as social, cultural, religious, racial and even political persuasion. I wanted to critically analyse the views and experiences of lecturers and education consultants on the principle and practices of 'team approach'

3.1.3 Narrative research design

In Latin, the noun *narratio* means a narrative or a story, and the verb *narrare* to tell or narrate (Heikkinen 2002). Data collected was in form of the views and experiences from academic lecturers and education consultants who by virtue of their profession are story tellers. One way of structuring such views and experiences was to organize them into meaningful units. One such meaningful unit was a story, a narrative. According to Polkinghorne (1988), people without narratives do not exist. Life itself might thus be considered a narrative inside which we find a number of other stories. Narrative research is thus the study of how human beings experience the world, and narrative researchers collect these stories and write narratives of experience (Gudmundsdottir 2001). Some researchers who have focused on the narrative approach as a method of inquiry included among others (Carter, 1993; Connelly & Clandinin 1990; Gudmundsdottir 1997, 2001).

The narrative research enquiry analysed views and experiences of education consultants from the Directorate for curriculum and learning development (DCLD) and that included DCLD Director as well as academic lecturers from six colleges from the University of South Africa. The narration of the participants' stories were through or via 'voices' as more and more scholars (Connelly & Clandinin 1991; Elbaz-Luwisch 2002; Gudmundsdottir 2001; Hoel 1997; Moen et al. 2003) within the narrative approach use the term voices rather than voice because they recognize that the narratives are in part personal stories shaped by the knowledge, experiences, values and feelings of the persons who are telling them. I was interested to capture participants' voices and experiences on 'team approach' conceptualisation processes and dynamics to

curriculum and learning development. According to Vygotsky (1978), human learning and development occur in socially and culturally shaped contexts. The research methodology was guided by the following two questions:

1. What are the views and experiences of multicultural professional academic staff and DCLD education consultants on the practical operationalization of team approach model?
2. How do those views and experiences relate to the development of curricular and teaching and learning materials in line with the Unisa's Framework for the implementation of a team approach to curriculum and learning development at Unisa?

I used the following objectives to frame my study:

- (a) To explore discursive type (views and experiences) of multicultural academic lecturers and DCLD education consultants on an issue of a 'team approach' to curriculum and learning development discourse at Unisa and;
- (b) To determine how multicultural academics engage the Directorate of curriculum and learning development (DCLD) on processes of curriculum and learning development using a 'team approach' strategy at Unisa;
- (c) To analyse the text genres and discursive types that are outcomes of the process of production and interpretation of text such as policy frameworks, books, policy documents etc.;
- (d) To define collectively, the way and the manner in which rules of engagement and good practices in team approaches are constructed in processes of curriculum and learning development.

3.1.4 Critical research paradigm

A theory is critical to the extent that it seeks human emancipation, "to liberate human beings from the circumstances that enslave them" (Horkheimer 1982, 244). Any truly critical theory of society, as Horkheimer (1982) further elucidated, 'has as its object human beings as producers of

their own historical form of life' (Horkheimer 1993, 21). In light of the practical goal of identifying and overcoming all the circumstances that limit human freedom, the explanatory goal could be furthered only through interdisciplinary research that includes psychological, cultural, and social dimensions, as well as institutional forms of domination (Wilson 2002). For Horkheimer (1983) a transitional society could be transformed only by becoming more democratic, to make it such that 'all conditions of social life that are controllable by human beings depend on real consensus' in a rational society (Horkheimer 1982, 249–250).

Critical epistemology may be viewed as arming employees with problem solving skills and training them to look for unconventional, even creative remedies to crises and difficulties they face in the business environment. While some employees may attain all these dimensions, their level of general criticality may vary according to the educational system they went through, their worldview, degree of maturation, dominant intellectual/epistemological paradigm and accumulated ontological experiences in life (see **Figure 3:1**).

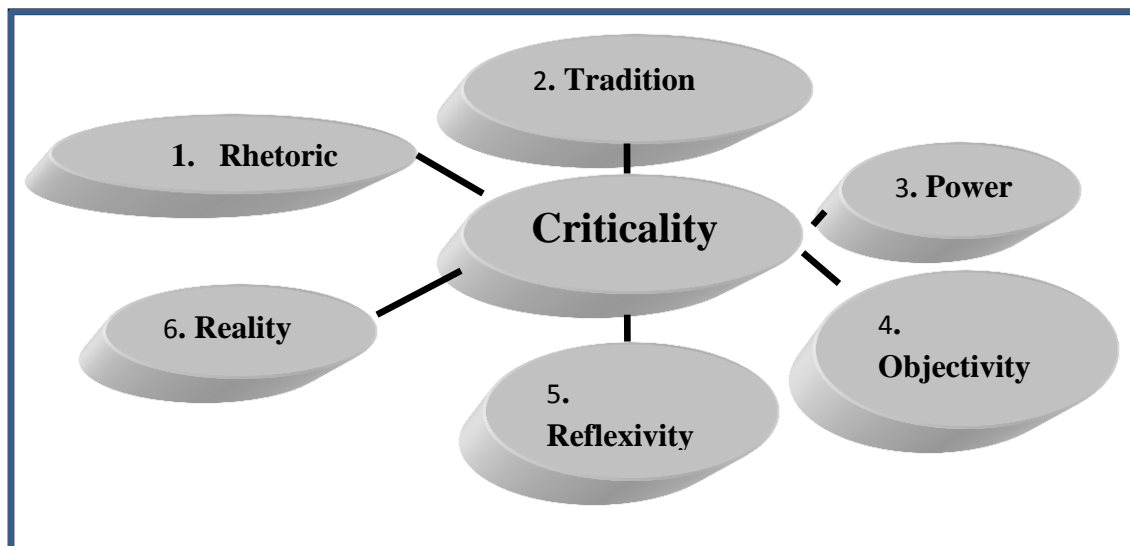


Figure 3.1: Six dimensions of being critical (Boje & Al Arkoubi 2009)

- 1. Rhetoric:** The critique of rhetoric or critical thinking is the simplest level that reflects the ability to assess others' arguments, opinions, and use of the language in a logical, abstract as well as reflective ways.

2. **Tradition:** Scepticism toward tradition or conventional wisdom infers challenging our deep assumptions and taken for granted attitudes and views about traditions and customs whether they are embedded in organizations or are well rooted in societies concerning gender, race, ethnicity, and how the Other (e.g. individuals belonging to a minority) is treated. Often, it is easier in critical thinking to adhere to these common and majority held managerial or market forces values rather than critiquing or even opposing them because they are very much promoted by powerful groups and supported by the weight of the tradition.
3. **Power:** In critical thinking, one is supposed to be sceptical of the one dominant view and seek a more Bakhtinian polyphony (multiple voices), and difference in meanings and perspectives (polysemy).
4. **Objectivity:** There is no value free knowledge and that the construction of knowledge and the processing of information are always subjective and subject to power structures and interest groups in particular context (Foucault 1980; Freire 2005).
5. **Reflexivity:** Being critical towards oneself entails first a capacity to develop an awareness of oneself at individual, relational and collective levels.
6. **Reality:** Critical thinking is not about context, especially not about one's citizenship in the world. It is focused upon being sceptical toward the reality where management takes place. This means being fully aware of one's citizenship and one's role as a critical citizen.

It is the interaction between micro-discourse and macro-Discourse and the necessity for academics to be able to engage in a critical (de)construction of knowledge and reality that we consider as essential for criticality.

3.2 RATIONALE FOR MARRYING CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS WITH NARRATIVE ENQUIRY

In narrative enquiry component, language was seen as a strong determinant of meaning (Henning et al. 2004, 42) and was used to search for the construction and maintenance of the directive discourses in the narrative interviews text. The same applied to text recorded during structured focus group sessions. Van Dijk (2009) highlights the value of critical analysis as a method to be used alongside other methods in social scientific research on social and cultural change where the institutional context and the wide social context and the wider societal context or context of culture was explored. In this enquiry I adopted critical discourse analysis of narrative design in the light of the emergence of the Van Dijk's (2009) Sociocognitive Approach (SCA). Discourse markers and narrative segments from the individual interview transcripts were used to make up lecturers stories of their engagement with education consultants in line with team approach principles when designing curricula and learning materials, thus capturing stories and their discursive qualities. These narratives can, therefore be seen as social constructions that shed light on the lived experiences and views of lecturers and education consultants within the very same working institutional environment. Narrative inquiry moreover seems to fit seamlessly into the genre of design for the larger inquiry and integrated well with the other forms of qualitative data collection techniques (Riessman & Quinney 2005; Chase 2005).

3.3 CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS (CDA) CONTEXTUAL DEFINITION

“Critical Discourse Analysis is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance and inequality are enacted, reproduced and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context” (Van Dijk 2001). Analysis focused on persuasive power of ODL bureaucrats that was based on knowledge, information and authority. I critically analysed the dynamics that pertain to team approach to curriculum and learning development at Unisa. Discourse-power circle means that those groups who control most influential discourse also have more chances to control the minds and actions of others.

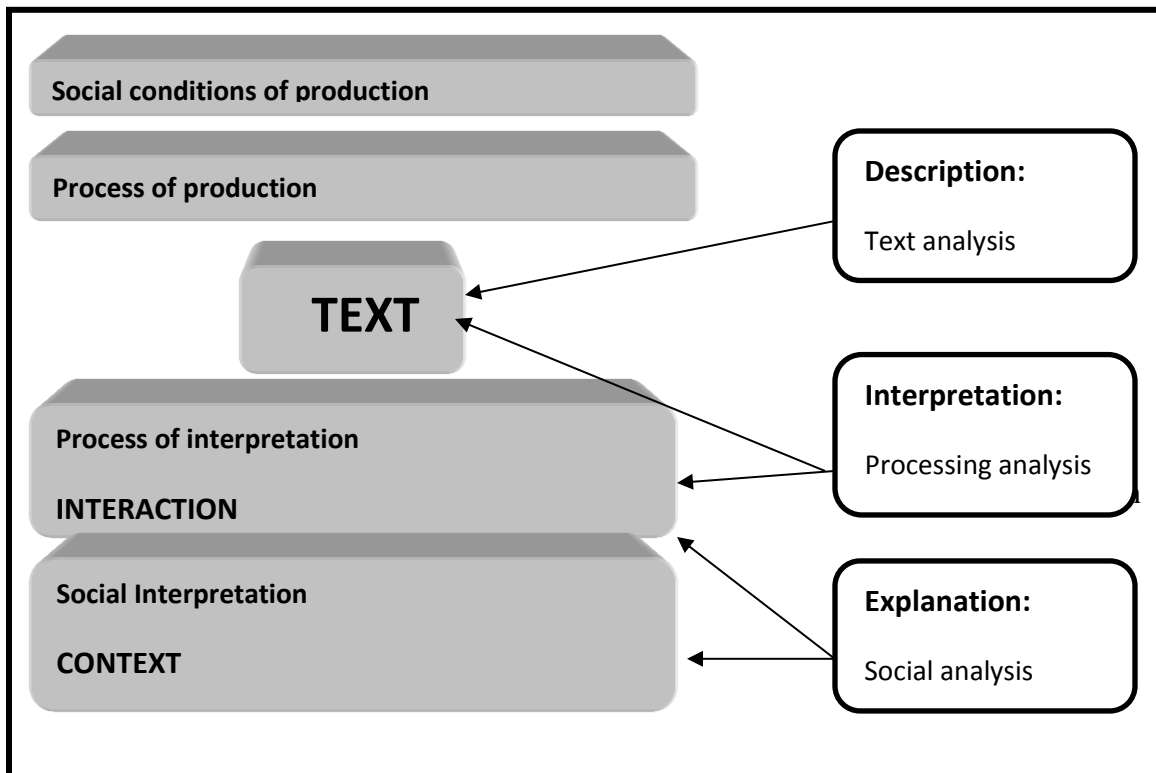


Figure 3.2: Discourse as text, interaction and context (Fairclough 2003)

Phillips and Jorgensen (2002, 61) observe that CDA provides a way of thinking that analysing text and discourse practices may give access to social identities and social relations:

[D]iscourse practices—through which texts are produced (created) and consumed (received and interpreted)—are viewed as an important form of social practice which contributes to the constitution of the social world including social identities and social relations.

The most notable work on CDA has been conducted by Fairclough (2003), Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999), Woodak, (2001), Scholon (2004) and Gee (2004)

I gathered data from;

- Directorate for curriculum and learning development (DCLD) personnel
- Academic lecturers.

3.4 RATIONALE FOR USING CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS (CDA)

CDA was particularly appropriate for critical policy analysis because it allowed for a detailed investigation of the relationship of language to other social processes, and of how language works within power relations. CDA provides a framework for a systematic analysis – researchers can go beyond speculation and demonstrate how policy texts work. As Fairclough (2001, 240) puts it, “... the inter-discursive work of the text materializes in its linguistic and other semiotic features”. He also emphasises (Fairclough 2001, 234) that the role of discourse in social practices cannot be taken for granted, ‘it has to be established through analyses. There are many different versions of discourse analysis, drawing on a wide range of theoretical traditions in social theory (van Dijk 2006, Titscher, Meyer, Wodak & Vetter 2000). Fairclough (2003) distinguishes between those approaches which pay close attention to the linguistic features of texts - which he refers to as textually oriented discourse analyses – and those which do not.

Recent approaches to policy analysis in education have been influenced more generally by discourse theory perspectives (Ball 1990; Yeatman 1990; Taylor 1997; Taylor, Rizvi, Lingard and Henry 1997). From such a perspective, policy making is seen as an arena of struggle over meaning, or as “the politics of discourse”(Yeatman 1990), and policies are seen as the outcomes of struggles “between contenders of competing objectives, where language - or more specifically discourse - is used tactically” (Fulcher 1989: 7). Research methodology can be thought of as the structure of research -- it is the “glue” that holds all of the elements in a research project together (Trochim 2006, 1). On the other hand a design is used to structure the research, to show how all of the major parts of the research project -- the samples or groups, measures, treatments or programmes, and methods of assignment -- work together to try to address the central research questions (Trochim 2006, 2).

Van Dijk (2001) draws a new theory of the way knowledge is managed in discourse processing as well as a new theory of context. Knowledge (K) is defined pragmatically and socio-cognitively as “shared beliefs satisfying the specific (epistemic) criteria of an (epistemic) community” (van Dijk 2001). The way knowledge in discourse production and comprehension is

seen as a function of context. Van Dijk argues that social context and text are linked by a “context model” (Van Dijk 2001; 2009) Wodak 2006), “the mental representation of the participants about the relevant properties of the social situation in which participants interact, and produce and comprehend text or talk” (van Dijk 2009). One of the crucial properties of such context models, he suggests, is the knowledge of language users, which is a cognitive device named the K-device, about the knowledge of the recipient. Because this K-device is crucial for the control of many important aspects of discourse, speakers need a number of K-device strategies of context models to manage in discourse production and comprehension of various kinds of knowledge. The overall K-device strategies are simple according to (van Dijk 2009), but more specific strategies are needed for special cases despite the presupposition of a common ground of shared general, socio-cultural knowledge. He argues that K-strategies can be associated with CDA in the sense that “symbolic elites may impose their own beliefs as generally accepted knowledge, marginalize large audience segments by presupposing knowledge that is not generally known, or conversely by infra-valourating non-dominant groups as ignorant” (van Dijk 2009)

3.5 BIASES IN CRITICAL REFLEXIVE STUDY

Researchers fear that if they incorporate and present their biases as part of their study, then these studies will run the risk of being labelled as narcissistic, exhibitionist, solipsistic, navel gazing, self-absorbed and impotent texts that do not have any scientific and academic credibility or value (Brown 1994; Newton 1996; Marcus 1998). In qualitative research though, one will argue that by expending more time and effort in trying to manage biasness, researchers run the risk of “. . . diluting, contaminating and concealing the phenomena the researchers are trying to explore, describe, delineate and reveal” (Morse 2003, 891).

As a reflective and reflexive researcher I needed to identify, through reflection, preconceptions and presuppositions and at the same time to indicate how these preconceptions and presuppositions influenced all my choices made; for instance, the choice of topic, the choice of methodology, the choice of sample, the choice of data collecting tools, the choice of analysis and the choice of the presentational methods. The fact that during the process of doing my research, I

deliberately made certain choices as indicated above meant that there was some degree of biasness that influenced those choices and decisions. The inclusion of bias in reflective and reflexive studies became a necessary precursor to avoid contradictions and to secure validity. Also, I provided an explication of other possible options that were available and how my bias influenced the decisions to reject these options.

3.6 THE RESEARCHER AS AN INSTRUMENT IN RESEARCH

The researcher forms and shapes the research problem, aims and objectives, and therefore uses his/her preferred way of viewing, analysing and solving problems (Mantzoukas 2005). Such personal convictions in framing questions and, consequently, answering them, is referred to in the literature as orientation bias (Kaptchuk 2003). Lincoln & Guba (2000, 183) argue that in qualitative research studies the researcher is required to critically reflect on the self as an instrument, because such studies “demand that I interrogate myself regarding the way in which the research efforts are shaped”. I belong to a team of lecturers who write, moderate, teach and examine modules in my department and have rubbed shoulders with education consultants hence hold certain views and experiences about the team approach at Unisa. It became very difficult to bracket myself because certain participants asked for personal opinion about the whole policy trajectory. Similarly, Hand (2001) considers that reflection allows for examination of the personal position, identity and the researcher’s self, and in this way it is possible to disclose “the values, assumptions, prejudice and influence of the researcher . . . [and all these are] acknowledged and taken into account” (Lincoln & Guba 2003, 18). Because naturalistic researchers are asking participants to “grant access to their lives, their minds, [and] their emotions”, it was important to provide respondents with a straightforward description of the goals of the research and my role therein. My role as a researcher was focused on gathering data in form of views and experiences from multicultural participants on the issue of team approach in ODL curriculum and learning development in line with Tuition policy (2005). As a researcher I embarked on a journey within and outside Unisa and in the process used different data collecting instruments that suited a specific situation. The journey involved listening, observing, participating as well as analysing related policy and legislative documents on team approach

implementation strategies. The journey was meant to target participants who engaged themselves in discourses of team approach.

3.7 UNIT OF ANALYSIS

A design specifies the unit or units of analysis to be studied. Decisions about samples, both sample size and sampling strategies depend on prior decisions about the appropriate unit of analysis to study. Often individual people, clients or students are the unit of analysis. This means the primary focus of data collection was on what was happening to individuals in a setting and how individuals were affected by the setting (Patton 2003).

I collected views and experiences on ‘team approach’ to curriculum and learning development at Unisa by and from;

- (a) Director
- (b) Educational Consultants from DCLD
- (c) Academic lecturers
- (d) Six colleges offering ODL

3.8 POPULATION, SAMPLING, CRITERIA AND ENTRY TO SITE

Unisa has six Colleges with thirteen Schools, sixty Academic Departments, thirty six Units, Bureaux, Institutes and Centres and twenty six Service Departments. In addition to the main campus in Pretoria, there are regional centres in the provinces of the Eastern Cape, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal, Limpopo, Midlands, Mpumalanga and the Western Cape. Unisa also has a regional presence in Akaki, Ethiopia (Unisa Online 2010). In designing the research study, all regional centres but Akaki in Ethiopia were selected as the locations. My own location at the Muckleneuk Campus served as the nerve centre for data collection for the majority of the lecturers and all education consultants were based. The weblog platform was created at Muckleneuk hub to facilitate exchange of views on team approach to curriculum design and

learning development in line with ODL principles and practices thus facilitating broad institutional participation and representation.

The choice of Unisa as the focus of this research can be ascribed to its core role in higher education delivery in South Africa, its status as the only dedicated open and distance learning institution in South Africa, and to the impact that current higher education policy (including the lack of an Open and Distance Learning Policy) is having on the institution and concomitantly effective, quality open and distance learning in South Africa.

Sampling involved time period strategies for example continuous and on-going observation versus fixed-interval sampling in which one treats units of time (e.g., 1 hour focus group segments) as the unit of observation. The advantage of fixed –interval sampling over continuous monitoring are that I experienced less fatigue and monotony and I was able to collect more information at each sampling interval than I could on a continuous observation routine (Johnson & Sackett 1998, 315) Having acknowledged my bias, purposive sampling was the most appropriate since the research was meant to target only academic lecturers who belonged to some form of teams involved in curriculum and learning development in consultation with Education Consultants from the Directorate for Curriculum and Learning Development and other stakeholders. I decided the purpose I wanted my informants from a multicultural group to serve and I went out to locate them (Bernard 2002). Most people now recognize class or ethnicity as important variables, and it is also worth considering other variables as well. Initially a total of six academic lecturers were drawn from each of the six colleges and two from DCLD including its Director. Each college was represented by two academic lecturers. The number grew to thirty (30) in total at the end of the data collection period. The age range of the sample population was between twenty to sixty-five years. The working experiences also ranged from two to thirty years working for the institution. Gate keepers were identified during the initial stages of sampling process so that only academic lecturers and DCLD personnel were involved in curriculum design and learning development could be identified. Data collection process was continued until data saturation.

Purposive sampling method was the most appropriate since the research was meant to target only academic lecturers directly involved with team approach strategies to curriculum and learning development as well Education Consultants from DCLD. A minimum of seven (7) semi-structured interviews were done until data saturation.

3.9 GROUP DOMINATION TO PROFESSIONAL AND INSTITUTIONAL POWER IN “TEAM APPROACH”

The study critically examined various genres of institutional and professional discourse, e.g. text and talk on site in and around Unisa regional centres (Van Dijk 2001; Wodak 2006). In all these cases, power and dominance are associated with specific social domains (politics, race, rights, ODL education, science, etc.), their professional elites and institutions, and the rules and routines that form the background of the everyday discursive reproduction of power in such domains and institutions (Van Dijk 2001 particularly so in the formation of teams as envisaged by the Tuition Policy (2005). The victims or targets of such power are usually the middle and lower level employees dependent on institutional and organizational power. Here socio-political and cultural domains are brought to fore thereby clouding professional judgments to the detriment of the project on hand.

3.10 A THEORY OF KNOWLEDGE PRODUCTION

Qualitative critical discourse analysis (CDA) research design provided the lenses through which I established ontological and epistemological frames. I attempted to answer questions such as “what” “how” and “why”.

I gathered data from;

- Directorate for curriculum and learning development (DCLD)
- DCLD advisors
- Academic lecturers from six colleges.

I did not just consider the voice and perspective of one or two groups of role players in a situation but also the views of other relevant groups of actors and the interaction between them. The prime objectivity was the intent to open the possibility of giving a voice to the powerless

and voiceless like foot soldiers (policy implementers) on the ground. Essentially I hoped really to come to a deeper understanding of the dynamics of the situation. Various types of experience included perception, imagination, thought, emotion, desire, volition, and action among others.

The research used the Unisa Framework that lists ten (10) steps for the process for programmes development.

Implementation Procedures for the Tuition Policy

Model for team approach

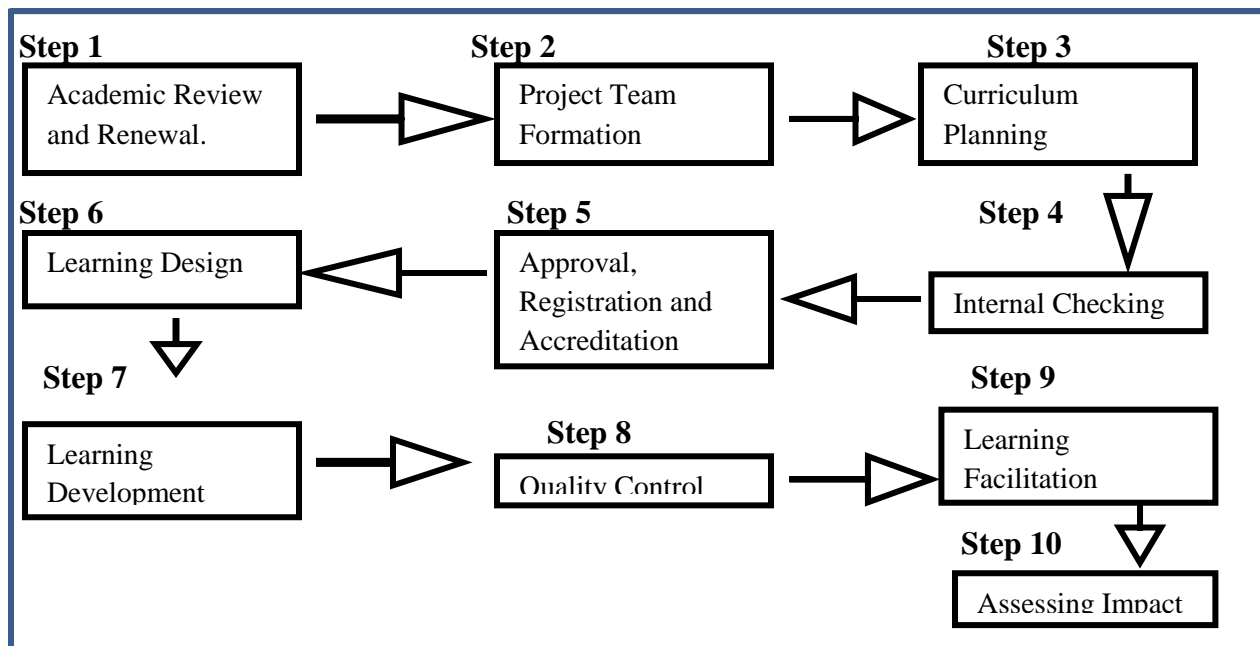


Figure 3.3: Ten steps for the process for programmes development

Step 1 (Academic review and renewal)

The Department/ School/ College appoints a chairperson in response to revision cycle/ proposal for new programme/ client request. This chairperson is a senior academic who will lead a team comprising other lecturers as well as support departments and various stakeholders. The review and revision process is central to the quality management system of the university.

Step 2 (Project team formation)

The team is led by the senior academic designated and includes at least the following people: subject experts, the Project Management Office (PMO), the Academic Planning Office (APO), the Directorate: Programme Accreditation and Registration (DPAR), Planning and Coordination (DPC), and the Directorate for Curriculum and Learning Development (DCLD). The lecturer(s) and DCLD member should remain with the team throughout the curriculum planning and learning design and development phases.

Step 3 (Curriculum planning)

A curriculum planning team is convened by the senior academic in charge with the administrative support of the Project Management Office. It should comprise at least the following stakeholders: subject experts from Unisa and other higher education institutions; professional bodies where relevant; employer bodies; students; prospective critical readers/moderators; potential outside authors and the DCLD.

Step 4 (Internal checking)

A **quality assurance team** comprising the chair, subject experts, the Directorate: Quality Assurance (DQA) and the Academic Planning Office (APO) evaluate Curriculum Statement on the planned programme/ modules using CHE/HEQC criteria for the candidacy phase (first nine of the nineteen criteria). In addition to these criteria, this team needs to consider the CHE/HEQC definition of quality that has four elements: fitness of purpose, fitness for purpose, value for money and transformation.

Step 5 (Approval, registration and accreditation)

The subject/ field experts and DCLD should draw up the necessary documentation for internal and external **approval, registration and accreditation** (if applicable). All submissions to the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET), the Council on Higher Education (CHE)

or the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) must go through this Directorate as must all queries.

Step 6 (Learning Design)

The senior academic and the Project Management Office convene the team. The team should include the chair, DCLD, authors and teaching team, Language Services, the Library, the Bureau for Counselling, Career and Academic Development (BCCAD), Tutorial Services, Group Discussions and Work Integrated Learning (TSDL), Unisa Press (for graphic designers), ICT, Sound, Video and Photography and critical readers/ moderators.

Step 7 (Learning development)

The lecturer(s) and DCLD member(s) are the main participants in this process, working directly with one another. Other departments will be engaged where relevant and less intensively as they do not have the same capacity.

Step 8 (Quality control)

Parts of the material should be *piloted* with students and feedback recorded through quantitative or qualitative instruments designed by the author(s) and DCLD. *Critical readers/ moderators* must be involved in a continuous manner during the development of the material, and feedback recorded through a review instrument designed by the author(s) and DCLD. DCLD must be involved in a continuous manner in the development of the material. Graphic designers can be involved throughout as can multi-media specialist and online designers from DCLD as required.

Step 9 (Learning facilitation)

Learning facilitation relies on a team approach as well. The senior academic will ensure that the new programme, major or module is marketed. S/he will involve Student Registration, the Regions and the BCCAD around pre-registration requirements for counselling. S/he will ensure

that there is a tracking system in place to identify at-risk students after the first round of assessment and support them in a variety of ways. S/he will liaise with TSDL to ensure that tutors have a Tutor Guide on each module to support their work with students.

Step 10 (Assessing impact)

Assessing impact should preferably be undertaken by the academic department in consultation with DCLD, the DQA, DMI and APO. It is critical to assess each of the foci of the process, starting with whether the learning intervention had the expected impact.

The fact that the study assumed a critical reflexive discourse analysis (CDA) as the primary trope of this trend was reflexivity, which manifests itself as certain self-consciousness about why policy practice is as it was, and a focused concern with what policy practitioners have done to make it that way. By quizzing academic scholars to consider more closely the importance of discourse as an object of reflexive critique, this research persuaded them to become more vocal participants in on-going debates about team approach as a domain of unequal discursive power, an outcome that would benefit all of policy practice.

3.11 NOTIONS OF DISCOURSE ACCESS AND CONTROL

The research approach adopted two strategies. The first strategy focused on collecting and analysing views and experiences on team approach strategies in curriculum and learning development. The second one focused on how lecturers were using the framework to design their curricula and modules. The strategies required that some form of contextual control needed to be done to avoid irrelevances creeping or contaminating data. Context is defined as the mentally represented structure of those properties of the social situation that are relevant for the production or comprehension of discourse (Duranti and Goodwin 1992; van Dijk 2001). It consists of such categories as the overall definition of the situation, setting (time, place), on-going actions (including discourses and discourse genres), participants in various communicative, social, or institutional roles, as well as their mental representations: goals, knowledge, opinions, attitudes, and ideologies (van Dijk 2001). Controlling context involved

control over one or more of these categories, e.g. determining the definition of the communicative situation, deciding on time and place of the communicative event, or on which participants may or must be present, and in which roles, or what knowledge or opinions they should (not) have, and which social actions may or must be accomplished by discourse (van Dijk 2001). Also crucial in the enactment or exercise of group power was control not only over content, but over the structures of text and talk.

3.12 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

The study used mainly five data collecting instruments namely, online blogging, semi-structured interviews, focus group, observation and document analysis to gather data.

Strategy 1

I critically explored team approach discourses to curriculum and learning development from DCLD (education consultants) personnel and academic lecturers.

3.12.1 Interviews

An interview guide approach was used in the interviews. The order and wording of questions were flexible, allowed to emerge through conversation (Patton 2003). A semi-structured face-to-face interview was used to collect data on the opinions of service users regarding their experiences with team approach. Tutty, Rothery and Grinnell (1996, 56) explain that semi-structured interviews, which use “predetermined questions or key words” as a guide, “are particularly appropriate when one wants to compare information between and among people while at the same time one wishes to more fully understand each person’s experience”.

Audio recordings of the interviews were transcribed and reviewed by pairs of assistant researchers. Thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke 2006) was used in this exploratory study. Thematic analysis is useful in analysing narrative material from in-depth interviews and focus groups (Dudley 2009). I employed an etic perspective in identifying categories in my analysis;

the categories were identified by me and assistant researchers (Rubin & Babbie 2008). I organized “the raw data into conceptual categories” in order to “create themes or concepts” to analyse the data (Neuman & Kreuger 2003, 436). I looked for common patterns or themes presented in the transcribed notes of the interviews. I began with open coding to locate themes and assign “initial codes or labels in a first attempt to condense the mass of data into categories” (Neuman & Kreuger 2003, 438). At least two independent established researchers in the same field evaluated the themes in order to insure inter-rater reliability, (Dudley 2009).

Formal qualitative semi-structured interviewing methods were used. I used a tape recorder or Dictaphone to record observational data, by dictating the field into the recorder or Dictaphone. Initially there were seven (7) interview sessions; one for each sample participants. This saved a great deal of time while increasing the comprehensiveness of the report.

3.12.2 Online blogging (Part 1)

Blogging is a mechanism for exchanging views and experiences. In the process I analysed by observing how such views and experiences are articulated by academic lecturers and DCLD personnel including the Director on the implementation process. Establishing the site was negotiated between ICT at Unisa and the researcher.

3.12.3 Observation

Observational research techniques solely involve the researcher or researchers making observations. There are many positive aspects of the observational research approach. Namely, observations are usually flexible and do not necessarily need to be structured around a hypothesis (remember a hypothesis is a statement about what you expect to observe). I observed consultative processes between DCLD subject advisors and academic lecturers.

Van Dijk (2001, 87) observes, “Who is allowed or obliged to participate, and in what role, may be decided by the chairperson or by other powerful participants who control the interaction”. Van Dijk gives an example of the effect of positioning and the presence of props of power, such as the robes of a judge and the uniform of a police officer. Oblivious of the power and effect of

powerful actors in a communication event, I observed during focus group and structured processes cues, body language and facial expressions that might be indicative of where power lies.

3.12.4 Structured focus group

Powell and Single (1996, 499) define a focus group as a group of individuals selected and assembled by researchers to discuss and comment on, from personal experience, the topic that is the subject of the research. During focus group sessions, lecturers engaged each other on issues of ‘team approach’ to curriculum and learning development. They debated the processes they followed when crafting curriculum and interactive modules in line with ODL principles and good practices.

3.12.5 Document analysis

Luke (2002) posits that, “CDA involves a principled and transparent shunting back and forth between the microanalysis of texts using varied tools of linguistics, semiotic and literary analysis of social formations, institutions and power relations that these texts index and construct”. I explored Unisa policy documents, books, modules, curriculum documents, theses, dissertations and other related literature on policy implementation in an ODL environment.

Strategy 2

Understanding the implementation team approach processes to curriculum and learning development.

A DCLD consultative team approach on curriculum and development process with other academics from the six colleges was used to understand how the processes complied with 2006 Framework for the implementation of a team approach to curriculum and learning development. The same happened to the purposively selected participants from the colleges.

3.12.6 Interview

I used a tape recorder or Dictaphone to record observational data, by dictating the field into the recorder or Dictaphone. The focus groups were composed of lecturers and DCLD subject supervisors including the Director.

3.12.7 Online blogging (Part 2)

I liaised with ICT at Unisa to create a site for a limited period of time where members were invited to engage in policy implementation discourse. Rules were clearly formulated so that only issues pertaining to the framework were allowed.

3.12.8 Observation

Observational research techniques solely involve the researcher or researchers making observations. There are many positive aspects of the observational research approach. Namely, observations are usually flexible and do not necessarily need to be structured around a hypothesis (remember a hypothesis is a statement about what I expected to observe).

3.13 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Bogdan and Biklen (2003, 145) define qualitative data analysis as “working with data, organizing it, breaking it into manageable units, synthesizing it, searching for patterns, discovering what is important and what is to be learned, and deciding what one will tell others”. Qualitative researchers tend to use inductive analysis of data, meaning that the critical themes emerge out of the data (Patton 2002 454). The data analysis is carried on artefacts (text messages) from an anonymous knowledge-sharing environment using CDA, where certain generic specific genres and discursive types (Roode, Speight, Pollock & Webber 2004) are identified by examining issues of power and domination. There is a subjective judgment when identifying these text genres and discursive types (see Table 2) and applying them to sections of text (Roode et al. 2004).

In the context of this study, neutrality discursive type refers to discourses that are not taking sides on a topic of discussion. Corporatism discursive type refers to discourses that imply collaboration; technological optimism refers to discourses that acknowledge the technology’s potentials. The pragmatism discursive type refers to discourse addressing practical issues. Legitimacy discourse discursive type refers to authoritative discourse, and technocracy discursive type refers to technocratic discourse. The text genres and discursive types are outcomes of the process of production and interpretation of text. It follows that an iterative analysis (moving from text to social action) of CDA (i.e., Description, Interpretation, and Explanation) would help unravel social practices embodied in text (See Table 3.2).

Table 3.1: Text genres and discursive types (adapted from Roode et al. 2004)

Text Genre (TG)	Discursive Type (DT)
Confidence	Neutrality
Factual Information	Corporation
Humour	Technological optimism
Persuasion	Pragmatism
Uncertainty	Legitimacy
	Technocracy

The data analysis is carried on artefacts (text messages) from an online blogging platform using CDA, where certain generic specific genres and discursive types (Roode, Speight, Pollock & Webber 2004) are identified by examining issues of power and domination. In the context of this study, **neutrality discursive** type refers to discourses that are not taking sides on a topic of discussion. **Corporatism discursive** type refers to discourses that imply collaboration; **policy optimism** refers to discourses that acknowledge the policy’s potentials. The **pragmatism discursive** type refers to discourse addressing practical issues. **Legitimacy discourse** discursive type refers to authoritative discourse, and technocracy discursive type refers to technocratic discourse.

3.14 LIMITATIONS

The study was confined within Unisa as a mega ODL institute and does not by any means reflect what transpires in other conventional or ODL institutes in South Africa or elsewhere. Since this

research project was completed within the timeframe of four years, this limited the amount of time spent in the collecting data. The following are some of the limitations:

- Only a small sample at Unisa was included in the study.
- Other Directors, Deans, Deputy Deans and the bulk of academic lecturers were left out due to time constraints.
- The study only looked at how multicultural academic lecturers and DCLD personnel collectively consulted each other on the development of programmes and modular materials as informed by the Framework for the implementation of team approach to curriculum and learning development in line with Unisa Tuition Policy (2005).

3.15 TRUSTWORTHINESS/RELIABILITY

The key to ensuring trustworthiness lies in the open and transparent nature of the procedure, and in leaving a clear “audit trail” (Smith 2003, 43) of decisions and interpretations made. In the literature of every method I found debate about the term’s possible meanings in qualitative research, and sometimes alerts about “the crisis of reliability” (Denzin & Lincoln 2000) or complex suggestions about especially “qualitative” terminology. Using a variety of data collecting methods, I was able to use more than one method to groups or individual so that data gathered thereof was compared then subsequently did member checking. Common trends were then identified and members consulted for further acknowledgement or clarity. I paid attention always to the fit of question, data, and method. However, those checks should always be designed and carried out consistently with the method (Richards 2005, 139–144). I logged each significant decision and the interpretation of each discovery. The audit trail was left, not to enable external “member checking” where others assess constructivist decisions but to make transparent the procedure and to demonstrate the “reasonableness” of the analysis. I also used the reflexive ledger as a strategy to re-trace my research spools in order to justify any decision taken to enhance my study. It was important to do piloting or pre-testing before embarking on fully-fledged research in order to iron out any challenges identified in the process.

3.16 EMERGING DATA TREATMENT

I spent twelve months engaging with data. I allowed time in my design for the process of locating and evaluating the ways I could sample the studied area. This was very much demanding as I never assumed a sample was waiting for me like apples to be plucked from a tree. I treated theoretical sampling (i.e., the selection of participants according to the needs of my emerging analysis) as a necessity and built time and budget for it into my design. I was able to state areas where further sampling was likely, and budgeted time and other resources accordingly.

3.17 RIGOR

Rigor in qualitative data analysis is therefore a necessary element for maximizing the potential for generating meaning. As subjects, social actors attach subjectively, intended meaning to their behaviour. According to qualitative epistemology, this ‘meaning’ relates to the subject, not to what positivists consider as an objectively correct or metaphysically explored true meaning (Weber 1949). In order to discover this subjectively intended meaning, I empathized with social actors and appreciate the purposes, motives and causes that underlie those actions (Krauss 2005, 8). By embedding myself within the committee and as a participant-observer, I was able to understand the culture, politics, identify influential characters, and understand the culture of doing things. I was also in a position to do member checking, asked questions if in doubt, understood the language used.

3.18 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS AND COMPLIANCE

Participation in the research was voluntary. I informed participants, without prejudice of their right to withdraw from the study at any point should they wish to do so. Research participants were briefed about research process and purposes and were asked to give consent for their participation in the research at every stage. I made sure that their safety during the study cycle sessions was guaranteed and all the information disclosed was treated in the strictest confidence. I never at any time put their lives at risk or harm during the study. Confidentiality and

anonymity of human respondents was protected at all times. I never attempted to act in any manner that might have been construed as deceptive or betrayal in the research process or its published outcomes (trust). I strove to build an atmosphere of trust and responsibility and informed participants at every phase what had been achieved and the road ahead.

3.19 DATA MANAGEMENT AND SAFE STORAGE

Data management and safe storage is fundamental in research. I opened a ring binder file for storing all coded structured interview responses from participants which was kept under lock and key in a safe cabinet wherein a tape recorder was also kept. The second file which contained structured focus observation scripts was also kept under lock and key. I downloaded all the relevant blogs from participants for the purposes of doing CDA and kept them in one arch lever file. I then created an inventory to record all my data collecting instruments.

3.20 PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS

Findings are presented in the next chapter in the form of paraphrasing and/or at times verbatim quotations from the interviews were identified for clarification and emphasis. Relevant aspects of the literature review were drawn into the findings to support, compare or highlight pertinent points or relevant issues and to ground, or locate the study in a theoretical framework.

3.21 CHAPTER SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The research project was intended to explore and analyse views and experiences of academic multicultural lecturers and DCLD personnel on the implementation of the Unisa's Tuition Policy 2005 included in team approach processes and dynamics. This research used Van Dijk critical discourse analysis (CDA) and Horkheimer's critical theory to probe more deeply into the linguistic, semiotic, and other discursive properties of text and talk to and about DCLD personnel, lecturers from the six colleges and a Director. Contextually based control derives from the fact that people understand and represent not only text and talk, but also the whole communicative situation. Thus, CDA was typically used to study how context features (such as

the properties of language users of powerful groups) influence the ways members of dominated groups define the communicative situation in "preferred context models" (Rojo & van Dijk 1997).

Critical discourse analysis provided a useful analytical tool for analysing the complexities of the policy implementation processes in multicultural transitional organisations. In particular, it surfaced key tensions within policy, such as those between commitments to reform and efficiency that might have a significant impact on the outcomes of subsequent policy implementation.

3.22 PROJECTION FOR THE NEXT CHAPTER

The next chapter elucidates research findings as obtained through the use CDA. It discusses findings from the analysis of legislative documents, policy documents and other documented materials that enunciate multicultural imperatives such diversity, equity, transformation, redress etc in education provisioning.

CHAPTER FOUR: CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS (CDA) OF DOCUMENTS IN THE FORM OF EMPOWERING LEGISLATIVE INSTRUMENTS SUCH AS LAW, POLICY AND OTHER RELATED DOCUMENTS.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Findings are presented in two separate chapters namely chapters four and five. In this chapter critical document analysis findings are presented and discussed. In the process of analysis the findings were integrated where appropriate. Liberal use of cross referencing where possible highlighted the interdependency and integrated nature of the emergent themes.

Legislative instruments and official policies inform discourses which constitute institute practices, so my inquiry draws on Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) to understand power dynamics at play. CDA, as set forth by Fairclough (1989, 1992, 1995, 2003), aims to ‘uncover how language works to construct meanings that signify people, objects, and events in the world in specific ways’ (Rogers, Malanchuruvil-Berks, Mosley, Hui & Joseph 2005). The primary methodology of CDA is a three-dimensional process converging separate systems of analysis: ‘analysis of (spoken or written) language texts, analysis of discourse practice (processes of text production, distribution and consumption) and analysis of discursive events as instances of sociocultural practice’ (Fairclough 1995, 2). Therefore, in order to understand curriculum and learning discourses, I applied Fairclough’s (1995) three-dimensional analytic process to map and evaluate how Unisa’s team approach strategies in multicultural institutes targeted by my study represent ODL mediated curriculum and learning designs and the means of producing, consuming, and regulating these frameworks.

Document analysis provided insight into existing legislative instruments and institutional policies aimed at regulating dynamics and initiatives in the provisioning of education in Higher Education (HE). I did CDA analysis of legislative instruments such as the South African Constitution, Higher Education Act and other related policies detailing approaches to ODL mediated learning. To code text, an appropriate theory of language was selected and applied. CDA as one form of data analysis has reached a certain degree of canonical status as it is widely used and applied as a research and analytic tool (Luke 2002; Morgan & Taylor 2005). Rizvi and

Lingard (2010) contend that the use of CDA as a common approach to policy or framework analysis amongst other approaches can be useful in gaining deeper understanding of views and experiences of stakeholders in multicultural transitional societies like ODL institutions. CDA focuses on ‘discourses’ and how they are used in a text in context and in its discursive context. Fairclough (2001) posits that it is important to pay analytical attention to ‘discourses’ because the many changes that are experienced in contemporary social life are discourse based social change. Policies or frameworks are made known through various modes of textuality and they are discourse constructed. CDA are meant to uncover the material effects of discourses and the way discourses position players across the policy cycle at Unisa (Rizvi & Lingard 2010).

There are many different versions of discourse analysis, drawing on a wide range of theoretical traditions in social theory (van Dijk 1997, Titscher, Meyer, Wodak & Vetter 2000). Fairclough (2003) distinguishes between those approaches which pay close attention to the linguistic features of texts - which he refers to as textually oriented discourse analyses – and those which do not. The latter approaches, often influenced by Foucault (1972), generally focus on the historical and social context of texts and usually give little close attention to the linguistic features of texts. Fairclough’s (2003) work draws on theories and techniques from a wide range of disciplines to bring together these different approaches and different levels of analysis. He emphasizes (2001a: 229) that his approach to CDA is interdisciplinary, and that “it opens a dialogue between disciplines concerned with linguistic and semiotic analysis ... and disciplines concerned with theorizing and researching social processes and social change”. The study used the following question to try to understand how academic lecturers and DCLD education consultants used a team approach to craft curricula and modules in line with the Tuition Policy (2005):

1. What are the views and experiences of multicultural professional academic staff and DCLD education consultants on the practical operationalization of team approach model?
2. How do those views and experiences relate to the development of curricular and teaching and learning materials in line with the Unisa’s Framework for the implementation of a team approach to curriculum and learning development at Unisa?

The above questions were explored with the intention of meeting the following objectives:

- (a) To explore discursive type (views and experiences) of multicultural academic lecturers and DCLD education consultants on an issue of a ‘team approach’ to curriculum and learning development discourse at Unisa and;
- (b) To determine how multicultural academics engage the Directorate of curriculum and learning development (DCLD) on processes of curriculum and learning development using a ‘team approach’ strategy at Unisa;
- (c) To analyse the text genres and discursive types that are outcomes of the process of production and interpretation of text such as policy frameworks, books, policy documents etc.;
- (d) To define collectively, the way and the manner in which rules of engagement and good practices in team approaches are constructed in processes of curriculum and learning development.

4.2 DATA ANALYSIS STRATEGIC APPROACH

Discourse analysis takes as its starting point, the notion that spoken and written language as it is communicated in textbooks, policy documents, newspapers etc., is a form of power through which social reality is constructed. Using critical discourse analytic techniques, I examined the production of meaning of key concepts related to multiculturalism (including equality, inclusion, integration, diversity, race, racism and antiracism) by key players within the political and educational fields of power. The purpose of the analysis was to examine how particular understandings of these concepts are mobilised by actors in the national and institutional political and educational fields, and to consider the impact of intercultural discourse in terms of the likelihood that it will contribute, or indeed impede, the development or realisation of a truly “post-racist society” (Goldberg 2002). Data analysis assumed a double pronged approach notably the first phase analysed textual documents both legislative and otherwise on issues of education provisioning, principles and practices. The second strategic approach analysed textual discourses by participants on curriculum and learning development as viewed from team approach

perspective. I began the chapter by discussing the relevance of Critical Discourse Analysis CDA as a tool kit for policy analysis. CDA is widely used as a methodical and analytical toolkit for conducting policy analysis (Rizvi & Lingard 2010; Taylor 2004; Thomas 2005; Adie 2008), I contend that CDA analysts overlooked fundamental dynamics engrained in transitional multicultural post-conflict societies like South Africa. Like other critical theory, CDA examines texts for evidence of unequal power relations among participants (including those referred to) in discursive events. The impact of globalisation has made social mobility fluid. The interconnectedness of the global economies is fertile ground for people to move from place to place. It is possible that, internationally exposed organisations such as Unisa can be staffed by multilingual, multicultural and multiracial personnel. I argue that failure to take into context different but very fundamental multicultural differences in transitional societies by generalising contexts might yield inaccurate research outcomes that will subsequently impact curricula design. Taking the Unisa context and the practice of CDA together demands a high degree of caution and diplomatic manoeuvring to understand its politics and culture. Data analysis in this study assumed six principles:

4.2.1 CDA addresses social problems

CDA not only focuses on language and language use, but also on the linguistic characteristics of social and cultural processes. CDA follows a critical approach to social problems in its endeavours to make explicit power relationships which are frequently hidden. It aims to derive results which are of practical relevance to the social, cultural, political and even economic contexts (Fairclough & Wodak 1997).

4.2.2 Power relations are discursive

CDA explains how social relations of power are exercised and negotiated in and through discourse (Fairclough & Wodak 1997).

4.2.3 Discourse constitutes society and culture

This means that every instance of language use makes its own contribution to reproducing and transforming society and culture, including relations of power (Fairclough & Wodak 1997). To understand how ideologies are produced, it is not enough to analyse texts; the discursive practice (how the texts are interpreted and received and what social effects they have) must also be considered (Fairclough & Wodak 1997).

4.2.4 Discourse is history

Discourses can only be understood with reference to their historical context. In accordance with this CDA refers to extra linguistic factors such as culture, society and ideology in historical terms (Fairclough & Wodak 1997; Wodak 2001; 2006).

4.2.5 The link between text and society is mediated

CDA, thus, is concerned with making connections between sociocultural processes and structures on the one hand, and properties of texts on the other (Fairclough & Wodak 1997; Wodak 1996, 2001; Meyer 2001; Scollon 2001). CDA does not take this relationship to be simply deterministic but invokes an idea of mediation (Fairclough 1992a, 1995a; Scollon, 1998, 1999, 2001). Fairclough studies this mediated relationship between text and society by looking at “orders of discourse” (Fairclough 1992a, 1995a). Wodak (1996), like van Dijk (1997, 2001), introduces a “sociocognitive level” to her analysis of which this study is based, and Scollon studies mediation by looking at “mediated action” and “mediational means” (Scollon 1998, 1999, 2001).

4.2.6 CDA is interpretative and explanatory

CDA goes beyond textual analysis. It is not only interpretative, but also explanatory in intent (Fairclough & Wodak 1997; Wodak 1996, 2001). These interpretations and explanations are dynamic and open, and may be affected by new readings and new contextual information. Meyer

(2001) calls this process a hermeneutic process and maintains that compared with the analytical-inductive process employed in some other fields, hermeneutics can be understood as a method of grasping and producing meaning relations by understanding the meaning of one part in the context of the whole. He further argues that hermeneutic interpretation in particular requires detailed documentation such as an explicit linguistic analysis of texts.

CDA involves a principled and transparent shunting back and forth between the microanalysis of texts using varied tools of linguistics, semiotic, and literary analysis and the macro analysis of social formations, institutions, and power relations that these texts index and construct (Luke 2002, 100). There are two major streams of doing a critical discourse analysis. One stream is represented by the work of Fairclough (2003). This work is characterised by detailed textual analyses, while the other stream represented by van Dijk & Gee (2001), is characterised by a focus on social variables such as action, context, power and ideology. This study focuses largely on social variables such as action, context, power and ideology of a CDA drawing on the work of Gee (2005) and van Dijk (2001) as the basis for its analytical framework. To summarise, van Dijk (2001) sees CDA as “a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context”.

4.3 CDA OF LEGALLY EMPOWERING PROVISIONS SUCH AS LEGISLATIVE ACTS; POLICIES; FRAMEWORKS AND RELATED GUIDELINES

The first stage of my research involved a discourse analysis of relevant national and institutional empowering provisions related to each of the selected legislative and other legal instruments such as policy in the higher education fields in general, institutions in particular and other public discourse on policy operationalization that served as sources of power. Textual material included documents issued by the institutions in the form of policy frameworks under study, such as Unisa Tuition Policy (2005). The analysis was aimed at gaining an understanding of larger discourses on policy operationalization and procedures that have been institutionalized or marginalized with regard to team approach to curriculum design and learning development.

The analysis of collected documents was conducted through the method of critical discourse analysis in order to disclose and describe the way dominant discursive practice influence policy articulation and implementation by multiracial academic communities and reflects tenets and findings of team approach epistemologies. The focal points of discursive analysis also involved broader topics, such as analysing processes and means by which particular principles and practices seek to legitimate their authority, enquiry into the status and preconditions of team approach, and the ways policies are construed and shaped. A comparison of the frequency of particular topics (e.g. multiculturalism, apartheid, Africanisation of curriculum, race, qualifications, stakeholder, and throughput rate) in academic discourse and the actual way these topics are articulated and represented is another point of interest. Analysis of discourse circulation can reveal the un-reflected upon, tacit model images and self-perceptions of both policy makers and implementers (e.g. subject specialists against education consultants). In terms of its macro and micro-level techniques, discourse analysis consists of critical surveys into argumentative strategies of policy discourse, key conceptual metaphors and models employed in academic texts, wording, lexical and conceptual registers, the ways topics are assembled and organised, logical inferences and cohesion.

4.4 ORIGINS OF LEGISLATIVE ACTIVITY IN EDUCATION

Studies in state education policy-making first appeared during the early 1960s. Although they lacked consistent theories, frameworks and methodologies, these research endeavours reinforced the need for political awareness by educators. They also established a foundation upon which future state education policy-making research would expand. Increased state legislative activity in public education matters during the early 1970s led researchers to seek other theoretical models. Most studies of education policy-making in state legislatures fall into one of three types: (a) institutional, (b) process, and (c) behavioural (Canfield-Davis & Jain 2010). Institutional studies focus upon specific rules and procedures assumed to direct and control legislative actions. The process model is used to analyse how inputs or pressures are converted into outputs or policy outcomes. In the behavioural model, legislators become the focus of analysis: Who they are, how they function, and why they make certain decisions are questions behavioural researchers ask about lawmakers (Canfield-Davis & Jain 2010).

4.5 SOUTH AFRICAN HIGHER EDUCATION LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK

Prior to 1994, higher education under Apartheid rule was characterized and shaped by sets of legal and policy provisions that distinguished and separated the different components and actors within the system according to race and ethnic group, on the one hand, and to institutional types, on the other (CHE 2004). In the 1970s, Apartheid government created four Bantustans, (A Bantustan (also known as black African homeland or simply homeland) was a territory set aside for black inhabitants of South Africa, as part of the policy of apartheid), (Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei – also known as “TBVC states”). The Extension of the University Education Act of 1959 provided the legal framework for the establishment of higher education institutions (HEIs) as part of the “Bantu self-government’ policy. As a result, by 1988, 11 institutions were operating in the self-governing territories. However, all African education, including HEIs in these territories, was under the control of the Minister of Education and Culture of the Republic of South Africa. With regard to education and culture, the Constitution made a distinction between ‘general’ and ‘own’ affairs. The 1983 South African Constitution made specific segregated classifications according to race. The term “general affairs” referred to those affairs vested in a central department, whereas the term “specific affairs” connoted those matters specific to the culture and values of different population groups. Accordingly, education was defined as ‘own affair’ for all groups, except Africans, whose education was regarded as ‘general affair’ under the responsibility of the Department of Education and Culture. The arrangement of higher education according to the racial and ethnic composition of the population had serious consequences both in terms of access, governance and funding.

Post 1994 discourses of education reform were receiving prominence from the democratic government of the day. This was followed by the establishment of the national commission to look into the issue of transformation in the education sector. The National Commission for Higher Education (NCHE) report, A Framework for Transformation, was submitted in September 1996. This historical document contained three sets of ideas emerging as ‘pillars’ for a transformed higher education system, namely:

1. increased participation;
2. greater responsiveness;
3. increased co-operation and partnership.

As it was heralded as the most inclusive, collaborative and transparent process, NCHE report was widely acclaimed both domestically and internationally, regarded as a model tertiary education policy document (Moja & Hayward, 2001; Badat, 2004; Council on Higher Education, 2004; Bundy, 2006).

4.5.1 The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996

In pursuance of their educational mandates, higher education institutions are obliged by law to comply with a number of empowering provisions such as legislative Acts to guide the processes of transformation some of which are:

- (a) The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, which assigns all tertiary education to the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education under a single co-ordinated higher education system.

Section 29 of the Constitution of South Africa states:

Everyone has the right

- (a) to a basic education, including adult basic education; and
- (b) to further education, which the state, through reasonable measures, must make progressively available and accessible.

Section 29(1)(b) of the Constitution of 1996 restricts the right to education to “basic education” and “further education”. Further education is defined in the General and Further Education and Training Quality Assurance Act 58 of 2001 as education above general education and below higher education, i.e. as education from NQF levels 2 to 4. (By contrast, “higher education” is defined in the HE Act as “all learning programmes leading to qualifications higher than grade 12 or its equivalent in terms of the National Qualifications Framework”.) This means that higher

education does not fall within the scope of the rights protected in the Bill of Rights. However, the HE Act firmly situates higher education within the broader ambit of the Constitution and the Bill of Rights. The preamble to the Act states explicitly that “higher education” is regulated by the Act, inter alia, in order to secure that higher education should “promote the values which underlie an open and democratic society based on human dignity, equality and freedom”. This key phrase is borrowed from section 36 of the Constitution (the so-called limitation clause) and must be understood against the background of the pre-amble to, and section 1 of the Constitution (the so-called core provisions of the Constitution).

The principle of the rule of law is a critical building block in the pursuit for constitutional democracy. Power at Unisa is exercised within the law for doing so guarantees legitimacy, promotes and sustains the culture of responsibility and accountability in order to guard against the arbitrary use and abuse of power and authority in a multiracial domain or community. In all Unisa’s policy and frameworks’ documents there are always stated legislative instruments with which they are in line. The study also shows that the majority of multiracial groups have great respect for the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa.

4.5.2 Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act No. 101 of 1997)

The Higher Education Act, 1997, authorises the University Council to make institutional rules (policies) for the University to give effect to the Institutional Statute. The Council may delegate this function, except for the language policy which it must approve in consultation with Senate.

The role of a policy is to:

- translate institutional values into operations
- ensure compliance with legal and statutory responsibilities
- guide the University towards the achievement of its strategic plan
- set standards
- improve the management of institutional risks and
- serve as a tool for quality improvement within the University.

These practices of resistance are faint images to the present generation of students, a situation suggestive of the degree to which student life over the past ten years has become relatively

‘normal’. The democratic state intends higher education institutions to play a significant role in social transformation. Similar to post-authoritarian societies in the 1990's and post-independence African states in the 1950's (Coleman, 1994), the democratic South African state holds high developmentalist expectations for higher education institutions. In the main the state hopes that higher education institutions will contribute towards overcoming the legacies of the country's radicalized development, transform the society along democratic and more equitable lines, and make the country more competitive in the global economic system. It is not self-evident that these goals complement one another and whether higher education institutions can or will rise to the challenges that have been posed for them by the new democratic government.

Section 1 of the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act No. 101 of 1997) (hereinafter as referred to as the principal Act), is hereby amended-

(a) by the substitution for the definition of ‘higher education institution’ of the following definition:

‘higher education institution’ means any institution that provides higher education on a full-time, part-time or distance basis and which is-

- (a) merged, established or deemed to be established as a public higher education institution under this Act;
- (b) declared as a public higher education institution under this Act: or
- (c) registered or [conditionally] provisionally registered as a private higher education institution under this Act;’

The Higher Education Act 101 of 1997 sets out the objectives which the legislative framework dealing with higher education seeks to achieve. The overarching aim is to promote democracy (see above). More specifically the aim is to ensure that programme-based higher education should:

- (i) respond to the human resource, economic and development needs of the Republic;
- (ii) ensure representivity and equal access; respect freedom of religion, belief and opinion;

- (iii) respect and encourage democracy, academic freedom, freedom of speech and expression, creativity, scholarship and research;
- (iv) pursue excellence, promote the full realisation of the potential of every student and employee, tolerance of ideas and appreciation of diversity;
- (v) respond to the needs of the Republic and of the communities served by the institutions;
- (vi) contribute to the advancement of all forms of knowledge and scholarship, in keeping with international standards of academic quality;
- (vii) ensure public accountability and provide in the national need for advanced skills and scientific knowledge

Thus, the higher education provision falls under the ambit administrative responsibility of the national Department of Education. Higher Education Act 101 of 1997 provides the legal foundation and framework for South African higher education. Unisa's operations are governed and regulated by the said legal instrument. However as one of the aims states, "pursue excellence, promote the realisation of the potential of every student and employee, tolerance of ideas and appreciation of diversity", the study indicated that individual multiracial employees find it difficult to reconcile and move forward. There is still the old school mentality that refuses to go away among employees due to fear and uncertainty. Given the slow pace of the transformation of the mind, chances are that, multicultural curriculum design and learning development programmes will take longer to be accomplished and thereby denying students opportunities to maximise their potentials.

4.5.3 The South African Qualifications Authority Act 58 of 1995

The objectives of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) are set out in the South African Qualifications Authority Act 58 of 1995. These are to:

- (i) facilitate access to, and mobility and progression within education, training and career paths;
- (ii) accelerate the redress of past unfair discrimination in education, training and employment opportunities; and thereby

- (iii) contribute to the full personal development of each learner and the social and economic development of the nation at large.

Unisa refers all learning signature programmes leading to qualifications higher than grade 12 or its equivalent in terms of the National Qualifications Framework as contemplated in the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act No. 58 of 1995. During the study it was noted that lecturers were prepared to work with DCLD on signature programmes for purposes of accreditation, quality assurance and quality promotion through a permanent subcommittee, known as the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC). For a signature programme to be submitted for approval, signatures of all relevant stakeholders must be appended on all application documents. With other programmes, lecturers simply continue on their own without consulting DCLD.

4.6 UNISA POLICY AND/OR FRAMEWORK ARTICULATION PROCEDURES

Many authors have written about the notion of a ‘democracy deficit’—the failure of established, liberal notions of representative or participatory democracy to link employees with the institutions and processes of it, impacting on the quality and vibrancy of democracy and resulting in reduced accountability (Gaventa 2004; Luckham, Goetz & Kaldor 2000). However, employee participation is often reduced to participation by the elite. Crenson and Ginsberg (2002) refer to this monopoly of participatory processes by elite forces as “downsized” democracy. However, analysis of existing mechanisms reveals that they tend to seek employees’ input into already formulated policy responses, or to disseminate information on existing institutional programmes. Policy making processes at institutions of higher education are influenced by existing empowering provisions such as Acts and other subordinate laws. Unisa’s policy frameworks are invariably driven by prescripts found in the statutory instruments as earlier alluded to.

4.6.1 Unisa 2015 Strategic Plan

Section 4.3 of 2015 Strategic Plan of the University of South Africa (Unisa) states that, ‘the curriculum development process will be conducted by a team involving academics, curriculum and course designers, student support specialists, student counsellors, language specialists,

tutors, relevant external stakeholders and, where possible, representatives of current and past students’.

Section 4.4 states, ‘The student is placed at the centre of the entire learning process from the moment the student intends registering through to graduation, and continuing on through to its alumni who play a vital role in evaluating impact and as ambassadors for the institution’.

(i) Fundamental principles

Unisa's purpose is to meet Africa's changing needs, foster teaching and research, and provide quality education at tertiary level. The university:

- (a) promotes the ideals of democratic and social transformation and of social justice in order to enable academics, students and graduates to contribute to their communities;
- (b) is committed to developing a scholarly culture of teaching and research and to fostering habits of and providing opportunities for life-long learning;
- (c) provides quality vocational, professional and general formative education at tertiary level;
- (d) provides opportunities for vertical and horizontal articulation by offering certification up to doctoral level in a diverse range of formal and short-learning programmes;
- (e) strives to provide accessible and affordable learning opportunities to all students regardless of their background;
- (f) is student-centred, providing students with appropriate support in an environment conducive to active learning;
- (g) where appropriate, offers authentic work-integrated learning, mentoring and coaching to students, through the relevant vocational community, an active partner in the educational process;
- (h) uses a team approach and consults and collaborates with relevant stakeholders when developing and offering programmes;

- (i) provides for the integration of information communication technologies in learning programmes and makes effective and innovative use of technology in developing its programmes and improving its teaching methods;
- (j) empowers its lecturing staff to meet internationally-accepted academic standards of teaching and research (Adapted from Unisa 2015 Strategic Plan revisited policy)

(ii) Implementation of fundamental principles

From the principles stated above, the following guidelines will direct the day-to-day operational needs and the implementation of teaching and learning at Unisa. These guidelines set out Unisa's purpose and role as a comprehensive university, its flexibility and openness, its teaching and learning approach, the open and distance learning (ODL) design and development process and the assuring of quality ODL teaching and learning.

Unisa's main responsibility is to its students and, through them, to their communities. It recognises the need to meet the demand for knowledgeable, qualified, effective citizens. Comprehensiveness also includes cooperative education, an educational strategy that develops and expands on partnerships with industry, professional bodies and local communities. To do this, Unisa cooperates with these partners in developing curricula, designing learning materials, and facilitating work-integrated learning opportunities (see Policy for Work Integrated Learning).

(iii) An appropriate open and distance learning and teaching approach

Unisa is a student-centred university. The curriculum and the teaching approach take into account the different needs and abilities of students and that they come from a variety of different backgrounds and have differing expectations.

At Unisa a policy of greater responsiveness would require changing curriculum content and focus and modes of delivery of academic programmes, quality assessment, and research in order to adapt them to the needs of the market and civil society (Council on Higher Education 2004).

The question, then, is finding out what factors, and to what extent and in what ways those factors influence student performance, and how the status quo can be improved. Some of these factors lay outside and others within Unisa's control. Transformed recirculation processes can serve among other things to accommodate the needs and aspirations of multiracial societies like South Africa. Poor throughput rate particularly by black students could be an indicator that curriculum is not in responsive to their needs.

4.6.2 The Open Distance Learning Policy (2008)

Unisa Open Distance Learning (ODL) Policy (Unisa 2008, 1) is committed to the advancement of social justice with an emphasis on redress, equity and empowerment of the previously disadvantaged groups in South Africa such as blacks, women, people with disabilities, the rural and urban poor and adults who have missed out on opportunities to access higher education. The ODL Policy (2008, 3) further states that curricula at Unisa will "have academic integrity and be responsive to the vision and mission of Unisa, national educational imperatives, and societal and employment needs". The ODL Policy (2008, 1) refers to the fact that learning, at Unisa, "is an active process of construction of knowledge, attitudes and values as well as developing skills using a variety of resources" but is silent on how that can be achieved taking into cognisance the multicultural character of the institute. It was interesting to note that Unisa managed to come up with an ODL policy despite the absence of national policy to guide their policy articulation processes.

4.6.3 Outcomes-based education framework (1995+)

For the purposes of this study, I specifically want to highlight the relevance of the South African Qualifications Authority Act (SAQA) (58 of 1995) and its impact on Unisa's curriculum development policies, processes and procedures. As foundation to the SAQA Act and the Higher Education Act are the principles of transformative outcomes-based education (OBE) as explained by (Spady 1994). These principles are aligned with the stipulations of the Bill of Rights, as set forth in Chapter 3 of the Constitution, and deal with redress, equality and equity of education in South Africa. As part of the OBE framework in South Africa, the SAQA Act

stipulates that every qualification addresses certain specific outcomes which cut across all fields and disciplines and education sectors. These are known as the Critical Cross-Field Outcomes. In the Higher Education sector, there are twelve critical outcomes, in total: 7 cross-field outcomes, plus 5 additional developmental outcomes which deal with student responsibility. Unisa's programmes follow the OBE mode of delivery both in articulation and execution.

In other words, a policy of greater responsiveness seemed to assume a necessary shift in curriculum content, focus and organisation. Such change would not only be a change from disciplinary to interdisciplinary, but also from "courses" to "credits", from "departments" to "programmes", from "subject-based teaching" to "student-based learning"; from "knowledge" to "competence", and from "theory-based learning" to "problem-based learning" (Council on Higher Education, 2004). The study showed that lecturers on new employment and/or soon after adopting the ODL andragogy (pedagogy) did not receive formal training in the pedagogy of higher education. Nevertheless, it appears such courses are being offered but are not comprehensive enough to adequately equip lecturers at Unisa.

4.6.4 Tuition Policy (2005)

The Tuition Policy (Unisa 2005, 8-9) further positions itself against the legislative framework by referring to

- (i) the Constitution of 1996;
- (ii) the South African Qualifications Authority Act 58 of 1995; and
- (iii) the Higher Education (HE) Act 101 of 1997

The Tuition Policy addresses the values embedded in tuition at Unisa by referring to the values enshrined in the constitution, "Unisa positions itself on the basic values underlying an open and democratic society, values enshrined in the constitution of the Republic of South Africa" (Unisa 2005, 3). The Tuition Policy situates itself within "the realities of the higher education landscape of South Africa and of Africa generally. The university takes cognisance of legislative, legal, social and transformational issues" (Unisa 2005, 3) and commits Unisa to being "responsive to the educational and research concerns and needs of the country, the region and the African continent and other international trends" (Unisa 2005, 3). The University of South Africa (Unisa)

is an African university in the service of humanity. It is a comprehensive open and distance learning higher education institution that offers a wide range of vocational, professional and general formative qualifications. This policy contains the principles pertaining to teaching and learning at Unisa. At present, Unisa draws upon the Tuition Policy to provide guidance on curriculum development issues. This is in addition to following the stipulations of Higher Education Policy and legislation in South Africa regarding transformative outcomes-based education (OBE), the Bill of Rights from the South African Constitution and the White Paper on Higher Education (Tuition Policy, Unisa 2005).

4.6.5 Unisa Framework for the implementation of a team approach to curriculum and learning development.

The Framework for the implementation of a team approach to curriculum and learning development at Unisa (2006) describes and prescribes an agreed-upon process for curriculum and learning development. This Framework refers to the definition provided by SAQA for a curriculum framework as setting “out the philosophical and organisational framework for a specific curriculum” (2006, 2). Curriculum includes all aspects of teaching and learning. The Framework adds that all curricula at Unisa should contribute to Unisa’s vision namely: “Towards the African university in the service of humanity” and that the relevance of the curriculum will therefore be measured against the extent to which Africanisation and services to humanity are infused into the curriculum. The Framework acts as an implementation guide on how the principles of the Tuition Policy can be acted upon in the current Unisa context. For example, the specific ways and means of implementing a “Team Approach” (TA) to course design (as set out in the Tuition Policy) has changed considerably over the years, as institutions have merged; departments have shifted, grown, absorbed others and been absorbed. So, while the principle of following a TA is still quite valid, specific processes and procedures as to how to compile and use that team have changed. The current Framework consists of ten Steps which guide academics and support staff through the process of course approval, design and development at Unisa. Several of the early steps deal specifically with curriculum development issues, such as Step 3 (Curriculum Planning), Step 4 (Internal Checking) and Step 5 (Approval, Registration and Accreditation).

Thus, in alignment with this Framework, all curricula at Unisa should adhere to a number of principles inter alia being developed by teams and giving gestalt to the legislative framework in which Unisa operates. What is significant here is the SAQA requirement that all programmes and full qualifications should address the Critical Cross-field outcomes and provide evidence of students' competencies in these outcomes.

4.7 THE DIRECTORATE: CURRICULUM AND LEARNING DEVELOPMENT (DCLD) AT UNISA

The DCLD has specific expertise in the development of curricula and “we would like to see ourselves as a key role player in the development of curricula at Unisa”, in support of academic departments and in service of Unisa’s vision. DCLD is uniquely positioned to contribute to the debate regarding the way in which Unisa addresses the UNGC principles in its curricula. Education consultants of the DCLD work in all Colleges, Schools and Departments across Unisa, in all formal and non-formal qualifications and programmes. As such, the Education Consultants of the DCLD are uniquely placed to provide a broad overview of practices, challenges and opportunities in curriculum development at Unisa.

4.8 CHALLENGES OF MERGERS AND INCORPORATIONS

The South African government’s decision to restructure the higher education system through institutional mergers and incorporations was based on the notion that the new system should reflect a wide spectrum of higher education institutions (HEIs), differentiated in terms of their missions, qualifications and programmes, entrance requirements and research capability, while displaying some degree of unification, integration, and co-ordination that would allow academic staff and students to enjoy mobility and transferability. In line with this assumption, “comprehensive universities” were expected to combine formative and career-focused, technological, higher education through student access to a wider variety of courses with different entry requirements, student mobility between career-focused and formative courses, expanded research opportunities by linking applied research (a typical strength of the former

technikons) to basic research (a typical strength of the traditional university), and through their increased scope and capacity to address regional needs.

In identifying key changes in higher education in the period 1997-2003, some respondents (a mix of institutions, sectoral and stakeholder organizations, and policy analysts) referred to critical policy milestones such as the National Commission on Higher Education (NCHE, 1996), the White Paper of 1997, the Higher Education Act of 1997 and the National Plan for Higher Education (NPHE) of 2001. These respondents alluded to their significance in terms of how they provided the overarching framework within which further substantive changes have occurred or been given effect. In this Act, unless the context otherwise indicates, equity concerns also inform a stated commitment to changing staff demographics and making staff representative of the diversity of the country's population. In the South African context, transformation relates to societal change, not just overcoming apartheid but addressing technological change. As the Green Paper on Higher Education Transformation (Department of Education, 1996, section 4) proposed:

Transition and Transformation higher education policy in South Africa confronts two sets of challenges simultaneously... Successful policy will have to overcome a historically determined pattern of fragmentation, inequality and inefficiency; it will have to increase access for black students and for women; and it will have to generate new models of learning and teaching to accommodate a larger student population.... Successful policy must restructure the higher education system and its institutions to meet the needs of an increasingly technologically oriented economy; and it must deliver the requisite research, the highly trained people and the useful knowledge to equip a developing society with the capacity to participate competitively in a rapidly changing global context.

The transformation of higher education intended by the Ministry is a far-reaching process. It has three central features:

4.8.1 Increased participation

Greater numbers of students will have to be accommodated, and these students will be recruited from a broader distribution of social groups and classes. Such “massification” of South African higher education will necessarily involve different patterns of teaching and learning, new “curriculums” and more varied modes of delivery. In a situation of financial constraints, planning and negotiations will have to ensure that wider participation is affordable and sustainable.

4.8.2 Greater responsiveness

In essence, heightened responsiveness and accountability express the greater impact of the market and civil society on higher education and the consequent need for appropriate forms of regulation.

4.8.3 Increased cooperation and partnerships

The new system will emphasise cooperation and partnerships in governance structures and operations of higher education. The model of cooperative governance, proposed by the NCHE and endorsed by the Ministry, reconceives the directive role of the state with a steering and coordinating role. Relations between higher education institutions will see new partnerships and cooperative ventures among regional clusters of institutions in order to optimise the use of scarce resources.

4.9 LEGAL PROVISION ON HIGHER EDUCATION PROVISIONING

Any major changes in higher education must be underpinned by relevant education and training legislative framework that informs principles and practices. Accordingly, higher education institutions are increasingly being challenged to develop programmes to produce the type of graduate capable of matching the education requirements dictated by relevant South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) directives, and simultaneously meeting the increasing demands

for affordable quality education. In order to accommodate ODL transformational mode of teaching at higher education institutions, Unisa has advocated for the development of teaching and learning strategies that enhance student-centred education and training, and the acquisition of core competencies and learning outcomes needed in different social and economic sectors in the global village.

Outcomes based education (OBE) is seen as an attempt by the South African government to address the legacy of apartheid education. OBE is intended to produce a workforce for participation in an increasingly competitive global economy. As an approach it is meant to encourage skills development by focusing on what students can do with their knowledge as opposed to the input-based model characteristic of the apartheid schooling. However, OBE is condemned by critics for its singular emphasis on procedural knowledge (outcomes), arguing that procedural knowledge without propositional knowledge potentially views learners as “uncritical participants in the learning situation” (Mekwa 2005).

4.10 CURRICULUM POLICY REFORM, ARTICULATION AND OPERATIONALISATION AT UNISA

The underappreciated challenge facing educational reform is to improve our collective ability to conceptualize and operationalize change initiatives. In other words, we must learn to explicate the meaning and purpose of initiatives with adequate clarity and to translate them into sufficiently refined practical strategies so that they are commensurate with the intricately balanced matrix of countervailing factors operating within any education system.

4.11 TRANSFORMATION AND REFORM IN TEAM APPROACH PROCESSES

The broad spectrum of internal civil resistance in South Africa, together with global, regional, and national factors, ushered the collapse of the Apartheid regime (Price 1990). Indeed, it is arguable whether South Africa's democratic regime change, following the crisis of Apartheid rule in the 1980's, would have occurred at all without the contribution of black students from the 1970's onwards. These practices of resistance are faint images to the present generation of

students, a situation suggestive of the degree to which student life over the past ten years has become relatively “normal”. The democratic state intends higher education institutions to play a significant role in social transformation. Similar to post-authoritarian societies in the 1990's and post-independence African states in the 1950's (Coleman, 1994), the democratic South African state holds high developmentalist expectations for higher education institutions. In the main the state hopes that higher education institutions will contribute towards overcoming the legacies of the country's racialised development, transform the society along democratic and more equitable lines, and make the country more competitive in the global economic system. It is not self-evident that these goals complement one another and whether higher education institutions can or will rise to the challenges that have been posed for them by the new democratic government.

For Harvey and Knight (1996), transformation involved transforming institutions to enable learner transformation. For many governments and intergovernmental organisations, higher education has a key role in providing the change agents for the future. Higher education should provide a transformative experience for students, so that they can, themselves, take a leading role in transforming society. Thus, Harvey and Knight argue that higher education must itself be transformed if it is to be successful as a transformative process. In brief, such transformation requires the following:

- shifting from teaching to learning;
- developing explicit skills, attitudes, and abilities as well as knowledge;
- developing appropriate assessment procedures;
- rewarding transformative teaching;
- encouraging discussion of pedagogy;
- providing transformative learning for academics;
- fostering new collegiality;
- linking quality improvement to learning;
- auditing improvement (Harvey et al 1996).

The Ministry therefore agrees with the Council on Higher Education that:

“The categories of ‘historically advantaged’ and ‘historically disadvantaged’ are becoming less useful for social policy purposes....(and that) the 36 public higher education institutions inherited from the past are all South African institutions. They must be embraced as such, must be transformed where necessary and must be put to work for and on behalf of all South Africans” (CHE, 14).

4.12 VIEWS ON SOURCES OF POWER AND AUTHORITY

The concepts of authority, power and politics are inter-dependent in the sense that politics - whether of the specifically governmental kind (political parties, pressure groups, etcetera.), the economic kind (bureaucracies, the organization of the workplace into social hierarchies based upon status, etc.) or the interpersonal (relations between males and females, children and adults, etc) - involves the exercising of authority and power (Ashraf 2011). ODL institutions such as Unisa have their own politics that have direct bearing on power play particularly so when interracial acidities are at play.

Authority is a corner stone of an organization. It can be defined as the ability of an individual to seek compliance to the regulated instructions of the superior. It refers to the formal rights inherently available to a manager to give orders and see their compliance. According to Weber (1924), there are three types of authorities: Traditional, Rational and Charismatic authority. Traditional authority rests on an established belief in the sanctity of immortal traditions whereas legal authority rests on sheer legality of individual’s position (Ashraf 2011). The relationship between and among staff members is regulated by law or policy particularly so in South Africa. Because South Africa is a constitutional democracy, activities at work places are regulated by law.

The person who possesses power has the ability to manipulate or change the behaviour of others. Authority, on the other hand, is the source of power. Authority is legitimate and it confers legitimacy to power. Power itself need not be legitimate.

Authority exists where one person has a formal right to command and another has a formal obligation to obey. Authority may be seen as institutionalised power. For example, a police

officer has authority to “stop” a motorist. The motorist is legally obliged to comply. Managers are said to possess a “right to manage”. Employees are legally obliged to obey the employer's instructions provided these are lawful and within the scope of the contract of employment.

Whereas power and authority are potentially mandatory, influence, by contrast implies persuasion. Influence is usually conceived of being broader in scope, than power, Influence is more closely associated with leadership than power, but both obviously are involved in the leadership process. In organisations, employees may influence decisions through joint consultative committees and other mechanisms, yet the organisation reserves the final say.

This has been a recent trend towards empowerment, the shifting of power away from managers and into bands of subordinates. Empowerment occurs in varying degrees in different organisations.

4.13 WHAT IS POWER AND ITS SOURCES?

Relative to organizations, Cangemi (1992, 499) asserted, “Power is the individual’s capacity to move others, to entice others, to persuade and encourage others to attain specific goals or to engage in specific behaviour; it is the capacity to influence and motivate others”. Krausz (1986) argued ‘Power is the ability to influence the actions of others, individuals or groups’. Those in power have the ability and capacity to get others to do what they want them to do.

4.14 INTERPERSONAL SOURCES OF POWER

French and Raven (1959) identify five interpersonal sources of power: reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, expert power, and referent power.

4.14.1 Reward Power

Reward power is an individual's ability to influence others' behaviour by rewarding their desirable behaviour. Employees comply with requests and directives because of the authority of managers to grant rewards in the form of praise, promotions, salary increase, bonuses, and time-

off. Reward power can lead to better performance, but only as long as the employee sees a clear and strong link between performance and rewards.

4.14.2 Coercive Power

Coercive power is an individual's ability to influence others' behaviour by means of punishment for undesirable behaviour. For example, subordinates may comply because they expect to be punished for failure to respond favourably to managerial directives. Punishment may be major or minor, depending on the nature of omission or commission.

4.14.3 Legitimate Power

Legitimate power most often refers to a manager's ability to influence subordinates' behaviour because of the manager's position in the organisational hierarchy. Subordinates may respond to such influence because they acknowledge the manager's legitimate right to prescribe certain behaviours. Legitimate power is an important organisational concept. Typically, a manager is empowered to make decisions within a specific area of responsibility, such as quality control, accounting, human resource, marketing, and so on. Legitimate power is based on institutional norms and practices and from historical-legal traditions.

4.14.4 Expert power

Expert power is an individual's ability to influence others' behaviour because of recognised skills, talents, or specialised knowledge. To the extent that managers can demonstrate competence in analysing, evaluating, controlling, and implementing the tasks of subordinates, they will acquire expert power.

4.14.5 Referent Power

Referent power is an individual's ability to influence others' behaviour as a result of being liked or admired. For instance, subordinates' identification with a manager often forms the basis for

referent power; this identification may include the desire of the subordinates to emulate the manager. Referent power is usually associated with the individuals who possess admired personality characteristics, charisma, or a good reputation.

4.15 STRUCTURAL SOURCES OF POWER

Much of the attention directed at power in organisations tends to focus on the power of managers over subordinates. An additional perspective is that the characteristics of the situation affect or determine power. Important structural sources of power include knowledge, resources, decision making and networks.

4.15.1 Knowledge as power

Organisations are information processors that must use knowledge to produce goods and services. The concept of knowledge as power means that individuals, teams, groups, or departments that possess knowledge are crucial in attaining the organisation's goals. Intellectual capital represents the knowledge, know-how, and competency that exist in the organisation. This intellectual capital can provide an organisation with a competitive edge in the marketplace.

4.15.2 Resources as power

Organisations need a variety of resources, including money, human resources, equipment, materials, and customers to survive. The importance of specific resources to an organisation's success and the difficulty in obtaining them vary from situation to situation. The departments, groups, or individuals who can provide essential or difficult-to-obtain resources acquire more power in the organisation than others.

4.15.3 Decision making as power

The decision making process in an organisation creates more or less power differences among individuals or groups. Managers exercise considerable power in an organisation simply because

of their decision making ability. Although decision making is an important aspect of power in every organisation, cultural differences make for some interesting differences in the relationship. For example, in Chinese organisation, decision making power was more decentralised in manufacturing firms than in service organisations. The reverse was true in British firms, with power being more decentralised in the service organisations than in the manufacturing firms.

4.15.4 Networks as power

The existence of structural and situational power depends not only on access to information, resources and decision making, but also on the ability to get cooperation in carrying out tasks. Managers and departments that have connecting links with other individuals and departments in the organisation will be more powerful than those who don't.

4.14 CHAPTER SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This chapter dealt with CDA of documents in the form of legislative empowering provisions whose framework informs the conceptualisation processes for policy articulation and operationalization. Other documents were consulted for the purposes of clarifying related concepts used in legislative instruments. The purpose of the analysis was to examine how particular understandings of these legislative empowering provisions (law and policy) are mobilised by actors in the national and institutional political and educational fields, and to consider the impact of intercultural discourse in terms of the likelihood that it will contribute, or indeed impede, the development or realisation of a truly 'post-racist society' (Goldberg 2002).

The concepts of authority, power and politics in multicultural transitional organisations are inter-dependent in the sense that politics - whether of the specifically governmental kind (political parties, pressure groups, etcetera.), the economic kind (bureaucracies, the organization of the workplace into social hierarchies based upon status, etc.) or the interpersonal (relations between males and females, children and adults, etc.) - involves the exercising of authority and power (Ashraf 2011). ODL institutions such as Unisa have their own cultures and politics that have direct bearing on power play particularly so when interracial frictions are a factor.

There are many different versions of discourse analysis, drawing on a wide range of theoretical traditions in social theory (van Dijk 1997; Titscher, Meyer, Wodak & Vetter 2000). Fairclough (2003) differentiates between those approaches which pay close attention to the linguistic features of texts - which he refers to as textually oriented discourse analyses – and those which do not. The latter approaches, often influenced by Foucault (1972), generally focus on the historical and social context of texts and usually give little close attention to the linguistic features of texts. Fairclough's (2003) work draws on theories and techniques from a wide range of disciplines to bring together these different approaches and different levels of analysis. CDA of data assumed six principles notably; CDA addresses social problems, power relations are discursive, discourses constitutes society and culture, discourse is history, the link between text and society is mediated and CDA is interpretative and explanatory. The Higher Education Act 101 of 1997 in line with the Constitution of South Africa provides the legal foundation and framework for South African higher education. Higher Education (HE) institutions derive power, legitimation and authority from the above stated legislative empowering provisions among others to craft their own regulatory policies at local level.

4.15 PROJECTION FOR THE NEXT CHAPTER

The next chapter presents data obtained through the use of four data collecting instruments namely; blogging, structured interview, structured focus group, observations. CDA was used to analyse data thereof collected. The description of how emergent data was treated is also done. Non-verbal data such as cues was also considered and treated in the same manner as the other data.

CHAPTER FIVE: CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS (CDA) OF DATA COLLECTED

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Besides offering a focus on social change from micro and macro perspectives, the advantage of Fairclough's (2003) discourse analysis is that it necessitates a close textual analysis. In a systematic study of the connections between social processes and spoken texts, the discourses can be identified. The texts on policy implementation in multiracial environments thus bear witness to the discourses that operate within ODL in higher education (HE) administration. Consequently, it is the discourses themselves, rather than the documents and individual statements, which are the principal subject of my analysis in this study. For this reason the narrative material was treated as a whole: the various texts were assembled and treated as a single document in which different discourses could be expected to be found. The statements of individual interviewees were therefore of lesser significance, and could instead be treated as exponents of a discourse (Fairclough 2003, Wodak & Meyer (2001), Phillips & Jorgensen 2002).

The results of analysis were crucial to the examining of the ways in which participants in structured focus groups, blogging platform, observations and in-depth structured interviews related to, used and reworked the discourses dominant within team approach establishments in multicultural context as narrative frameworks to accentuate their research interests and practices.

5.2 MULTICULTURALISM AND TEAM APPROACH PRINCIPLE AND PRACTICES IN ORGANISATIONS

A multicultural work force is one wherein an organisation's employees include members of a variety of ethnic, racial, religious, and gender backgrounds. In today's globalized village, multicultural teams are composed of a significant proportion of people of all races who come from different countries endowed with different knowledge and skills to work in different organisations. Multicultural teams are formed because they improve organizational effectiveness in the global business environment (Cox 1993; Galbraith 2000; Kirchmeyer & McLellan 1991; Kirkman & Shapiro 2001; Tung 1993). Other cultural challenges in multicultural teams include

dealing with coordination and control issues, maintaining communication richness, and developing and maintaining team cohesiveness (Joshi, Labianca & Caligiuri 2002; Marquardt & Horvath 2001). Race and culture are terms that cover contested and polysemic categories, and one can just imagine how much more complicated the issue gets when incorporating into the mix related terms such as ‘multiracial’ or multicultural’. As Scollon and Scollon (2001, 128) contend, ‘the word culture brings more problems than it solves.’ Most importantly they strongly assert that ‘[c]ultures do not talk to each other; individuals do’ (Schollon & Schollon 2001, 138). With the above context in mind, the following nine themes provided the framework that I attempted to use to critically analyse narratives, in discursive texts, of multiracial participants whose ages ranged in age from twenty to sixty five on team approach guidelines as suggested in the Framework for the implementation of a team approach to curriculum and learning development at Unisa in line with Tuition Policy 2005. Ten lecturers who professed to be implementing the were requested to narrate their stories to their counterpart colleagues from the six colleges about how they succeeded in using the Framework for the implementation of a team approach to curriculum and learning development in the developing ODL amenable materials. It also included cues, body language and other signs that provided for understanding where power lied. It must be borne in mind that in qualitative research people see and experience situations differently and interpretations might differ depending on what one is looking for. The following are therefore my interpretation frames guided by the need to find out how team approach can be successfully employed in multicultural ODL working environments in South Africa.

5.3 PILOTING ANALYSED DATA

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) sees language as social practice (Fairclough & Wodak 1997), and takes into account the context of language use to be of crucial importance (Wodak 2001; Benke 2000). Van Dijk (2001) considers two levels for CDA: Macro and Micro. He believes that the use of language, discourse, verbal interaction, and communication are classified in the micro level of the social order. However, power, dominance and inequality between social groups are typically terms that entail the macro level of analysis. This means that in this study, CDA had to theoretically cover the well-known ‘gap’ between micro and macro approaches, which was of course a distinction that is a sociological construct in its own right (Alexander, Giesen, Munch &

Smelser 1987; Knorr-Cetina & Cicourel 1981). It can thus be claimed that the present study basically fits into the macro level. Such unequal power relations, they add, are manifested in many social encounters unavoidable in some professions (e.g. Unisa Principal, Vice Principal, Executive Directors, Directors and Chairs of Departments to name by a few).

According to Van Dijk (2001), a key concept in most critical studies on discourse is that of power, and more specifically the *social power* of groups or professions. In a nutshell, based on complex philosophical and social analysis, the social power is defined in terms of *control*.

As narratives in form of discourses became available for initial interpretations, the findings were thereof presented to participants for confirmation, correction or rejection. It was important to capture narratives as accurate as possible so analysis would enunciate as close a representation to of what discourses were meant to indicate as possible. At times my interpretations of narrative discourses would not accurately deduce what the participant intended to say. Language is power and can be subjected to many interpretations hence the need for piloting in order to verify with the participant narrator on the issue of ideology and context. I decided on an extra structured focus group session that involved the members who participated during data collection sessions in order to confirm, verify or refute my claims about their narrative discourses. Piloting findings can serve three very important purposes; contextualisation – to provide a context with discursive element; decontextualisation – to take an element out of its context and recontextualisation – to put an element into a new context (Woodak 2006)

It can therefore categorically be stated that the objective of CDA was, among other things, to reveal dominance relations between lecturers and education consultants, expose the legitimating of power and the manufacture of consent (Kress 1990). The following are findings generated by sifting through the participants' narrative discourses at macro level. Strauss and Corbin (1998) describe analysis as “. . . the interplay between researchers and data”, acknowledging that there is an extent of subjective selection and interpretation of the generated data. Rigor was enhanced by including reviewer triangulation, member checking, and using multiple data codes (Jackson 2009; Samuels 2009).

5.4 DATA INTERPRETATION AND ANALYSIS

Narratives as a distinct form of critical discourse as retrospective meaning-making are effective stories manifesting the conscious experience of every ‘thing’ in the universe. Narratives contribute to the construction of identity, which is defined as a series of reifying, significant, endorsable stories about a person (Sfard & Prusak 2005). Over a period of nine months, as a participant observer I listened, participated and observed, while collecting data from several sources, such as lecturers and DCLD education consultants engaging each other through stories, in structured focus sharing sessions, my journal, informal conversations and structured entrance and exit interviews as well as blogging. Once the data was ready for the final stage of analysis, i.e. mapping and interpreting the task here was not only to make sense of the individual quotes, but also to be imaginative and analytical enough to see the relationship between the quotes, and the links between the data as a whole. Sfard and Prusak (2005) support the notion that a collection of narratives that are significant and relevant is of paramount importance. Data interpretation and analysis was framed by the following two main questions and related objectives;

1. What are the views and experiences of multicultural professional academic staff and DCLD education consultants on the practical operationalization of team approach model?
2. How do those views and experiences relate to the development of curricular and teaching and learning materials in line with the Unisa’s Framework for the implementation of a team approach to curriculum and learning development at Unisa?

I used the following objectives to frame my study:

- (a) To explore discursive type (views and experiences) of multicultural academic lecturers and DCLD education consultants on an issue of a ‘team approach’ to curriculum and learning development discourse at Unisa and;

- (b) To determine how multicultural academics engage the Directorate of curriculum and learning development (DCLD) on processes of curriculum and learning development using a 'team approach' strategy at Unisa;
- (c) To analyse the text genres and discursive types that are outcomes of the process of production and interpretation of text such as policy frameworks, books, policy documents etc.;
- (d) To define collectively, the way and the manner in which rules of engagement and good practices in team approaches are constructed in processes of curriculum and learning development.

Narratives provided a mechanism for capturing the always-in-motion process of identifying, because they are" a discursive counterpart of one's lived experiences

5.5 PREPARATORY GROUND FOR ANALYSIS

I analysed views and experiences of multicultural groups and developed a mechanism to track member narratives and experiences using two main questions and four objectives feeding into the main questions. The transcripts were coded for analysis in the four main objectives feeding into two main questions. I did not include interruptions in my analysis, because I found these to be essentially non-existent (Walker & Aritz 2007). Krueger and Casey (2000) suggest seven established criteria, which suggest the following headings as a framework for interpreting coded data: words; context; internal consistency; frequency and extensiveness of narratives; specificity of narratives; intensity of narratives; big ideas.

Here below is one example of the extracts from participants' blogs. Gender issues were not taken into cognisance in this study.

Prof XXXX (Age 51, Male, Nationality: South African said...

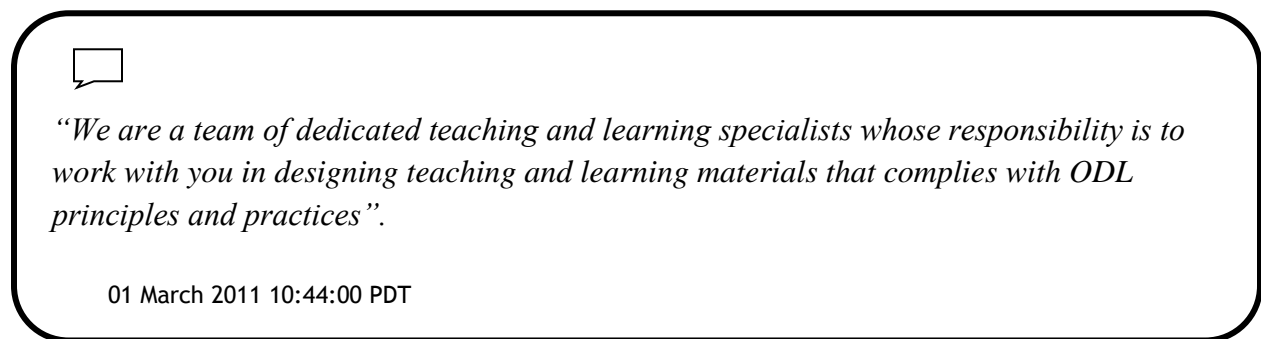


Figure 5.1: Sample of extracts of blogs by participants in the study on the implementation of Unisa Framework for team approach. (Nyoni 2011)

5.5.1 Lack of awareness of the Framework for team approach (TA)

The purpose of the framework is to provide a bridge between policies and open and distance learning (ODL) practice at Unisa. It incorporates

- the team approach advocated by the *Tuition Policy* as part of international best practice in the design and development of learning experiences and environments for distance education students;
- the developing of Council on Higher Education (CHE) and Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) quality regime (Unisa Framework).

In principle the Unisa's Framework for curricular design and learning development serves to assist academics to incorporate inclusive views and perspectives of a range of all diverse groups of people in post-colonial states like South Africa. I analysed narratives in form of texts in written and in verbal form on the knowledge of the existence of the Framework. Narrative in multiculturalism focuses on understanding derived from a starting point in experience rather than in theory; involves passionate, intensive, up-close participation rather than distanced objectivity; takes place over long periods of time; depends on the development of close relationships with participants often from different cultural, ethnic and language backgrounds; and values the kind

of knowledge co-created in these interactions (Clandinin & Connelly (2000, 50). Based on the work of Sarbin (1986) and Bruner (2002) among others, White and Epston (1990) created narrative therapy. Narrative work has as a straight forward platform: we live our lives according to the stories that others tell about us and that we tell about ourselves. As I set in all data collecting set ups that were spread over a period of one year including a blogging site, I attentively listened to both live and recorded success stories told by those who successfully implemented the Framework in their respective colleges in consultation with DCLD education consultants and those who did not. I also read participants' narratives on our blogging site. Indeed, stories shape their reality and inculcate meaning into their personal and work lives. For me what was of critical importance though was an interest in the analysis of responses to those practical demonstrations (by those who practised team approach) by other fellow colleagues. Any organization implementing a new way of doing business knows the importance of ensuring that company culture and systems support the change. In addition, executing change means facing new obstacles and challenges.

To help bridge this gap, some policy analysts point to the importance of advocates and leadership at institutional level who can keep multicultural education visible and garner resources for implementation (see, for example, Murtadha-Watts 1999). Data gathered indicated that a sizable number of participants were not familiar with the Framework for team approach to curriculum and learning development. Issues articulated referred specifically to teams formed when dealing with other research projects. On closer scrutiny more than half of the participants who took part responded by clearly stating that they were not aware of such a framework. One participant put it bluntly, *"I am not aware of the Framework ..."*. However a few participants from DCLD were aware of Framework for they were able to demonstrate how team approach was implementable in consultation with individual lecturers from interested colleges, *"We are a team of dedicated teaching and learning specialists whose responsibility is to work with you in designing teaching and learning materials that complies with ODL principles and practices"*. To some, the framework was just of symbolic value of team approach to ODL curriculum design and learning development. Some retorted, *"Some of us have been with this university for over twenty three years. What is new about this framework? With the teaching load that we have there is no time for us to be available for these consultative processes"*.

Situation awareness involves being aware of what is happening in the vicinity to understand how information, events, and one's own actions will impact goals and objectives, both immediately and in the near future. Lacking or inadequate situation awareness has been identified as one of the primary factors in the failure to be aware of the framework that was meant to assist in curriculum design and development in line with ODL principle and practices. *“What are you talking about here! If I need your assistance on power courses (signature courses) that is when I will come to you for help. Otherwise with other courses I will continue doing as I have been doing for the past number of years”*. Thus, situation awareness is especially important in work domains where the information flow can be quite high and poor decisions may lead to serious consequences.

5.5.2 Horizontal and vertical consultative processes

Team member relationship within multicultural teams is far more complex than that within culturally homogeneous teams as I witnessed. For example one could witness the sitting arrangements in the hall where people with shared cultural and linguistic persuasions sort of grouped themselves together which is a natural thing to do. But when it comes to engagement of multicultural community of practices (CoPs) only members with shared expertise will be or seen to be grouping irrespective of colour or cultural differences. In this case they supported each other during discourse engagements on cultural or racial persuasion. As noted by Zaharna (1996, 80) “different cultures have distinctive preferences for means of constructing logical arguments and persuasive messages”. They could be seen whispering to each other. Consultation in such multicultural groups is very important. Indications were that possibly there was lack of adequate horizontal and vertical consultation before the framework was articulated. Consultation and collaboration in multicultural environment need to be wide and deep. Using effective interpersonal, communication, and problem solving skills is essential because collaboration is based on communication and problems are resolved through discussion of factors related to the problem and ways to resolve the problem (Daniels & DeWine 1991). It must be borne in mind that lecturer mobility is high in a big institute that like Unisa. According to the Framework, curriculum therefore needs to be developed through a team approach including lecturers, tutors,

students, student support departments, and stakeholders from professional bodies and employer bodies. Interestingly, it will appear that the team approach process guidelines are partially adhered to at Unisa. Only modules or programmes that needed the blessing of Council on Higher Education (CHE) and Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) quality regime were concluded between the lecturer concerned in consultation with the education consultant concerned from DCLD. In the process stakeholders such as students, tutors and others were left out. *“There is really no time to attend these meetings. Our teaching loads do not allow us time to attend such meetings where members waste time talking and talking. Obviously it serves time to deal with the education consultant on one on one basis”*. Based on the above statement, it appears participants’ work situation (workload) does not fit well with the requirements of team approach. They express that time is a rare commodity that they cannot spend in team work.

According to Gibbs (1980), collaborators have an ethical responsibility to be aware of their own culture, values, and beliefs, as well as to understand how these differ from others'. The ability to acknowledge cultural differences in communication and relationships enhances success (Jackson & Hughley-Hayes 1993). It was clear in my analytical assessment that lecturers belonging to a particular race were not included in the practical demonstrations or were invited but never participated. When probed further during interviews the response, *“Some of us only learnt about the Framework when we were invited for the information sharing session on ODL. We were hoping to learn more about ODL not what is going on here”*. It was surprising to note that participants were not aware of the Framework. There is a lot of information being sent to lecturers by management from time to time but one would suspect that too much flow of such information guarantees reading by the recipients. I suspect lecturers do not value the urgency and the need to comply with the Framework. The Framework should never be voluntarily be complied with because it is meant to enforce laws such as the constitution and other legal instruments. Roberts, Bell, and Salend (1991) (a) understanding and appreciating cultural differences in verbal and nonverbal communication styles, (b) determining whether organizational mores tend to privilege or silence different groups of people, (c) developing a common set of meanings among collaborators, and (d) analysing the language used by collaborators and changing linguistic practices that are disabling to the collaborators.

5.5.3 Transparency in team approach formation processes in diversity

The academic and popular literature offers many ways of defining teams. In their extensive review, Bailey and Cohen (1997, 241) examined a large set of team definitions. Following this comprehensive review, they proposed the following definition of teams:

A team is a collection of individuals who are interdependent in their tasks, who share responsibility for outcomes, who see themselves and are seen by others as an intact social entity, embedded in one or more larger social systems and who manage their relationships across organizational boundaries.

Accordingly in my view, as indicated by (Bailey & Cohen & 1997, 241) very little evidence was demonstrated that indicated to me that wider and deeper consultative processes were undertaken in order to include all in sundry. Only a small pocket of participants particularly those who classified themselves as “pale” (not people of colour) were in a position to demonstrate how members were selected to form teams that worked for them. One white participant commented, “*I’m the only pale one in my Department...*”. The facilitator (not the researcher) invited them over to come forward to practically narrate their views and experiences to fellow colleagues how it was possible to implement the Framework. Others have studied team development in practice, but have focused on emerging team development without explicit intervention (see for an overview McGrath & O’Conner 1996), or on the relation between team characteristics and effectiveness (Campion, Medsker & Higgs 1993). I concentrated on how multicultural or interracial teams are able successfully implement framework or policy and remain effective in the achievement of goals. On close scrutiny some of the participants were surprised how those who were demonstrating were selected. Comments such as, “*How were these narrators selected and what criterion was followed? Team formation is viewed as an economic phenomenon reflecting the search for value, where individuals form teams if and only if they are relatively valuable but I wonder whether that was the case*”. One reads the feeling of mistrust and in itself poses a challenge for TA and transparency in team selection. A real team is one in which there is a team task, clear boundaries, specified authority to manage work processes, and some degree of membership stability (Hackman 2002).

5.5.4 Trust issues in multicultural teams (culture compliance and tolerance)

Research indicates that there is a strong correlation between components of trust (such as communication effectiveness, conflict management, and rapport) and productivity. Cultural differences play a key role in the creation of trust, since trust is built in different ways, and means different things in different cultures. It was observed during the sessions that ethnic and racial solidarity façade marred active participation in the multiracial group. Depending on who was responding at the time, responses were structured along racial lines.

When relationships between team members are built and confirmed on an on-going basis, a culture of trust will exist even when members are working virtually with one another. The way a group behaves and performs affects individual members. When trust is present and group behaviour is positive, so too will be team member's evaluation of the experience. An individual's positive evaluation of the team leads to greater trust and on-going participation. The collaborative participation of team's members translates into group behaviour in a cyclical pattern as shown below. Another example concerns trust, of major importance in crisis communication. If citizens do not trust authorities and their communicators, it is very hard to reach and influence them during a crisis situation. The cultural background is one relevant factor behind trust and it is not uncommon that persons with a foreign non-western origin, with experiences from authoritarian regimes, have low trust in emergency authorities.

5.5.5 Mentorship (Role modelling)

Mentoring is a critical component of career development and success for clinical translational science research faculty. A comprehensive mentoring programme was introduced by the University of California San Francisco (UCSF) that began in 2007 with the Mentor Development Program (MDP) in conjunction with the launching of a campus wide faculty mentoring program. The goal of the UCSF Faculty Mentoring Program is aimed at all junior faculty members in all four professional schools with the goal to pair each with a career mentor to oversee and support their professional development. The Career Mentor is usually in the mentee's department, should not be their direct supervisor, and is assigned (or approved) by the departmental mentoring

facilitator affiliated with the Faculty Mentoring Programme. Scheduled meetings take place at least 2-3 times per year.

5.5.6 Stakeholder ownership

The concept of stakeholder participation and consequently of stakeholder analysis as a first step was adopted by the public sector in the 1980's and 1990's. A stakeholder is defined as any person, group, or organization that is affected by the causes or consequences of an issue (Bramwell & Sharman 1999). It has been widely accepted that the implementation of new laws, ODL organisational initiatives and projects depend on the active support of the affected people, a process which is also described by the term "ownership". Ownership of processes means that stakeholders see these as part of or supplement to their own livelihood strategy. Participants feel that from policy articulation right up to the implementation stages their participative roles were minimal. I found no evidence that indicated to me that participants took ownership of the Framework. Some viewed it as an instrument or tool that was used by the management to control employees' activities.

5.5.7 Transformation and empowerment (Lecturers feel disempowered)

A skilful facilitator, as well as being able to manage the existing relationship, could create an environment in which the participants who do not know each other feel relaxed and encouraged to engage and exchange feelings, views and ideas about an issue. Empowered teams and related concepts, such as autonomous task groups, self-managing groups or self-organization have received a lot of attention in theory and in practice (e.g., Dumaine 1990; Manz, Keating & Donnellon 1990; Mohrman, Cohen & Mohrman 1995; De Sitter, Den Hertog & Dankbaar 1997; Stewart & Manz 1995). I was able to generate data based on the synergy of the group interaction (Green et al. 2003). Indications in the group sessions were that participants sat according to their racial inclinations and were particularly keen to listen attentively to the stories told by their counterparts and were more ready to defend them during cross examination sessions. The story tellers were not drawn from all the six colleges but only three. Self-managing teams are seen as a solution for organizational problems and are often introduced with the objective of

simultaneously improving an organization's productivity, as well as the employees' quality of working life (Manz 1992). The principle of “minimal critical specification” has to do with the distribution of control within an organization and refers particularly to local autonomy and decentralized control. Lecturers felt disempowered when requested to work with DCLD. By the same token what emerged in this study was that there was a clear disjuncture between DCLD and Lecturers in terms of the former's role and mandate. The “norm” and “them” was apparent throughout. The lecturers believed they were within their contractual obligations to remain in charge of their areas of expertise and no one else should interfere. This was the “norm” since, *“This university was started! What experience and/or qualifications do these people have in ODL? Some of them were with us and some of us are even senior and more experienced than them”*. This comment came out strongly throughout the study. Team approach implies that there should be as few restrictions as possible on the ways in which tasks are performed and just enough direction to ensure that the task is performed properly while allowing for the employee's personal contribution (cf. Cherns 1987). “Them” was the term introduced by some lecturers who viewed DCLD as a separate entity that had nothing to do with their areas of specialisation even when DCLD indicated to them that their role was limited to advisory status on ODL andragogy (pedagogy) and not on content. It was clear that DCLD was not receiving cooperation from some lecturers and because processes are done on voluntary basis, their advisory services are curtailed, *“We can only assist those who are prepared to work with us particularly on signature courses”*. One participant declared openly who also felt DCLD was disempowered. Once the misunderstanding started to emerge, I could notice that issues of race also started to show.

5.5.8 Lack of multicultural knowledge and proactive coping skills

Creating and managing teams in the workplace can lead to effective outcomes, but the success and longevity of teams in organizations will depend on how thoroughly organizational leaders understand how to extract the gains teams can provide. If leaders don't understand the skills they need to possess, as well as the group processes that are required to create and maintain teams, then teaming will be destined only to be the management facade of the 90's. In the fast changing multiracial societies coping skills in ODL institutions become absolute necessities. Coping is defined as the dynamic efforts, which involve “the thoughts and behaviours used to manage the

internal and external demands of situations that are appraised as stressful” (Folkman & Moskowitz 2004, 745). One of the major findings from coping research is that problem-focused or action-oriented coping is strongly related to positive psychological outcomes, while emotion-focused coping, such as avoidance, tends to be associated with poorer mental health (e.g., Endler & Parker 2000; Folkman, Lazarus, Gruen, & DeLongis 1986b; Lazarus & Folkman 1984). Proactive coping involves more than simply anticipating a problem and regulating one’s behaviour and emotions, because it also involves cultivating coping resources and personal transformation so that one can adjust to any circumstances. Observing interactive engagements among multiracial groups, I noted that some participants evoke old socio-political differences. *“This is some kind of apartheid mentality! Huh! How come it’s only one racial group that is narrating their stories?”*, one participant retorted. The coping phase is when individuals begin to come out of their comfort zone and interact with others outside their own family or community.

5.5.9 Diversity in multicultural organisations

Diversity in this context covers gender, age, language, ethnicity, cultural background, sexual orientation, religious belief and family responsibilities. Diversity also refers to the other ways in which people are different, such as educational level, life experience, work experience, socio-economic background, personality and marital status. Workplace diversity involves recognising the value of individual differences and managing them in the workplace.

The most successful organisations focus on inculcating and embedding the principles of diversity in their culture and management systems. These organisations truly value diversity and recognise it in the way they do business. Diversity is reflected in their approach to people management, including performance management. It is a core element in leadership and leadership development and reinforced through performance feedback and assessment. On observation, the study shows that although participants engaged each other during the sessions and during blogging exchanges, there was an element of lack of diversity recognition particularly in relation to the value of individual differences. Due to limited work experience and educational level, the group that was at Unisa longer was actively engaged and this came out strongly when discourses

of team approach were articulated. The other racial groups' contributions were very limited and chose to listen along, *"This is their area of expertise! Some of us are expected just to follow.."*

5.5.10 Rapid flow of disseminated operational information

Welch and Jackson (2007, 188) argue that the purpose and role of internal communication is to; "promote commitment to the organisation, a sense of belonging to it, awareness of its changing environment and understanding of its evolving aims". The process of inter-cultural communication is even more complex in ODL multicultural transitional formal organisations where multilingual communicative instruments are employed. Keyton (2005, 13) defines organisational communication as "a complex and continuous process through which organizational members create, maintain, and change the organization". In such circumstances, the responsibility for communicating does not lie solely with the management, but all members of the organisation must participate in the communication process. Vesala-Varttala and Varttala (2010, 26) argue that, especially in multicultural settings, creating an internal communication network becomes crucial to successful communication. At Unisa despite concerted effort exerted on campaigns that sought to promote the Framework, evidence indicate that the rapid flow of information left lecturers more confused than anything else. The top-down uni-directional rapid flow of information seem to remain locked up in computer generated folders. One participant responded, *"Never heard of this team approach framework..."* of which the facilitator responded, *"Take time to check your intra net ..."* As Huczynski and Buchanan (2007, 178) point out, we do not receive communication passively, but participate actively in the communication through decoding the message. As I listened to narratives, I was intrigued by the following that kept on being repeated from time to time;

'You don't want to spoil relations [by complaining], and I don't know if I would use anti-discrimination legislation. If I'm being honest, there are instances where it's better just to keep your mouth shut.'

Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999, 60) posit that, "CDA begins from some perception of a discourse-related problem in some part of social life". The above assertions show therefore that

there exist racial tensions and there is a need to find amicable multiracial solutions that will encourage participants to view each other as colleagues and not as culturally different racial groups. Globally, ODL institutions are ethnically diverse and increasingly multicultural; reality is negotiated and constructed in cultural contexts and situations, rather than distributed from a sender to a recipient. It is true that campaigns were carried as I alluded to in at beginning of this paragraph but that was supposed to be followed up by holding s multicultural briefings where constructive engagement with the framework would have happened to the satisfaction of all parties concerned. From an organizational perspective the subject that is threatened and under pressure is the organization itself where management find themselves in a situation that “[. . .] interrupts normal organizational functioning” (Lee & Fouts 2005, 278).

5.6 ANALYSIS OF CUES, SIGNS AND OTHER NONVERBAL GESTURES

A number of techniques that extract data or study user needs and requirements, such as structured interviews, structured focus group discussions and heuristic observations, have been widely adopted by researchers (Hayes 1992; Urban & Hauser 1993; Nielsen 1993). It follows from literature that in multicultural situations, as in South Africa, verbal and non-verbal communications are governed by cultural factors specific to those cultures. It has been observed that such behaviours are specific to the culture from which they belong (Yeo 1998, 2001; Clemmensen & Goyal 2005; Vatrapu & Pérez-Quiñones 2006). Non-verbal cues may even take precedence over verbal expressions in difficult cross cultural situations wherein language, mannerisms, and cultural unfamiliarity play a role. Of the five documented types of non-verbal cues namely;

- *Paralinguistics* deals with vocal cues, such as pitch, tone, intonation, and modulation, which accompany speech. These also include sounds from the throat, such as humming or filling silence with sounds like “ummmm” “or” “aaaa”.
- *Proxemics* deals with the study of space elements, such as distance between people and objects. Edward Hall, an American anthropologist who coined the term, defines proxemics in terms of four zones, namely: (a) Intimate - which extends from 0 to 0.5 m (b) Personal – 0.5 to 1.2m ; (c) Social – 1.2 to 3m; (d) Public – 3m.

- *Artifacts* has been associated with the study of non-verbal messages sent out by personal accessories, such as dress and fashion accessories, worn / used by a person.
- *Chronemics* is related to the study of time and its relative understanding by the persons involved. Pauses, silences, and response lag during an interaction are some of the issues.
- *Kinesics* or kinaesthetic (both occur in published literature) deals with postures, gestures, head-nods and leg movements. In this study, I concentrated mainly on kinaesthetic gestures.

Ekman and Friesen (1969) have further sub-categorised gestures into four types namely *Emblems, Illustrators, Regulators, and Adapters*. Emblems are direct translation of culture specific signs like nods of head for “yes” or a V sign to indicate victory. Illustrators emphasize actions, such as banging the table, cutting the air sharply, or sketching in the air a circle to emphasize a round geometric shape, pointing the inside of palm indicating a colour of a particular race or outside the hand indicating the colour of another race. Adapters are unconscious actions of the body like snapping knuckles, shaking a leg rhythmically, touching oneself - stroking hair or chin while in deep contemplation, and shifting the orientation of one’s body to get relief from imagined pressure or discomfort.

Regulators are used to control the flow of conversation such as nodding the head up and down to indicate agreement and as though signalling the other to continue the conversation. As seen above, the number and type of non-verbal cues that a researcher can observe is large and requires micro level observations of each frame of a video. Most cues occur simultaneously and in clusters necessitating repeated frame rewinding of the tapes during coding. The unit of analysis was the participants’ non-verbal communication behaviour, namely hand, head gestures, facial expressions and legs that yielded a lot of hidden data. Focus group discussions and structured interviews sessions yielded a lot of data indicative of power dynamics at play. When the select group was narrating their views and experiences, part of the audience was observed shaking their heads sideways in disbelief and quickly looked down to hide their faces. During the question and answer sessions, the culprits did not bother interrogate the issues under discourse. Part of the group that belonged to another racial group nodded their heads in agreement. It was difficult to ascertain whether those who nodding their heads in agreement were in agreement with the

narrators that they too were implementing the policy or it was because they were protecting their kith and kin. The opposite would be said of those who were in disagreement. What was clear was that participants were not free to express their views on sensitive issues for fear of being reported to the powers that be.

5.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The practice of working in teams is becoming more prevalent in all types of organizations. Interdepartmental teams are formed to engage workers in collaborative efforts to resolve problems, integrate new programmes and/or processes, and engage in long-range planning. Interdisciplinary, cross-functional teams are formed to bring together all stakeholders in an organization to improve communication, increase involvement, improve quality and efficiency, and increase productivity (Sutcliffe & Pollock 1992). Merely putting people in teams, however, does not guarantee that the teams will be effective. Getting people to work together--to listen to every member, to consider all viewpoints, and to exercise courtesy and respect for each other--has always been a challenge. In today's multiracial society, when cultural diversity is common in workplaces, consultation and collaboration have become an even greater challenge.

This chapter relates to critical discourse analysis (CDA) (e.g. Fairclough 2003; Wodak 2006); CDA focused upon the ways in which the availability and localized uses of certain discursive constructions maintain and legitimate existing power relations within institutions and institutional practices, either directly or through incorporation. Methodologically, CDA can be described as an attempt to bridge the gap between macro and micro-levels of society by focusing on specific instances of language usage and broader relations of power (Van Dijk 2001). The discursive themes noted in this chapter certainly do not claim to constitute the only way of abstracting the views and experiences of participants. Rather they should be regarded as an organising mechanism for discussing the way the discourse about positive interactive relationships among multicultural professionals. The interpretations like all interpretations offer but one window into the process.

On the basis of the data collected and subsequent coding thereafter, ten themes emerged. I then followed up by discussing each theme under separate individual headings.

5.8 CONCLUSION

Returning to the original two main questions that related to analysis of the views and experiences of multiracial professional academic staff and DCLD education consultants on the practical operationalization of team approach as well as how such views and experiences related to the development of curricular and related teaching and learning materials in line with Tuition Policy (2005).

The Framework model was used to collect data from the participants. Four identifiable data collecting instruments were used namely, structured interviews, structured focus group, observations and blogging.

5.9 NEXT CHAPTER PROJECTION

The next chapter discusses research findings, summary of main claims, discussion of findings, recommendations for future research, limitations of the study and conclusions.

CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Discussion of the qualitative research design of the empirical critical narrative enquiry was divided into two chapters; Chapter four and five. In chapter four findings from documents that discussed frameworks and/or policies, legislative empowering provisions and other related issues on education provisioning in Higher Education in South Africa were discussed. Discourses of South African Higher Education (HE) provisioning in general and open and distance learning (ODL) in particular were included in my discussion. Chapter five's findings are framed within the empirical research obtained through the use of the following instruments; blogging, structured focus group, semi-structured interview and observation. This chapter includes the summary of the study, conclusions, discussion of findings, implications for practice and recommendations for future research. In the process of analysis in chapter five, the findings were integrated where appropriate with those in chapter four.

The purpose of this study was to collect and subsequently analyse the views and experiences of academic staff (lecturers) and DCLD Educational Consultants concerning the practical operationalization of the team approach to curriculum and learning development at the University of South Africa (Unisa). Critical discourse analysis (CDA) was used both as methodology and a tool for data analysis. I critically analysed the views and experiences, in narrative form and discursive texts of academic staff, one Director and DCLD education consultants on issues of policy operationalization at Unisa given the multicultural composition of staff in particular. I was able to determine and understand how academics engage the Directorate of curriculum and learning development (DCLD) in the process of curriculum and learning development in line with the Unisa's Framework for the implementation of team approach to curriculum and learning development. Lastly I analysed the text genres and discursive types that were outcomes of the process of production and interpretation of text such as national law in education, policy frameworks, books, policy documents etc.

The following are the two questions that served as lenses I used to carry out my study;

1. What are the views and experiences of multicultural professional academic staff and DCLD education consultants on the practical operationalization of team approach model?
2. How do those views and experiences relate to the development of curricular and teaching and learning materials in line with the Unisa's Framework for the implementation of a team approach to curriculum and learning development at Unisa?

6.2 RESEARCH FINDINGS

The fact that this research was exploratory in nature and character, the analysis thereof was therefore deductive. The capture of the results reflects the findings as I interpreted them taking into cognisance my biases in treatment of emergent data. In my analysis of the research data obtained through the use of four distinct data collection instruments, it was apparent that there is a cultural divide that hinders the operationalization of the Unisa's Framework for the implementation of team approach to curriculum and learning development which may be attributed to the failure to identify and manage intercultural identity issues. Endeavours were made to interpret data as accurate as possible and trustworthiness was achieved by using a variety of data collecting instruments as well as piloting of findings thereafter.

6.2.1 Findings from related literature

Related literature indicate that the history of distance education could be traced back to the early 1700s in the form of correspondence education, but technology-based distance education might be best linked to the introduction of audio-visual devices into the distance education institutions in the early 1900s. Garrison and Shale (1987a, 10-11) define distance education offers a minimum set of criteria and allows more flexibility. They suggest that:

- distance education implies that the majority of educational communication between lecturer and student occurs non contiguously

- distance education involves two-way communication between lecturer and student for the purpose of facilitating and supporting the educational process
- distance education uses technology to mediate the necessary two-way communication.

The term open and distance learning (ODL) reflects both the fact that all or most of the teaching is conducted by a facilitator removed in time and space from the student, and that the purpose is include greater dimensions of openness and flexibility, whether in terms of access, curriculum or other elements of structure (UNESCO 2002, 8). The characteristics of ODL include among others, students register any time and structure their programmes to suit their planning frameworks, they use a variety of technology to enhance their learning styles; study from anywhere anytime using available technology; ODL institutes strive to use students centred teaching and learning virtual methodologies. It is also characterised by two factors: its philosophy and its use of technology. Most ODL systems have a philosophy that aims to:

- remove barriers to education
- allow students to study what they want, when they want, where they want.

ODL systems typically use technology to mediate learning; for example:

- printed workbooks
- audio cassettes
- radio
- the web

Literature also indicate that ODL discourse in the 21st century focuses on policy and implementation as, “It is more than ever clear that open and distance learning will be an important element of future education and training systems” (Moore & Tait 2002, 10). As borders become fluid in the global village the thirst for education becomes stronger as students yearn to become skilled and knowledgeable. Another UNESCO report noted, “A developing country has to find new methods that will dramatically improve both its children’s schooling and its continuing education system” (Moore & Tait 2002, 18). “There is now widespread recognition that the way forward is to make greater use of open and distance learning (ODL), whether in the form of print-based distance learning courses, interactive radio, computer-based

learning or web-based learning. “These methods offer more education for the same unit of resource, easier access and higher quality than can be obtained by traditional methods in countries with poorly financed education systems” (Moore and Tait 2002, 19). Pityana (2008) summed up the potential of ODL in his inimitable style when he stated:

Open and Distance Learning is an idea whose time has come. It is spearheading an innovative, technology-driven wave of education provision, both public and private, that is rendering international and national borders increasingly porous and challenging traditional and existing notions of dedicated spaces for face-to-face education versus so called “distance” education.

In response to the national and continental clarion call for expansive creation of learning spaces for massive prospective students, Unisa in its part strives to promote African thought, philosophy, interests and epistemology (Unisa Strategic Plan 2015) and seeks to achieve this through the use of its resources for inquiry, scholarship and partnerships. Unisa as literature states promises to utilize rich human potential and infrastructure to address the legacy of neglected and marginalized issues relevant to South Africa and the rest of Africa. Unisa endeavours also to provide a unique opportunity to uproot orthodoxies in knowledge production and dissemination by asking afresh the fundamental questions relating to the roles, purposes and functions of the University in society, and having asked those questions, indicating what would constitute an agenda for transformation.

In order for Unisa to fulfil its mandate it needed to harness expert human capital from its merger partners and elsewhere. The diverse nature of university complex operations and the need to transform itself, forces it to draw its workforce from an equally diverse group of multiracial academics from the globe. Transformation relates to issues of power and responsibility to deal with issues of curriculum reform and instruction in mega universities such as Unisa. In South Africa diversity philosophy is encouraged among multiracial groups. However diversity means good manners, now called civility (Hu-DeHart 2003). Nowhere does this definition state, or even hint or imply, that differences are socially and historically constructed and hierarchically arranged. Nor does it allow that most differences carry real and differential meanings regarding

power and privilege (Hu-DeHart 2003). Thus, within multicultural education the focus is on “several forms of difference [for example, race, class, home language, gender, sexual orientation, disability] that also define unequal positions of power in South Africa” (Sleeter & Grant 2003). The emphasis on the links between forms of diversity and relations of power is the main factor differentiating multicultural education from diversity observance. Thus team approach epistemologies of multicultural diversity must not superfluously be viewed as the end in themselves but an integral part of multicultural leadership and education.

6.2.2 Findings from analysis of legal frameworks

Post 1994, impressive progress has been made in education, policy development, curriculum reform and implementation of new ways of delivering education but many challenges remain in many areas such as higher education (HE) student throughput and work related multicultural staff cohesion and development. In South Africa higher education provisioning is regulated through a number of pieces of legislation and policy guidelines under the auspices of the Department of Higher Education (DoHE). The following four paragraphs discuss some of the legislative documents that empower Unisa as an ODL institute to adopt policies designed to guide their vision and mandate.

6.2.3 Higher Education Legislative Environment

Universities are regulated by the *Higher Education Act* of 1997. The Act makes provision for a statutory Council on Higher Education (CHE) to assure quality through a body known as the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) which is responsible for capacity building relating to quality assurance, accreditation of programmes and audit of institutions in South African universities. The *Higher Education Act* takes precedence over all other Acts, including the *South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act* of 1995. This Act establishes a National Qualifications Framework.

Some of the principles espoused in these Acts, which must influence our curriculum development, are

- redress,
- equity,
- national socio-economic priorities,
- excellence, and
- quality assurance.

Despite the fact that the Act acknowledges ODL as a methodology that can be adopted to educate students in the country, the State is very slow in articulating national ODL policy to guide all ODL operations and practices in South Africa. It becomes more difficult ODL institutions like Unisa to benchmark their practices.

6.2.4 Unisa 2015 Strategic Plan Revisited

Unisa's vision is, "Towards the African University in the Service of Humanity". The relevance of the curriculum will therefore be measured against the extent to which Africanization and service to humanity are infused into the curriculum. Considerations of globalization should not be neglected, though. Unisa in its 2015 Strategic Plan admit that the profile of the management, particularly at the middle management level, is highly skewed in terms of race and gender representation. It can be inferred that the status quo can be a source of multiracial conflict as other races jostle for academic space and recognition. This also could hold true that it can be difficult to operationalize the team approach principle. It boggles one's mind whose views and perspectives are used in the processes of rearticulation and revision of learning experiences.

6.2.5 Unisa Tuition Policy 2005

Unisa makes use of a systematic process for the design and development of quality ODL materials. This is a complex process involving

- identifying team members
- scheduling the process
- completion of forms for approval, registration and accreditation
- designing a learning strategy consistent with the delivery mode, as well as an assessment and a learner support strategy

- developing study materials (See Policy for Prescribed and Recommended Books; Policy for Tutorial Letters and Policy for Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs)).

The policy advocates the establishment of teams on an ad hoc basis for purposes of (re)designing of curriculum as well as learning experiences for ODL students in line with national mandate. Teams invariably can be composed of members from multiracial backgrounds working together towards the philosophy of the Africanisation of the institute.

6.2.6 Unisa's Framework for implementation of team approach (TA)

The purpose of the framework is to provide a bridge between policy and open distance learning (ODL) practice at Unisa. It incorporates

- the team approach advocated by the *Tuition Policy* as part of international best practice in the design and development of learning experiences and environments for distance education students;
- the developing Council on Higher Education (CHE) and Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) quality regime.

The dichotomy faced by role players in multicultural teams is how to work together given political and cultural differences compounded by skills and knowledge disparities. Unisa Tuition Policy 2005 concedes that until such time as the merger preoccupations are successfully dealt with, uncertainty will prevail, and will affect productivity, efficiency, morale and effectiveness.

6.3 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS FROM EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) led to the emergence of the following themes in the study:

1. Lack of awareness of the Unisa's Framework for the implementation of team approach to curriculum and learning development
2. Horizontal and vertical consultative processes
3. Transparency in team approach formation processes in diversity
4. Trust issues in multicultural teams (culture compliance and tolerance)
5. Mentorship (role modelling)

6. Stakeholder ownership
7. Transformation and empowerment (lecturers feel disempowered)
8. Lack of multiculturalism knowledge and proactive coping skills
9. Diversity in multicultural organisations
10. Rapid flow of disseminated operational information

Some of the themes mirrored findings from previous multiracial research, such as transformation and diversity being the necessary compromises in multiracial interactions, new themes also emerged. To be culturally sensitive, I used multiracial persons as interviewers and facilitators to increase the comfort level of multiracial participants and allow them to share more personal and relevant information during the data collecting processes (Root 2003). This strategy is used in social sciences research to minimize miscommunication and power imbalances between interviewers and multiracial participants (Singh & Johnson 1998).

The major theme of *lack of awareness* of the Unisa's Framework for the implementation of team approach to curriculum and learning development, representing expressions of failure to acknowledge the instruments that governed the rearticulation processes at Unisa, was prevalent throughout. It was possibly indicative of participants' inability to adapt to ODL policy changes.

The theme of *acceptance of diversity* illustrated the importance of appreciating and valuing cultures different from one's own. The persistent tendency to continue forming teams on racial lines possibly points to participants' inability to appreciate issues of diversity and trust.

The theme of *transformation* illustrated lack of participants' commitment to transformation and multiculturalism. Failure to engage each other openly on issues of transformation, minorities will continue to feel dissatisfied and might disengage from multiracial team efforts.

Due to lack of *multiracial coping skills* team members often covertly and/or overtly expressed frustration or disillusionment, which, if not managed effectively, can cause destructive conflict and be a barrier to team performance. In their research on multicultural teams, Brett et al. (2006)

acknowledge that such obstacles are often very subtle, difficult to recognize and present themselves clearly as a dilemma only after significant damage has already been done.

The quality of the *mentoring relationship* has been found to vary considerably. Like most work relationships, mentoring relationships can range from highly satisfying to dysfunctional or harmful (Eby, McManus, Simon, & Russell 2000). It emerged in the study that some lecturers lacked quality mentoring relationship to shadow newly appointed appointees.

Consultancy channels, meaning who informs who, and which routes communication flows in organization, depend on power structure. Thus, it was not surprising in this study individual multiracial group felt left out of decision making processes at Unisa. In line with Hayward's (2000) theory, I posit that the power of all actors is constrained by structural forces, but some actors face more constraints than others.

The rationale behind the *stakeholder ownership* in multiracial engagements is that not everyone in the organisation has control over all decisions, but that no avoidable asymmetries exist in who controls the mechanisms of power. What is important is that whenever reasonable, everyone should be able to be part of the decision making process including policy articulation.

The *empowerment* themes suggested to me that each individual racial group felt threatened by the management "over there". They believed that schemes were being developed to get rid of the experienced members of staff altogether. Participants' felt disempowered to take decisions and also because they felt that their colleagues would in any event complain about the decisions made.

Issues of *trust* involves the level of one's racial identity that shapes self-perception, comfort with self and others, degree of willingness to work towards change, understanding of racial realities in society, openness to listen and accept new information.

6.4 SUMMARY OF MAIN CLAIMS

The study found out, as indicated by the themes that emerged, that participants particularly from the lecturers' side in the majority of cases do not use the Framework for the implementation of curriculum and learning development when developing modular materials. Efforts are only made when they are involved with signature courses. DCLD personnel are quite aware of the existence of the Framework and work with it on a day to day basis but are powerless to act when lecturers do not approach them for educational consultancies services.

The study also revealed that the multicultural tensions are mainly in the covert domain or deeper level of culture which confirms the finding by Brett, Berfar and Kern (2006) that the obstacles related to multicultural conflict are often very understated, difficult to recognize and present themselves as a dilemma only after significant damage has already been done. Multicultural team approach (TA) advocates in line with the Unisa Tuiton *Policy 2005* the use of international best practice in the design and development of learning experiences and environments for distance education students. Results indicate however those curriculum transformation efforts are constrained by practices that simply further identify some as "the norm" and everyone else as "the other". The detrimental status quo breeds practices that deny multicultural students with a more complete and accurate understanding of society and the world. It becomes even more difficult for lecturers who find themselves having to teach in multicultural institutions with prior knowledge and experience. It also emerged that a culture of dichotomy; "us" and "them", as indicated above, was apparent during the participants' discourse of the operationalization of the Unisa's Framework for the implementation of team approach to curriculum and learning development which may be attributed to the failure to manage intercultural identity issues.

6.5 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

My social reconstructionist perspective takes two late modern societal characteristics as starting points. First, that in Africa in particular we live in an increasing "environmental complexity" (Murphy 1996), an "era of multicultural fluidity and uncertainty" (Lerbringe 1997), in a "risk society" (Beck 1992) as a part of reflexive modernity (Giddens 1990), where humans and

organizations experience a higher degree of uncertainty than in earlier times. Second, that we live in a society that is ethnically diverse and increasingly multicultural. In South Africa, as an example, immigration has led to a radical change in population since the 1700s. Post 1994 the South African population consisted of persons with foreign backgrounds, which means that they were either born in another country or that both parents were born abroad, according to Statistics South Africa (2000). The demographic changes call for a different theoretical perspective that enables practitioners to manage the social reconstruction processes risk in late modern organizations and societies from a multicultural perspective. In fact, this perspective is necessary not only because of the multicultural context. In a wider sense, it may be integrated into a cultural and reflexive social engagement perspective that challenges the mass and system oriented paradigm.

In an African context, theories of “internal colonialism” hold a prominent position. In the work of early theorists including Fanon (1963; 1967), Memmi (1969), Freire (1972) and DuBois (1935), as well as more recent studies scholars influenced by Gramsci (1985, Foucault (1972) and Bhabha (1994) and the reinterpretations of diverse African intellectuals, internal colonialism is a form of socioeconomic-cultural domination based in capitalist hegemony and racism, and historically exercised by local and regional governing elites over the indigenous groups. Accordingly, a post (de)-colonization of thinking would help South Africa as a multicultural society overcome the colonized modernity and the ambivalence of dualistic racism, and reconstruct a new way of living together in the globalized planet. Fanon (1968, 30) asserts, “What I want to do is help the black man to free himself of the arsenal of complexes that has been developed by the colonial environment”. Invariably, the majority blacks find themselves in the integrated society and hybridity of cultures in post-colonial Africa and that poses a new challenge for negotiated co-existence that needs the restoration of reason and rationality.

For Fanon, the restoration of reason can only proceed from the restoration of humanity. The “major basic problem” for him is “that of restoring man to his proper place” (Fanon 1968, 88). In respect to the fight against modern colonization, racism, and the coloniality of power, abstract universals appear as inefficient and despicable as theocratic principles (Fanon 1968). They help to delay transformation, empowerment, and reconciliation and to make certain problems

invisible, but not necessarily inexistent. It is from here that for Fanon (1968) the struggle of decolonization necessitates the articulation of alternative ideas of reason and freedom. Fundamentally, in South Africa for example the politically emancipated people need to re-assess the state of their political consciousness in the way they engage the previously dominant and powerful minority group. I argue that with time, cultural mores and values have shifted due to interactions between and among cultures from all over the globe giving birth to cultural dilution and people have assumed different identities. It is worthy to assert that those who have gained political power need to mentally detox alien colonial complexes that make them fail to take charge of their socio-political destiny by perpetually thinking that they are ‘victims’ and those who would have lost power “owe” them something. The successful detoxification of these alien colonial complexes will help “restore themselves to their proper places” (Fanon 1968, 88).

Figure 6.1 serves to explain how the detoxification of mind by those who would have gained power can help enable them to begin to assert themselves in multicultural engagements in postmodern multicultural societies driven by porous and collapsing boundaries.

Detoxification of post-colonial complexes in multicultural societies

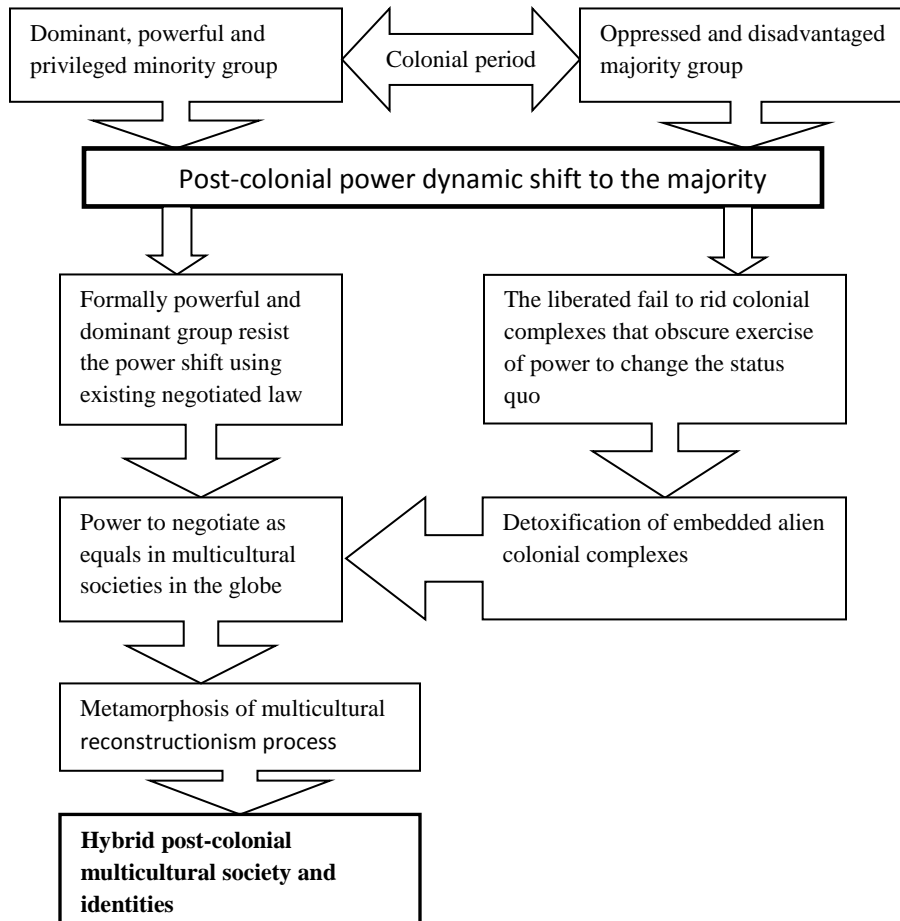


Figure 6.1: Detoxification of post-colonial complexes in multicultural societies. Constructed by Nyoni (2012) Adapted from Fanon (1968) ideas

6.5.1 Conclusion

To conclude this discussion chapter in which as a reconstructionist I strongly advocate for critical transformative multiculturalism properly grounded on the notion that culture in post-colonial state evolves over time. Accordingly, a post (de)-colonization of thinking and practices would assist post-colonial transitional societies overcome the colonized modernity and the ambivalence of dualistic racism, and reconstruct a new way of living together in the globalized planet. Fanon (1968) suggests that the struggle of decolonization necessitates the articulation of alternative ideas of reason and freedom. It is worthy therefore to assert that those who have

assumed political power need to mentally detox alien colonial complexes that make them fail to take charge of their socio-political destiny by perpetually thinking that they are “victims”. I argue that the mentality of “us” and “them” that might be in circulation in multicultural societies like South Africa can be addressed if only the craft of intercultural management policy strategies devoid of any political power interference are genuinely instituted.

6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH AND PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

Unfortunately, cross-cultural researchers have paid more attention to synchronic studies (i.e., those of a process at one point in time) than to diachronic studies (i.e., those of a process as it changes over time). Culture is typically treated as a static variable, as if it were frozen in time; the temporal dimension is ignored. It is tacitly assumed that members of the same cultural group can be lumped together, regardless of age or generational differences.

6.6.1 Policy

I recommend to Unisa as an ODL institution to articulate policy that promotes multiculturalism and cross-cultural understanding where the cultural diversity of all people is valued, supported and enhanced to collectively build a self-reliant, prosperous university. It appears therefore that the operationalization of the Unisa’s Framework for the implementation of team approach to curriculum and learning development will largely remain symbolic if Unisa at leadership level fail to craft appropriate interracial policy designed to bridge the gap between; “us” and “them”. To help bridge this gap, some policy analysts point to the importance of advocates and leadership at the institution level or such multicultural policy frameworks may be largely symbolic. It was apparent that there is a cultural divide that hinders the operationalization of the Framework for team approach which may be attributed to the failure to identify and manage intercultural identity issues.

In an area where there have been few studies, joint investigation and policy dialogue across disciplines, sites, and socio-historical contexts could help develop essential principles, identify

implementation issues, and envision new multicultural policies at the local, state, national, and international level. Culture is often at the root of communication challenges. Exploring historical experiences and the ways in which various cultural groups have related to each other is the key to opening channels for cross-cultural communication. Cultural differences in multicultural teams can create misunderstandings and conflicts between and among team members before they have had a chance to establish any credibility with each other. Thus, building trust is a critical step in creation and development of such teams. As a manager of a multicultural team, one needs to recognize that building trust between different people is a complex process, since each culture has its own way of building trust and its own interpretation of what trust is.

Individual and collective change requires regular and frequent introspection and self-critiques to examine how assumptions and practices are expressive of and resonant with transformational goals. Cultural change requires the creative disruption and rupture of entrenched ways of thinking, acting, relating and performing within the institution and a willingness to adapt. A good design of the structure of the participatory organs (committees) that ought to be adjusted from time to time to be in line with the organisational structure of positions and the legal regime, Service users frequently discussed concerns regarding a lack of control over various aspects of their lives.

6.6.2 Implications for practice

The transformative agenda of multicultural education moves beyond celebrating diversity to providing meaningful access to all students. Multicultural education, described as transforming access, builds on the work of Sleeter and Grant (2003, 195) who advocate “Education that is Multicultural and Social Reconstructionist”. Many authors who discuss cultural competence emphasize the importance of communities of practice (CoP) members’ ability to reflect on their own cultural backgrounds, to examine their biases and behaviours, and to analyse the implications of these factors for interactions with others (Chau 1992; Hardy & Laszloffy 1992; McRae & Johnson 1991; Ridley, Mendoza & Kanitz 1994; Seliger 1989; Van Soest 1994). Recognition of biases begins with self-reflection. Multicultural individuals must look critically at their own belief systems, values, and worldview and the ways in which they affect practice.

Professional development programs should be made available to help staff and faculty understand the ways in which social group identifications such as race, ethnicity, home language, religion, gender, sexual orientation, social class, age and disability influence all individuals and institutions.

Ethical conduct of policy articulators is enhanced by knowledge of differences in beliefs and practices that emerge from socialization through racial and ethnic group affiliation and membership and how those beliefs and practices will necessarily affect the education, training, research, and practice of education. Leaderships' knowledge about the roles of organizations, including employers and professional employees, is a potential source of behavioural practices that encourage discourse, education and training, institutional change, and research and policy development that reflect, rather than neglect, cultural differences.

Policy strategies that articulate respect and inclusiveness of all cultural groups, recognition of cultural contexts as defining forces for individuals' and groups' lived experiences, and the role of external forces such as historical, economic, and socio-political events should be encouraged on a sustainable level.

6.6.3 Recommendation for future research

Future research would also benefit from other paradigms and methodologies which look for the reflexive best solutions to deal with this timely and highly critical issue of multiculturalism in institutions of higher learning (HE) between and among employees. Rather, I advocate for a multicultural approach to institutional transformation, a process that will be inclusive, process oriented, and continuous. Research on multicultural collaborations and critical reflexivity particularly in the African context is very thin. It will be commendable for more research in this area to be undertaken extensively so that we begin to understand how the gap between 'us' and 'them' can be narrowed or managed effectively in multicultural engagements. The current status quo does not auger well for effective transformation and reform of curricular, policy and practice in post-colonial Africa. Research that focuses on the complexity and serendipity of the positioning process can provide a theoretical tool for sensitively apprehending change

management. The cultural (Alvesson 2002) and symbolic (Tierney 2008) dimensions of any change initiative are mediated through argentic processes governed by filters that define how individuals will position themselves. These factors may all in equal measure diffuse or interfere with the initial intentions of the policy maker, however skilfully those are thought out.

Recognition of the ways in which the intersection of racial and ethnic group membership with other dimensions of identity (e.g., gender, age, sexual orientation, disability, religion/spiritual orientation, educational attainment/experiences, and socioeconomic status) enhances the understanding and treatment of all people (Berberich 1998; Greene 2000; Jackson-Triche et al. 2000; Wu 2000).

6.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study has three major limitations commonly seen in studies. First, the participants comprised a small sample multiracial academic lecturers, one Director and education consultants from Unisa. Although it was heterogeneously selected, the multicultural composition might have limited the generalizability of results. People's differences in age, social economic status, and other demographics may affect people's attitudes towards the concept of multiculturalism.

Secondly, the current study only focused on two possible predictors: intercultural communication sensitivity and multiculturalism. These two key factors are important but there must be additional factors that deserve further investigation.

Finally, although the critical discourse analysis (CDA) was both used as a method and data analysis to generate information on the operationalization of the Unisa's Framework for the implementation of a team approach to curriculum and learning development in multiracial ODL working environment, other research paradigms and designs should be explored to investigate multiculturalism to generate rich data to the timely issue facing communication researchers.

6.8 REFLECTIONS ON THE STUDY

The issues of power and power relations were evident during the study. Such issues were particularly amplified during the intercultural discourses of policy implementation at Unisa. The study was not intended per se to investigate challenges experienced by multicultural working relations in a working setting, but sought to use the Unisa's Framework for the implementation of a team approach to curriculum and learning development as a model to understand how members of multicultural community of practice (CoP) can work together to achieve common institutional goals. The narrative research design was meant to capture views and experiences on the operationalization of Unisa's Framework for the implementation of a team approach to curriculum and learning development. Research undertakings on multiculturalism particularly in post-colonial societies are very intricate and appropriate data collection instruments are equally difficult to identify. However the study managed to get a multicultural people from the six colleges and DCLD engaging each other on issues of rearticulation and development of learning experiences.

Although the critical discourse (CDA) analysis pointedly uncovered a gap that existed between different racial groups whose impact might contribute towards the slow response to operationalization of the policy, more comprehensive research studies are needed in order to proffer sustainable interracial management strategies. If the status quo remains so will be the curriculum and learning development efforts and the possibility of Unisa becoming an African university will be compromised. Intercultural or cross-cultural communication barriers such as anxiety, uncertainty, stereotyping, and ethnocentrism are caused by inadequate cultural knowledge and the lack of intercultural communicative skills.

6.9 CONCLUSION

Brett et al. (2006, 1) proffers that the major challenge in multicultural teams is as follows:

The challenge in managing multicultural teams effectively is to recognize the underlying cultural causes of conflict, and to intervene in ways that both get the team back on track and empower its members to deal with future challenges themselves.

The underlying implications of the above statement are that a policy can easily become symbolic if all stakeholders fail to work in tandem. It is very easy for multicultural groups to begin to interrogate each other on issues of political allegiances, race, gender, qualifications, work related experiences, places of origin, sources of power and power relations if they fail to find common ground for working in collective partnership. Du Plessis (2011) believes that, “understanding of cross- and transcultural conflict and performance in teamwork in the current South African organizational context requires a thorough understanding and acknowledgement of the fundamental paradoxes and conflicts inherent in multicultural teamwork”. Systems in an ODL environment must function in a co-ordinated manner as the study managed to unearth uneasy working partnerships formed between and among colleagues from the six colleges and DCLD. College participants viewed themselves as “us” because they felt that they were the masters of their areas of expertise and “them” referring to DCLD as they viewed them as “intruders” to their working spaces. By the same vein multiracial colleagues also viewed themselves as “us” as they sought to group themselves according to racial or ethnical lines and “them” referring to who did share any cultural inclinations. The fissures show that there is need for a thorough understanding of complex “team approach paradoxes” in order to find management strategies that will coax multicultural groups into working in tandem in order to achieve Unisa’s common vision. Fanon (1968) sums it up nicely by stating,

“To educate man to be actional, preserving in all his relations his respect for the basic values that constitute a human world, is the prime task of him who having taken thought, prepares to act”.

In the Unisa context, where the transformation, diversity and redress imperatives have dominated policy discourse, there is the danger that if too much emphasis is put on these without taking into account the balance between multicultural and curriculum needs, then such policies may become empty rhetoric, and narrow conceptions of transformation, diversity and redress would be futile in dismantling the apartheid legacy and helping build the human capacity that Unisa needs in order to become a strong, united, democratic and prosperous organisation in the 21st century.

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ANNEXURES

ANNEXURE 1: Information on Consent form for the Director, academic lecturers and DCLD education consultants

Informed consent form information

Focus

The research project is intended to use Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) to explore and analyse views and experiences of multicultural academic lecturers, the Director for DCLD and Educational Consultants on how a team approach is used in the development of curricula and modules that are in line with Tuition Policy, (2005).

TITLE OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT:

DISCOURSES OF MULTICULTURAL TEAMS: IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY PRACTICE IN OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING

This consent form information document is kindly directed at all prospective participants who will be drawn from all academic lecturers in the six colleges at Unisa, DCLD Director and Educational Consultants. I am Jabulani Nyoni a PhD student in Education Management. I intend embarking on a study entitled: **DISCOURSES OF MULTICULTURAL TEAMS: IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY PRACTICE IN OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING** Consent forms will be distributed to thirty academic lecturers who will be purposively sampled from the six colleges, six Education Consultants and one Director. The study assumes a qualitative critical discourse analysis (CDA) methodology and will use the following data collection instruments; online blogging, structured interviews, observations and structured focus group.

The thesis is meant to generate academic knowledge that could be used to improve team approach strategies in the designing of Open and Distance Learning (ODL) curriculum and learning development in line with legal instruments such as law and policy. Notwithstanding emergent data, I intend organizing three one hour structured interview sessions where

prospective participants will discuss how team approach is used in the development of curriculum and modules that in line with ODL principles and practices at Unisa. These sessions will be under observations to gather data. Structured interviews will be conducted with selected prospective participants from the six colleges and DCLD Educational Consultants. During the interview and focus group sessions, recordings will be done. The Institute of Open and Distance Learning organizes sessions where lecturers debate issues of Curriculum and learning development. It will be during these sessions where data will be collected. I will visit lecturers, the Director as well as Educational Consultants each on individual basis after having made appointments to collect data. Participation in this research project remains voluntary and confidential at all times. Prospective participants will not be asked to reveal any information that will allow their identity to be established, unless they are willing to be contacted for individual follow up interviews. Should they declare themselves willing to participate in an individual interview, confidentiality will be guaranteed and they may decide to withdraw at any stage should they wish to discontinue with the study. Possibilities for harm during data collection sessions are very remote. Participation during the study will contribute towards knowledge generation such that a deeper understanding of how best team approach can be effectively used in curriculum design and development. Data will be accessed by the researcher in confidence and will only be stored in safe place for a period of three years before being disposed of. Findings will only be used for the purposes of generating knowledge on the improvement of ODL team approach good practices in curricula craft and module development in multicultural setups.

Prospective participants should understand that their voluntary participation also means that they may withdraw from the research project at any time. Participation in this phase of the project does not obligate prospective participants to participate in follow up individual interviews, however, should they decide to participate in follow-up interviews their participation is still voluntary and they may withdraw at any time. Under no circumstances will the identity of interview participants be made known to [any parties/organisations that may be involved in the research process and/or which has some form of power over the participants].

Yours Sincerely



HANDWRITING/ SIGNATURE

Jabulani Nyoni
P.hD Student

ANNEXURE 2: Information on Consent form for the Director, academic lecturers and DCLD education consultants

Consent form

DISCOURSES OF MULTICULTURAL TEAMS: IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY PRACTICE IN OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING

I..... hereby give my consent to be part of a human research study to be undertaken by Jabulani Nyoni, College of Education; Further Teacher Education, Unisa.

I understand that the purpose of the research is to;

1. Explore and analyze views and experiences of policy implementers regarding the implementation of a team approach to curriculum and learning development.
2. Understand how academic lecturers and DCLD Education Consultants collectively develop curriculum and learning experiences using a team approach model. Data will be used for Unisa purposes only as well as P.hD project with identical aims and objectives.

I am fully aware and acknowledge that;

1. The objectives, methods, anticipated benefits and possible risks of the project have been explained to me.
2. I voluntarily and freely give my consent to my participation in this research project.
3. I understand that results will be utilized for research purposes only and may be published in scientific and academic journals.
4. Individual results will not be released to any person.
5. I am free to withdraw my consent at any time during the study in which event my participation in the project study will immediately cease and any information obtained from me will be discarded and I may not suffer any reprisal for withdrawing from the research.

Signature Date.....

Tick in the appropriate box indicating your choice

I ACCEPT

I DECLINE

ANNEXURE 3: A sample of guide on online blogging

Online blogging

You are requested to consult with DCLD and other stakeholders on issues of curriculum design and learning development in your respective areas of operations. What are your views and experiences as regards these consultative processes? These discourses will be done over a period of six months (one semester).

Day 1

1. In point form blog daily your views and experience about team approach

2. What policies do you consult when developing curriculum and learning materials?

3. Give a brief explanation to answer (2)

4. Whom do you liaise with when engaged in curriculum and learning development?

5. Briefly describe how you would use a teach approach to develop curriculum and teaching modules in your area of specialty?

ANNEXURE 4: A letter of request to do research at Unisa

Enq: Mr J. Nyoni

IODL

University of South Africa

Date:....

The Vice Principal: Research and Innovation

University of South Africa

P.O. Box 392

Unisa

0003

Request for permission to interview Unisa staff members for my research

I hereby request for permission to conduct interviews with members of the University of South Africa. The purpose of the research is to collect data required for my research entitled: **DISCOURSES OF MULTICULTURAL TEAMS: IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY PRACTICE IN OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING.** The participants shall include academic lecturers and subject advisors from the DCLD. Interviews shall be held as per an agreement with participants

Your co-operation in this matter will be greatly appreciated.

Yours faithfully



HANDWRITING SIGNATURE

Nyoni Jabulani (Ph.D Student)

ANNEXURE 5: Sample interview plan

Introduction of interviewer

Hello! My name is _____. And I have been asked to _____

During the interview, I would like to discuss the following topics: Team approach to curriculum design, consultative processes between lecturer and education consultants, challenges with the Unisa's Framework and views and experiences, With these topics in mind...

Multicultural 'team approach' to curriculum design and learning development

Main question	Additional questions	Clarifying questions
What are your views and experiences about the 2006 Framework for the implementation of a team approach to curriculum and learning development given the reality of multiculturalism at Unisa?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How did you learn about this framework? • How were you included in the team? • Under what circumstances was the framework articulated? • What is the purpose of the framework? • Which people are most affected by the framework? • Have you noticed any changes in the quality of materials over the past few years? • How can the framework be improved? • How do you explain the problem? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can you expand a little on this? • Can you tell me anything else? • Can you give me some examples? • Can you expand a little on this? • Can you tell me anything else? • Can you give me some examples?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In your experience, which implementation challenges bother people the most? • Generally speaking, are people satisfied with the framework? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Why? • If not, what are the main problems that you have witnessed or heard about? 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In your opinion, how satisfied are people with the team approach processes in relation to your partnership with education consultants? 		

ANNEXURE 6: Sample Focus Group Timeline

Action	Person Responsible	By When
1. Write a focus group purpose statement		
2. Develop screening instrument to qualify participants for focus group purpose		
3. Select a facilitator		
4. Develop the questions (Topic Guides)		
5. Develop a script (Focus Group Protocol)		
6. Arrange and reserve the session site		
7. Follow up with potential participants with phone calls		
8. Make room arrangements (seating, equipment, refreshments, and so forth)		
9. Place a reminder call to the participants		
10. Gather session materials		
11. Conduct the focus group		
12. Transcribe the audio tapes and notes from the session		
13. Code the sessions		
14. Analyse sessions and write a report		

ANNEXURE 7: Group Activity Observation Form

Group Activity Observation Form

Date: _____ Exercise Topic: _____

Audience: _____ No. of participants: _____

Primary Facilitator: _____

Secondary Facilitator: _____ Observer: _____

Time Exercise Began: _____ Time Exercise Ended: _____

Learning Objectives of Exercise: Learn how team approach principle and practices can be implemented.

1. What questions did participants ask each other or the presenter?
2. Did any areas of confusion arise? ___Yes ___No
3. If yes, what were they?
4. And how did the facilitator handle the confusion?
5. During group work or case presentations, did participants help each other understand or apply the material? ___Yes ___No
6. If so, what did they do to help each other?
7. During open discussion, did the group have enough time to complete the assigned task? ___Yes ___No
8. Did they have too much time? ___Yes ___No
9. If so, how was the extra time used?

Did the group activity produce an outcome that indicates it was an effective way for individuals to practice and apply what was covered in the session?

ANNEXURE 8: Ethics clearance certificate

UNISA	 college of education
ETHICS CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	
THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT	
NAME: MR JABULANI NYONI	
STUDENT NUMBER: 06849482	
TITLE: A CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS (CDA) ON CURRICULUM AND LEARNING DEVELOPMENT: UNISA'S ODL EDUCATION CONSULTANCY (EC) APPROACH	
QUALIFICATION: D.ED	
HAS MET THE ETHICAL REQUIREMENTS AS SPECIFIED BY	
THE ETHICS COMMITTEE, COLLEGE OF EDUCATION UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA	
PROF L NYAUMWE	
CHAIRPERSON, ETHICS COMMITTEE	SIGNATURE
REGISTRATION NUMBER ...06849482/2011/001..... DATE...5 DEC 2011.....	
THIS CERTIFICATE IS VALID FOR THREE YEARS FROM THE DATE OF ISSUE	
	<small>University of South Africa P.O. Box 17, Boksburg 146 P.O. Box 192, Nylsburg 105 Telephone +27 (0) 11 550 1111 Fax +27 (0) 11 550 1100 www.unisa.ac.za</small>

ANNEXURE 9: Framework for implementation of Team Approach

FRAMEWORK FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF A TEAM APPROACH TO CURRICULUM AND LEARNING DEVELOPMENT AT UNISA

IMPLEMENTATION PROCEDURES FOR THE TUITION POLICY

Approved by Senate: 25 October 2006

Executive Director: Academic Planning to ensure annual updating

Outline of Implementation Procedures

Step 1	Academic Review and Renewal
Step 2	Project Team Formation
Step 3	Curriculum Planning
Step 4	Internal Checking
Step 5	Approval, Registration and Accreditation
Step 6	Learning Design
Step 7	Learning Development
Step 8	Quality Control
Step 9	Learning Facilitation
Step 10	Assessing Impact

List of acronyms used

APO	Academic Planning Office
BCCAD	Bureau for Counselling, Career and Academic Development
CHE	Council on Higher Education
DoE	Department of Education
DMI	Directorate: Management Information
DPA	Directorate: Planning and Analysis
DPC	Directorate: Planning and Coordination
DPAR	Directorate: Programme Accreditation and Registration
DQA	Directorate: Quality Assurance
HEQC	Higher Education Quality Committee of the CHE
HEQF	Higher Education Qualifications Framework
ICLD	Institute for Curriculum and Learning Development
Nadeosa	National Association for Open Learning and Distance Education of South Africa
ODL	Open Distance Learning
PMO	Project Management Office
SAQA	South African Qualifications Authority
TSDL	Tutorial Services, Group Discussions and Work Integrated Learning

Approved – Senate - 25.10.06

- 1 -

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Preamble

1. Purpose of Framework

The purpose of the framework is to provide a bridge between policy and open distance learning (ODL) practice at Unisa. It incorporates

- the team approach advocated by the *Tuition Policy* as part of international best practice in the design and development of learning experiences and environments for distance education students;
- the developing Council on Higher Education (CHE) and Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) quality regime.

3. Definition of Terms

The proposed framework incorporates both *curriculum* and *learning development*. An attempt will be made to define these terms below. Other terms that will be defined are *module*, *unit standard*, *programme*, *qualification* and *major*.

Curriculum

A discussion document from the South African Qualifications Authority (1996: 17) gives the following definition of ‘*curriculum*’: ‘A curriculum framework sets out the philosophical and organisational framework for a specific curriculum. Curriculum includes all aspects of teaching and learning’. Curriculum can therefore not be equated with content only. In designing a curriculum, we must understand the field in which we are working and that includes the following:

- the discipline(s)
- the higher education landscape
- legislation impacting on
 - o teaching, learning and assessment paradigms
 - o quality assurance

- o professional requirements
- national socio-economic imperatives
- open distance learning
- learning theory
- how adults learn
- learning mediation and facilitation, including the full use of all services available at the university:
 - o Institute for Curriculum and Learning Development
 - o Bureau for Counselling, Career and Academic Development (BCCAD)
 - o Tutorial Services, Group Discussions and Work-Integrated Learning (TSDL)
 - o Library
 - o Regional Offices
 - o ICT
- the profile of the target student population.

Curriculum therefore needs to be developed through a team approach including lecturers, tutors, students, student support departments, and stakeholders from professional bodies and employer bodies.

Learning Development

Learning development refers to the development of experiences and environments that will mediate the defined learning outcomes. Lecturers work in collaboration with support departments such as the following:

- Institute for Curriculum and Learning Development (for print, online and multimedia)
- Unisa Press (for graphic artists)
- Language services (for editing and translation)
- Library
- CENSE and Sound, Video and Photography for multimedia.

Learning facilitation is undertaken by lecturers in collaboration with various other roleplayers once students have received their material:

- Tutors (TSDL)
- Peer collaboration facilitators (BCCAD)
- Academic development staff (BCCAD)
- Counsellors (BCCAD)
- Literacy centre staff
- Library staff
- Regional staff
- ICT for learning management system, videoconferencing facilities and satellite facilities.

The *process* recommended in this document seeks to establish a quality-oriented culture in the development of learning experiences and environments for open distance learning at Unisa. The process stresses the time and wide involvement needed to produce quality ODL environments and experiences. The university will have to invest in this process and demonstrate the value it places on effective teaching/ learning mediation followed by effective learning facilitation if it wishes to improve student retention, success rates and eventual throughput. The process is necessary but to become practical the university will have to prioritize this way of working.

Qualification

In outcomes-based education, a qualification is the certification of the attainment of the learning outcomes of a coherent *learning programme* expressed as an accumulation of credits at specified levels, (with *rules of access* and *rules of combination*). A BA, for instance, is a qualification. A qualification represents the demonstrated achievement by a student of a planned and purposeful combination of learning outcomes 'which is intended to provide qualifying learners with *applied competence* and a basis for further learning' (National Standards Bodies Regulations, 1998). The qualification should enrich the student by providing her or him with marketable skills so that she or he can contribute to society. It should provide professional and skilled people. It should enhance access, mobility and professionalism. It should be quality assured.

Programme

A programme is any course of study that leads to an approved tertiary qualification registered with the NQF. It need not have an overt vocational purpose but it must prepare students for participation in society and the economy. Programmes should contain a matrix of *fundamental* ('that which forms the grounding or basis needed to undertake the ... learning required in obtaining the qualification': in essence literacy and numeracy skills, according to SAQA), *core* ('compulsory learning required in situations contextually relevant to the particular qualification') and *elective* ('enable learners to pursue some of their own learning interests' and to achieve the purpose of the qualification) learning. A programme is a purposeful and structured set of learning experiences designed to enable students to achieve pre-specified exit level outcomes. It is the purpose of the programme which gives rise to its learning outcomes and structure. A programme is therefore defined as a coherent combination of units of learning (modules) expressed in an outcomes-based format that leads to one or more qualifications, which serve an academic and/ or vocational purpose.

Major

A major is a specialization in a discipline at a university over a number of years. It signifies the planned progression of learning from first to third or fourth year of a formative or professional degree. Unisa divides its major into modules to facilitate delivery.

Module

A module is a coherent unit of teaching and learning activity expressed as an approximate number of hours of study. It is self-contained although certain combinations of modules may represent a progression through the curriculum, as with the major, or form learning programmes with specific purposes and outcomes. A module is designed to achieve a set of specific learning outcomes that are assessed within that unit of learning. For the purpose of articulation within Unisa, all modules must be multiples of 12 credits (120 notional hours). Each year of study (first, second or third year) will comprise ten modules (120 credits or 1200 notional hours). Each

module of 12 credits counts 0,1 in terms of subsidy, so ten modules equal 1 subsidy point per year of study.

Unit standard

Unit standards form the basis of qualifications generated by Standards Generating Bodies (SGBs). They are statements of what specific outcomes should be achieved in a particular unit of learning and how they may be assessed. The unit standard would include performance outcomes, a description of the knowledge to be gained and assessment criteria including both what students should be able to show at the end of a learning period and act as a *guide to the assessor* as to the levels of knowledge, performance and understanding the learner is expected to achieve. These unit standards would combine into a learning programme following certain rules of combination. For university purposes, a unit standard may be equated with a module of 12 credits and thus the equivalent of one hundred and twenty notional hours of work. Unisa's formal qualifications are not unit standard based. Short learning programmes at Unisa are unit standard based.

3. Higher Education Legislative Environment

Universities are regulated by the *Higher Education Act* of 1997. The Act makes provision for a statutory Council on Higher Education (CHE). The CHE has a quality assurance body known as the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) which is responsible for capacity building relating to quality assurance, accreditation of programmes and audit of institutions in South African universities. The *Higher Education Act* takes precedence over all other Acts, including the *South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act* of 1995. This Act establishes a National Qualifications Framework.

Some of the principles espoused in these Acts, which must influence our curriculum development, are

- redress,
- equity,
- national socio-economic priorities,
- excellence, and
- quality assurance.

Quality is defined by the CHE/ HEQC as *fitness of purpose* (meets national priorities and aligns with national legislation); *fitness for purpose* (aligns with institutions vision and mission), *value for money* and *transformation*. In planning new learning programmes or redeveloping the curriculum for a major, these elements must be considered.

4. Unisa Policy Environment

Unisa's vision is: "Towards the African University in the Service of Humanity". The relevance of the curriculum will therefore be measured against the extent to which Africanization and service to humanity are infused into the curriculum. Considerations of globalization should not be neglected, though.

Part of Unisa's mission is to be a comprehensive university: the range of our programme and qualifications mix must therefore reflect the comprehensive nature of the institution.

Unisa policies on teaching, learning and assessment can be accessed on the intranet in the Corporate Manual. The relevant policies are the *Tuition Policy*, the *Recognition of Prior Learning Policy*, the *Work-integrated Learning Policy* and the *Assessment Policy*. The *Tuition Policy* recommends a team approach to curriculum and learning development both as a best practice and as a quality assurance measure.

STEP 1

Academic Review and Renewal

The process described in this framework relates to major revisions as well as new programmes. The Department/ School/ College appoints a chairperson in response to revision cycle/ proposal for new programme/ client request. This chairperson is a senior academic who will lead a team comprising other lecturers as well as support departments and various stakeholders. The review and revision process is central to the quality management system of the university.

The focus should be on the (re)curriculation of a whole programme/ discipline to ensure coherence of the learning programme and outcomes, progression in terms of level descriptors

between different years of study, etc. The programme/ discipline can then be planned and developed module-by-module within this context year-by-year as it is phased in.

Because multi-functional modules that can be used in a variety of programmes at the same NQF level make distance education more cost-effective, one cannot insist on so close a tie between a module and a programme that it becomes unusable in other programmes where there is a proven history of the extended use of the module or a realistic projection that it will be used in this way.

Some disciplines have a fairly stable body of knowledge and skills at undergraduate level and therefore their courses might be revised rather than completely rewritten every cycle. However, understanding of teaching, learning and assessment might change more radically than the body of knowledge and skills, as might socio-economic and political imperatives. These aspects should also be evaluated every cycle, not just content.

It is recognized that academic renewal is an area of intense contestation and therefore a political and time-consuming process.

Deliverable(s): Proposal to establish a project team.

STEP 2

Project Team Formation

A **project team** is called into existence to scope the project. The team is led by the senior academic designated and includes at least the following people: subject experts, the Project Management Office (PMO), the Academic Planning Office (APO), the Directorate: Programme Accreditation and Registration (DPAR), Planning and Coordination (DPC), and the Institute for Curriculum and Learning Development (ICLD). The lecturer(s) and ICLD member should remain with the team throughout the curriculum planning and learning design and development phases.

Deliverable(s): Outline of project plan as well as identification of stakeholders for the curriculum planning process, scope, timelines, budget, task-teams, risks and workarounds, etc.

STEP 3

Curriculum Planning

A **curriculum planning team** is convened by the senior academic in charge with the administrative support of the Project Management Office. It should comprise at least the following stakeholders: subject experts from Unisa and other higher education institutions; professional bodies where relevant; employer bodies; students; prospective critical readers/moderators; potential outside authors and the ICLD. Curriculum is more than content and the team should consider not only what should be taught but also why and how. The curriculum should be developed bearing in mind that it needs to be delivered through rich environments for active learning. See the *Tuition Policy*.

Capacity needs to be developed in the Directorate: Planning and Analysis to provide the data needed for student profiles in an easily accessible way for curriculum planning purposes.

Deliverable(s): A **Curriculum Statement** that captures the purpose, media, outcomes, assessment, articulation, entry levels, etc. and a broad curriculum outline that conforms to legislative requirements, is in line with Unisa's vision and mission, considers the student profile, includes input from stakeholders, promotes the disciplines/ fields of study, includes student support strategies as an integral part of the curriculum, and is, above all, coherent. This should be ten to twenty pages at most and could include the SAQA registration form, the CHE accreditation form and the DoE approval form. The responsible academic should forward this document to the Directorate: Quality Assurance, the Academic Planning Office and the Directorate: Management Information.

STEP 4

Internal Checking

A **quality assurance team** comprising the chair, subject experts, the Directorate: Quality Assurance (DQA) and the Academic Planning Office (APO)¹ evaluate Curriculum Statement on the planned programme/ modules using CHE/HEQC criteria for the candidacy phase (first nine of the nineteen criteria)². In addition to these criteria, this team needs to consider the CHE/HEQC definition of quality that has four elements: fitness of purpose, fitness for purpose, value for money and transformation.

¹ The APO comes in here and not in Step 3 so that they are not both participants in the process and evaluators of the products.

² Consult the CHE/ HEQC's *Programme Accreditation Criteria* (<http://www.che.org.za>). The Curriculum Statement is simultaneously submitted to the Directorate: Management Information (DMI), to ensure that it complies with the Department of Education regulations for subsidy and the requirements of the Higher Education Management Information System (HEMIS).

Deliverable(s): Approval to go ahead with the submission of the programme to Senate/ Senex.

STEP 5

Approval, Registration and Accreditation

The subject/ field experts and ICLD should draw up the necessary documentation for internal and external **approval, registration and accreditation** (if applicable).

The Directorate: Programme Accreditation and Registration (DPAR) will keep the university informed of the forms needed for external approval, accreditation and registration (Mr Jan Munnik, Pretoria – 429 2309; Mr Deon Baird, Florida – 471 2335). All submissions to the Department of Education (DoE), the Council on Higher Education (CHE) or the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) must go through this Directorate as must all queries.

The Institute for Curriculum and Learning Development (ICLD) may be called upon to facilitate curriculum development; for expertise in learning theory and ODL and to assist with the formulation of purpose, outcomes, assessment criteria and cross-field critical outcomes on forms.

At October 2006, the forms are as follows: PURPOSE	FORM	UNISA CONTACT	UNISA INTERNAL ROUTE	EXTERNAL AGENCY
Approval for subsidy and PQM for qualifications	NATED 116 (University), NATED 150 (Technikon): CESM category, funding grid level (additional items as of 1 June) (known at Unisa as Form 5) ³	DPAR	Senate for changes that are not considerable Senate and Council for new majors, programmes or qualifications and for considerable changes	Department of Education
Approval for teacher education programmes	Prescribed form (known at Unisa as Form 4) ⁴	DPAR ICLD	School and College Tuition Committees College Board	Department of Education

³ The draft Higher Education Qualifications Framework (HEQF) will replace the NATED documents once officially approved, possibly from 2006.

PURPOSE	FORM	UNISA CONTACT	UNISA INTERNAL ROUTE	EXTERNAL AGENCY
Accreditation of programmes or qualifications	Since July 2005, an online system has been operational with an option to print a Word document; this Word document will serve at Senate ⁵	DPAR ICLD	School and College Tuition Committees College Board ⁶ Senate Senate and Council for new programmes or qualifications and for considerable changes	Senate Council on Higher Education

Registration of qualifications	Prescribed form (See <i>SAQA Act</i>) (known at Unisa as Form 1)	DPAR ICLD	School and College Tuition Committees College Board Senate Senate and Council for new qualifications and for changes to purpose, ⁷ outcomes, etc.	SAQA
Approval of internal modules and registration of <i>short learning programmes</i> in Unit Standard Format	SAQA Unit Standard form (known at Unisa as Form 3) ⁸	ICLD Short Learning Programme Committee	Senate for new modules Senex for short learning programmes	SAQA for short learning programmes

⁴ It seems that the draft HEQF will also replace this form.

⁵ Please consult the CHE/ HEQC's *Programme Accreditation Criteria* (<http://www.che.org.za>) when planning new programmes/ qualifications. Also consult the Nadeosa criteria (<http://www.saide.org.za>).

⁶ As a concession to merged institutions, Unisa may self-accredit re-curriculated programmes leading to qualifications already registered on the NQF, approved for funding by the DoE as part of old Unisa's, old TSA's or old Vudec's PQMs in the past and accredited by the CHE. Consult Mr Munnik or Mr Baird.

⁷ SAQA intends to register a system of generic qualifications such as the B. Com., LLB, Diploma in Communication, etc. They will not register programmes or specializations leading to that qualification. Such specializations will only be for noting and they will be included on the National Learning Record Database (NLRD). So we do not have to fill in another Form 1 for a specialization.

⁸ An online database is being developed internally at Unisa to allow lecturers to complete the form online and have it reviewed by an education consultant from ICLD. Once Senate has approved the module, it will be archived on the database for use by the lecturers, for Calendar purposes, for RPL purposes, etc. It will be released at the review date to allow for changes or replacement.

The DPAR in the Registrar's portfolio is responsible for all channeling of documentation to relevant external bodies and for keeping the university up to date on any changes. Lecturers should consult DPAR if they are in any doubt about which form to fill in or whether they need to fill in a form (e.g. a specialization area to an approved for an accredited and registered qualification does not require a new SAQA form or online CHE form to be completed). Training

in using the online system will be given by the CHE. The DPAR will be the only department that will have the code to submit the documentation.

Lecturers are responsible for

- the accurate naming of a programme/ qualification or module;
- knowing the NQF level, field and sub-field;
- specifying the number of credits;
- stating clearly the knowledge assumed to be in place;
- specifying articulation routes;
- including information on moderation options in line with the institution's *Assessment Policy*.

Lecturers should search SAQA databases to ascertain if a qualification or unit standard they are planning is already registered. This would save time and avoid lecturers having to fill in a new registration form or unit standard form for short learning programmes.

The following section outlines the internal and external processes for approval, registration and accreditation.

APPROVAL

Internal

Formal

The internal route for approval is the School and College Tuition Committees and then the College Board. The Senate has final approval of new majors, modules and specializations or programmes and the Council has final approval of new qualifications.

Short learning programmes

The internal route for approval is the School and College Tuition Committees and then the Short Learning Programme Committee. The Executive Committee of the Senate (Senex) has final approval.

External

For subsidy

The Department of Education (DoE) approves qualifications (at least 120 credits) for subsidy purposes. All qualifications of 120 credits or more have to be submitted for approval, registration and accreditation even if subsidy is not sought. All new

qualifications must be submitted to the DoE, as must any qualifications that differ substantially from approved qualifications. The forms to be used currently (January 2006) are NATED 116 for university-type qualifications and NATED 150 for technikon-type qualifications (Form 5). In general, the DoE would not approve new qualifications that do not form part of the institution's programme and qualifications mix (PQM) for a specific period (currently 2003-2006). The merger has given Unisa some leeway here.

There are two approval cycles a year. These dates usually fall in March/April and June or some time thereafter. Therefore, the latest date for new submissions to the Senate is the May meeting.

For notification and approval

The NATED forms are submitted for changes to existing qualifications to inform the DoE and obtain their approval. Changes could be to the name of the qualification (changed from B. Agric, Education to B. Agric.), the number of credits (e.g. reduced from 480 to 360 credits) or a new specialization (e.g. B. Com. With specialization in Human Resource Management). A new specialization to a generic degree does not require an accreditation form for the CHE or a registration form for SAQA. It merely requires the approval of the Senate, using Form 5, which will also be sent to the DoE for notification and approval purposes.

APPROVAL OF TEACHER EDUCATION QUALIFICATIONS

The DoE as the employer body for teachers has a form for the approval of teacher education qualifications prior to approval for subsidy. For teacher education qualifications, Form 4 as well as the online accreditation form must be submitted to the Senate.

ACCREDITATION

The Council on Higher Education (CHE) and its Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) are responsible for programme and qualification accreditation. The CHE/HEQC has introduced an online form for accreditation. The Directorate: Programme Accreditation and Registration. The CHE/HEQC, DPAR and the ICLD will demonstrate its use to academic staff. The Word version of this online document (obtainable from

DPAR with a generic example) is submitted to the Senate for the approval of new qualifications or for considerable changes to a programme or qualification. Council must approve new or substantially changed qualifications before they are submitted to the DoE for approval. The programme or qualification is only submitted to the CHE for accreditation once the DoE has approved it for subsidy purposes. It is submitted simultaneously to SAQA as the CHE/HEQC accredits qualifications registered on the NQF.

REGISTRATION

The South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) registers whole qualifications approved by the DoE as well as unit standards linked to registered qualifications. Their forms have remained almost the same as the format published in the *SAQA Act* in 1995. The qualification form (Form 1) is used for qualifications of at least 120 credits. Short learning programmes of fewer than 120 credits are unit-standard based. Each unit standard is submitted on the unit standard form (Form 3).

Unisa also uses the unit standard form for the submission of formal modules to the Senate as it is a good planning document and helps to institutionalize outcomes-based education. Modules, however, are not unit standards as they often focus on more than one unit of learning (e.g. Financial Management might focus on ‘drawing up financial statements’ as well as ‘analysing financial statements’).

For internal purposes, a cover page should be submitted with new modules, programmes and qualifications giving additional information relevant to academic planning and to the smooth functioning of academic administration in the university.

Deliverable(s): Internal approval of programmes and modules by Senate/ Senex⁹ where applicable. Approval of programmes by DoE for inclusion in PQM where applicable. Registration of programmes with SAQA where applicable. Accreditation of programmes by CHE/ HEQC where applicable.

STEP 6

Learning Design

Once the curriculum has been plotted and quality assurance and approval attended to, Step 6 starts, namely the **learning design** of the REAL (rich environments for active learning) experience, for each module.

The senior academic and the Project Management Office convene the team. The team should include the chair, ICLD, authors and teaching team, Language Services, the Library, the Bureau for Counselling, Career and Academic Development (BCCAD), Tutorial Services, Group Discussions and Work Integrated Learning (TSDL), Unisa Press (for graphic designers), ICT, Sound, Video and Photography and critical readers/ moderators.

Purposes:

- To develop a project plan
- To analyse the specific learning contexts as well as factors influencing effective learning and quality assurance.

Deliverable(s): Project Plan; Documentation (Form 3) that captures that purpose, media, outcomes, assessment, articulation, entry levels, etc. of each proposed module; Language Services brief.

⁹ The Academic Planning Office requested in 2005 that we use in our documentation the new ten-level draft Higher Education Qualifications Framework when planning for 2006 onwards as well as the NQF level. The HEQF is expected to be finalized by the end of 2006. Unit Standards for short learning programmes need to use the NQF levels until further notice as their documentation is immediately sent through to SAQA. Level descriptors must be applied as a quality assurance mechanism when planning majors, programmes and qualifications. A draft of the proposed level descriptors for the new ten-level NQF was released for comment by SAQA in November 2005.

STEP 7

Learning Development

Once approved, **learning development** commences, whether for print, multimedia or online environments. The different elements of the REAL (rich environments for active learning) designed in Step 6 are developed by teams comprising the author(s) of modules and ICLD as well as critical readers, graphic designers, media experts, online experts, etc. At this stage, assessment should be designed so that it is an integral part of the learning experience.

The lecturer(s) and ICLD member(s) are the main participants in this process, working directly with one another. Other departments will be engaged where relevant and less intensively as they do not have the same capacity.

Deliverable(s): Prototype study unit including layout, artwork, etc. Completed texts/ media/ online environments ready for editing and other processes. Art work brief.

STEP 8

Quality Control

Quality control is critical throughout.

- Parts of the material should be *piloted* with students and feedback recorded through quantitative or qualitative instruments designed by the author(s) and ICLD.
- *Critical readers/ moderators* must be involved in a continuous manner during the development of the material, and feedback recorded through a review instrument designed by the author(s) and ICLD.
- ICLD must be involved in a continuous manner in the development of the material.
- Graphic designers can be involved throughout as can multi-media specialist and online designers from ICLD as required.
- BCCAD should be involved as necessary.
- Once the materials are finalized, they are sent to Language Services where they will be edited according to the brief decided on at the curricula meeting and possibly adapted

during the learning development process. Language Services also has qualified web editors.

- The Project Management Office must ensure that all role players sign off on the final products and that their contributions are acknowledged on the title page of printed material.
- Production will also ensure quality and lecturers will sign off finally with Production after proofreading the material or with media after quality assuring the material.

Deliverable(s): Courses ready for publication/ production.

STEP 9

Learning Facilitation

Learning facilitation relies on a team approach as well. The senior academic will ensure that the new programme, major or module is marketed. S/he will involve Student Registration, the Regions and the BCCAD around pre-registration requirements for counselling. S/he will ensure that there is a tracking system in place to identify at-risk students after the first round of assessment and support them in a variety of ways. S/he will liaise with TSDL to ensure that tutors have a Tutor Guide on each module to support their work with students. Tutors will also be expected to give feedback to the relevant academic department(s) on a continuous basis. All assessment of students will be used to improve the course. After the examination an improvement plan will be developed for the following year and presented to the Executive Dean with the results. After the first intake, a survey will be sent to all students asking them to evaluate the module(s) or delivery or another form of evaluation such as a focus group interview will be used. It is crucial to have an effective Monitoring and Evaluation process and procedures in place to accompany the first delivery. The feedback and responses should feed into a review process, indicated as **Step 10**.

Deliverable(s): Marketing, registration, counselling, tutoring, assessment, student survey, review and revision/ improvement

STEP 10

Assessing Impact

Assessing impact should be preferably be undertaken by the academic department in consultation with ICLD, the DQA, DMI and APO. It is critical to assess each of the foci of the process, starting with whether the learning intervention had the expected impact.

Impact is the desired change in an organisation three to five years after the initial learning intervention. Although this may imply a very long period, feedback during this period could ensure sustained learning. It should also provide data for the CHE/HEQC final accreditation process that takes place once the first cohort has graduated from a programme, based on the last ten criteria in the *Programme Accreditation Criteria*. A site visit by a team of peer evaluators will occur at this stage. The Project Team should thus review the impact in the light of CHE/HEQC criteria.

The developing quality assurance system at Unisa will inform this step over time.

Deliverable(s): Annual report; self-study for CHE/ HEQC

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