

**Evaluation of Continuing Professional Development Programme
for Community Development Practitioners in the North West
Province of South Africa**

By

M.P. Molope

**Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree
of Doctor of Philosophy in Education Management at the Mafikeng
Campus of the North-West University**

Supervisor: Prof A.B. Oduaran

April 2017

DECLARATION



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I give glory, honour and appreciation to the Almighty God for guidance, support, wisdom, strength, love and protection granted to me during the course of this journey and beyond.

I wish to express greatest gratitude to:

My supervisor Professor A.B. Oduaran for his professional expertise, advice, patience, time and energy spent guiding me through this process.

My parents and brothers for their unconditional love and support.

My husband and our kids for making it possible for me to carry out this project. Your support, encouragement, understanding, love and care are greatly appreciated.

The statistician, Professor Moroke N., for her professional support.

The North-West University for granting me permission and financial support to undertake this research project.

The Department of Social Development, North West Province, for providing me with the opportunity to conduct this research project.

My family at large, colleagues, neighbours and friends for your direct and indirect support.

All the Community Development Practitioners, assistant managers, human resource manager and senior community development manager who took part in this study.

ABSTRACT

The aim of this evaluation study was to determine the usefulness of the continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners in the Department of Social Development in the North West Province, South Africa. The study evaluated the programme with specific focus on the context, input, implementation processes and product against Stufflebeam's CIPP evaluation model.

The study applied a mixed methods approach which employed the sequential exploratory strategy for the collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data. Quantitative data was collected from a randomly selected sample of 103 community development practitioners through a questionnaire. Interviews were held with four assistant managers, one senior community development manager and one human resource manager selected through purposive sampling. A total of 26 community development practitioners were also selected purposively for focus group interviews. Content analysis was used to gather qualitative data from the available programme documents. The Statistical Package for Social Science was used as a tool to analyse quantitative data in response to the research questions. Descriptive and exploratory methods were used to interpret the data. Specifically, exploratory factor analysis was used to determine the factors that influenced the decision to run the programme and those that hinder it. Descriptive statistics were used to summarise the demographic characteristics of the respondents and the responses.

The Pearson coefficient revealed a mixture of negative and positive insignificant relationships among the four identified constructs. The qualitative data was analysed descriptively. The process involved clustering the responses that brought out related aspects and coding the responses through application of in vivo coding allowing the categories to emerge from the responses. The study revealed that problems encountered in facilitation of community development influenced decisions to implement the CPD programme. However, while literature highlighted the significance of CPD in addressing the specific needs of the professionals, lack of tailor-made professional learning activities for the CDPs who do not have appropriate and relevant qualifications appears to be at the core of the factors hindering success.

Poor planning, shortage of resources and heavy workloads denied CDPs the opportunity of taking part in and benefitting from the CPD programme. Despite the fact that the CDPs prioritised CPD, sacrificed family time and recommended strategies to address professional learning related problems, their collective voice seemed was not heard by the authorities. While such a top-down approach to CPD engendered negative attitudes in some practitioners, others expressed interest in the CPD.

Based on the outcomes of this study, a framework was proposed for improving the input and output of the existing CPD programme. It is hoped that the framework if well-resourced and carefully implemented the North West Province, in particular, and South Africa in general should soon be benefiting from this. The framework emphasises that needs identification and analysis as well as resource allocation should be determined on the basis of research findings, while evaluation of the programme and its activities is also recommended. Decentralisation of CPD has been recommended to forge stakeholder involvement especially the practitioners. CPD of the supervisors has also been suggested to give them support requisite for the implementation of CPD. Popularisation of the CPD policy was also deemed necessary to ensure familiarity among practitioners and supervisors. Concerns about development of negative attitudes towards CPD emerged from this study. This calls for further research in this regard as well as how these relate to variables such as age, gender and position of employment.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF APPENDICES	ix
ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS	x
LIST OF TABLES	xi
LIST OF FIGURES	xiii

CHAPTER ONE: ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction and background	1
1.2 Statement of the problem	9
1.3 Purpose of the study	12
1.4 Research questions	12
1.5 Rationale of the study	13
1.6 Delimitations and limitations of the study	15
1.6.1 Delimitations of the study	15
1.6.2 Limitations of the study	16
1.7 Preliminary literature review	16
1.7.1 Operational concepts	16
1.7.2 The history of community development	20
1.8 Organisation of the thesis	23
1.9 Summary	25

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction	26
2.2 Conceptual framework	27
2.3 Theory underpinning the study	35
2.3.1 Constructivism and continuing professional development for community development practitioners	36
2.3.2 Justification for continuing professional development of community development practitioners	41
2.3.3 Hindrances to continuing professional development of community development practitioners	46
2.4 Approaches to continuing professional development	49
2.4.1 Centralised approach to continuing professional development	50
2.4.2 Decentralised approach to continuing professional development	51
2.4.3 Less-structured continuing professional development	52

2.5 Models of continuing professional development	52
2.5.1 Training or transmissive model	53
2.5.2 Learning community or transitional model	55
2.5.3 Innovative or transformative model	56
2.6 Professional development of community development practitioners in South Africa	57
2.6.1 Pre-service training of community development practitioners in South Africa	57
2.6.2 Community development as a distinct discipline	59
2.6.3 Community development as a core component of Social Work	59
2.6.4 Weaknesses in the existing community development pre-service training curriculum programmes	60
2.6.5 Strong points in the existing community development pre-service training curriculum	62
2.6.6 Continuing professional development of community development practitioners in South Africa	62
2.7 Summary	63

CHAPTER THREE: EVALUATION RESEARCH

3.1 Introduction	64
3.2 The conceptualisation of evaluation research	64
3.3 The purpose of evaluation research	68
3.3.1 Programme improvement	69
3.3.2 Generation of new knowledge	70
3.3.3 Accountability	72
3.3.4 Hidden agendas	72
3.4 Theories of evaluation	74
3.4.1 Systems theory	75
3.4.2 Theory-based evaluation	76
3.4.3 Programme theory	78
3.4.4 Reductionism	79
3.5 Models of evaluation research	80
3.5.1 Method branch evaluation models	81
3.5.2 Value branch evaluation models	86
3.5.3 Social justice evaluation models	91
3.5.4 Use branch evaluation models	97
3.6 The evaluation framework adopted in this study	108
3.6.1 Application of the CIPP model in this study	109
3.6.2 Possible challenges which may be experienced in using CIPP to evaluate continuing professional development and recommendations	111
3.7 Summary	111

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction	113
4.2 Research design	113
4.3 Research context	117
4.4 Research method	118
4.4.1 Factor analysis	118
4.4.2 Factor correlation	119
4.5 Population of the study	119
4.6 Sampling and sampling design	120
4.6.1 Sample size determination	120
4.6.2 Sample size determination results	121
4.6.3 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Test	122
4.6.4 The Bartlett's test for Sphericity	123
4.6.5 Sampling technique	124
4.7 Data collection techniques	125
4.7.1 Questionnaire	125
4.7.2 Interview	126
4.7.3 Focus group interviews	127
4.7.4 Content analysis	127
4.8 Ensuring Validity and Reliability	128
4.8.1 Validity	129
4.8.2 Internal consistency and reliability	130
4.8.3 The correlation matrix	131
4.9 Access and ethical consideration	131
4.10 Measures to ensure trustworthiness	133
4.10.1 Credibility	134
4.10.2 Transferability	135
4.10.3 Dependability	136
4.10.4 Conformability	136
4.11 Data analysis	137
4.12 Summary	139

CHAPTER FIVE: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction	140
5.2 Preliminary results	141
5.2.1 Response rate	141
5.2.2 Demographic profile of the respondents	141
5.3 Quantitative and qualitative results	147
5.3.1 Quantitative results	147
5.3.2 Qualitative results	174
5.3.3 Comparison of the qualitative and quantitative results	259
5.4 Summary	265

CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction	267
6.2 Summary	267
6.3 Conclusion	275
6.4 Recommendations	278
6.5 Areas for further research	280
6.6 Summary	281

CHAPTER SEVEN: PROPOSED CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FRAMEWORK

7.1 Introduction	282
7.2 Proposed framework	282
7.3 Final reflection	288
References	289

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A	Ethical clearance form	319
Appendix B	Questionnaire for community development practitioners	321
Appendix C	Interview questions for assistant managers	328
Appendix D	Focus group interview questions	330
Appendix E	Interview questions for human resource and community development managers	332

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CDP	Community Development Practitioner
CDPs	Community Development Practitioners
CDS	Community Development Society
CIPP	Context, Input, Process and Product
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
CSR	Cooperate Social Responsibility
DDE	Deliberative Democratic Evaluation
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
FGE	Fourth Generation Evaluation
GFE	Goal-Free Evaluation
IACD	International Association of Community Development
NPO	Non-Profit Making Organisation
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
PDP	Personal Development Plan
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
UFE	Utilization-Focused Evaluation

LIST OF TABLES

1.1	Community Development Practitioners qualifications in percentages	6
3.1	CIPP evaluation questions adapted from Frye and Hemmer (2012)	107
4.1	KMO and Bartlett's Test	122
4.2	Internal consistency of items	130
5.1	Response rate	141
5.2	Gender of the respondents	142
5.3	Age of the respondents	142
5.4	Work experience of the respondents	143
5.5	Educational qualifications of the respondents	144
5.6	Specialisation *Highest qualifications cross tabulation	146
5.7	Convergent validity and internal consistency and reliability	149
5.8	Factor correlation	151
5.9	Views about the trends and circumstances that influenced the decision to run a CPD programme for CDPs	153
5.10	Views of the CDPs about the relevance and adequacy of what was put in place in preparation for the implementation of a CPD	158
5.11	Views of CDPs on design and implementation of CPD in achieving stated objectives	163
5.12	Views of the CDPs about the evidence of achievements and the extent to which it is aligned to the programme objectives	168
5.13	Schedule of focus group interviews	173
5.14	Involvement of CDPs in the CPD for the CDPs	178
5.15	Awareness about CPD policy	182
5.16	Reflection	185
5.17	Imposition	187
5.18	Poor planning of CPD activities	192
5.19	Absence of a selection criteria	196
5.20	Lack of support from the assistant managers	199
5.21	Competition between CPD and family life	204
5.22	Workplace versus boardroom activities	207
5.23	Solutions to the problems that hinder achievement of the objectives of the CPD programme	211

5.24	Programme alignment	215
5.25	CPD is developmental	220
5.26	Involvement of CDPs in the CPD for CDPs	224
5.27	Awareness about the CPD policy	226
5.28	Availability of options to choose from	228
5.29	Programme content	230
5.30	Poor planning	234
5.31	Solutions to the problems that hinder achievement of the objectives of the CPD programme	254
5.32	Programme alignment	238
5.33	Supervision inadequacy	241
5.34	CPD offers new insights	243
5.35	Awareness about CPD policy	246
5.36	Need identified from multiple sources	248
5.37	Programme content	250
5.38	Selection Criteria	252
5.39	Supervision inadequacies	253
5.40	Programme alignment	256
5.41	CPD offers new insights	258

LIST OF FIGURES

3.1	The CIPP evaluation model adopted from Mertens and William (2012)	104
3.2	Interrelationship among Stufflebeam’s CIPP evaluation model adopted from Frye and Hemmer (2012)	106
4.1	Model showing the linear combination of factors.	118
4.2	Statistical equation used to describe the KMO test	123
4.3	Formula for Bartlett’s test	123
7.1	Proposed continuing professional development framework for community development practitioners	283

CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1. Introduction and background

Locally and globally, community development is going through an imperative reform both in theory and practice (Walzer, 2010; Hart, 2012). This imperative change is aimed at strengthening community development such that the field does not lose its ground as a people-centred approach to development (Robinson & Green, 2011). The importance of effective performance of community development practitioners in this endeavour, therefore, cannot be over-emphasised. This is so because these practitioners, both in South Africa and other developing countries, are under tremendous pressure to respond to the needs of communities (Mulwa, 2012; Weyers, 2011; Walzer, 2010; Mubangizi, 2009).

The community's expectations are that Community Development Practitioners (hereafter, CDPs) should be able to substantiate their contribution through upgrading the standard of living of the citizens. Attainment of such, among others, requires specialised competencies and knowledge. Walzer (2010), the former president of the Community Development Society (hereafter, CDS) in America, submits that for this goal to be achieved, this people-centred field requires a cadre of practitioners who are up-to date, qualified, skilled and experienced in Community Development (hereafter, CD). It is for this reason that Walzer (2010) suggests that advancement in knowledge, experience and skills in CD is not negotiable for CDPs. Therefore, for CDPs to meet and maintain this standard they need to engage in continuing professional development. Walzer (2010) is supported by Steyn (2011: 43) who states that "the continuous development of professionals' skills and knowledge is a crucial element for improvement in all professions". Continuing professional development is, therefore, compulsory for any field of work.

According to Phillips and Pittman (2009), a CDP is a professional who facilitates CD by playing an advisory role that is focused on helping communities collectively assess their current situation, identify and weigh their future options, create a shared future vision as well as make decisions about realising such a vision. The CDPs' role is to help communities help themselves in an attempt to improve their living conditions (Maistry, 2012). In addition to that, Phillips

and Pittman (2009) view CDPs as professionals trained in fields such as development, planning, education and health, to name a few, who in most instances use development projects to facilitate the process of improving the living conditions of communities. The training of such practitioners has been a bone of contention among many scholars (De Beer and Swanepoel, 2007; Mendes, 2008; Weyers, 2011) locally and internationally for many years. However, these scholars seem to agree that the training of CDPs is an integral part of development as it gives the practitioners an opportunity to render quality and relevant service to the communities they serve.

Continuing Professional Development (hereafter, CPD) is an important capacity building tool in the advancement of any occupation, profession or discipline (Steyn, 2011). Such advancement results from the rapid changes which occur at national, local as well as global levels. These changes are the consequences of new discoveries and technological advances which are largely influenced by the complex demands of society. For example, as observed by Gravells (2012), policies in society are changed when necessary thus compelling practitioners to take it upon themselves to acquire current knowledge, skills and attitudes in this regard. Gravani (2007) argues that it is through engagement in CPD that the practitioners can adjust to these rapid changes. In actual fact, the position held by Collin, Heijden and Lewis (2012) is that these rapid modifications compel practitioners to engage in continual learning activities. As a result, failure to learn on a continuing basis frames practitioners as incompetent, outdated and ineffective.

Toomey (2011) advises that it is necessary that CDPs ensure that they are always well-informed about changes taking place in the community and to fully understand the implications of their roles in CD. CPD may be of great assistance in this regard in the sense that it provides practitioners with an opportunity to exchange ideas among themselves through workshops, conferences and simple consensual discussions about developments in communities, CD hindrances and possible solutions (William, 2007). William (2007) appreciates CPD because it is a tool for the advancement of the relevant skills needed by professionals. It is used to develop and sustain their competencies to enable them to meet the needs and demands of communities which are influenced by changing economic, political, social and cultural landscapes. In the absence of CPD, practitioners may not be able to help communities with how they should handle effects triggered by these changes. Lombard, Pruis, Grobbelaar and

Mhlanga (2010) have further argued that communities have the right to be served by proficient and experienced practitioners. Such proficiency and know-how may be acquired through CPD.

As explained by Lombard *et al.* (2010), no practitioner can be up to date with developments in the field of practice without learning hence involvement in continuing professional learning and development programmes become profoundly necessary. Lammintakanen and Kivinen (2012) suggest that such professional learning and development involve formal or informal, and group or individualised activities which are intended to improve one's capability, confidence, knowledge and skills. CPD can, therefore, take place through the actual doing of the job, workshops, discussions, reflecting on one's experience, short training programmes, mentoring and coaching as well as formal learning aimed at obtaining a qualification (Tynjala, 2008). It is through such activities that a practitioner is able to learn continually and remain on top of the game. CDPs are no exception.

CD is an interdisciplinary field of study that is not only concerned about the physical well-being of communities but also their social, environmental, economic and political conditions (Phillips & Pittman, 2009). It is, therefore, clear that facilitating CD is a complex and dynamic process. This field's dynamism and complexity is further explained by the fact that the communities are not static: they are gradually changing. Consequently, it is important that those who facilitate CD possess certain levels of competencies and knowledge which would enable them to exercise caution in order to ensure that they practice with least possible risk to themselves, fellow colleagues and other CD stakeholders (Chile, 2012). Success in this practice, for that reason, requires a practitioner who upholds the principles and ethical values of the field (Phillips & Pittman, 2009). Such success could be facilitated and enhanced by learning continually. CPD for CDPs is, therefore, important in ensuring quality service to the community as noted by Walzer (2010).

The practice of CD is vital for a developing country like South Africa which is characterised by, among others, high levels of poverty, inequality as well as weak community participation systems (Ssekibuule, 2012). Maistry (2012) advocates that CD has been prioritised in South Africa to deal with the above challenges, especially at the level of the community. Lombard *et al.* (2010) opine that commitment compels practitioners to continually upgrade themselves through a well-structured and coordinated CPD programme. Kotze (2012) is in support of the

idea of the existence of a CPD programme but also emphasises the point that it has to be well-crafted and implemented accordingly. Any of these factors may deter professionals from committing to the professional standards, thus failing to meet the expectations of the clients (Kotze, 2012). Therefore, CPD cannot be overemphasised as a requisite for operative and appropriate CD.

CPD equips practitioners with skills of translating theory into practice. Naulty and Jindal-Snape (2011) argue that training institutions like universities fail to prepare students to translate what they learned into practice. Kotze (2012) also advocates that these institutions perform exceptionally well in offering pertinent multidisciplinary knowledge but fail to develop competencies required to apply the acquired knowledge in the workplace or general community environment. Levander and Mikkola (2009) also accuse these higher education institutions for offering curriculum that is neither needs-based nor relevant to the society that they serve. These institutions may wish to cover all these aspects but the core deterring factor is that they do not have enough time to offer all matters deemed necessary for practitioners as observed by Westoby and van Blerk (2012). All these challenges may be identified and filled through CPD upon which could be the foundation for practical application of theory to the practice of CD (Lammintakanen & Kivinen, 2012).

As explained by Walzer (2010), CDPs in particular do not need either theory or practical skills but require both skills and knowledge to facilitate CD effectively. Kotze (2012) adds that it is quite significant that the teaching and learning environment provides learners with knowledge and skills in order to prepare them to manage and interact effectively the prospects, realities and experiential encounters of different communities. Ready as they may be to facilitate CD, Weyers (2011) advocates that they still need CPD to enhance their knowledge and sharpen their skills. This is so because there are no guarantees that a professional maintains proficiency throughout their professional life. In actual fact, Helleve in Hesse-Biber (2010) highly regards CPD because he sees it as an extension of what higher education offered as well as one's own experience of the world of work.

Lack of relevant skills and competencies among some CDPs are not the only weaknesses in community development practice in South Africa. According to Mendes (2008), Mulwa (2012) and the United Nations (1963) report cited in Awortwi (2013) a majority of the current cohort

of CDPs lacks basic knowledge in CD because they did not receive training in CD. Such basic knowledge includes theories, principles, values and strategies of CD. The observation made by Mendes (2008), Mulwa (2012) and the United Nations (1963) in Awortwi (2013) is supported by the national skills audit commissioned by South Africa's National Ministry of Social Development (Department of Social Development, 2010). The audit revealed that the majority of those who serve as CDPs are not trained as CDPs. Most of the current cohort of CDPs have degrees or diplomas in Social Work or other social science disciplines. The Western Cape seems to have the highest number (64%) followed by Northern Cape (49%) (Department of Social Development, 2010).

The situation explained above is even challenging in the North West province where the current study was conducted. While in provinces such as Gauteng only 22% of the CDPs have a qualification in community development, in the North West province not one has such a qualification (Department of Social Development, 2010). Table 1.1 below presents the qualifications obtained by the CDPs in the different provinces in South Africa. The implication is that CD is not facilitated in a standardised and coherent way because of the diverse qualifications of the current cohort of CDPs. The ultimate results suggest that CD does not serve its intended purpose. Such a situation is usually remedied through CPD. Coyle and Carter (2011) are of the opinion that development of that nature may assist the practitioners to acquire sufficient basic knowledge and skills thus serve communities accordingly. The advantage of such a process is that it helps the practitioners to apply and maintain the required job competencies (Lucas, Nasta & Rogers, 2012).

Table 1.1 Community Development Practitioners qualifications in percentages

Prov	Matric %	Ba CD %	Dip CD %	Dip %	BA Soc Work %	BA Soc Sc %	BA Hons %	BSc %	B Admin %	BA Ed %	Others %	Total %
Gauteng			22	26	5	37				5	5	100
WC	54	3	12	12	0	3	3		3	0	10	100
KZN	2	11	12	15	14	26	2	2	2	0	14	100
Mpu	9	4		19		49			5		13	100
FS	13	4	4	12		44			6		17	100
EC	18	3		18	7	30	4	3	4	4	11	100
NC	32		19	19	0	13					17	100
Limp	3	8	13	26	3	15	6		15	1	10	100
NW	5			9	28	12	5	17	7		17	100

Source: South Africa's Department of Social Development

The view held by Mulwa (2012) is that the multi-disciplinary nature of CD has contributed to CDPs being drawn from fields such as medical science, social science and education. Such professionals, unfortunately, are employed to serve as CDPs even though they have been trained on different curricular and at different levels yet. As a result, the expectation would be that professional development perhaps through on-the-job training programme may be used to re-orientate, upgrade and make such practitioners relevant and effective in community development practice.

Higgins and Harreveld (2013) explain that CPD is vital for the currency and appropriateness of a workforce and quality of programmes delivered for the quality of community development work is largely influenced by the quality of human resources. CD thus depends on the value which the practitioners and employers put on CPD. Therefore, in order to improve and sustain effective CD it is important that initiatives are undertaken to upgrade the practitioners. The effort may also assist in ensuring that the good habits that practitioners have are entrenched while bad ones are replaced (Weyers, 2011). This becomes much more important and relevant to the current cohort of South African CDPs, especially those who did not go through pre-employment CD training.

CDPs shape the environment within which CD activities take place. The type of environment that a practitioner creates is largely influenced by the training received before and during the service. Therefore, in order to ensure that an appropriate environment for CD is created, capacity is required. The intention of such capacitation is to develop a CDP who uses skills such as negotiation, listening, networking, adapting, problem-solving, conflict management and networking to enhance community participation, educate, stimulate, win the confidence of the community and their leaders, and persuade skeptical community members as well as encourage establishment of CD oriented interventions (Kotze, 2012; Westoby & van Blerk, 2012).

As explained by Walzer (2010: 402), society is not static. Its needs, challenges and aspirations are dynamic. In view of that, the same scholar argues that “specific approaches to deliver services will change” in the field of CD. Kotze (2012), therefore, advises that what practitioners learned through higher education training may have been relevant at that time but because communities change, there is a cyclic need therefore to update interventions. Consequently, CDPs need to be conversant with the changes such that the field comprises skilled practitioners who can facilitate participatory sustainable development rather than well educated people who cannot do that. Therefore, in order to be current and accurate, CDPs need to be continuously exposed to these developments through CPD.

According to Weyers (2011), CDPs need to empower themselves on a continual basis in order to facilitate effective service delivery. As put by Lekoko and Van Der Merwe (2006), an individual becomes empowered through taking the responsibility to acquire knowledge, information and insights. Thus, CDPs may empower themselves through self-directed learning. Self-directed learning is a process during which learners identify their learning needs, goals, means to meet those needs and assessing the outcomes. This implies that CDPs may at some point in time initiate a learning process for themselves (Lucas, Nasta & Rogers, 2012). If CDPs want to be successful, they ought to continually learn and make themselves familiar with developments taking place in society such that they can advise communities accordingly.

As put by Smith (2008), development is an educational process, therefore, CD cannot be conceived in the absence of education, especially in relation to globalisation and technology. Fung and Hung (2011) emphasise that no matter where a community is, its structure, economy,

politics and environment are affected by globalisation. Therefore, the Community Development Practitioner (hereafter, CDP) ought to keep abreast with what is happening in other parts of the globe and together with the community devise strategies of managing and responding to the effects of globalisation and its concomitants such as privatisation (William, 2007). Currently, technology is regarded as an important prerequisite for CD (Walzer, 2010). Thus communities need CDPs who can use technology to facilitate CD. It is for these reasons that CPD is viewed as an important element in community development practice. Facilitation of CD, which is aimed at empowering a community to deal with challenges such as poverty and inequality, depends on the quality of a CDP. As a result, CPD of CDPs has become increasingly important for efficient and effective CD.

The nature of CPD shows that it cannot be a once-off activity. That is so because it involves learning which is needs-based, collaborative, on-going and rooted in the job (Hardy & Melville, 2013). It is intended to ensure that practitioners are suitably equipped and qualified to address the challenges and needs of communities. Van der Heijden, Boon, Van der Klink and Meijis (2009) support this view and explain that if professionals learn continually they consequently remain abreast with developments in their field and may even manage challenging situations effectively.

The determination of whether or not CPD programmes and practices for CDPs yield intended outcomes, especially in a country such as South Africa, where there are many CD related challenges, is important. Currently, there is limited scientific evaluation of the CPD programmes and practices for CDPs. Any government, leader or manager would then be interested in knowing how such a CPD performs given the nature of the problem at hand. However, not much has been done to evaluate CPD of CDPs in the North West province. Consequently, the evaluation of the effectiveness of such programmes and practices is necessary and cannot be rescheduled. This study, therefore, seeks to evaluate the CPD of CDPs used by the Departments of Social Development in North West province in South Africa.

According to Al-Khathami (2012), any CPD programme could be evaluated with the use of Stufflebeam's Context, Input, Process and Product (CIPP) model of evaluation. This study focused mainly on evaluating the context, input, process and product of CPD for CDPs in the North West province of South Africa where no CDP is specifically trained to enact and

facilitate development projects. The study also intended to establish whether or not the CPD for CDPs was based on any policy as well as the needs of the CDPs. The need to determine the factors which hinder CPD of CDPs influenced this study. Lastly, it focused on whether or not the programme empowered and built capacity for the practitioners required to facilitate development of communities.

1.2. Statement of the problem

The Government of South Africa demonstrated through its policies and programmes that the country is committed to a people-centred approach to development. Among others, those who are at the centre of implementing the approach are CDPs. Such practitioners work for Departments such as Department of Social Development, Department of Water Affairs and Department of Local Government and Traditional Affairs. As a result, CDPs play a key role in the development of communities country wide. Several studies in this field have been conducted. Some of those studies, among others, explore constraints to CD, theories of CD, training of CDPs (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2007; Hart, 2012; Mendes, 2008; Phillips & Pittman, 2009; Tshishonga & Mafema, 2010; Weyers, 2011). However, studies that focus specifically on CPD are not easily identifiable in the CD literature in South Africa. Furthermore, while there is plenty of literature on CPD of educators and health professionals, to name a few, scant work has been done on studying CPD for CDPs. This is the case especially in relation to the evaluation of the CPD for CDPs in the North West province.

According to Aimers and Walker (2016), CDPs must be trained using appropriate and properly designed curriculum that equips them with skills which empower them to work with and guide community members as well as understand their hopes, aspirations, fears, worries and feelings. This means that the curriculum used must be appropriate and relevant to the practice of CD- thus equipping them with relevant skills. However, a renowned scholar in the field of CD, Swanepoel (1997) argued that the problem with community development practice is that most of the professionals who are responsible for driving CD agendas and head the CD activities lack relevant and pertinent skills and knowledge. Even though the problem has been known for almost twenty years, there is not much that has been done to address it. The situation can be attributed to the fact that the majority of those who serve as CDPs are not necessarily trained in CD but in generic social science and Social Work curricular (Mendes, 2008). The challenge

with Social Work graduates who serve as CDPs is that this discipline is gradually orientating them to claim the expert role while CD focuses on transferring power to the community and community organisations as observed by Forde and Lynch (2016).

Scholars like Malinga-Musamba and Ntshwarang (2013) and De Beer and Swanepoel (2007) support the observation made by Mendes (2008) by stating that most of those who serve as CDPs were trained using curricular that lack core CD theories, strategies, practice and principles and, as a result, they can be automatically declared ill-trained CDPs. The problem is compounded by the fact that even those who have community development qualifications, the curriculums they read are not based on any statement or a set of goals and objectives agreed upon by CD stakeholders. Be that as it may, all these practitioners are expected to facilitate CD through application of CD values, principles, strategies and theories. Further to that, they are all labelled as CDPs. Experience has shown that quite often the knowledge gap of those who are appointed to serve as CDPs yet they are not trained for it, is only identified when they have to execute their responsibilities. Even though such practitioners go through an induction programme and in-service training, which are guided by the community development toolkit, success in filling the knowledge gap has not been recorded.

As observed by the United Nations (1963) (in Awortwi, 2013), it is wrongly assumed that any professional, no matter their training background, can serve as CDPs. Even though these are professionals, they were not trained in CD management and practice. As a result, there seems to be a gap between their practical learning experiences and the community needs. It is for this reason that the United Nations holds the view that these professionals need special training that focuses purely on CD tasks (Awortwi, 2013). It is becoming evident that even though upon employment such practitioners go through professional development, lack of experiential learning remains unaddressed.

As explained by Diaz-Puente, Moreno and Zamorano (2012:12) “training is a key tool for community development” but it is clear from the background given above as well as the data presented in Table 1.1 that the majority of current CDPs are not trained in CD. However, the Department of Social Development (2010, 10) affords them professional development because “effective performance of community development practitioners is enhanced by developing and strengthening their capacities through on-the-job training.” Be that as it may, the biggest

challenge is that scant work has been done in evaluating such professional development programmes to determine its worth. If the need for industrious and a well-functioning CD in South Africa is to be met, a scholarly scientific evaluation of the CPD for CDPs of this nature is paramount. Consequently, neither can it be sidestepped or deferred.

Mubangizi (2009) asserts that successful facilitation of CD requires specialised skills in consultation, research and report writing that engage with participants who approach development from a bottom-up approach. This among others, the scholar avers, is achieved through professional development of CDPs. However, despite the fact that the CDPs undergo CPD which aims at enhancing their skills, experience and observation demonstrate that there is a general outcry among community members about the practitioners' approach to CD which is framed within the top-down model of development.

Currently, there are on-going efforts to make CD a profession such that it can have a professional council that sets norms and standards (Hart, 2012). The process involves the introduction of a four year professional bachelor's degree as well as National Qualification Level four and five qualifications. Furthermore, the process is intended to involve recognition of the experience and skills of those who are currently serving as CDPs. There are even institutions of higher learning which plan to offer the proposed degree programme from 2019. However, meagre efforts to establish CPD for CDPs which is in line with the proposed curriculum have been made. As explained by Steyn (2013) professional development comprises two major stages. Those stages are pre-service training and CPD. Synergy between the two is of utmost importance; therefore, neglecting one may yield unintended consequences.

CPD is a lifelong learning process that is aimed at upgrading practitioners as well as expanding their knowledge and skills such that they can meet the expectations and demands of the ever changing communities. Resources are always invested in this endeavour and there are reports given on the good performance of CDPs. However, there is a shortage of scientific studies which show the link between this good performance and CPD which these practitioners go through. This study, therefore, intended to establish if there is a link between these two aspects in community development practice in South Africa.

1.3. Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the implementation of the CPD for CDPs. Although CDPs are based in the government departments mentioned above, this study was mainly conducted in the Department of Social Development and specifically in the North West province of South Africa. In its skills development audit report, the South African Department of Social Development (2010) reported that its CPD requires to be upgraded. The underlying principle for such an upgrade is to produce a cadre of CDPs who can facilitate empowerment of communities as well as the creation of self-reliant communities. This study, therefore, intended to investigate the successes and challenges associated with the implementation of a CPD programme, exploring in the process, the relationship between the CPD policy and the actual CPD activities.

The country's development status quo demands that the CDPs should assist communities to address their real and felt needs and aspirations. Without a proper professional development, CDPs lag behind and battle to deal with core issues in community development practice. This study, therefore, investigated if those who did not receive pre-service training in CD go through a customised CPD which is intended to close the knowledge and skills gap they have. This evaluation study also focused on whether or not the programme met its performance expectations. The study, therefore, suggested solutions to the factors that hindered the programme from meeting its performance expectations.

Based on the outcomes of the evaluation of the CPD for CDPs, the study proposed a customised CPD framework that could be used to evaluate the CPD programme in the North West province of South Africa. The process was guided by the review of the current CPD implemented in the North West province's Department of Social Development and the review of pertinent literature and research studies in the area of community development.

1.4. Research questions

The following research questions guided this study.

- 1.4.1. What are the trends and circumstances that influenced the decision to run a CPD programme for CDPs?
- 1.4.2. What determines the relevance and adequacy of what was put in

place in preparation for implementing a CPD programme for CDPs?

- 1.4.3. To what extent is the overall design and implementation process of the CPD programme for CDPs appropriate to achieve the stated objectives?
- 1.4.4. What is the evidence of achievements and to what extent were the achievements aligned to the programme objectives?
- 1.4.5. What is the most appropriate CPD framework for CDPs?

1.5. Rationale of the study

CPD is an unending learning process that is aimed at upgrading practitioners as well as expanding their knowledge and skills such that they can meet the demands of the ever changing communities. The words ‘upgrading’ and ‘expansion’ suggest that there is some level of knowledge and skills that have been acquired perhaps through the pre-service training. Currently, the Department of Social Development employs CDPs who do not have relevant pre-service training which means that there is not much that is to be upgraded or expanded. This, therefore, implies that the CPD which such officials go through has to be tailor-made to facilitate acquisition of appropriate and relevant knowledge and skills. This study, therefore, intended to establish if such a special programme exists and if so how different it is from the generic one.

Several evaluations have been conducted in South Africa. Most of them are concerned with the education and health sectors. Those evaluations and many related others have contributed lots of experience in the field of professional development in the two sectors. However, with regard to the CD sector, scant work has been done in evaluating CPD for CDPs. Thus the point that evaluation of CPD for CDPs in South Africa has not received much attention necessitates this evaluation such that the usefulness of the programme can be determined. This study may further encourage the Department of Social Development to mainstream evaluation into its day-to-day activities to enhance quality assurance.

This study was intended to benefit those who design CPD for CD trainers, practitioners, scholars and policy makers. It is hoped that it also contributes to the literature in the field of training of CDPs, thus serving as a source of invaluable information to CD curriculum developers, educators, practitioners, scholars and policy makers as well as communities. As a

consequence, the study sought to narrow the gap between CPD and community development practice.

Those who are involved in professional development of CDPs could use the outcomes of this study to evaluate their framework should the need arise. The outcomes of such an evaluation may, therefore, be used to improve the existing framework, thus assuring quality training and CD service in general. CDPs, supervisors and managers could also use this study to evaluate CD as currently practiced in South Africa. This might assist in developing appropriate CPD interventions and improvement plans. Given that currently in South Africa community development practice is not standardised and it lacks coherence, this study intended to give insights which may contribute to the development of a new CPD framework. Given that CD is a participatory, democratic and people-oriented development strategy that promotes people participation either as individuals or members of a group, the study, therefore, was aimed at making CDPs conscious of the significance of the evaluation of CPD and thus motivate them to take part in its evaluation and improvement.

As stated by Giangreco *et al.* (2009), not all private and public institutions are able to subject their programmes to evaluation for different reasons. To date, the Department of Social Development has not evaluated CPD for CDPs despite the fact that resources are invested in this programme year in year out. Consequently, the department has no knowledge of whether it has met the need. Evaluation of this nature, therefore, became essential. The evaluation was aimed at revealing the strengths, weaknesses and opportunities of the programme in relation to the needs identified, strategies employed to meet the needs, implementation processes and the outcomes. In support of this, Mohebbi *et al.* (2011) noted that evaluation is conducted for the purpose of diagnosing if the programme achieves that which it sets for itself. This study, therefore, intended to produce scientific, sound and practical evidence for practitioners, sponsors, government and programme managers about whether or not the programme met expectations. Consequently, the results could influence the management's decisions about the need, value, worth and significance of CPD programme for CDPs.

It is hoped that the outcomes of the study may help policy makers in reviewing existing CPD policy and determining whether or not there is a need for formulating new policies that guide professional learning for CDPs. This study, therefore, intended to clarify professional

development policy issues and role classification. CD is facilitated through projects; their success is highly reliant on community participation (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2012). Involving CDPs in evaluating a programme which aimed at building capacity for them, exposes them to strategies of people participation and its value. Since evaluation is a learning process, it was hoped that the practitioners might learn and expand their facilitation, knowledge, skills and experience. Such expertise can then be used to improve facilitation of community development.

The rationale for this evaluation was not to create dependency upon the evaluator. Involving practitioners and programme managers in the evaluation was aimed at building internal capacity for future evaluations as suggested by Fetterman, Deitz and Gesundheit (2010). Both the programme participants and managers took part in evaluating the four elements of the programme which are context, input, process and outcome. Such active participation was aimed at familiarising them with basic practical know-how of evaluating a programme which they could use in future. Lastly, the study intended to trigger further evaluation research in CPD of CDPs. It is, therefore, intended to serve as a springboard for more evaluation studies on CPD.

1.6. Delimitations and limitations of the study

This section presents the delineation and the limitations of the study.

1.6.1 Delimitations of the study

Maree and van der Westhuizen (2010) explain that the delimitation of a study refers to the delineation of the study. While there are community development workers as well CDPs in South Africa, this study focused specifically on the latter. Such practitioners are employed by the Department of Water Affairs, Department of Local Government and Traditional Affairs and Department of Social Development. Among these departments, this study focused specifically on CPD for CDPs employed by provincial Departments of Social Development. This study was conducted at the two North West provincial Department of Social Development in South Africa. The North West province is generally the most extensively rural among the nine provinces in South Africa. This province occupies 76 495 km² of South Africa's geographical land area (Statistics South Africa, 2012).

A total of 103 CDPs and 4 assistant managers were selected through simple random sampling and purposive sampling respectively. As a result, the findings may be generalised to all the districts and service points in the North West province.

1.6.2 Limitations of the study

According to Gray (2014), every study, no matter how well it has been conducted, has limitations. Leedy and Ormrod (2010) define limitations of a study as uncontrollable factors arising from a study that a researcher may not have control over. Such inevitable hindrances limit the extent to which a study may be conducted. They may affect the quality, budget, schedule, participants or depth of information pertinent to the study.

This study required CDPs to give information on their educational background, experience and job profile. It was anticipated that some officials would find it difficult to divulge information about the performance of the programme and declare their academic qualifications because they lacked relevant qualifications for community development practice, which has been an issue in the sector for many years. As explained under the ethical considerations section, a guarantee was given that their personal details would be used for this study only and this was adhered to.

It was further anticipated that some officials might not have time to respond to the questionnaire given the fact that the nature of their work demands that they should travel a lot. Efforts were made to seek alternative appointments with such officials. Furthermore, some appointments were aligned to the provincial gatherings to ensure availability of the CDPs.

1.7. Preliminary literature review

This section presents the preliminary literature review which comprise operational concepts and the history of community development at the global level, Africa and South Africa where the study took place.

1.7.1 Operational concepts

As explained by Bless, Higson-Smith and Sithole (2013), communication would not be possible without concepts or terms to describe the empirical world, feelings as well as

relationships, among others. However, it is important to note that such concepts may have various meaning thus-creating varied interpretation. This, therefore, necessitates definition and contextualization of concepts used in a study (Bless *et al.*, 2013). The definition of concepts consequently gives clarity and precision in what the researcher presents. Ridley (2012) defines a concept as a word or expression that denotes a general or intellectual idea derived from specific occurrences. Some of the key concepts used in this study are defined and explained below.

1.7.1.1 Community development practitioner

Craig (2007) defines a CDP as an individual whose role is to support and facilitate active citizenship through advising and empowering community members to determine their social, economic and political development strategies. Such an individual also collaborates with communities in establishing community-based groups, organisations and networks whose major function is to shape and foster positive change in the community. Unlike Social Workers, CDPs are responsible for working with the community as a collective in order to improve their livelihoods (Westoby & Botes, 2013).

Schenck, Nel and Louw (2010) regard CDPs as professionals who offer services to a community defined by geographical boundaries or common interest or identity under the employment or on behalf of a Non-Governmental Organisation or government. Such a group of people could be women, youth, men, refugees, the elderly, disabled or vulnerable children.

1.7.1.2 Professional development

Professional development is conceptualised by Elman, Illfelder-Kaye and Robiner (2005:368) as “the developmental process of acquiring, expanding, refining, and sustaining knowledge, proficiency, skill, and qualifications for competent professional functioning that result in professionalism.” Professional development, therefore, refers to a developmental journey which an employee undertakes in pursuance of expansion of what is already known and finding the unknown for the purpose of remaining relevant, being effective as well as adding value to the profession. Botha and Potgieter (2009) advise that the definition of professional development should not only be limited to skills development. The scholars hold that professional development has to be viewed as projects, programmes, strategies, methods,

procedures and arrangements which are aimed at developing a practitioner personally and professionally. In this regard, professional development should be viewed as advancement of skills and knowledge as well as change in the beliefs, attitudes and values of the targeted person. This type of growth builds and sustains confidence in a professional which benefits both the employer and the professional (Mansour, *et al.*, 2014).

1.7.1.3 Continuing professional development

CPD is defined by Collin, Van der Heijden and Lewis (2012: 155) as “all systematic education and training activities in which people take part in order to obtain knowledge and/or learn new skills for a current or a future job, to increase and to improve career opportunities in current or other fields”. It is fundamentally an on-going learning process which an employee embarks upon in order to add on and improve the existing knowledge and skills. Simply put, it is a capacity building and empowerment process (Jita & Mokhele, 2014).

1.7.1.4 Curriculum

As explained by Kelly (2009), curriculum refers to a process that entails decision-making about what the learner ought to learn. Such a process also involves making decisions about procedures adopted for implementing intentions about what must be learnt as well as the learner’s actual experiences emanating from the curriculum planners’ decisions and the hidden learning resulting from both the planned and unplanned learning experiences acquired formally or informally.

1.7.1.5 Training

Imhabekhai (2009: 198) defines training as “a planned systematic sequence of instruction under competent supervision designed to impart pre-determined skills, knowledge or abilities with respect to occupational objectives.” For the purposes of this study, training refers to a teaching activity that is aimed at facilitating acquisition of skills and knowledge for the purpose of strengthening one’s ability to perform particular tasks.

1.7.1.6 Constructivism

Constructivism refers to a wide-ranging group of theories which explain how knowledge is attained and how learning takes place (Jordan, Carlyle & Stack, 2008). These constructivist theories hold that learning is a productive process during which the learner constructs knowledge in the mind on the basis of experiences and existing knowledge. As a result, learning is viewed as a personal analysis and elucidation of the world. Knowledge and meaning are, therefore, created through interaction between one's experiences and ideas (Gray & MacBlain, 2012).

1.7.1.7 Learning

Gray and MacBlain (2012) define learning as a course of action during which a learner acquires information, knowledge and skills. Acquisition of these attributes may result in the development of some behaviour and habits. Gray and MacBlain (2012) are of the opinion that such a process commences from conception and proceeds throughout one's life. Furthermore, Jordan *et al.* (2008) view learning as change that occurs in the behaviour, attitudes, thinking as well as emotions of an organism such as a human being on account of planned intervention experiences.

1.7.1.8 Evaluation research

A "systematic application of research procedures in assessing the conceptualization and design, implementation, and utility of social intervention programmes" is regarded by Dane (2011: 324) as evaluation research. This is a type of research which involves collecting and analysing data about the performance of a programme within a particular context in order to make a verdict about the standard, quality, significance, value and impact of an intervention. Vogt, Gardner and Haeffele (2012) see evaluation research as a form of an investigation conducted to determine the effectiveness and impact of a programme, project or product. Evaluation research seeks to establish what the need is, the intervention required, the implementation of the interventions, the results brought by the intervention (Daniel, 2012).

1.7.2 A brief history of community development

This section presents the history of CD at three levels. The first part focuses on CD at the global level, followed by the African continent. The last part makes specific reference to South Africa before and after the Apartheid era.

1.7.2.1 Globally

Communities have long been making efforts to improve and sustain themselves for as long as they have existed. They used the relationships and networks among themselves to survive. In addition, they survived out of the natural resources within their vicinity. It is clear from these explanations that even though the term CD was used officially for the first time in 1928 and only institutionalised in the 1940's, this process is as old as mankind (Maistry, 2012). These communities were organising themselves and using their resources and networks to organise and facilitate processes aimed at improving their economic, personal and physical well-being. They were driven by the need to do things for themselves thus they depended wholly on themselves. This is what Matarrita-Cascante (2010) terms CD.

As explained by Holdcroft and Jones (1982) CD gained popularity as a development approach due to the experiences gained from the introduction of the social welfare, community improvement and rural development programmes in Britain, United States of America and India with the latter being the trend setter. While in the United States of America and India CD focused mainly on making the welfare of the rural communities better, in Britain attention was paid to urban communities. However, the principles of CD which include self-help, self-reliance and participatory democracy are applicable among urban and rural communities. The community programmes were, therefore, geared towards poverty reduction and adult education activities.

The UN also played a great part in popularising CD by funding its projects between the 1950's and 1960's. The projects sponsored by this organisation were premised on CD being the efforts of the people being joined with those of government with the aim of facilitating social and economic development through community participation and self-help (Luka & Maistry, 2012). Despite that, towards the late 1950's and early 1960's CD lost momentum because in practice, the CD projects were not initiated by the people themselves and relied a lot on external

funding and expertise. In addition to that, incompetent and ill-trained CDPs who could not succeed in facilitating CD also led to its demise (Jones & Rolls in Jones 1982).

1.7.2.2 A brief history of community development in Africa

CD, like many other concepts, means different things to different people. African leaders such as Nyerere (Maistry, 2012) have always held the belief that people cannot be developed by the outsiders, the people themselves. It is such principled decisions that made the African community to be responsible for its own well-being and development. For example, many communities in the African continent built schools, clinics, community halls and tribal authority offices for themselves through contributing money as well as volunteering labour. As explained by Maistry (2012) this is what Nyerere termed CD.

In line with the views about CD held by Nyerere, Mulwa (2012) holds the view that Africans conceptualise CD as a process during which the community, collectively, strives to improve their living conditions by identifying their needs, devising strategies to meet and thus transforming the undesirable situation that they are faced with. Despite such strong views about CD, during the colonial era, the colonial masters used education as a driving force to convert self-reliant Africans to consumers and slaves of the market forces. Britain even coined her African policy around the concept of CD with the aim of improving and strengthening the African society starting off with the family.

The colonial officers implemented this by way of encouraging African people to replace their indigenous practices with the western ones which obviously took its tune from the modernization theory (Maistry, 2012). Further to that, CD was entrenched through training community members on CD and establishment of community centres (Maistry, 2012). Contrary to the view by the colonial masters that they were facilitating CD through such efforts, Westoby (2014) and Maistry (2012) argue that those efforts were a total opposite of the actual CD as understood by the Africans being a process during which communities would initiate processes to uplift their standard of living. The deviation from the latter conceptualisation of CD contributed to its demise in the African continent.

A good example of the failure of an outsider or government-influenced or initiated CD was experienced in Kenya. While in many other African countries, community developed lost momentum due to drying up of foreign funding, in Kenya many programmes collapsed due to failure of government to fulfil its promise to fund the programmes (Mulwa, 2012). The analysis by Westoby (2014) of such a situation is that the major cause of the problem is that the government took over CD instead of allowing the process to be started, controlled and owned by the people. The community was merely relegated to passive beneficiaries who waited for the government to do something for them.

Mulwa (2012) continues to explain that the collapse of some Kenyan programmes can be attributed to the point that they were merely established to fulfil the needs of the elites as a result when they appropriated the benefits from the programmes, the community members got discouraged and quit programmes. On the same breath, De Beer and Swanepoel (2012) argue that such programmes cannot be classified as CD because they were merely imposed on the people. Maistry (2012) shares the same view and criticises the governments of the African countries for adopting economic growth oriented programmes and paraded them as CD while they contravened the principles of CD such as self-help and self-reliance. It is important to acknowledge the efforts made by the professionals, policy makers and practitioners to remedy the weaknesses of the programme through professionalisation.

1.7.2.3 A brief history of community development in South Africa

This section shares the experiences of CD in South Africa. Many scholars (Westoby, 2014; De Beer and Swanepoel, 2012; Maistry, 2012) hold the notion that during the Apartheid era, institutionalised CD was absent in South Africa despite the fact that the country had a Minister of Community Development. The rationale behind this treatment was that it was viewed with mistrust due to fearing the possibility that people might use it to mobilise communities against the then regime. While government tried to suppress it like that community mobilizing gained momentum and saw the establishment of community-based organisations such as Soweto Crisis Committee, Grassroots Education Trust, Africa Co-operative Action Trust and Wilgespruit Fellowship centre. The work of these organisations ranged from education and training to promotion of approaches to CD (Westoby, 2014; De Beer & Swanepoel, 2012).

During the course of the Apartheid era, the government established an inferior system which they labelled CD. The government allowed the establishment of organisations mentioned above but made it difficult for them to mobilise resources as observed by Habib and Taylor (1999). As stated by Louw (1996) the government launched CD in 1984 with decision making assigned to the central government and the homeland governments. This was clearly a top-down approach to development and nothing close to CD. The situation was worsened by the fact that the government of the day supported Social Work and other welfare oriented organisations but denied CD, which promotes people empowerment, an enabling environment and resources. Consequently, it became difficult to orientate the welfare organisations towards CD.

As the situation explained above continued to prevail, other forms of CD such as stokvels, church organisations, labour organisations and civic organisations were seeding and flourishing. Westoby (2014) regards these as pure, organic and authentic CD as they were grounded on the principles of self-help and mutual aid work through group savings and burial clubs. Mangcu (2012) adds that adult education also emerged and gained popularity through the work of leaders such as Steve Biko who based his teachings on Paulo Freire's philosophy of participation and active citizenry.

With the advent of democracy, efforts are made to facilitate the implementation of CD to the latter in order to ensure community empowerment. However, as expressed by Luka and Maistry (2012) the process is hindered by among others shortage of personnel trained in CD, poor coordination of stakeholders, lack of context-specific theory and practice as well as absence of a common conceptualisation of CD. Be that as it may, the process of professionalisation of community is the step towards addressing some of these problems.

1.8. Organisation of the thesis

This section provides an overview of how the chapters of this study are organised. The study is organised as follows:

Chapter one: Orientation of the study

This chapter presents the background and introduction of the study. It gives an overview of what community development practice and the training of CDPs entail. Further to that, it gives an indication of how the study was planned.

Chapter two: Literature review

Chapter two presents review of literature pertinent to the study. Such review includes critical examination of the conceptual framework which forms the basis of this study. The theory of constructivism forms the basis for this study. In addition to the theoretical framework, it includes definition and explanation of the evaluation concepts that are dominant in this study, specifically Stufflebeam's model.

Chapter three: Evaluation research

This is an evaluation study. Consequently, this chapter is dedicated to evaluation research. It focuses specifically on the conceptualisation, purpose, evaluation theories and models of evaluation research. The discussion in this chapter is concluded by way of indicating the evaluation model adopted for this study.

Chapter four: Research design and methodology

This chapter presents a full description of the research design and methodology used in exploring research questions outlined in this study. An explanation of how the mixed-methods approach, data collection and sampling procedures were employed is given in this chapter. Lastly, this chapter gives a full explanation of how data was analysed.

Chapter five: Data presentation and analysis

Chapter five provides a detailed presentation, interpretation and analysis of the evaluation results.

Chapter six: Summary of the research findings, recommendations and conclusion

The results of the study are summarised and presented in accordance with the research questions. Subsequently, the recommendations which were derived from the main findings are presented in this chapter. Lastly, this chapter presents the conclusion of the study.

Chapter 7: Proposed CPD framework

This evaluation study generates a CPD evaluation framework and this final chapter presents the proposed CPD framework for CDPs.

1.9. Summary

This chapter presented the overview of the study which comprise introduction and background and statement of the problem. Furthermore, this chapter presented the purpose of the study, research questions, the delimitation, limitation as well as rationale of the study. This overview of the study was concluded by giving a preliminary review of literature that is pertinent to this study including the definition of concepts as well as the organisation of the study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Any scientific research study, no matter what its purpose, requires a robust review of relevant literature. This is intended to help the researcher to have a clearer picture and understanding of the topic (Bless, Higson-Smith & Sithole, 2013). According to Saunders and Lewis (2011), in order for a researcher to have a clear understanding of the topic which facilitates proper formulation of the research question, the researcher needs to do a background search on the research topic. Such background search involves a critical discussion and analysis of current, relevant and illuminating findings on the research problem that facilitate in contextualizing and justifying the research project (Saunders & Rojon, 2011).

As explained by Jackson (2008), literature in the form of books and journal articles served as a source of such background information. Such a search for background information is called literature review (Bless *et al.*, 2013). Hart (2001:13) defines literature review as the “the selection of available documents on the topic, which contain information, ideas, data and evidence written from a particular standpoint to fulfil certain aims or express certain views on the nature of the topic and how it is to be investigated, and the effective evaluation of these documents in relation to the research being proposed”.

Hart (2001); Booth, Papaioannou and Sutton (2012) and Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, (2009) maintain that the review of literature is an on-going process whose main purpose is to support and guide the researcher to:

- study the existing research studies within the chosen focus area to avoid duplication.
- find gaps, strengths and weaknesses in the existing knowledge.
- study theories underpinning the chosen focus area.
- identify appropriate variables.
- study key concepts relevant to the study.
- understand the research methods and paradigms.
- study recent developments in the study area.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher reviewed literature pertinent to the topic. This section, therefore, focuses specifically on the critical integration of key concepts as well as theories underpinning the study. The CD literature in general and especially the CPD of CDPs in South Africa and other countries was reviewed and analysed. Such a thorough and critical review gave a clear context for this study (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

2.2 Conceptual framework

Every research project has concepts that contextualise it. These key concepts give an indication of the framework and perspective within which the study is conducted. Given that such concepts may be understood differently by different scholars within different contexts, it is important to give a critical analysis thereof (Ridley, 2012). The segment below offers a critical analysis of the key concepts of this study.

2.2.1 Continuing professional development

CPD is defined differently by different scholars (Friedman, 2012). There are those who define it as a method of learning or education, while others see it as an activity. Furthermore, there are also those who regard it as an approach. CPD can also be structured or unstructured (Tofade, Franklin, Noell, & Leadon, 2011).

Collin, Vander Heijden and Lewis (2012) define CPD as a lifelong learning course through which employees acquire new or additional knowledge as well as skills relevant to their current job or the career that they want to pursue in future. Such learning could, therefore, take place formally or informally (Rutter, 2013). While CPD could take place through formal courses, it could also happen informally through every day work experiences and observations for an individual or a collective (Collin, Vander Heijden & Lewis, 2012). Margaryan, Littlejon and Milligan (2013) also add that CPD can either be structured or unstructured. Mentoring and coaching are good examples of structured learning while observation may not necessarily be structured.

CPD is viewed by Steyn (2011) as post formal training activities which one embarks upon in order to expand and improve one's professional knowledge, skills, competencies and values.

Such activities may be education-oriented, training or job-entrenched. Their sole purpose is to make a practitioner much more effective in the delivery of a service.

Alsop (2000) expanded the above definition by explaining that CPD refers to a systematic maintenance that is aimed at enhancing and broadening the knowledge, skills and personal abilities that are needed to execute professional and technical duties throughout one's career. The definition implies that the development of practitioners should not be haphazard or assumed to be taking place. Rather it is an organised effort which is intended not only to expand knowledge and competencies but to maintain them as well. Furthermore, this definition brings up the technocratic approach in CPD by focusing on technical proficiencies as well as personal development as these are likely to impact upon one's professionalism.

The concept of CPD is further defined by Alsop (2013) as a self-originated and self-directed lifelong learning process during which a professional puts on track her professional development by engaging continually with activities that are intended to develop and maintain proficiencies and propensities, heighten professional development as well as sustain achievement of career objectives. In view of that, this is a process through which high eminence in service is determined, established and maintained by a professional. CPD is, therefore, a personal motive in this regard which, if achieved, benefits the professional, client, profession and the employer (Brekelmans, Peoll & van Wijk, 2013).

As explained by Kennedy (2014b), the context in which CPD occurs is significant in its conceptualisation because it helps in understanding its nature and purpose. Perhaps it is for this reason that Friedman and Phillips (2004) provide definitions of CPD in different contexts. Among others, Friedman and Phillips (2004) posit that CPD is a mechanism used by professional bodies and employers to guarantee a cautious public that professionals are up to speed with the advancements taking place in the industry. Furthermore, it is a means used by the employer to develop a calibre of competent and flexible professionals. Lastly, Friedman and Phillips (2004) view CPD as a strategy used by professional bodies to test and verify that professionals and host institutions uphold the standards, values and principles of the profession. These definitions illustrate that CPD means different things in different contexts.

For the purposes of this study, CPD is regarded as a professional learning process, formal or informal; structured or unstructured, which a professional embarks upon through self-reflection, e-learning, seminars, workshops, observations, coaching, mentoring, work experience placement, community of learning, reading books and articles, studying for a relevant qualification, meetings, training and conferences whose purpose is to develop, maintain and extend knowledge and skills required for professional service improvement, quality service and career development. It is, therefore, intended to meet the needs of the profession, employer, client, society and the professional (Gravells, 2012; Rutter, 2013; Collin, Vander Heijden & Lewis, 2012).

2.2.2 Community development

Checkoway (2013) defines CD as a process during which community members, on the basis of their experiences, consciously work together to develop a programme that benefits them as a group. An important lesson in this definition is that this process is initiated by the community members who use their experience, knowledge and expertise as the starting point. Another key aspect in this definition is that members of a community realise that a collective effort to do things for themselves yields better results than if they were working individually. Unity and collectivity demonstrated by community members is seen as a strength by Checkoway (2013) because then the community acts as a unit targeting a solution.

In the 21st Century, scholars still define CD the same way as scholars did during the 20th Century. For example, Robinson and Green (2011) define it the same way as Mukerji (1967) who views it as “a method and ideology for promoting the improvement of rural areas of the country on democratic lines and with the active participation of the people.” Similarly, Ledwith (2011) argues that CD is not only a process but it is also a method. Scholars use the word to explain actions which the CD practitioner takes to stimulate participation among community members such that they become fully responsible for changing their lives (Eversole, 2012). Scholars such as Robinson and Green (2011) also define CD not only as a process but a method used by a community to bring about change in their lives. This can be achieved through programmes or activities such as housing construction, agricultural innovation and recreational activities. Such programmes are conducted within the self-help framework with a bit of technical assistance from institutions such as government or the private sector. The same

scholars also define CD as an outcome of a process. Such an outcome could be in the form of employment creation, house construction, access to health care, access to education or increased civic participation.

According to Matarrita-Cascante and Brennan (2012), even though the 21st Century definitions of this concept are rooted in the 20th Century, it is important that the current definitions encapsulate its broader meaning. It is for this reason that these scholars expanded the meaning of the concept of CD and conceptualised it as a “process that entails organisation, facilitation, and action, which allows people to establish ways to create the community they want to live in. It is a process that provides vision, planning, direction, and coordinated action towards desired goals associated with the promotion of efforts aimed at improving the conditions” (Matarrita-Cascante & Brennan, 2012: 297). The definition emphasises the point that CD is a community driven process that entails an explicit action plan that a community collectively draws, implements, monitors and evaluates. There is also a suggestion that if this plan is drawn and executed at the community level, there is more internal than external reliance in terms of inputs.

Hart (2012) still finds the definition by the United Nations (hereafter, UN) relevant to current communities even though it was presented during the 20th Century. The UN (1963) in Hart (2012: 56), regards CD as “a process by which the efforts of the people are united with those of the government authorities to improve the socio-economic and cultural conditions of the local community, to integrate these communities into the life of the nation and to contribute fully to national progress”. Similarly, the Department of Social Development (1997: 26) defines CD as “different intervention strategies that combine the efforts of the people themselves with government to improve the economic, social, cultural and environmental conditions of communities.” These definitions suggest that CD happens through partnerships and networks between the community and other stakeholders. Such stakeholders could be government, Non-Governmental Organisations (hereafter, NGOs), voluntary organisations, private organisations or CDPs (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2012).

Conceptualisation of CD as a shared effort between the community and its development stakeholders aimed at improving the latter’s living conditions is also supported by Coetzee (2012). Coetzee (2012: 505) defines CD as the “stimulation of local community to improve

their own conditions within existing systems, under the guidance of their own leaders, according to their own needs, within own capabilities, in accordance with their own plans, and with support from inside and outside parties.” The responsibility of improving the community’s standard of living squarely lies with the community itself. Inputs for CD, whether human or physical resources, ought to be found within the community itself. Decisions about utilisation of such resources are also determined by the community with help and guidance from the leaders. Coetzee’s definition makes the role of the leaders very clear. They serve as guides, enablers and advisors (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2013).

Matarrita-Cascante and Brennan (2012), further explain that CD refers to a social learning process led, initiated and implemented by a community with maximum use of local resources which could be human or physical. These scholars view CD as a process that does not only take place at the grassroots level, but is also driven by community members. The community members jointly address challenges that they are faced with. As the process unfolds, communities learn and acquire skills such as planning, organising and management. In the same breath, Wilkinson (1991:93) holds the opinion that CD “involves purposive, positive, and structure-oriented actions, and exists in the efforts, as well as in the achievements and failures, of the people working together to address shared interests and solve their common problems.” Kenny (2011) describes CD as a process which involves ordinary members of a community collectively identifying and analysing their problems and setting goals for themselves which are part of their development plan. Such a community uses local knowledge, experiences, resources and wisdom to solve its problems. CD is, therefore, a people-centered approach.

The concept of empowerment has also been used to define CD. Matarrita-Cascante (2010) and van der Merwe, Mberengwa and Lekoko (2010) use the concept of empowerment to define community development. Matarrita-Cascante (2010) regards CD as an effort by local people to organise and facilitate processes through which they can use local resources to plan, direct and coordinate strategies to improve their economic, personal and physical conditions. van der Merwe, Mberengwa and Lekoko (2010) strongly believe that if community members have power they can devise strategies to reduce poverty, illiteracy, joblessness and any form of injustices affecting them. It is, therefore, the power which the members of a community have over their circumstances as individuals, collectives or organisations. Similarly, Meade (2011: 3) views CD as a “participatory process that can empower socially excluded individuals and

communities.” The above definitions suggest that a community through its sub-structures gives itself power to take control of its development agenda from which all members are likely to benefit. Dialogue by community members, among others, gives them a better understanding of issues and building relationships - thus creating and strengthening their social capital.

Green and Haines (2008) regard CD as an initiative by the community to produce their own physical, human, environmental, physical, financial and social assets through the use of local physical and human resources. Production of the said assets is influenced by the need to improve their own well-being. This definition clearly focuses more on the physical wellness of the community. However, Stoecker (2013) brings about an interesting element into the discussion. The scholar is of the view that the understanding of CD may not be narrowed only to the material needs of people such as houses, roads, energy, water and clinics. Stoecker (2013), therefore, views CD as a process that involves both building the physical infrastructure as well as the capability for the people to determine their short and long term goals together of achieving all those as a collective. What is clear from these two definitions is that CD is a process that involves community members themselves taking an initiative in improving their life in totality.

The majority of CD scholars (Coetzee, 2012; De Beer and Swanepoel, 2013; Green and Haines, 2008; Hart, 2012) hold the view that it is based on the following assumptions.

- Community members have the ability to examine their living conditions, which include their strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats, and collectively determine how to improve quality of their life.
- CD is rooted in the community. It is, therefore, driven by the community as they are knowledgeable about their circumstances compared to an outsider. Driving CD initiatives creates an opportunity for community members to interact, bond, acquire and apply knowledge and skills in resolving their problems and improving their general living conditions.

Although CD scholars seem not to agree on the definition of the concept community development, they all emphasise that it entails improvement of the standard of living of a community. Such a process is directed and guided by community members who are learning throughout the process. A definition that seems to encapsulate conceptualisations by various

scholars presented above is that of the International Association of Community Development (hereafter, IACD). At its biannual 2005 conference held in Cameroon, the IACD as explained by Mubangizi (2009) defined CD as a process that involves actions taken by communities and civil society organisations to take part in policy formulation activities relating to their environment, politics, economic as well as social development. The aims of such a process are community empowerment, capacity building, democratising development initiatives and promoting good citizenship. Lastly, it refers to the understanding by the partners of such a community that dialoguing with the latter is important in shaping and determining change needed by community members, especially the underprivileged and helpless ones. It does mean then that CD may be regarded as the process during which people of the same locality kick off a social action which is meant to improve their social, economic, environmental and cultural state of affairs.

2.2.3 Community development practitioner

According to Phillips and Pittman (2009), a CDP is a professional who facilitates CD by playing an advisory role that is focused on helping communities collectively assess their current situation, identify and weigh their future options, create a shared future vision as well as make decisions about realising such a vision. In summary, CDPs' role is to help communities help themselves and to improve their living conditions (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2012).

Phillips and Pittman (2009) view CDPs as professionals trained in fields such as development, planning, education and health, to name a few, who in most instances use development projects to facilitate the process of improving the living conditions of communities. The South African Department of Social Development (2010) defines a CDP as an individual who facilitates processes, programmes and projects that have been initiated by the community with the intention of addressing and resolving the identified gaps and needs. In addition to that, they advise and give the community support with regard to strategies which can be employed to improve their standard of living through the use of community based physical and human resources. Mubangizi (2009) supports this definition by explaining that CDPs are persons who facilitate community empowerment and active citizenry.

2.2.4 Training

Truss, Mankin and Kelliher (2012) are of the opinion that training involves a prearranged interactive learning activity through which a trainee acquires a particular skill or learns how to practice a particular action. It is seen as an organised action aimed at teaching someone for the purpose of improving that person's performance such that they can acquire the necessary level of knowledge or skill. It can further be described as the act of teaching or giving an instruction such that a person acquires a skill or learns a particular type of behaviour. Such a learning activity is intended to result in changed behaviour in the workplace and is thus expected to trigger improved performance.

Parry (2008) also defines training as a tool used to assist staff members to update their skills continually thus keeping up to date with the skills needed in the constantly changing industries. The fundamental principle behind these definitions is that the act of training comprises two parties which are the trainer and trainee. During the execution of such an action the trainer imparts knowledge whose purpose is to improve performance and behaviour of the trainee. The aspect that seems to be missing in these definitions is change in the attitude of the trainee.

Banfield and Kay (2012) also narrowed their definition to skills and knowledge acquisition. As a result, they define training as prearranged, controlled, and mostly formal learning activities which are aimed at developing certain expertise and knowledge that trainees need to perform their jobs effectively. Although these scholars brought the concept of learning experiences into the picture, they narrowed their focus to formal ones only. They failed to embrace the unstructured learning experiences that trainees can acquire through a non-formal training programme. This is an aspect that curriculum experts such as Kelly (2009) have not stopped emphasising.

Buckley and Caple (2009) support these definitions but add a third element which is attitude. In view of that Buckley and Caple (2009) define training as a systematically organised and well-coordinated teaching oriented efforts which are aimed at improving the workforce's level of information, knowledge, competencies, behaviour and attitudes such that their performance can be enhanced. Training is, therefore, an organised action aimed at teaching someone for the purpose of improving that person's performance such that they can acquire necessary level of

knowledge, skill or behaviour. It is clear from this definition that training is more than what the previous sources presented. Training is, therefore, aimed at enhancing knowledge and skills, positive behaviour and attitude as well as improving not only the trainee's abilities but those of the trainer as well. As explained by Westoby and van Blerk (2012) not only does the trainee acquire knowledge during the training exercise, but the trainer's horizon as well may be broadened as a result of their facilitation.

In summary, training involves planned and unplanned experiences of the trainee with regard to teaching, practice, change of attitude as well as acquiring knowledge and skills. This study, therefore, presents training as the process of imparting and consuming knowledge formally or informally, acquiring skills as well as facilitating attitudinal and behavioural change. As a consequence, training may not be limited to performance improvement of those who are already employed. Conceptualisation of training must also embrace those who are still being prepared to practice for the first time. Categorisation of training, therefore, becomes critical.

According to Buckley and Caple (2009), there are two major categories of training. Those are pre-employment and on-the-job training. Swanepoel, Erasmus and Schenck (2008) define pre-employment training as an organised training programme comprising of theoretical and practical learning that a person may engage in for the purpose of acquiring and learning appropriate knowledge and information, skills, as well appropriate attitude and behaviour. Such a learning experience precedes employment. On-the-job training is defined by De Gripp and Sauermann (2013) as the acquisition of knowledge about the processes, characteristics and procedures of the job that one does through structured or unstructured learning programmes.

2.3 Theory underpinning this study

Any research study, whether it is new or it is the revision of an existing and whether it is natural or social science study, falls within a particular theoretical framework. Many scholars (Vogt, Gardner and Haeefe, 2012; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009; Ridley, 2012) hold the view that every topic that is investigated falls within the borders of a discipline or developed area which is guided by a set of theories and ideas called a theoretical framework. Leshem and Trafford (2007) define theoretical framework as viewpoints of various scholars which take the form of theories. Some scholars (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2009; Johnson and

Christensen, 2008) label it theoretical underpinning and it is referred as such in this study. Ridley (2012), therefore, describes it as a framework that offers an illustrative method which could be in the form of classifications or elucidations.

The purpose of a theory is to give a study a clear conceptual orientation which serves as a guide. A theoretical framework determines the success of a study. That is because a theory connects elements of a research study such as the research problem, objectives, statement of the problem, hypothesis and methodology. This implies that a theory influences how a researcher views and approaches a study. As a result, it is not possible to conduct an appropriate study outside the frame of a particular theory (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). CPD in this context refers to continual practical and attitudinal growth of a CDP for the purpose of this study. The CDPs' primary role is to work with communities in their endeavour to improve the community's living conditions (Phillips & Pittman, 2009). During such engagements, both the community and the practitioner learn from each other. However, the practitioner serves as an enabler, advisor as well as facilitator of CD. For the CDPs to perform these roles efficiently and effectively, they need to be continually learning during the course of their careers. This deepens their expertise, broadens their horizon and heightens their practice thus maximising their potential to contribute to the betterment of the lives of the communities (Kotze, 2012).

In view of the above, learning is an important element in the community development practice. Studies such as this one may be guided by learning theories such as cognitivist, behaviourism as well as constructivism (Jordan, Carlile & Stack, 2008; Gray & Macblain, 2012). Among these theories, this study leans towards constructivism. It is, therefore, underpinned by the constructivism theory.

2.3.1 Constructivism and continuing professional development for community development practitioners

The theory of constructivism provides an authentic framework for studies that focus on growth and development through learning. Grado-Severson (2007) asserts that the theory of constructivist learning sheds understanding in the development of adults' knowledge and skills. This theory acknowledges that knowledge is important; what is even more significant as postulated by this theory is how knowledge is constructed. Perhaps this is the reason Gray and

Macblain (2012) define constructivism as an approach to learning which is based on the principle that understanding results from the mental creation of an idea. In the same breath, Jordan *et al.* (2008) explain that the constructivist school of thought holds that a person builds knowledge as well as understanding by amalgamating the new information with the knowledge that he or she already has. Learning is basically regarded by this school of thought as construction of new meanings on the basis of existing knowledge (Steyn, 2011). The views of these scholars are based on the cognitive constructivism perspective which was championed by Piaget (Amineh & Asl, 2015). The main assumption of Piaget's theory is that learning takes place through active construction of meaning. CPD programmes ought to demonstrate acknowledgement of the fact that by the time practitioners start engaging in such programmes, they are not blank because they already possess some knowledge. What they rather do is to adapt new information into the pre-existing ideas thus modifying their conceptualisation. Such a process facilitates in-depth and comprehensive understanding of a phenomenon (Maistry, 2008). Furthermore, CPD facilitators, supervisors and managers should entrench learning by allowing the CDPs to put into practice what they learned as suggested by Mvududu and Thiel-Burgerss (2012). By doing this, the CDPs will sharpen their thinking and problems solving skills.

Quite a handful of CD scholars and practitioners such as Kotze (2012); Luka and Maistry (2012); Maistry (2012); Mubangizi (2009); Phillips and Pittman (2009) and Smith (2009) hold the view that CD is a learning process during which both the practitioner and the community learn. In the same breath, CPD is an on-going learning process that takes place throughout the practitioner's career (Adu & Okeke, 2014). This implies that practitioners are learners throughout their careers. While CD scholars (Schenck, Nel and Louw, 2015; Westoby, 2014) regard it as a bottom-up approach, professional development learning scholars (Rout and Behera, 2014) hold the same view about constructivist oriented CPD. Justifiably, the constructivist school of thought underpins this study.

Vygotsky who is critical of Piaget's approach to learning, holds the view that learning cannot take place flaccidly (Amineh & Asl, 2015). Rather it takes place through active engagement with the physical world and other people (Nel, 2014). This is guided by Vygotsky's socio-constructivist perspective. Vygotsky asserts that the learner acquires knowledge best if she/he embarks on in-depth and robust dialogues with fellow colleagues and community members

(Amineh & Asl, 2015; Gray & Macblain, 2012). Apart from the fact that learners learn from each other through such dialogues, Nel (2014) suggests that the dialogue may trigger old memories which can facilitate new discoveries or better application of the existing knowledge. This, therefore, suggests that CPD programmes for CDPs must be oriented towards active involvement of the practitioners because it promotes self-learning and learning by discovery. The programmes should, therefore, be practitioner-centred as the constructivist school of thought is founded on the principle of a learner-centred education. In actual fact according to Ono and Ferreira (2010), the principles of learning endorsed by the constructivist theory apply equally to both the child and adult learner. Rout and Behera (2014) concur with Ono and Ferreira (2010), and further explain that adult learners even construct knowledge better through cognitive coaching because it is not prescriptive as it provides professionals with the space to explore and discover things for themselves. This theory, therefore, best befits this study because CDPs are adult learners.

Mansour, El-Deghaidy, Alshamrani and Aldahmash (2014), share Gray and Macblain's sentiment about a practitioner-centred CPD programme and go on to encourage that the programme should be framed within the constructivist approach. The scholars' view is guided by their conviction that a CPD programme which is based on the constructivist approach creates a greater space for practitioners to influence decisions about the content and approach of such a programme. This approach, the scholars argue, allows the practitioners to suggest focus areas and specific activities for their CPD programme. The possibilities for active participation and commitment to the programme are great in this regard. Mansour *et al.* (2014) further explain that professionals take full responsibility for the programmes which are based on their input. As a result failure is minimised.

The constructivist school of thought makes it clear that learning cannot simply and ignorantly be relegated to transmission of knowledge from one person to another (Rout & Behera, 2014). However, as suggested by Grado-Severson (2007), people learn through interaction, reflections as well as experiences. In relation to experience, each person learns on the basis of his experience. Such experience influences engagement with the new information. As explained by Jordan *et al.* (2008) social interaction through which one learns about other people's experiences is also an important element in learning as well as professional development. What happens is that during the interaction people bring different ideas; as a result different people

will take away different lessons. Consequently, CPD programmes for CDPs ought to provide an environment that encourages them to draw lessons not only from their experiences but their colleagues' as well. Furthermore, the programme should provide an environment that would motivate them to emulate best practices and adapt them to suit those specific communities they are working with.

The one-size-fits-all approach to learning, especially if it is meant for capacity building and development (Jordan *et al.*, 2008), has been criticised by the constructivist theory. This school of thought holds that what has worked in a particular situation may not yield similar results if applied in another situation. The reasons range from differences in circumstances to varying opinions of the implementers. As a result, it may be necessary to make some alterations in implementing a solution which has been applied before. Constructivism, therefore, encourages custom made professional development programmes.

CD is a learning process (Matarrita-Cascante & Brennan, 2012). The CDPs and communities learn from each other. All these people come from diverse backgrounds and the community itself is diverse. This reality suggests that the practitioners and the community ought to recognise and appreciate this diversity. The constructivist theory teaches the community and the practitioners that in a learning environment such as CD processes, people from different backgrounds consult, work together and bring different resources and inputs needed to develop and implement CD projects. Thus recognising the diversity of the community and building on it for the benefit of the community is very important. Westoby and Ingamells (2012:384) recognise the diversity in the community because it is not worthwhile to assume that "there is only one right or best way to do community work." Their view is that this approach contradicts the values of diversity and bottom up approach which are the cornerstones of CD. The significance of these values is that they encourage CDPs to collaborate with community members from different backgrounds in building and sustaining social capital as well in drawing up and implementing the CD agenda (Westoby & Ingamells, 2012). The constructivist theory gives this study a proper theoretical grounding because it encourages the collective which is in essence a people-centred development approach.

Constructivist theory demonstrates that exposure to information does not automatically guarantee understanding, comprehension, being knowledgeable or even the ability to apply the

acquired knowledge (Jordan, Carlile & Stack, 2008). The same applies to CPD. Participation in CPD programmes does not necessarily mean that a practitioner improves skills, competencies and knowledge as well as becoming efficient and effective (Friedman, 2012). However, exposing practitioners to it, especially following learner-centered approaches, may give them power to take charge and ownership of learning continuously unlike if it is imposed on them. The practitioner-centred CPD programme which embraces practitioner's prior knowledge and needs is well within the CD framework. The two are framed on a bottom-up approach to development. Consequently, this study is framed within constructivist theory.

Effective learning through CPD is not guaranteed (Friedman, 2012). It is influenced by several factors. Friedman (2012) notes that the practitioners' curiosity and commitment towards personal and professional development influences her to go out and seek new ideas through reading, observation and consulting with colleagues, researchers and experts in the field. Without interest and self-motivation to go all out in pursuit of new insights, a practitioner may not benefit from CPD. Learning requires an honest obligation, attentiveness, awareness and concern from a practitioner who intends to develop professionally and personally (Boud & Hager, 2011). This strengthens the view held by this school of thought that the one-shot approaches to CPD are not sufficient to facilitate CPD because it is a lifelong learning journey (Rout & Behera, 2014).

As the school of constructivism suggested, learning is not a simple task (Jordan, Carlile & Stack, 2008). Friedman (2012) supports the view and stresses that in some instances even though one may be committed to learning, challenges and mysteries which are thrown to the practitioner by the day to day practice may deter one from learning. One may be deterred from learning by not being afforded ample time by the employer to engage in CPD, especially externally based activities (Ikenwilo & Skatun, 2014). Lack of time may result in failure to embark on thorough, in-depth and robust engagement, discussion and debates among practitioners (Boud & Hager, 2011). The constructivist theory encourages that favourable conditions should be created for learning.

2.3.2 Justification for continuing professional development of community development practitioners

Community development is gradually being recognised as a key driver in addressing the needs and challenges of communities, especially the poor both in the developing and developed countries. Lekoko and van de Merwe (2006) observe that CD is a joint effort among interested parties such as Non-Governmental Organisations, Community-based organisations, public and private sector as well as community members. The same scholars argue that even though this is a partnership, community members must remain at the centre of the CD activities thus acknowledging that this fact is key in the CD field. As early as the 1960's Batten (1962: 5) advised that if this field is to sustain and live up to this fact, it requires a practitioner "who is able to get on well with the common people, knowledgeable about their way of life, in sympathy with their hopes and aspirations, and genuinely desirous of helping them." Having noted this, Westoby and van Blerk (2012) are of the opinion that CDPs require CPD aimed at empowering them to assist ordinary members of the society to learn and practice the field's core principles such as self-help, self-reliance, initiative, participation and partnership.

The specific role that community members play is to identify their felt and real needs, define their problems as well as design, plan and execute an appropriate course of corrective measures (Lekoko & van de Merwe, 2006). Kotze (2012) supports Lekoko and van de Merwe, further adding that another important player in this process is the CDP whose core function is to facilitate this process. CDPs are, therefore, significant role players in this process because through their facilitation they can either derail or enhance the improvement of the lives of community members. All these factors justify the need for CDPs to continually upgrade themselves.

Sihlongonyane (2009) observes that community participation is a key component of community development practice because the latter may not be successful in the absence of the former. Nel (2014) notes from the work of a distinguished scholar of people-centred development, Paulo Freire that CDPs can only be able to facilitate community participation if they themselves subscribe to it and practice it. It is imperative that during their pre-service training, prospective CDPs are exposed to participatory experiential activities to get the experience thereof. The challenge is that while countries such as Latin America are applying

Paulo Freire's approach to a great extent, in South Africa it is only applied on a minimal scale yet many studies (Ssekibuule, 2012) have revealed that community participation is the weakest link in governance and administrative matters in this country. This, therefore, suggests that CPD could be used to close this gap. The nature of the role of CDPs explained above creates an expectation among community members, especially the poor, that these practitioners have the ability to help them address their needs (Kotze, 2012). The goals of the Department of Social Development change regularly resulting in the creation of new programmes or modification of existing ones. It is through such programmes that CDPs facilitate the process of identifying and satisfying the needs of communities. Examples of such programmes include but are not limited to war on poverty, food banks, skills development, early childhood development and cooperative development. It is, therefore, necessary that the CDPs fully comprehend such programmes and keep up to date with any changes introduced.

Collin, Van der Heijden and Lewis (2012) are of the opinion that the quality of service rendered by these professionals is highly dependent on the type of retooling and up skilling programmes that they go through. CPD is, therefore, necessary because it offers CDPs an opportunity to create an environment in which community members use their talents, experiences, skills, networks and physical resources to solve their problems and fortify their successes.

CDPs form part of the important facilitators of sustainable development. In order for them to fulfil this role effectively, they need quality lifelong education (Ololube, 2008). CPD for CDPs exposes them to different strategies of working together with communities in an endeavour to challenge themselves to view the world's resources as those that belong to all generations. Furthermore, the manner in which communities are becoming diverse and sophisticated dictate that these communities require a cadre of professionals who continuously update themselves in order to meet the needs of these communities (Molino, Ghislieri, & Cortese. 2013). Steyn (2010) strongly believes that participation in effective CPD programmes provides professionals with some answers to complex issues and the ever-changing environments which they work in. A similar view is held by Postle, Edwards, Moon, Rumsey and Thomas (2010) who take the point further by explaining that CPD creates the opportunity for professionals to solve inherent conflicts in their disciplines. This opportunity, Van Rooyen (2007) asserts, assists in closing the gap between the professional's practical experience and their knowledge base.

According to Cornwall (2007), the field of development and CD in particular is full of buzzwords which seem to serve as passwords for support and approval. Community empowerment is one such buzz phrase in the field of CD. The scholar asserts that this is one the most abused phrase in the field. It is used in some programmes just to create expectation and excitement (Batliwala, 2007). The basis for such an assumption is that such programmes perpetuate unequal distribution of power and undermine the potential that the people have, thus disempowering communities. This is against the essence of CD and contradicts the theories which some practitioners were trained upon during the pre-service training (Lekoko & Van der Merwe, 2006). CPD, therefore, gives professionals, whether practitioners or policy makers, an opportunity to engage with such matters for purposes of generating corrective interventions.

Boyle, Lamprianou and Boyle (2005), advocate that the growing significance of CPD is receiving much more attention in many professions and sectors today. This attention is mainly influenced by the need to carry on learning throughout one's working life. The purpose of this constant learning is to sustain individual and professional efficiency. Therefore, it is not only intended to meet the needs of the profession but that of an individual as well. With regard to the individual, CPD is intended to maximise the individual's potential and further provide chances for broadening one's horizon in various sectors of life (Murphy, Cross & Mc Guire, 2006). It is on this basis that Jordan *et al.* (2008) support Kennedy's view and add that this learning endeavour goes beyond the practice of the professional know-how. It involves one's obligation to all-inclusive personal development.

The skills and qualification audit conducted by the South African Department of Social Development (Department of Social Development, 2010) revealed that the current cohort of CDPs have been trained in various disciplines which are not closely related to CD. Chile (2012) endorses the findings of this report and further states that community development practice in many countries is characterised by internal disunity and varied qualifications. However, the majority of these practitioners are qualified and professional Social Workers. Malinga-Musamba and Ntshwarang (2013) assert that a similar situation persists in Botswana. These scholars argue that some of these Social Workers tend to equate and confuse social welfare programmes with CD. What this suggests is lack of standardisation and coordination in what constitutes CD.

Lekoko (2007) suggests that work-related learning may help in ensuring that CDPs develop the appropriate attitudes and competencies required for one to perform duties effectively. Continuous development and learning can also expose practitioners to the CD programmes, approaches and strategies relevant to a particular context. These scholars regard such learning and training as a means for capacity building, sharing knowledge and transferring information about best community development practices among practitioners. CPD may, therefore, be seen as a solution to hindrances such as poor time management, lack of relevant training and poor coordination because it is meant to address these encumbrances directly (Lekoko, 2007).

The journey towards a professional career begins with formal training which is guided and directed by the lecturers (Alsop, 2013). The role of these academics is to ensure that the professional journey takes place under appropriate and favourable conditions such that each learner achieves satisfactory outcomes. Even though the learners would have undertaken similar training, they might acquire different interests, experiences, insights and benefits through this learning process. This means that even graduates of the same programme experience it differently. Consequently, they complete it with varying sets of expertise, traits and gaps.

Upon completion of the formal training, a certificate issued marks the beginning of a new era in the practitioner's professional life. During this new era the professional ought to take full responsibility of ensuring that the traits and expertise acquired through formal training are put into practice and the weak points and gaps are remedied to avoid irrelevance and failure to meet the demands of the job (Khan, 2010). While the initial professional training was mainly characterised by a controlled and guided programme with specific rules and regulations, the new era of practice requires continual self-directed learning (Alsop, 2013; Khan, 2010). Westoby and van Blerk (2012) express a similar sentiment by explaining that learning and training take place during the course of a professional journey within democratic and participatory processes as the professional independently determines how and what to learn in order to improve the level of knowledge, experience and qualifications. Therefore, a professional is not necessarily forced to learn but failure to do so makes them realise that it may not be easy to pursue a professional journey without engaging in a lifelong learning process.

Westoby and Ingamells (2012) raise an important point that practitioners experience the practice of CD differently. This experience also changes, grows and matures with time. CPD activities such as community learning meetings and conferences may be helpful to them in reflecting on their experiences and sharing them with fellow colleagues.

As explained by Arthur, Marland, Pill and Rea (2006) upon graduation, practitioners do not really have what it takes to perform their day-to-day job as prescribed in their job descriptions. That is because pre-service training offers practitioners knowledge which is not necessarily sufficient to carry them over each hurdle that they encounter during their practice. In the same breath, Tynjala (2008) asserts that in many disciplines there is a gap between the knowledge acquired through formal education and the knowledge required at the workplace. This is definitely not a new phenomenon because even Tofade, Franklin, Noell, and Leadon (2011) suggest that there is some form of agreement across disciplines that the first post-secondary school education is not adequate to give a person knowledge and skills applicable throughout his life. Westoby and Ingamells (2012) express a similar concern that new graduates lack foundation knowledge and experience because both the society and classroom activities do not give them space for meaningful participation, robust reflection and inquiry as well as supportive relations. Maintenance of skills and knowledge becomes important. CPD may, therefore, be used to reinforce what was acquired through pre-service training. It can also be used to integrate pre-service learning with practical experience (Alsop, 2013).

In their study conducted among Scottish CDPs about transition from being a student to a practitioner, Naulty and Jindal-Snape (2011) concluded that such transition is neither smooth nor straightforward. What informs their conclusion is that a study conducted in Scotland revealed that there is not necessarily a good relationship between the job requirement, knowledge and skills acquired through higher education. Such a finding necessitates CPD (Friedman, 2012). This view is also supported by Mokhele and Jita (2010) who see CPD as an appropriate post qualification mechanism aimed at tightening the loose ends in preparing practitioners for the work environment.

Still on the transition from higher education training to the field of practice, Tofade, Franklin, Noell and Leadon (2011) argue that even though education and training ought to prepare one for transition into the workplace, it is not everyone who easily moves from being a student to

a practitioner. As a result, some end up bringing their transition problems to the practice setting. CPD comes in very handy in this regard because it serves to prepare and give support to practitioners to better manage the transition. It is expected that in this way CPD narrows the gap between the two forms of knowledge (Friedman, 2012). Megginson & Whitaker (2007) also add that continued and rapid exposure to and acquisition of new knowledge and skills form part of the support that practitioners require from their employers. According to Arthur *et al.* (2006), practitioners do not attend CPD programmes as clean slates. In actual fact they attend these programmes with volumes of ideas, good thoughts, mixed feelings, presumptions, indecisions as well as missions. These are important resources which inform CPD programmes. In that regard CPD offers practitioners the platform to share their ideas and engage with colleagues, seniors as well as experts. Such engagements provide practitioners with answers to their questions or at least resources with which to resolve their problems and address new needs. This enhances their level of success in future (Megginson & Whitaker, 2007).

CPD, unlike human resource development, puts an individual at the centre because the individual's development is core to it (Megginson & Whitaker, 2007). That is because even though people can work as a collective their experiences, needs and challenges vary. In view of that, CPD aims at assisting individual employees identify their needs and devise strategies to deal with them. Such assistance is intended to enhance and maintain the professional standards, values, principles and competencies. However, whether or not one benefits from CPD is influenced by the individual's capability (Friedman, 2012). The core lesson from the CPD and CD literature as noted by Van Rooyen (2007) is that CDPs ought to be given support on a continual basis in the form of seminars, refresher courses, workshops, peer learning and conferences to reinforce and update their knowledge and skills.

2.3.3 Hindrances to continuing professional development of community development practitioners

According to Mulwa (2012) CD practice requires a calibre of professionals who are able to guide communities in establishing systems and structures which are intended to facilitate effective CD. CDPs are key stakeholders in this process. As a result they need to develop themselves professionally such that they can assist communities remove or manage CD barriers (Theodori, 2008). While many scholars (Bamber, 2009; Lammintakanen, Kivinen and

Kinnunen, 2008) concur that professional learning and development are a universal remedy for practitioners' issues, there are factors which hinder CPD. This section focuses on some of the hindrances to CPD for CDPs.

Friedman (2012) advocates that the model of CPD adopted by an organisation determines its success or failure with CPD. If an organisation adopts a mechanistic and prescriptive model, it is unlikely to yield positive outcomes. Such models are based on top-down approaches to CPD. The problem with such an approach is that it lacks flexibility which is fundamental in professional development. In actual fact such a model undermines the values and principles of CPD (Ikenwilo & Skatun, 2014).

Following up on what Ikenwilo and Skatun (2014) intimated, Fraser, Kennedy, Reid and McKinney (2007) opine that prescriptive models of CPD are usually developed at the discretion of the employer or the supervisor who is representing the employer. What this means is that such programmes are not informed by the needs of the CDPs. They lack the voice and consequently ownership of the practitioner. Subsequently, practitioners take part in generic professional development activities which are not informed by their needs and circumstances. Steyn (2011) advises that CPD which is not needs-based delays the process of addressing the real needs of practitioners thus creating an ineffective workforce. Furthermore, opportunities for customised CPD get diminished.

Meggison and Whitaker (2007) aver that the manner in which CPD is structured can enhance or derail professional learning. Their assertion is based on the point that many organisations tend to treat formal training courses as the essential sources of professional learning and as a result they tend to over-rely on them. Boud and Hager (2011) dismiss such an approach. However, the scholars concede that it is easier to record, manage and coordinate a formal course but contend that it cannot facilitate acquisition of skills such as technical, team-work, management and leadership.

As suggested by Tofade, Franklin, Noell, and Leadon (2011), CPD ought to involve formal or informal, structured or mandatory learning activities which can take place at the workplace or a training institution. It can, therefore, be concluded that confining CPD to a training institution hinders it tremendously because it means the other two components (continuing professional

support and continuing professional education) are disregarded. Steyn (2008) is of the opinion that CPD should be all-encompassing and pay much more attention to helping a professional identify her weaknesses and incompetence in meeting the expectations laid down by the profession.

Steyn (2011) has noted that in some organisations, even though the name says CPD, implying that a practitioner learns throughout the working life, professional learning is treated as a once-off activity. In that way continuity is compromised and the concept loses its meaning. Furthermore, treating CPD as a once-off activity creates an expectation among practitioners which may never be fulfilled. This may demoralise practitioners who were enthusiastic and willing to continue learning for as long as they are employed. Megginson and Whitaker (2007) support Steyn's view and suggest that once-off CPD is less effective. Professional development is more effective if it is a never-ending progression of activities which comprises close interaction, feedback, dialogue and coaching. In their study, of a needs-based model for CPD of Mathematics educators, Steyn (2011) concluded that CPD becomes successful if it is informed by the needs of practitioners.

Friedman (2012) explains that even though practitioners may wish to engage in continuing learning, they may be constrained by lack of time which could be resulting from either family or work related factors or both. In the case of employees who cannot find time to engage in continuous learning, Arthur *et al.* (2006) regard that as inability to strive for work-life balance. Joyce and Cowman (2007) explain that in the case of employers, in certain instances their negative attitudes towards CPD hinder them from setting aside resources such as finances and time for continuous learning. Therefore, it may be concluded that while continuous learning is a change propeller, the employee or employer's attitudes determine its fate in an organisation (Joyce & Cowman, 2007).

Fraser, Kennedy, Reid and McKinney (2007) concur with the point that attitudes do influence the success of CPD and suggest that such attitudes may be informed by prior knowledge and experience. The contribution made by O'Sullivan (2006) in relation to attitude towards CPD is that it should not just be a matter of compliance rather an attitude of mind because it is influenced by both personal and professional factors. The scholars emphasise that a practitioner has to be motivated by the desire and enthusiasm to become more knowledgeable and skilled

thus enhance professional performance and job satisfaction. If this is not the case due to the negative attitude a practitioner has towards CPD, there is no way that professional learning can take place (Rutter, 2013).

2.4 Approaches to continuing professional development

Many scholars (Boud and Hager, 2011; Gunn and Goding, 2009; Chipchase, Johnston and Lond, 2011) agree that CPD is essential for the upkeep, heightening as well as expansion of knowledge, expertise and competence and, therefore, a critical matter for both employees and employers. However, Kennedy (2014a) argues that engagement in any CPD programmes does not guarantee that professionals will in deed learn. Rather the structure and approach thereof are significant inputs in the lifelong learning journey, argues Kennedy (2014a). Alsop (2013) shares the same point and further accentuates that the approach to CPD to a great extent determines the achievement of intended objectives. According to Cossam and Fields (2007), the decision to adopt a particular approach to CPD is usually informed by the value the organisation attaches to it or its attitude towards it. Friedman (2012) also adds that the type of benefits which the employer associates with CPD influence the approach which such an organisation adopts to a very large extent. On the contrary, Gravells (2012) acknowledges the importance of adopting a particular approach to CPD. What is even of great value to Gravells (2012) is that the activity embarked upon by the practitioner should make a difference in the delivery of a service.

Kelly and McDiarmid (2002) and Johnson (2010) suggest that for many years literature has dichotomised professional learning and development into centralised approach and decentralised approach. These scholars regard the centralised approach as the more traditional one while a decentralised approach is viewed as the innovative one. Sadler-Smith and Badger (2006) also talk about the dichotomy but they use a different terminology. Their view is that there are two contrasting approaches to lifelong learning. Those approaches are sanctions and benefits. Among the two mentioned by Kelly and McDiarmid (2002), sanctions are associated with traditionalism and centralisation. With regard to benefits, the scholars argue that there is a movement away from it to a mandatory approach. The mandatory approach is, therefore, associated with decentralisation approach. The significance of discussing these approaches is that the models which are presented in the next section may either be presented within the

centralised or decentralised approach. In addition to these approaches, CPD may be well-structured or less-structured.

2.4.1 Centralised approach to continuing professional development

A centralised approach to CPD is a top-down process of lifelong learning. Cossam and Fields (2007) hold the view that many professionals regard it as an employer-led CPD agenda. This view is based on the point that within a centralised framework to CPD, the employer determines the needs and sets the agenda to meet them. This is interpreted by Cossam and Fields (2007) as being prescriptive because there is less space for the target beneficiaries to draw their development plans. The scholars argue that this approach emasculates the principle of CPD because it focuses more on what is needed by the employer than the employee.

While scholars like Bradbury, Frost, Kilminster and Zikas (2010) and de Groot, Eidedijk, Debbie, Jaarsma, Simons and Van Beukelan (2012) strongly believe that critical reflection on one's career, performance, knowledge and expertise is central in CPD because it serves as the basis for decision making, in a centralised approach practitioners are denied such opportunity. As a result, there is lack of flexibility and movement if one is operating within this framework. CPD is, therefore, conducted in a rigid time tabled system which has to be followed accordingly. Cossam and Fields (2007) thus view a centralised approach as more threatening than developmental.

Ono and Ferreira (2010) argue that a centralised approach to CPD is essentially bureaucratic. It is, therefore, simply done to satisfy bureaucratic requirements which in most instances comprise completion of forms and compiling volumes of written documents which do not guarantee evidence that learning took place (Rutter, 2012), nor that skills acquired get translated into workplace effectiveness. In that way it may be concluded that CPD presented within a centralised approach causes uncertainties and confusion. It could consequently not yield the expected results. According to Ono and Ferreira (2010), while there are many disadvantages associated with the centralised approach to CPD, it seems to have only two major advantages. Those are its cost effectiveness in terms of human and monetary resources, especially where techniques such as train the trainer are used. Hardman, Ackers, Abrishamian and O'Sullivan (2011) add that it could also be an effective approach when its focus is to

transmit reform messages. Alsop (2000) warns that the message transmitted through this approach could still be watered down.

Burton and Johnson (2010) also criticised it on the basis that when the programme team parts ways with the practitioners, chances are that it may collapse because the support system is no longer there. The scholar argues that the locally based and controlled programmes are more robust because they are planned and implemented together with practitioners and in view of the context. However, Ndlovu (2011) cautions that a locally based CPD programme does not assure accomplishment and sustainability. Ndlovu's point of departure is that whether a programme is centralised or decentralised is insignificant but what is important is that the programme should be objective, continuous and provide the requisite experience.

2.4.2 Decentralised approach to continuing professional development

Decentralisation in CPD denotes a learner-centred methodology to lifelong learning and development. The core characteristic of this approach is devolution of power and authority to the target beneficiaries who are the practitioners in this instance. Megginson and Whitaker (2007) put it that the rationale, which is also the strength of this approach, is that the practitioners make better and informed decisions about their professional needs compared to anyone. In actual fact, in this approach the practitioners are at the centre of their lifelong learning journey because they identify their needs and determine strategies to address them. As a result professionals take ownership of continued learning (Alsop, 2013). Ndege (2006) regards ownership of CPD activities by practitioners as an important matter in this process. The scholar contends that if practitioners do not own the process then they feel alienated from it, thereby minimizing its success. Ndege (2006) argues that this is highly prevalent in the African continent. This is unfortunately one of the major hindrances of CPD in most of the professions in the continent.

The significance of the decentralised approach to CPD is that it promotes independent learning which is guided by reflection on the status quo (Rutter, 2012). Bradbury *et al.* (2010) regard reflection as an essential phase in the process of CPD because it allows one to consider and apply her mind to the existing situation and make decisions. It may, therefore, be concluded that CPD conducted within a decentralised approach is valuable in the sense that it encourages

practitioners to reflect critically on experiences and observations and thus be able to make sound judgments and decisions on the basis of professional values and principles (Rutter, 2013). Whether the adopted approach is centralised or decentralised, the responsibility to continue learning post qualifying in any field is indisputably the responsibility of a professional (Maharaj, 2013). Continuing to learn should, therefore, not be seen either by the employer or employee as a process that must be forced on anyone. Willingness and commitment to learning must be shown by the practitioner, while the employer provides adequate support and input resources for the programme. This shows that the success of CPD is greatly influenced by collaboration and shared responsibility between the employer and employee (O’Sullivan, 2006).

2.4.3 Less-structured continuing professional development

Alsop (2013) has noted that while some organisations, especially statutory ones, institutionalise CPD, others do not. In such instances it means that CPD becomes less-structured. The organisation plays no or minimal role in a less-structured CPD arrangement. A less-structured CPD involves professional learning activities which are arranged by an individual professional member. Such an arrangement may involve professional seeking support from experienced professional. This could be a colleague from within the same organisation or outside. Mokhele and Jita (2010) appreciate and support a less-structured CPD because they hold the opinion that self-initiated activities are sustainable and more effective than structured ones.

2.5 Models of continuing professional development

CPD has been receiving immeasurable attention from researchers, scholars, professions as well as practitioners for many decades (Boud & Hager, 2011; Fraser *et al.*, 2007; Kennedy, 2014b). All these scholars agree that CPD involves learning to learn and learning from own or others’ experiences on a continual basis. Such learning is not only beneficial to the individual, but the clients, profession as well as the employer. However, its success to some degree depends on how it is structured, presented or modelled.

While there is some agreement on what constitutes models for CPD, what seems to be the bone of contention is the categorisation of such models. For example, Kelly and McDiarmid (2002)

classified models of CPD into three paradigms. Those are training, innovative as well as learning community. On the contrary, Fraser *et al.* (2007) categorised CPD into transmissive, transitional and transformative. The analysis of these two sets of categories revealed that while training can be associated with transmissive, transitional can be equated to learning community. Lastly, transformative is an equivalent of innovation paradigm. Even though varying terminologies are used, the emphasis among equivalent terms is the same.

2.5.1 Training or transmissive model

Scales, Pickering, Senior, Headley, Garner and Boulton (2011) explain that the transmissive paradigm is characterised by professional development activities which are presented by an external expert. Kennedy (2014a) proclaims that these include the training, award-bearing, deficit and cascade models. Fallan (2007) holds the view that these are presented within the one-shot approach thus in most instances the learning activities and material are not in sync with the practitioner's experience and existing knowledge. In that way there is no build up on the existing knowledge and skills. Practitioners are thus not seen as sources of information which can never be true. Krajewski, Lockwood, Krajewski-Jaime and Wiencek (2011) warn that trainers or facilitators should not make a mistake of thinking that practitioners are empty containers into which information can simply be dropped. The scholars believe that practitioners are much more knowledgeable about their circumstances compared to an outsider. Schenck, Nel and Louw (2010) supports this view and further give the advice that every trainer should approach trainees with the full knowledge that they can think, reflect, explore and judge and apply the knowledge derived from these processes.

Such professional development activities, Gameda and Tynjala (2015) argue, are without doubt expert-oriented because the practitioner who is a learner at that point becomes a passive recipient of information from the expert. Fraser *et al.* (2007) add that such professional development activities rely on the expert who focuses specifically on the mechanical aspects of the job. Consequentially, less attention is paid to social dimensions of the job which include attitudes, values and beliefs. Fraser *et al.* (2007) further note that the transmissive models are simply intended to ensure compliance with policies and regulations as well as replication of what the practitioners have been trained on. As a result, there is insufficient room for

practitioners to guide and drive their professional learning because the external expert's interest is on transmitting information to the practitioner.

According to Kennedy (2014a), the training model has been the most prevalent in many professions. However, that does not make it the best in the field. One of its major shortfalls is that it is characterised by a high level of central control, standardisation and coherence which are disguised as quality control measures. On the same breath, Gameda and Tynjala (2015) regard this model as a unidirectional model of professional development as power and the right to determine the content and design of a professional development programme are removed from the practitioner and given to the authority. In this regard, Gameda and Tynjala (2015) argue that authorities erroneously assume that they know best the practitioner's professional needs. This is a purely a top-down approach to professional development which Sandholtz (2002) suggests should give way for bottom-up approach as the latter is based on the expert's experience. The scholar does not support this top-down model to professional development because absence of the practitioner's voice breeds resentment, lack of commitment and ultimately the collapse of the programme. Sandholtz (2002) further strongly believe that this model does not even give the practitioners an opportunity to interact and learn among themselves, therefore, it totally nullifies the idea of self-initiative and self-learning.

The transmissive model has the unintended consequence of removing professional development from the world of practice. As a result, the opportunity to learn within the context that one works in is minimised or non-existent (Gameda & Tynjala, 2006). Selemani-Meke (2011) just like Kennedy (2014b), holds the opinion that learning activities taking place through this model are always presented outside the context. As a result, this paradigm does not give professionals an opportunity to learn how this new knowledge can be applied in practice. Gameda and Tynjala (2006) emphasise that it is really not about the new knowledge but the ability of the practitioners to apply it. Ideally a professional development programme must be planned in view of the full knowledge of the background of the practitioners and the context within which learning takes place as it facilitates effective application.

Despite the criticisms levelled against the transmissive model, Scales, Pickering, Senior, Headley, Garner and Boulton (2011) think that it is an efficient mode of introducing new knowledge to the professionals in a cost effective way. The support which these scholars have

for this model also has a basis on the view that it is a way of introducing the best practice from other professions or parts of the world which can simply be adapted to the local conditions.

2.5.2 Learning community or transitional model

The second paradigm as suggested by Kennedy (2014b) is transitional paradigm. The models which fit under this category include standard-based, coaching and mentoring as well as learning community or community of practice. Stoll and Louis (2008) define a learning community as a group of professionals who belong to the same profession or discipline and share common values, principles, beliefs and emotions. Such professionals are regarded as a learning community because they learn together through robust discussions, critical debates, joint projects, asking questions, giving information and sharing experiences and expertise (Brodie, 2013). The purpose of such collective learning is to continuously interrogate and reflect on their own practices as a group in order to create knowledge whose purpose is to improve service and performance. Steyn (2013) asserts that it is not necessarily about the number of people who are members of a learning community but sharing insights about the practice with the intention to improve performance.

The nature of a learning community suggests that there could be possibilities of professional conflict among members of a learning community. Katz, Earl and Jafar (2009) advise that one of the important building blocks of relationships among members of a learning community is trust. Without it, it may not be possible to establish a successful learning community which is free from conflict. However, Katz and Earl (2010) argue that not all conflict is bad, but what is important is for members to avoid professional conflict to become personal conflict. The scholars strongly believe that the latter is necessary for gruelling inquiry and growth. This paradigm, therefore, promotes collective learning through the use of available and local expertise, competencies as well as professional knowledge. Therefore, this paradigm does not only pay attention to the individual practitioner but all relevant stakeholders who include but are not limited to clients, employers, profession and the individual.

As put by Kennedy (2014a), membership in a learning community or community of practice does not guarantee that one will learn. The scholar advocates that the role that an individual member plays in the community will determine how and if such an individual will learn

anything. For example, a passive participant is less likely to benefit compared to a proactive one who would engage in discussions and inquiries. Perhaps an individual, who is unable to engage at a group level due to personality issues, may consider coaching and mentoring models which are part of this paradigm. As expressed by Fraser *et al.* (2007), coaching and mentoring entail a one-on-one relationship between two professionals. While mentoring can involve a partnership between an inexperienced and experienced professional, coaching can involve a partnership between peers or a novice and an experienced one. Learning in these relationships can involve induction, reflection on current practices, refining and building new skills, conducting research, solving problems and sharing the organisation's social and cultural norms (Steyn, 2013).

2.5.3 Innovative or transformative model

The growth of constructive approach to learning as well as criticism against traditional models of CPD ushered in the innovative paradigm which encapsulates what Ono and Ferreira (2010) regard as transformative models to CPD. These scholars assert that the emphasis in this paradigm is on the point that practitioners who are learners in this instance construct their own knowledge throughout their careers. The knowledge they are referring to is processed through deconstructing the new knowledge on the basis of the existing knowledge and ultimately constructing their own new knowledge. This implies that professional learning is influenced by the context, culture and circumstances under which the individual professional finds him or herself. In view of this, Ndlovu (2011) advocates that a one-size fits all approach is limiting and suppressing the voice of the practitioners and is thus counterproductive. The scholar emphasises that CPD should be customised and learner-centred such that the learner decides what and how to learn.

According to Fraser *at al.* (2007), transformative professional learning is based on the principle that there should be a strong linkage between theory and practice. Therefore, inquiring as opposed to adopting and practicing is very essential in this paradigm. Practitioners conduct their own studies and ask critical questions about their own practice in order to find solutions to problems they are faced with (Kennedy, 2014b). They even give themselves an opportunity to test the solutions they have identified. It is for this reason that Fraser *et al.* (2007) strongly believe that this paradigm promotes professional autonomy. The transformative learning model

is a people-centred approach to learning Nel (2014). Nel drew this conclusion on the basis of Freire's work in which he concluded that people learn through active participation, asking questions and interacting with the others. These give them the opportunity to explore and reflect, thus creating their own knowledge. The self-created knowledge can be used to challenge the existing knowledge and power structures. By doing this, the learners are liberating themselves from being passive recipients of information. Coming from this background, the practitioners become conscious and aware of the significance of active participation, thus they even develop the consciousness and confidence required to facilitate dialogue, critical thinking and activism among community members.

2.6 Professional development of community development practitioners in South Africa

There is a growing recognition of CD as a means to facilitating social and economic development among societies (Hart, 2012). The intention as suggested by Tshishonga and Mafema (2012) is to create conducive conditions for growing sustainable communities. Commitment to achieving this is demonstrated through the position taken by the government to strengthen and give support to CDPs through CPD. CPD of CDPs in South Africa takes place through pre-service training and on-the-job training programmes. The purpose of this section is to give more insight into CPD of CDPs in South Africa.

2.6.1 Pre-service training of community development practitioners in South Africa

According to De Beer and Swanepoel (2012), while CD was growing and gaining popularity in many developing countries, in South Africa the apartheid government was slow in implementing and promoting it. The government chose to implement it in an isolated and fragmented manner. As a result, it was used to isolate Africans by settling them in the homelands where they were expected to develop on their own. In certain instances it was implemented by NGOs who served as a wing of government, as a result the impact of their work was insignificant. This move made people to have wrong or inappropriate views about CD. De Beer and Swanepoel (2013) hold the view that the apartheid government chose to approach CD in this way because they feared its potential of mobilising society for political change in the country.

De Beer and Swanepoel (2013) argue that even during the post-apartheid era, CDPs still operate in an environment characterized by budgetary constraints, lack of coordination, mismatch between community needs and projects introduced by government, political interference, minimal community involvement, and poor training. These scholars rather suggest that CDPs ought to act and be seen as community empowerment facilitators, enablers, advocates and conduits in service delivery. Such a transition requires that the training of CDPs ought to be reviewed for the purpose of aligning it with the notion of community empowerment.

The scepticism that the apartheid government had about the potential of CD to orchestrate anti-government activities resulted in it being side-lined and never given any support (Sihlongonyane, 2009). On the other hand Social Work, which is welfare oriented, was promoted and given most of the support that it required. This approach led to CD being downgraded to just but an issue featured in the Social Work curriculum. In other instances, CD was offered as part of disciplines such as Development Studies and Sociology. As a result, during the apartheid era there were few or no academic training programmes specifically designed for community development practice. However, it has to be noted that with the advent of democracy, the government decided to put community development practice in the right direction (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2013). This is to be achieved through the process that is underway of professionalising CD.

The situation that currently prevails in South Africa is that there are only three institutions of higher learning that offer three year qualifications in CD which are the University of Johannesburg, University of KwaZulu-Natal and University of South Africa. These universities developed their own curriculum. On the other hand, universities such as the North-West still offer community development as part of Development Studies while core community development aspects such as theories and approaches are offered as part of the Social Work curriculum. Perhaps this is the reason why there are people who serve as CDPs but are neither trained in CD nor any other social science disciplines. This means that the majority of the existing pool of CDPs is not trained on core CD content such as theories and approaches. It is for this reason that, the government is embarking on a process of making CD a profession (Department of Social Development, 2010). De Beer and Swanepoel (2012) support the initiative of government by arguing that there is a need to standardise the curriculum that is used in the training of CDPs such that they can facilitate CD through empowering communities.

2.6.2 Community development as a distinct discipline

As stated by Hart (2012), CD is a discipline on its own that has a set of curricular and traditions and thus commands a special discourse and approach. As a result, countries such as Tanzania started as early as 1963 to offer CD inclined curriculum. Other countries that also offer fully-fledged CD distinct curricular are Australia, Kenya, Ireland, Nigeria, Ghana and Scotland. Approaches adopted by their institutions of training, however differ. For example, while the Kenyan model focuses mainly on community outreach and community resource management, the Tanzanian one focuses on CD programme management, gender and development as well as participatory planning. On the other hand, Australia has adopted several models. This country adopted the international model, general CD model as well as CD issues model.

As observed by De Beer and Swanepoel (2007), training curriculum content may not be presented as a compulsory standardised package to training institutions for them to offer. Rather, Dillon (2009) suggests that training institutions should develop curriculum content on the basis of physical, social and economic milieu of a target group. The CD curriculum is no exception. The manner in which the curriculum used in the training of CDPs is packaged plays an important role in the attainment of its objectives and those of the entire education system. It is on the basis of this understanding that it is assumed that CD curriculum satisfies this expectation (Dominelli, 2006).

2.6.3 Community development as a core component of Social Work

As noted by Mendes (2008), CD is generally considered a core component of Social Work knowledge and practice. Ife and Tesoriero (2006) also add that the training of CDPs has occurred within Social Work or social welfare courses. This seems to be the case in institutions of higher learning globally, regionally and nationally. Weyers (2011), and Ife and Tesoriero (2006) elaborate on that by stating that CD is a compulsory subject in the Social Work curricular in countries such as South Africa and Australia. The implication of this view is that this school of thought does not see CD training curriculum offered outside the scope of Social Work education and practice. Weyers (2011) and Mendes (2008) even argue that CDPs must have the knowledge of Social Work as a science and profession. However, CD and Social Work are two distinct disciplines, therefore, it is important that CDPs are competent in CD curriculum

but not necessarily Social Work curriculum. Social Work curriculum is not the basis for CD practice. For Mendes (2008) and Forde and Lynch (2013) CD is a key practice skill used in most Social Work interventions. As a result, CD education remains an important element in the Social Work education. Given that such knowledge is an essential part of Social Work education, this presupposes that CDPs must be trained in Social Work education.

What is interesting about the views of scholars such as Ife and Tesoriero (2006) and Weyers (2011) is that much as they suggest that CDPs must be trained in Social Work, they also make the observation that the scope and nature of CD work demands that practitioners must have theoretical and practical knowledge of a wide range of subject matters and, values as prescribed by the CD code of conduct as well as relevant skills. The scholars further conclude that these should form the core of the training curriculum of CDPs. It is clear from the discussion above that there are various approaches adopted by different countries, South Africa included, in training CDPs. However, what is important is that these practitioners must be offered the curriculum that is relevant and responsive to the needs of the communities. As explained by Bester and Scholtz (2012), transformation of higher education in South Africa gives her institutions of higher learning an opportunity to review their curriculums for the purpose of testing their relevance and responsiveness. Today's realities require that CDPs must be appropriately trained such that they can effectively facilitate CD, failing which they will not become the asset that the society expects them to be.

The need for CDPs to be up to date, conversant with the subject matter and be on the lookout for emerging issues in the field cannot be overemphasised. Walzer (2010) argues that during their training, CDPs must be trained thoroughly with an up to date curriculum which is cognisant of the points that communities are not static as well as the importance of technology and research in CD.

2.6.4 Weaknesses in the existing community development pre-service training curriculum programmes

De Beer and Swanepoel (2007) and Kenny (2011) present the following weaknesses in the different curriculums currently used by different institutions of higher learning world-wide, South Africa, in the training of CDPs.

- There is a general perception that CDPs should be trained by making use of the Social Work curriculum although such curricula lack the core of CD.
- CD has not yet been made a profession in countries such as South Africa and this leaves room for significant difference in curriculum development as there is no council that governs it.
- Training of CDPs has for many years been based on training capabilities of training institutions but not training needs which are based on community needs.
- Some training needs are given more attention than the others without sound basis.

In his evaluation research project where he evaluated a CD training programme in South Africa, Nel (2014) concludes that CDPs require some experience in facilitating participatory people-centred approaches in order to succeed in their work. Nel (2014) also says teaching participatory people-centred approach is often a challenge to the educators, therefore, it is not given the attention it deserves. Schenck *et al.* (2010) and Nel (2014) advocate that educators should allow CD learners or trainees to take up leadership roles and be given more problems to solve such that they can acquire the experience to do things on their own and for themselves. With such experience and knowledge, practitioners come to grips with what participation involves and therefore will find it easy to facilitate participatory development in the field of work.

- Unavailability of infrastructure needed for training has been identified as one of the weaknesses of the CD training efforts.
- Even though many countries are able to meet their own training needs, insignificant efforts are made to establish regional collaborations to meet the existing needs.
- International coordination is weak. As a result programmes do not complement each other. Opportunities for progression are thus minimised.
- There seems to be gap between the CD curriculum acquired through formal higher education training and the practice of CD. The study conducted by Westoby and van Blerk (2012) in South Africa about the training of community development workers, revealed a similar finding in the sense that trainees had a good experience of the training programme and were confident that they have acquired valuable information which they can apply in the field of practice. However, once in the field they realised that there is a disjuncture between what they learned through the training programme and the practical work which they had to do in the field. In her analysis of the situation, Van

Rooyen (2007) explained that since the 1960s literature on the training of community development workers and practitioners have expressed a similar concern.

- Literature on CD training focuses mainly on training of practitioners and lesser on the communities although the same literature talks of CD as a learning process for both. This is also reflected in the study by Westoby and van Blerk (2012) which suggests that CPD for CDPs can yield better results if they are community-based and informed by the needs. These scholars, therefore, see community members as partners and stakeholders in CPD for CDPs. Batten (1962) regards community members as the authority in the field because they give a mandate which the practitioners must facilitate for its ultimate fulfilment. If the role of the community in CPD is ignored, guarantee for success is lost.

2.6.5 Strong points in the existing community development pre-service training curriculum

According to Walzer (2010), even though the curriculum that is offered world-wide, South Africa included, which is currently used in the training of CD has weaknesses, it also has some strong points.

- The curriculum encapsulates community theory and practice.
- It is based on the needs of communities.
- It has a strong emphasis on the practicum component and research.
- It gives trainees a wide range of career paths unlike ordinary curriculums.

It is important to note that currently there are on-going processes which are aimed at making CD a profession in South Africa (Hart, 2012). The sole purpose is to standardise community development practice in the country.

2.6.6 Continuing professional development of community development practitioners in South Africa

As explained in the preceding chapters, CDPs are employed in Departments such as Social Development and Water Affairs. These are practitioners with different training backgrounds. Be that as it may, preliminary research revealed that there is no specific unit or department in government which is responsible for CPD of CDPs. As a result each department coordinates its own programme. For example, the Department of Social Development has designed its own

in-service programme. This programme comprises mainly of short course training, peer learning, workshops, seminars, conferences, mentoring and coaching (Department of Social Development, 2010).

The primary objectives of the in-service programme include but are not limited to:

- Update and enhance knowledge among practitioners.
- Acquire and improve competencies.
- Identify development needs (Department of Social Development, 2010).

Even though a majority of the practitioners are based at the provincial, district and local service points, it is the national head office which is responsible for coordination of the in-service programme. The national office, therefore, organises workshops, conferences, seminars and training for CDPs. However, of late the provincial office has been responsible for these.

2.7 Summary

This chapter presented literature review on CPD of CDPs and sought to make connections with experiences in South Africa. The reviewed literature revealed that CPD is an integral component of community development practice. For CDPs to remain up to date with developments in the field and thus serve communities with diligence and effect, they ought to reflect, observe, engage and learn formally or informally throughout their careers. This lifelong learning process is either approached centrally or in a decentralised manner. The decentralised approach is perceived as the more favourable because it is practitioner centred and controlled. Consequently, practitioners get the opportunity to construct knowledge from activities they are engaged in. It is clear from the reviewed literature that CPD takes place within a particular framework. The framework influences the success of CPD. The next chapter presents review of literature on evaluation research.

CHAPTER 3

EVALUATION RESEARCH

3.1 Introduction

This study, in being an evaluation study, explored the literature on evaluation research. It thus presents the conceptualisation, purpose, theories and models of evaluation research. The discussion here is concluded by indicating the evaluation model adopted in this study.

3.2 The conceptualisation of evaluation research

Evaluation research is defined by Rutman (1977: 16) as “a process of applying scientific procedures to accumulate reliable and valid evidence on the manner and extent to which specified activities produce particular effects or outcomes.” Another classical definition worth noting is coined by Freeman and Rossi (1993) who view evaluation research as a methodical application of social science research techniques in determining how an intervention was conceptualised, planned and implemented. These classical definitions acknowledge the significance of scientific techniques in gathering information which explain how certain results were produced. They express evaluation research as a systematic and methodological way of congregating usable, dependable and legal information in relation to the manner in which specific deeds produce particular consequences and processes. What seems to be a very interesting element in Freeman and Rossi’s definition is that they see evaluation as a process of evaluating all components of a programme. In this context, this study establishes the effect of the CPD programme on the perceived performance of CDPs in South Africa.

Evaluation research is conceptualised by Mertens and Wilson (2012) as a controlled, orderly and logical process which adheres to regular and conventional research procedures in determining the worth and quality of a product, policy, person or plan. The strength in this definition is that it gives much consideration to the process of acquiring certain results rather than paying attention only to the outcome. The advantage of placing much stress on the process is that the success of an evaluation is influenced not only by the outcome but the programme’s operations, attributes, environment and context as well (Loots, 2008). As suggested by Blaikie

(2010), this approach gives the evaluator the opportunity to have a comprehensive grasp of the course of action which elicited the outcome.

In an extension of the definitions cited already, evaluation research is conceptualised by Alkin (2012: 22) as “a process of ascertaining the decision areas of concern, selecting appropriate information and collecting and analyzing information in order to report summary data useful to decision makers in selecting among alternatives.” Both Alkin and Rutman emphasise the use of scientific methods to gather and interpret varied information which may be required by policy makers. van der Westhuizen (2007: 555) supports the views proposed by the two scholars by defining evaluation research as “a technical exercise of empirical data gathering and judgment and the evaluation questions are about implementation effectiveness, assuming technocratic, positivist worldviews and value neutrality.” This definition also accentuates the importance of the process of assessment as opposed to stringent and narrow-minded focus on expected empirical outcomes.

A further search of the determinant conceptualisations of evaluation research leads one to the ideas of different scholars. Weiss (1972) describes evaluation research as a systematic valuation of the programme’s processes and procedures against a set of clearly prescribed set of rules and objectives with the aim of improving its quality and standard. Evaluation research is presented in this instance as a scientific investigation which is conducted under values and principles that are either clearly expressed or hidden. The latter have been included in the definition in order to contribute to the collection of reliable data without which any given programme improvement may be difficult to achieve.

Arthur and Cox (2014) concur with Weiss (1972) by explaining that evaluation research is a process of gathering data through the use of scientific methods which is used to evaluate the value of an intervention. In the same breath, Yarbrough, Shulha, Hopson and Caruthers (2011: 287) view evaluation research as “systematic investigation of the value, importance, or significance of something or someone along defined dimensions.” These scholars’ definitions demonstrate that evaluation research is conducted under prescribed rules and processes in order to produce credible data required for decision-making.

From the ideas shared above on the subject, it should be clear that evaluation research is not only about identifying research questions and collecting relevant information, but evaluating such information in order to determine the merit, worth and significance of a programme (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). While merit is associated with quality, worth is linked to value and significance related to the importance of a programme. Blaikie (2010) therefore succinctly argues that these elements of evaluation research should make it different from research design classifications such as case studies, social surveys and action research.

Evaluation research is viewed as “social science research designed to investigate whether a particular project or intervention has met its stated objectives and how the effectiveness of that project might be improved” by Bless *et al.* (2013: 391). In the same breath, Edmonds and Kennedy (2012) see it as a research method aimed at assessing a programme on the basis of its aims, plans, processes and outcomes for the purposes of feeding back the results to the stakeholders who have to make decisions about the programme. Tarsilla (2010b) noted that as early as the 1960s, Scriven (1967) advised against restricting evaluation research to the stated goals of the programme. Restricting the scope of evaluation research to the results of the stated outcomes limits the researcher’s opportunities to explore unexpected outcomes (Tarsilla, 2010b). Consequently, the embryonic goals over and above unintended consequences and effects may be missed. A definition of this kind has been authored by Bryman (2008) who suggests that evaluation research is concerned with the assessment of real-life interventions or programmes with the intention of establishing if it achieved its envisioned goals or not. Bryman, therefore, sees evaluation research as a type of research which seeks to measure performance on the basis of its stated goals.

Babbie (2010) agrees with Bryman (2008) by defining evaluation research as a scientific investigation aimed at determining if a social intervention produces the anticipated effects. These definitions imply that evaluation research focuses only on the expected output. In actual fact, Bryman (2008) strongly emphasises that evaluation research is much more interested in practical objectives rather than hypothetical motivations. Bryman (2008) consequently proposes that evaluation research is about the assessment of an evaluation subject on the basis of its specified intended goals and objectives. However, Stufflebeam and Shinkfield (2007) are totally opposed to the approach adopted by Bryman (2008) and Babbie (2010). They argue that limiting evaluation to the programme goals and objectives may not produce valid and reliable

information about its performance, effectiveness and efficiency. A goal-oriented evaluation makes the evaluator ignore inputs and processes which, in the views of Stufflebeam and Shinkfield (2007) must be considered because they form part of the context of a programme.

This study acknowledges the fact that the programme owner or sponsor may require that the evaluation should be limited to the programme goals in order to satisfy the expectation of an evaluation. However, such expectations are acknowledged with caution because a goal-oriented evaluation may not produce sufficient data upon which decisions about the programme's importance, value, effectiveness and efficiency could be based (Hashimoto, Pillay & Hudson, 2010). A credible and reliable evaluation should make provision for the evaluator to pursue aspects such as theoretical implications, inputs and processes in order to determine the success of a programme (Frye & Hemmer, 2012).

While basic research is about scientifically developing and acquiring new knowledge, evaluation research determines how the available knowledge is used to inform and guide practical action (Babbie, 2010). In fact, Babbie (2010) regards evaluation research as a method of applied research. In addition, Blaikie (2010) regards evaluation research as a research design which seeks to scrutinise the results of implementing a series of particular activities through the use of research tools such as interviews, questionnaires and observations. The purpose of foregrounding such is to determine its value and future. Similarly, Johnson and Christensen (2008) view it as a process of making judgments about the value, importance or eminence of the subject that is being evaluated.

From an African perspective, Imhabekhani (2009) defines evaluation as an on-going pre-arranged and organized process which involves applying scientific methods to collect and analyse data about how a service, programme, an organisation or an institution performs. This definition implies that data to be used for an evaluation may be collected from programme participants, documents and observation of activities. The results of an evaluation may be used to improve a programme or facilitate attainment of the goals of a programme. The literature search revealed that evaluation research scholars do not agree on the specific features of a good evaluation research. Mertens and Wilson (2012) talk about sound and dependable knowledge, use of evaluation knowledge, practice of evaluation and the nature and roles of social programmes in resolving societal issues. On the contrary, Stufflebeam and Shinkfield (2007)

suggest that good evaluation research comprises a coherent study, key concepts, hypothesis, appropriate procedures, ethics and a framework for programme evaluation and related research. Mertens and Wilson (2012), on the other hand, elucidate that evaluation theory differentiates evaluation research from other types of social inquiry such as basic and applied research. These defining traits of evaluation research are used in this section to evaluate theories of evaluation.

The definitions presented above undoubtedly confirm that scholars do not agree on the definition of evaluation research. In this study, evaluation research is understood as a systematic and organised process which involves gathering data about the performance of a particular programme, product, policy, institution or service in view of the settings and circumstances in terms of context, input, process and output. For example, evaluating a training programme involves assessing training programme goals, trainee performance, training facilities, interventions, materials and methods as well as trainees' perceptions about the effectiveness of the programme (William, 2007). The process does not end with collection of information but extends to making judgement about whether to improve or discontinue the programme. Evaluation research is highly associated with value judgment (Cook, 2010). It may be conducted internally, especially if the organisation has capacity, or externally (DePoy & Gilson, 2008).

3.3 The purpose of evaluation research

Evaluations are conducted for a range of purposes (Nkwake, 2013). There seems to be consensus among evaluation researchers (van der Westhuizen, 2007; Gray, 2009; Liket, Rey-Garcia and Maas, 2014) that every evaluation research project must have a concise and distinct purpose. The logic behind ensuring that an evaluation project has an explicit purpose is that it has to be very clear from the onset why a particular subject or programme or product or practice is being evaluated. A succinct purpose helps the evaluator to determine appropriate methodologies, tools, sources of information as well what happens to the results of the study.

Evaluation researchers (Liket, Rey-Garcia and Maas, 2014; Rossi, Lipsey and Freeman, 2004; Gray, 2009) agree that evaluations are conducted for diverse purposes. However, they seem not to agree on the number and specifics. While Rossi, Lipsey and Freeman (2004) proposed four major purposes of evaluation, Behn (2003) suggests eight. An evaluation may be

conducted for the purposes of programme improvement, accountability, knowledge generation as well as hidden agendas (Rossi, Lipsey & Freeman, 2004). On the other hand, Behn (2003) suggests that a subject may be evaluated for the purpose of control, budgeting, celebrating, public relations, motivation, learning, improvement and performance. Mackay (2007) sees evaluation also serves as a prerequisite for decision making about aspects mentioned by Rossi *et al.* (2004) and Liket *et al.* (2014). According to Smith (2008) and van der Westhuizen (2007), evaluation research is a critical element in improving policy, programmes and practices because it provides technically and methodologically credible information about what works such that it can be made known and practised. It might be expedient to explore briefly the purposes of conducting an evaluation research as follows:

3.3.1 Programme improvement

According to Nkwanke (2013), evaluation research may be conducted for the purposes of gathering information about a programme. Such information is intended to give evidence about the performance of a programme in order to make decisions about constituting it in such a manner that its performance is enhanced (Arthur & Cox, 2014). Brown (2005) notes that it cannot just be assumed that a programme is performing well; therefore it is important to pay specific attention to its individual dimensions. Such an assessment is intended to describe how well the programme is performing in its various elements or components (Babbie, 2010). Therefore, an evaluation for this purpose is done continually because it is intended to give feedback which may be used for programme upgrading. Blaikie (2010) calls this type of evaluation formative. Liket *et al.* (2014) suggest that performance can be measured through dimensions such as need, design, implementation and impact. Perceptions about the quality of any training programme are therefore based on establishing if the need for the programme is still there as well as areas which require improvement in terms of re-design and implementation, and that is how the programme's influence could be determined (Arthur & Cox, 2014).

The nature of the dimensions of programme evaluation suggest that data required for programme improvement should be up to date, tangible and instantly useful. If not, then inappropriate decisions will be made. Consequently, the performance of a programme may not improve as suggested by Liket *et al.* (2014). Objectivity is highly recommended when handling

evaluation data because the outcome of an evaluation serves as the basis for decision making (Nkwake, 2013). Liket *et al.* (2014) hold the opinion that programmes which perform well in their different dimensions are likely to make an impact on the target beneficiaries, organisation, community and industry. This suggests that an evaluation which is conducted for the purposes of programme improvement should cover all the elements of a programme instead of focusing on goals only. The information about how an evaluated programme performed in all respects gives guidance to further programme improvement (Fitzpatrick, Pleace & Wallace, 2010).

Mertens and Wilson (2012) suggest that effectiveness is another crucial element in evaluation research which is concentrated on programme improvement. Fitzpatrick *et al.* (2010) in their definition of the purpose of evaluation emphasise programme improvement. They define it as developing a thorough understanding about a programme in order to make decisions pertaining to its quality and effectiveness. A summative evaluation is required in this regard. It produces evidence relating to the successes and weaknesses of a programme.

Evaluation research which is aimed at programme improvement is not only focused on effectiveness but requires efficiency evaluation as well (Wilson & Mertens, 2012). Efficiency evaluation is concerned with assessing if the least costly inputs were used. This could be cost in terms of money, time, human resources and any other infrastructure (Liket *et al.*, 2014). This may involve comparison of the options which were available. Stufflebeam and Shinkfield (2007) strongly support such an evaluation because it gives the programme owners an opportunity to improve on how programme inputs are allocated and utilised. It is on the basis of this that Imhabekhai (2009) holds the opinion that evaluation research facilitates improvement of the performance of a programme.

3.3.2 Generation of new knowledge

The generation of new insights is one of the purposes of evaluation research (Herbert, 2014). New insights are generated on the basis of the current intervention. The intention is to expand the existing knowledge base in a particular field by evaluating the impact on an existing intervention together with its impact (Froggat & Hockley, 2011). Among others, this can be done by assessing if an intervention which was done on the basis of a particular model is indeed practical. Evaluating such an intervention provides evidence of whether or not the intervention

is operational as per the prescriptions of the model. Perhaps this is the basis of the view held by Liket *et al.* (2014) that the purpose of the evaluation of this nature is learning. The scholars' analysis of the process is that the evaluation researcher makes new discoveries, thus learning more about the intervention and model. Mertens and Wilson (2012) are of the view that some of the findings revealed through evaluation research whose purpose is to generate new knowledge may reveal the programme's strengths and weaknesses. This may give guidance in terms of what works or does not work in the programme. Strategies may even be suggested on how to sustain the strengths and address the weaknesses. Liket *et al.* (2014) further note that such evidence may motivate programme sponsors and stakeholders to continue associating themselves with the programme.

Evaluation research requires the use of appropriate and scientific approaches. In actual fact, Liket *et al.* (2014) suggest that evaluation research requires rigorous scientific methods because it is intended to contribute to the knowledge base of a particular discipline. That new knowledge could be disseminated through professional platforms such as conferences, seminars, conferences and scholarly research journals. Daigneault, Jacob and Tremblay (2012) caution us about the significance of stakeholder involvement in evaluation research. They highlight that evaluation research may serve its purpose of knowledge development if stakeholders take part in an evaluation in a clear, well-defined and transparent manner. Cullen and Coryn (2011) corroborate this inclination and advise that stakeholder involvement should not be meant to legitimise the process but it has to be effective and must happen at all stages of an evaluation. It is, therefore, clear that data for evaluation research cannot be collected or processed in the absence of stakeholders.

3.3.3 Accountability

As explained by Giangreco, Sebastiano and Peccei (2009), when a programme is established there are expectations which are created among beneficiaries and stakeholders. The importance of applying scientific methods to determine whether or not those expectations are met cannot be overemphasised. Donaldson and Lipsey (2006) regard this purpose of evaluation as oversight and compliance while Rossi *et al.* (2004) call it accountability. The purpose of such an evaluation is to give proof with regard to the performance of a programme particularly in relation to compliance with procedures, parameters, protocols, contracts and frameworks

(Mertens & Wilson, 2012). The judgement evidence may serve as the basis upon which stakeholders such as funders, board members, government authorities or programme management can make the decision about the future of a programme. This judgement is made only after programme implementation.

Blaikie (2010) explains that this type of evaluation which presents a general summary about the performance of a programme is called summative evaluation. It is on the basis of a summative evaluation that decisions are made. Consequently, evaluation for the purposes of accountability requires thorough application of appropriate scientific methods such as mixed methods (William, 2007). A mixed methods evaluation may be conducted to review a training programme and report on highest standards to the relevant audience at the appropriate time. For example William (2007) evaluated a Social Work continuous development programme by gathering and analysing qualitative and quantitative data. This helped the researcher to use one method to make up for the weaknesses of the other (Johnson, & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

3.3.4 Hidden agendas

The success of an evaluation research is greatly determined by a purpose. Without a succinct purpose, an evaluation research may not provide the most reliable and credible evidence about the performance of programme (van der Westhuizen, 2007; Gray, 2009). Despite this being basic knowledge and requisite in evaluation research, Rossi *et al.* (2004) assert that in certain instances the actual purpose of the evaluation research is not even revealed to the evaluator. It could also be that the purpose which has been communicated to the evaluator has got nothing to do with the programme's performance. As explained by Arthur and Cox (2014) common hidden practices include conducting evaluations for public relations or political manoeuvring. Herbert (2014) uses the concept of symbolic use to define evaluations which are conducted for ulterior motives. In some instances evaluation research may be conducted when decisions about a programme have already been made (Arthur & Cox, 2014). It may also be that an evaluation may be conducted to postpone having to make problematic decisions or accede to somebody's demands. In other instances, evaluations may be conducted to impress the funder, client or even influence decision makers. Mertens and Wilson (2012) regard these kinds of evaluation as illegitimate.

Evaluation research is about programme performance (Hashimoto, Pillay & Hudson, 2010). Consequently, quality is vital for planning and implementing evaluation research (Dhakal, 2014). Therefore, should the evaluator realise that public relations or political issues are the bane and actual purpose of the evaluation, this ought to be clarified with those who commissioned the evaluation to avoid confusion and conflict. Arthur and Cox (2014) caution evaluators by pointing out that it may happen in any study that some stakeholders want to use evaluation research to further certain interests. The scholars warn that this may delay or derail the evaluation. It is necessary that the real purpose and agenda of an evaluation are clarified and known to all parties concerned, failing which the evaluator should avoid getting involved in such evaluation research. In order to assure quality evaluation research, the evaluator should be impartial and avoid political influence (Mertens & Wilson, 2012).

The preceding discussion on the purpose of evaluation shows that evaluation research plays a major role in weighing the performance of an evaluation subject. Evaluating different performance indicators of a subject of evaluation provides evidence in relation to its value, worth, impact, quality and relevance. It is on the basis of such evaluation evidence that programme owners and sponsors make decisions about the fate of a particular process or programme (Arthur & Cox, 2014). However, this may not be realised if the purpose of the evaluation is hidden (Mertens & Wilson, 2012).

Liket *et al.* (2014) raise a concern that most organisations invest massive resources evaluating themselves but they end up drowning in the evaluation evidence because they do not know what to do with it. The utilisation of the evaluation evidence remains a great challenge for organisations ranging from public to private and in both developed and developing countries. Consequently, the strategic value of evaluations gets lost. This may discourage those who have gone through evaluations from engaging in evaluation in future. To avert this challenge it is imperative to delineate, conspicuously so, the purpose of evaluation prior to its commencement. This helps those who commissioned the evaluation to design frameworks for utilising the findings (Patton, 2008).

3.4 Theories of evaluation

Disciplines across the academy are framed on theories which guide discourse and practice (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). Similarly, evaluation research is grounded in theories used by practitioners, policy makers and researchers as guiding principles. Evaluation theory is described as the language used to explain the work done by evaluation researchers which involves posing questions that are aimed at investigating value, quality and importance (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). It also refers to frameworks designed to identify methods for constructing knowledge that is needed by evaluation clients. Compared to other theories, evaluation theory refers to the body of knowledge developed by evaluation scholars and which is used to produce research results (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). Stufflebeam and Shinkfield (2007) also define evaluation theory as a frame of knowledge used to control and monitor evaluations. On the other hand, Smith (2008) conceptualises evaluation theory as a guide to determine the purpose of an evaluation study as well as describe what is considered satisfactory substantiation for reaching verdicts in an evaluation.

Coryn, Noakes, Westine and Schroter (2011) subscribe to the notion that theories are important for evaluation research. Scholars operate from the premise that evaluation theories in particular give clear-cut processes and procedures which evaluation researchers must apply when undertaking an evaluation. The purpose of evaluation theories in this regard is in line with the sentiments of many evaluation researchers who confirm that since evaluation is a systematic and methodological process, everything about it must be done in view of this prescription (Mark, 2011; Smith, 2008). This allows them to conduct evaluations within certain parameters thus avoiding producing unreliable results. Patton (2008) opines that theories give evaluators frameworks which guide them in terms of the design of an evaluation, engaging evaluation stakeholders, important issues to consider as well as appropriate evaluation methods. Dhakal (2014) holds the view that evaluation theories strengthen evaluation science because evaluation researchers use them to draw the borders and plan evaluations in order to produce well-coordinated and organised evaluations. Evaluation theories, therefore, give the evaluation process character and identity (Kirkhart, 2010).

Although evaluation theorists may not always agree on certain issues, Donaldson and Lipsey (2006) brought forth the point that evaluation theory is a language which the evaluation

researchers use to engage. It serves as a springboard for discussions and consultations among practitioners across evaluation sub-disciplines locally and globally. For example, the themes for seminars, workshops and conferences on evaluation are guided by evaluation theories. Incidentally, evaluation theory is a feature which defines the identity of the evaluation profession and its members. Acquaintance with this identity may create a sense of ambassadorship among evaluation researchers which may earn the profession new incumbents, clients, partners and supporters. In this regard, as suggested by Msila and Setlhako (2013), evaluation theory helps researchers to reflect on what they do, how they do it as well as why they do it. Evaluation theory is, therefore, central to evaluation. As a result it is necessary to discuss evaluation theories as follows:

3.4.1 Systems theory

The systems theory holds the view that the whole system is much bigger and effective than the total number of the parts of a system. This implies that a system is studied as one rather than studying its parts in isolation (Mizikaci, 2006). The systems theory emphasises that a programme should be evaluated as a whole rather than evaluating its elements separately (Gray, 2009). This theory helps evaluation researchers to understand the relationship and dynamics between the components of an evaluation subject. With such an understanding, the evaluation researcher analyses and interprets challenges, weaknesses, opportunities and strengths of an evaluation subject as suggested by Friedman and Allen (2011). Consequently appropriate corrective measures are identified.

Friedman and Allen (2011) highlight the point that systems theory neither imposes the framework for interpretation and understanding of an evaluation subject nor specifies corrective measures to the evaluators. Its main focus is on providing the framework for understanding how the parts of a system are organised (Friedman & Allen, 2011). Drawing on the work of Stufflebeam's framework, Mizikaci (2006) explains that systems evaluation involves identifying the objectives, analysing the input, evaluating the process as well as evaluating the link among these elements and the link between them and the environment. This is done with the full understanding that the relationships referred to above are not static but dynamic (Frye & Hemmer, 2012). This theory has been criticised for being too mechanistic and lacking the human element. It does not offer room for personal engagements and conflict

management. Another weakness identified in this model is that, just like GFE, it narrows its attention to the objectives of a programme. The challenge with such an approach is that the objectives may have been selected subjectively by those who are in positions of authority without involving relevant stakeholders (Gray, 2009).

3.4.2 Theory-based evaluation

Weiss (1972) defines theory-based evaluation as an approach to evaluation which holds that each programme is grounded on clear and precise conventions or assumptions. Similarly, Donaldson (2007:9) further defines theory-based evaluation as “the systematic use of substantive knowledge about the phenomena under investigation and scientific methods to improve, produce knowledge and feedback about, and determine the merit, worth, and significance of evaluands such as social, educational, health, community and organizational programmes.” The knowledge referred to in this definition is derived from the programme stakeholders and subsequently used to develop evaluation questions. The evaluator also identifies the key components of a programme and anticipated outcomes and acquires further information from the documents and literature. A programme theory is then developed on the basis of the linkages among stakeholders’ knowledge, literature review, programme documents, and observation of programme activities (Sharpe, 2011). The newly developed theory serves as the framework for developing, implementing and interpreting the evaluation of a programme (Nkwanke, 2013).

Among others, the theory is used to evaluate how programme activities are carried out, the effects of each activity, the expected response of the target population as well as the ultimate programme outcome (Coryn *et al.*, 2011). Data analysis is conducted to determine how well the prescribed sequence has been followed and if the conditions required for attainment of outcomes were in place. If the outcome has been achieved under the prescribed conditions then it suggests that the programme has been successful (Nkwanke, 2013). Theory-based evaluation assists the researcher to explain programme success or failure because the theory clearly stipulates what ought to be done and how (Sharpe, 2011). The sequential step by step evaluation of the assumptions of the participants, outcomes of the observations and review of programme documents allows the researcher to determine if the programme meets expectations or not (Donaldson, 2007).

The theory-based evaluation is founded on the assumption that a theory provides the evaluator with precise steps to follow from the input to the product (Rogers & Weiss, 2007). Msila and Setlhako (2013) add that the theory also offers guidance in terms of the context and processes to be followed in the evaluation. A theory-based evaluation, therefore, gives a precise roadmap and framework within which an evaluation has to be conducted (Nkwanke, 2013). In view of that Msila and Setlhako (2013) advise that it is important that the theory is well articulated prior to the commencement of an evaluation. The major advantage of a theory-based evaluation is that it serves as the basis for upgrading and strengthening existing programmes as well as to draw inferences for new programmes (Sharpe, 2011). The strength of a theory-based evaluation is that it could be used to reinforce the trustworthiness of an evaluation if random assignments seem not possible (Rogers & Weiss, 2007). However, it is important that the evaluator gathers dependable evidence from the input to the outcome of an evaluation, failing which the evaluation research may produce results which do not give a truthful picture of the performance of a programme. Objectivity and trustworthiness are therefore vital in a theory-based evaluation (Nkwanke, 2013).

Msila and Setlhako (2013) observe that in some instances researchers claim to have used evaluation theory to evaluate some programmes yet, such evaluations do not yield results that trigger positive change. The scholars attribute this to ill-defined theory. Similarly, Louw-Potgieter (2012) attributes failure of theory-driven evaluations to poor implementation strategies. Likewise, Rogers and Weiss (2007) explain that in other cases the evaluation researcher claims that the study is theory-based but there may be no evidence of following the intricate steps of a specific theory. As a result, the research may produce unreliable outcomes. Louw-Potgieter (2012) advocates that this could be avoided by defining the specific programme activities from which possible ideas of how a programme functions are derived. It has to be tested against social science theory to ascertain its assumptions.

The major weakness in the theory-based evaluation is that it may not always be possible for the evaluator to identify the side effects. Sharpe (2011) asserts that this may be due to the use of incorrect designs. Therefore, extra care must be exercised when designing theory-based evaluations.

3.4.3 Programme theory

Lipsey (1987:7) defines programme theory as “a set of propositions regarding what goes on in the black box during the transformation of input into output.” Programme theory provides a framework for changing a programme from a non-performing one to a better performing one. In the same breath, Chen (2006) defines programme theory as specific activities embarked upon in order to identify and realise goals, project and accomplish the anticipated impact. Chen’s definition of programme theory comprises what the scholar calls normative and causative theories. Sharpe (2011) notes that programme theory comprises programme inputs, intended outcomes and mechanisms in place to achieve the intended outcomes. Programme theory may, therefore, be used to unearth the relationship between the elements of a programme. It may even be a defined or undefined one (Parker, Burrows, Nash & Rosenblum, 2011).

As put by Nkwanke (2013), normative theory refers to the manner in which the programme has to be structured as well as its goals, implementation procedures and the product thereof. Normative theory appears to be prescriptive because it suggests how the programme and the intervention should look like and how they should be implemented such that they produce certain results (Chen, 2006). Basically, normative theory is about planning and implementing a programme. It encourages designers to think critically and be as practical as possible to ensure that all activities and processes are carried out to the latter. However, its major weakness is that it does not provide the mechanism for handling unintended outcomes (Nkwanke, 2013).

Causative theory, on the other hand, refers to different ways of developing the relationship among programme inputs, implementation, process, actions and outcomes. It provides information about how a programme functions under the prevailing conditions (Rogers, 2008). Therefore, for causative theory the context and processes are important in programme evaluation because they give account of how and why particular outcomes emerged (Nkwanke, 2013). It is clear that none of the two theories can produce valid and required data on its own. The two work hand in hand. While normative theory focuses on programme goals, planning and outcomes, causative theory explain the context and processes which led to a particular outcome (Coryn *et al.*, 2011). Programme theory, therefore, pays attention to the development of a programme and its outcomes.

3.4.4 Reductionism

Reductionism is a theory which holds that the whole can be understood and projected by exploring and critically studying the role played by each part or building block (Frye & Hemmer, 2012). Exploration of the contribution made by the constituent parts of the whole is conducted within the framework of cause-effect approach. That is so because changes which are made to certain parts of the whole are expected to have anticipated influence on the outcome. This theory, therefore, subscribes to linearity as an approach to programme evaluation in the sense that it follows a logical course from input to product. Reductionism's linear way of thinking implies that if what caused a particular outcome is known, it becomes easier to explain programme success or failure (Frye & Hemmer, 2012).

The challenge with this theory is that it seems to suggest that programme evaluation is a straight forward process. This can never be the case because programmes involve varied internal and external factors and stakeholders as well as the ever changing environment. The interrelationship among these is complex which requires an evaluation theory that is not linear oriented. Mennin (2010) suggests that the components of a programme should be evaluated as one unit but not in isolation.

It is important to note at this stage that even though theories of evaluation as discussed above do exist, Stufflebeam and Shinkfield (2007) argue that this volume of knowledge which is regarded as evaluation theory does not necessarily qualify to be characterised as such. This view is supported by Alkin (2012) who also argues that what evaluation scholars tagged evaluation theory does not satisfy the meaning of the word theory in the strictest sense of the word. Alkin's argument is based on the point that evaluation theories are not substantiated by any empirical evidence. Consequently, these theories do not fit the definition of the concept theory. Scriven (1967) shares the same sentiment and continues to state that absence of a clear cut theory of evaluation may be attributed to the point that for many years evaluation was misconceived and not accorded the status of a fully-fledged discipline.

3.5 Models of evaluation research

Insights about developments in evaluation models show that evaluation models have gone through a number of stages (Donaldson & Lipsey, 2006). Scriven and Campbell's models are regarded as stage one models because they focus on discovering the truth. In the second stage there are Wholey, Weiss and Stake's models (Donaldson & Lipsey, 2006). They focus on the use of evaluation. Lastly, Rossi and Cronbach's models are in stage three and focus on integrating the discovery and utility of a theory-based evaluation process. On the contrary, Alkin (2012: 2) proposed what he calls a "three branch tree of evaluation models". The tree has roots, a trunk and three branches. The roots of the tree give an idea about the origin of a model of evaluation. They show whether a model is rooted in social accountability, social inquiry or epistemology. The branches of the tree represent the models of evaluation research.

The branches of the tree represent the methods, use and value evaluation models (Alkin, 2012). These branches reflect the categorisation of evaluation researchers on the basis of the foci of their evaluations. This categorisation should not be assumed to mean that there is no linkage among these branches. Carden and Alkin (2012) put forward the point that while the method branch deals with the methodology used in evaluation, the value branch focuses on how evaluation data is to be judged and the use branch pays specific attention to determining the usefulness of the evaluation results. Mertens and Wilson (2012) are of the opinion that Alkin's tree does not include a social justice branch. As a result, Mertens and Wilson modified the original tree by adding the social justice branch as a fourth and integral component.

Patton (2002) criticises the tree metaphor and recommend a water metaphor instead. The tree metaphor is criticised on the basis that it insinuates that there is no possibility of the tree branches growing closer to one another. This suggests that the theories may not merge, overlap or support each other at any point in time. Patton's contention is that individual evaluation researchers make new discoveries associated with their models or collaborate to improve the models. This demonstrates that models are not static, therefore, there are chances for further developments and collaborations among founders of models. Patton (2002), argues that this is not reflected in Alkin's three branch tree of evaluation. However, in the case of water its movement from and to the ocean and rivers implies that different types of water can mix. This suggests a possibility of evaluation researchers merging their ideas thus further developing and

expanding evaluation models (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). The following section presents an analysis of evaluation models from the four branches as suggested by Alkin (2012) and Mertens and Wilson (2012).

3.5.1 Method branch evaluation models

Method branch models are evaluation models which emphasise the use of and adherence to research methods when conducting evaluations (Carden & Alkin, 2012). These are models which are steadfast in application of research methodologies when gathering information, developing data collection tools as well as collecting, capturing, reflecting on and assessing data. In this regard, qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods can be applied to collect and analyse data. Even though there is lack of consensus among evaluation researchers about the most effective and appropriate methodology, Hughes and Hutchings (2011) and Nkwankwe (2013) advocate for mixed methods.

The method branch models emanate from the social inquiry trunk of the Alkin's three branch tree of evaluation models (Alkin, 2012). This implies that the method branch models of evaluation are specifically used to evaluate social programmes and services. Alkin (2012) also notes that these models serve the purpose of constructing knowledge required to determine the worth of a programme. The evaluator who uses the method branch evaluation models is required to be neutral and objective (Abma & Widdershoven, 2008). Following thorough analysis of the evaluation models, Alkin (2012) suggests that Tyler, Campbell, Cook, Shadish, Cronbach, Rossi, Chen, Mark, Weiss and Boruch's work put more weight on method and should therefore be categorised as method branch models. Mertens and Wilson (2012) agree with the list but add Lipsey, Donaldson and Kirkpatrick to the list because their work is also strongly methodical.

3.5.1.1 Tyler's model of educational evaluation

Tyler's model is a goal-based evaluation research model. Ralph Tyler is one of the earliest researchers in the field of evaluation with specific focus on education (Stufflebean & Shienkfield, 2007). Having realised that the curriculum was characterised by unyielding diversity, a nebulous definition and restrictions, instead of well-defined focused learning

activities, Tyler proposed a goal-oriented approach to the curriculum and coined it in the 1930's (Tyler, 1942). Tyler's curriculum model emphasises that a programme should have concise and clear objectives which give a clear guide of what the programme is about as well as its intended purposes. Therefore, in the rationale of Tyler's curriculum, it is important to test if these objectives have been met by the end of the implementation of that specific and objectives-driven curriculum. These objectives are then used, by the teacher, to determine the goals of a curriculum and the learner's behaviour subsequent to learning. The evaluator also advises on the measures used to determine if the objectives have been met. Subsequently, the results of the assessment are measured against the planned results. The purpose of this comparison is to make judgment about the effectiveness of the instruction. What is clear from this Tylerian model is that a programme should have clear objectives and relevant measures to assess the outcomes (Tyler, 1942).

Rallis (2009) explains that generally programmes are developed to advance the lives of the people be it where they live or work. Programmes developed in this regard have a mission and goals designed by the programme owners. These programmes are developed under the umbrella of a goal-based model of evaluation (Gray, 2009). Gray (2009) noted that evaluation researchers like Rossi, Williams and Weiss who subscribe to this model believe that the success of a programme is to a great extent influenced by its goals. Those goals must be categorically stated such that the evaluator knows the exact item that must be looked for (Nkwanke, 2013). Zerounian, Shing and Hanni (2011) support this model and strongly hold that goals are naturally important and should thus be stated in every evaluation because they ought to guide it.

The proponents of a goal-oriented model argue that goals assist in determining the appropriate variables for a study (Gray, 2009). Consequently, goals facilitate attainment of the purpose of holding a programme accountable. They are used to determine if a programme has delivered what it promised. The promise referred to here is the programme outcomes. Therefore, without programme goals, evaluating programme outcomes may be a futile exercise because the evaluator is not informed about the expectations that the programme participants had (Van Osselaer & Janiszewski, 2012). Nonetheless, Cullen, Coryn and Rugh (2011) advise that it is up to the evaluation researcher to work with the programme stakeholders to identify the programme goals.

The goal-oriented model emphasises that it is not only about having programme goals but they must be precise, explicit, applicable and not contradictory. Be that as it may, Stufflebeam (1971) the founder of the context, input, process and product model, disapproved Tyler's goal-oriented model for being narrowly-focused on goals thus ignoring aspects such as input and process. In addition, other critics such as Scriven (1967) observed that most of the goal-based programmes suffer from universal, ambiguous, unrelated, self-contradictory or missing goals. Furthermore, there is an assertion that even if the goals may satisfy the criteria, they may fail to capture the thoughts of the programme participants. Gray (2009) raises an important point about power and democracy in the process of identifying the goals of a programme. The question is about who has the authority and power in making decisions about goal selection and formulation. Gray continues the discussion further in his 2014 publication by asking the question "whose interest do they represent?" (Gray, 2014: 307). The scholar's concern is that in some instances stakeholders, especially the intended beneficiaries, are not given the opportunity to identify the programme goals. In other instances, people may choose not to express their goals or they may simply not be aware of them (Gray, 2010).

In order to avert all these challenges, the evaluation team may consult with parties concerned in order to clarify goal related issues. Nevertheless, the process must be managed meticulously to avoid deviating from the most essential elements of the subject of evaluation. This may even assist the evaluation team to do its best to avoid losing sight of the unplanned consequences which Scriven (1967) has always stressed as a major weakness of a goal-based evaluation model. According to Gray (2009), supporters and advocates of Tyler's model, such as Rossi, Williams and Weiss strongly hold that this model offers precise guidance about what the programme aims to achieve. The point that objectives and outcomes are clearly stated means that evaluation participants know exactly what is being evaluated, unlike in a goal-free model. Therefore, evaluating a programme within this framework increases the chances of producing reliable results. Scriven (1967), one of the severest critics of this approach, suggests that it is too technical and prescriptive to the extent that it makes the evaluator lose sight of the programme's unintended consequences (Mertens & Wilson, 2012).

3.5.1.2 Kirkpatrick's Four-level evaluation model

Kirkpatrick's is an evaluation model which uses four levels to evaluate a programme. It was created in 1959 and mostly used to evaluate training programmes (Kirkpatrick, 1994). This model focuses on evaluating four levels of training outcomes. Those levels are reaction, learning, performance and results (Smidt, Balandin, Sigafos & Reed, 2009). Training programmes, as previously indicated, are intended to close the skills and knowledge gaps among trainees for the purposes of developing and sustaining an organisation. The valuation of the efficacy of a training programme in this regard is, therefore, a crucial step (Fullard, 2007). As a result, it must be done systematically and authentically. Kirkpatrick's model of evaluation of training programmes has been the most influential and frequently utilised evaluation framework across disciplines and countries (Frye & Hemmer, 2012).

Smidt *et al.* (2009) notes that according to Kirkpatrick's model, the first level of evaluating a training programme seeks to establish the instantaneous reaction of the trainees. Evaluating the trainee's reaction to a training programme involves measuring their impression about a programme. It means that at the end of a training programme, the trainees share and express their opinions about whether or not they found the programme thought-provoking, inspiring or captivating. Gray (2014) adds that this model also focuses on evaluating quality and standards of the training. The trainees' express their levels of satisfaction with the instructor as well as the organisation, planning, resources, facilities and mode of the training. Further to that, it is intended to establish if trainees found the topics or activities being of immediate use to their work. Evaluation reaction, therefore, gives the trainees an opportunity to tell if they are satisfied with the training they received. Simply put, it is about finding out if the participants enjoyed the training.

According to Smidt *et al.* (2009), the second level of evaluation, which is learning evaluation, entails measuring the knowledge and skills acquired by the participants through the training programme. Gray (2009) adds attitude to the list proposed by Smidt *et al.* (2009). Tests and role plays can be used to measure the trainees' understanding of these three elements (Smidt *et al.*, 2009). These assessments are done within the framework of the training objectives (Gray, 2009). This gives the trainees an opportunity to demonstrate knowledge and mastery of skills.

Their attitude is also tested in the process. From all the indications, evaluation research shows evidence that learning has taken place.

Learning and acquisition of skills are necessary for the employer and employees but definitely insufficient (Mouton, 2007). The application of what has been acquired is the most crucial phase in the training process. The third level of Kirkpatrick's model is concerned with measuring performance of the trainees once training has been received. It is envisioned to measure the degree to which the trainees are able to use and apply the knowledge and skills acquired through the training (Gray, 2014). Performance evaluation sheds light in terms of the trainee's performance. Its purpose is to determine if the training made any difference in relation to the trainee's performance (Smidt *et al.*, 2009). For this evaluation to produce authentic results, it has to be done in line with the training objectives (Gray, 2009).

The last level of Kirkpatrick's model of evaluation is called outcome evaluation. In this case, the outcome is intended to shed light on the effect which the training has on the wider organisational goals, mission and objectives. This includes material and non-material effects. It covers aspects such as employee-clientele relations, staff turnover, employer-employee relations and production in general (Smidt *et al.*, 2009). The strength in Kirkpatrick's model is that it provides a simple and clear guide in terms of the criteria and questions which must be asked when evaluating a training programme. Furthermore, it pays no attention to prior-evaluation assessment; consequently pre-evaluation outcomes are not a pre-requisite for training programme evaluation in Kirkpatrick's framework. What this comes down to is that the study may have very few variables which suggest that the researcher deals with a small network of factors (Bates, 2004).

Gray (2014) criticises this model, especially at its first level. This criticism is based on the fact that even if trainees liked and enjoyed the training, it does not necessarily guarantee that the training yields positive results. Consequently, the scholars see less value in the evaluation of the trainees' reactions. However, Giangreco, Sebastiano and Peccei (2009) argue that even though this information is not sufficient for the purpose of making decisions about the effectiveness of the programme, it helps in understanding the ultimate accomplishment or otherwise of a training programme. Frye & Hemmer (2012) concur with Giangreco *et al.*

(2009) but recommend that Kirkpatrick's model may yield better results if used in conjunction with models like Stufflebeam's CIPP model.

Kirkpatrick's model seems to be much more concerned with attainment or otherwise of the programme goals (Dubrowski & Morino, 2011). The model appears not to consider the process and circumstances surrounding success or failure in meeting the goals. Coldwell and Simkins (2011) have also challenged Kirkpatrick's model for the attention it has given to programme goals. The scholars argue that evaluating a programme on the basis of its goals only is misguided because at the end of the evaluation, the evaluator may not be able to explain whether or not the poor outcomes resulted from a poorly designed programme or internal and external factors. This is due to the fact that this model does not give the evaluator an opportunity to evaluate the correlation among the four levels which have been evaluated (Coldwell & Simkins, 2011). On the contrary, Stufflebeam's Context, Input, Process and Outcome evaluation model creates an interrelationship among these elements.

Another shortcoming of this model is that it selectively pays attention to behaviour which results from exposure to training without taking into cognisance the setting and conditions under which the training took place. Frye and Hemmer (2011) specifically questioned the model because it does not recognise trainees' pre-training level of skills and knowledge, the relationship among the programme components, the environmental impact and the associated resources.

3.5.2 Value branch evaluation models

The third branch of the three branch tree of evaluation models is called value branch (Alkin, 2012). The value branch evaluation models put emphasis on making judgement about the worth of a subject of evaluation. The worth of the evaluation subject is determined by the evaluator through conducting an evaluation (Carden & Alkin, 2012). Those who use the value branch models are cautioned that an evaluator can either be objective or subjective. Evaluation researchers whose models fall under this branch include Scriven, Stake, Guba and Lincoln (Mertens & Wilson, 2012).

3.5.2.1 Scriven's Goal-Free Evaluation (GFE) model

The GFE model refers to a model of evaluation which does not involve assessment of predetermined goals, services and outcomes (Scriven, 1967). Knowledge of programme goals for an evaluation researcher who uses this model is not a priority (Arthur & Cox, 2014). In the same breath, Youker and Ingraham (2013) regard goal-free evaluation as any form of evaluation which the evaluator carries out without any knowledge of or making reference to the officially prescribed programme goals. Programme goals refer to long term all-encompassing statements which relate the anticipated outcomes of a programme (Youker & Ingraham, 2013). The evaluation researcher has to identify palpable goals and accomplishments (Stake, 2011). Furthermore, Gray (2009) suggests that the researcher actually looks for the unanticipated outcomes. Interaction with programme participants formally or informally is imperative in this kind of a model. Any evaluation of this nature involves collecting data about a range of observed and real effects or consequences of an intervention. It therefore seeks the practical experiences of the programme participants.

An association between the programme participants' personal experiences and actual needs has to be established. The intention is to find out what the programme is all about and what it does. It implies that the researcher should be in a position to identify and recognise programme goals and accomplishments. The evaluation researcher is, therefore, open to all issue that arise from the study (Stake, 2011). Arthur and Cox (2014) suggest that the evaluator may even develop a theory organically from the outcomes of the study.

Even though the GFE model seems to give the researcher the autonomy to evaluate the performance of programme without being restricted by the pre-defined goals, it has been criticised for the same reason (Stake, 2011). Gray (2009) observed that renowned evaluation scholars such as Weiss, Williams and Rossi strongly but thoughtfully disapprove of the goal-free model. The disapproval is based on the point that it is impossible to evaluate a programme without firstly quantifying that which it intends to achieve. The scholars' grip on the matter is that goals provide a precise direction to the researcher but in the absence of goals the researcher may not know what to look for and how to measure anything if found. There are high prospects for inaccuracies in a goal-free evaluation study. Weiss (1972), admits that the exercise is long, stressful and painful. On the same breath, Stake (2011) suggests that perhaps Scriven advocated

for the use of this model such it can only be he who can design and conduct goal-free evaluations. Tarsilla (2010a) cautions that it may not be easy to implement the results of a GFE research.

Despite the criticisms levelled by prominent evaluation researchers against Scriven's goal-free evaluation, the scholar unequivocally stands by the idea. Tarsilla (2010a) regards a goal as an insignificant element which may even spoil the evaluation because it creates bias. Tarsilla (2010a: 201) summarises Scriven's views by saying that "the greater the distance from a programme being evaluated, the greater the evaluators' neutrality and the impartiality of their judgements." This means that not knowing the goals of a programme gives the researcher an opportunity to evaluate the programme without any influence. The argument is that focusing on goals restricts the evaluation researcher thus increasing the chance of missing embryonic unintended consequences due to the narrow scope prescribed the goals. Not only goals are important, but the process and context. Goals should, therefore, not be the focus of an evaluation (Gray, 2009).

Connolly (2011) asserts that the failure of some programme evaluations may be attributed to decisions about which goals must be used to evaluate a programme since evaluators are sometimes torn between using the product manufacturer, owner or consumer's goals. Connolly (2011) argues that such quarrels can be resolved by conducting goal-free evaluations because evaluation consumer unions world-wide have conducted product evaluations without the knowledge of the goals of the product manufacturer for more than 75 years. Such evaluations became successful despite the fact that evaluators had no knowledge of the product's stated goals (Youker & Ingraham, 2013).

3.5.2.2 Stake's responsive evaluation model

Stake (1975) holds that the distinguishing feature of the responsive evaluation is its element of personalizing the evaluation process. This model requires that the researcher should have direct contact with the programme participants. The purpose of direct contact is to learn directly from programme participants about their involvement, understanding, viewpoints and anxieties in relation to the programme. In actual fact, this model respects and acknowledges the multiplicity of the stakeholders. Their values are much more important in the evaluation process (Hall, Ahn

& Greene, 2012). The second source of information is the programme documents. These are studied to acquire more information about the programme. The programme activities are also observed in a natural setting without any influences to get more insights and identify the focal issues for evaluation (Stake, 1975).

The responsive model encourages sensitivity to the discerning voices and those that are seldom heard. The researcher ought to collect data and present it with a clear understanding of the varying perspectives and also give an audience to the marginalised. Once data has been collected, the researcher prepares thematic descriptions and pictures and graphic displays for the programme personnel and participants for their reaction to the evaluation's correctness and applicability of the data respectively (Stake, 1975). What is important is that there is a transactional process taking place between the programme participants and authorities. They share their perspectives and the researcher is there to make sense of the information (Mertens & Wilson, 2012).

3.5.2.3 Guba and Lincoln's Fourth Generation Evaluation (FGE) model

Guba and Lincoln made an important contribution to the development of value branch evaluation models (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). These scholars acknowledge that they have been greatly influenced by the work of Eliot Eisner and Robert Stake (Stufflebeam, 2008). While Eisner (1977) developed the evaluation model called connoisseurship, Stake (1976) put forward responsive evaluation model. Eisner's model of connoisseurship posits that the stakeholders are important in an evaluation process and must therefore be granted respect. This, it is argued, encourages the stakeholders to share important information which may contribute to the success of the evaluation (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). In the same breath, what seems to be prominent in Stake's responsive evaluation model are observations of the programme activities as well as negotiations with the stakeholders. It is, therefore, safe to make an inference that Guba and Lincoln subscribe to a people-centred evaluation approach.

Guba and Lincoln (1989) put forward a proposition that evaluation research has moved through three generations and is currently in the fourth one. The first generation is characterised by the use of tests and measurements. In the case of the second generation evaluation researchers, they were guided by objectives and tests. With regard to the third generation, judgment or

decision-based models were used. Guba and Lincoln's major dispute with these three evaluation models is that they operate within a positivist paradigm which is dominated by the ideology that the truth can be measured (Lay & Papadopoulos, 2007). Another criticism levelled by these scholars is that evaluation models associated with the positivist paradigm, the researcher and those with decision making power dominate the evaluations. This triggers suppression of the views of the voiceless (Fielding, 2012).

Having realised that the three models discussed above could not yield required results, Guba and Lincoln (1981) introduced yet another evaluation model called naturalistic evaluation. This evaluation model allows the researcher to observe an evaluation subject in a natural setting without any predetermined ideas. Guba and Lincoln decided against the naturalistic evaluation because of lack of a crystal clear identity (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). Out of this, the FGE was conceptualised (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). These evaluation researchers hold the view that this model is based on the constructivist paradigm. It is based on the constructivist paradigm in the sense that stakeholders, even those who are never consulted for purpose of maintaining status quo, get the opportunity to share their statements, issues and concerns without any constraints.

According to Lay and Pappadopoulos (2007), this model is stakeholder-centred because stakeholders such as beneficiaries, agents and victims present their constructs about the evaluation subject through interviews. Subsequently, the same stakeholders are requested to nominate other stakeholders whom they know would have contrary views. These stakeholders are then requested to critique the constructs by the preceding group, scholarly constructs as well as those of the evaluator. Their views can also be subjected to scrutiny by another group. Documentation and scholarly views used in evaluating concerns of these groups. Once the challenges and weaknesses or areas of development have been identified, recommendations are negotiated among the stakeholder representations and the evaluator.

The advantage of this model, Lay and Papadopoulos (2007) argue, is that it affords even the marginalised the power to put their issues on the agenda and ensure that these are considered. Smith (2008) argues that in this way power is diffused from the authorities by spreading it between them and other end users of the evaluation results. The FGE brings together the stakeholders from different schools of thought which affords all of them the opportunity to learn from each other and to work together as suggested by Smith (2008). The status quo may

be challenged in this regard. Consequently, accountability becomes everybody's business. The FGE, therefore, affords stakeholders learning and empowerment prospects because they get actively involved from the conceptualisation stage.

Much as this is a participatory approach to evaluation, the major challenge in applying it relates to identification of stakeholders. It is, therefore, necessary to involve as many stakeholders as possible such that dependable data is obtained (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). Lay and Papadopoulos (2007) are of the opinion that FGE and other value branch evaluation models will grow and develop as they adjust themselves to meet the needs of society. However, the scholars do not agree in terms of the appropriateness of the tree metaphor in relation to the possibility of growth which they are contemplating.

3.5.3 Social justice branch evaluation models

In the preceding section the three branch tree which is the brain child of one of the distinguished evaluation researchers Alkin, (Alkin, 2012; Christie & Alkin, 2008) focused only on methods, use and value oriented evaluation models (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). Although Mertens and Wilson (2012) recognise and acknowledge these three branches, they are of the opinion that social justice and human rights issues are significant and thus require a separate branch. Consequently, they proposed a fourth branch to the tree which they call social justice (Mertens & Wilson, 2012).

The social justice branch evaluation models refer to those evaluation models which have been developed specifically to evaluate pursuit of democracy and human rights in different levels and sectors of the society (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). These evaluation models focus mainly on the people who are marginalised. It could be marginalisation in terms of race, gender, culture, religion, disability, ethnicity, poverty, political affiliation or sexual orientation. Mertens and Wilson (2012) highlighted the point that even though Alkin did not create a special branch for those who pursue social justice and human rights (House, Howe, Greene and Mertens), the scholar recognises their work. Nevertheless, the problem which Mertens and Wilson (2012) have with Alkin is that instead of developing a separate branch for these scholars, Alkin simply categorised them as value branch evaluation researchers.

According to Mertens (2009), the social justice branch evaluation models are entrenched in the transformative paradigm. From an African perspective, Chilisa (2012) strongly believes that the transformative paradigm was born out of the discontentment with the inadequacies in how the positivist and interpretive paradigms address power, social justice, marginalisation and privileges in society. What is of great importance to the transformative paradigm is addressing issues of power and inequalities in pursuance of promoting respect for human rights and social justice. Promotion of human rights and social justice are pursued with the understanding and acknowledgement of the diverse nature of the society (Maathai, 2010).

Evaluation researchers who subscribe to this paradigm acknowledge the diversity in the society; as a result they are interested in evaluating societal institutions and structures of power with the intention of promoting increasing social justice. Be that as it may, they are also conscious of the pervasiveness of oppression and discrimination in communities where they are conducting evaluations. This helps them challenge structures, systems and processes which sustain and maintain the status quo (Mertens, 2009). To be precise transformation paradigm strives to facilitate social change by diffusing power from the authorities and elites to those who have been marginalised (Tarsilla, 2010b; Sweetman, Badiee & Creswell, 2010).

It goes without a saying that the evaluation researchers must abide by values of ethics such as respect and justice. They must also be able to detect when tensions arising from unequal power relations and associated privileges encroach an evaluation (Greene, 2008). The transformative paradigm is, therefore, ingrained in the human rights agenda (Sweetman *et al.*, 2010). Its ethical postulation rests on four major philosophies. Those include being culturally respectful, promoting social justice, continuance of human rights and tackling inequalities. The evaluation researcher ought to uphold and tackle these through evaluation research (Mertens & Wilson, 2012).

The transformative paradigm is based on the work of Guba and Lincoln (2005) who use four sets of ideas to define a paradigm. The very first one is axiology which is about moral code for conducting evaluations within this paradigm. Mertens (2007b) advocates that evaluation research conducted under this paradigm should be done with respect, benevolence and impartiality. The research process must demonstrate respect for people's views and cultures. With regard to benevolence, the evaluation should be conducted in such a manner that it

promotes human rights and deepens social justice. The research team members should at no point attempt to associate themselves with any of the concerned parties. All these said and done, the possibility of producing quality evaluation research is very high (Mertens, 2007b).

Mertens (2007b) explains that the second assumption of the transformative paradigm is ontology. It refers to the nature of reality. That is, it is socially created. Therefore, the values which define the reality should be known and taken into consideration by the evaluation researcher. Such values may include politics, economy, culture, race, age and disability (Mertens, 2007b). However, what is important to note during the course of the evaluation is that different realities may emerge (Chilisa, 2012). Consequently, identification of those that have the potential to determine social justice and transformation is extremely significant. It is, therefore, important to ask appropriate questions about the existing and emergent reality. For example how is reality conceptualised, who has been defining it all along, who is eligible for defining it and which privileges are associated with it (Mertens, 2007a).

The third assumption relates to epistemology which is about the nature and scope of knowledge as well as the relationship between the evaluation researcher and the programme participants. Mertens (2007a) suggests that it is important that the researcher builds a trusting relationship between herself and the programme participants. If there is trust between the two parties the degree of obtaining truthful and trustworthy information is very high. Knowledge of the cultural background, beliefs and circumstances of the programme participants plays a very important part in this endeavour. Learning these will help the researcher clear preconceived ideas and misconceptions held about the community that is being evaluated (Chilisa, 2012). This information may be used by the evaluation researcher to build trustworthy relationship. Silka (2005) advises that trust can be built through involving people in open discussions about the rationale for the research, research process, implementation of the findings and future prospects. Failing which the people may feel used and disillusioned.

The last assumption deals with methodology. This assumption relates to beliefs which the evaluation researcher and the programme participants hold about the scientific methods of investigation that must be applied (Mertens, 2012). The transformative paradigm requires researchers to move away from using either qualitative or quantitative methods. It requires consideration of using mixed methods approach and that the evaluations ought to be people-

centred (Greene, 2008; Sweetman *et al.*, 2012). The discussion above implies that the social justice branch evaluation researchers are much more interested in people-centred evaluations. This type of evaluation allows people to be part of the evaluation from design up to implementation of the results. It, therefore, encourages ownership of the evaluation processes and outcomes. The evaluation researchers who fall under the social justice branch are keen towards using evaluation research to create awareness about enhancing social justice and promoting respect for human rights. Those include Democratic Evaluation by Kushner and Deliberative Democratic Evaluation by House and Howe (Mertens & Wilson, 2012).

3.5.3.1 Kushner and MacDonald's democratic evaluation model

According to MacDonald (1976), as early as the 1970's the models of evaluation paid less attention to social justice and human rights. This, the scholar attributes to the position of the researcher in an evaluation. MacDonald and Kushner (1982) express the view that there are three forms of evaluation research which are differentiated by the position of the researcher. The three forms of evaluation are bureaucratic, autocratic and democratic.

In the bureaucratic evaluation, the researcher is in the position of authority and uses power to retain the status quo. With regard to autocratic evaluation, the researcher assumes a role of an outside expert. The evaluation is conducted on the basis of the knowledge and expertise of the evaluation researcher. In that regard the evaluation researcher's knowledge and expertise are used to authenticate the power structures, programme or policy (Hanberger, 2006). Dhakal (2014) advises that while the work of an independent evaluator may contribute to a programme acquiring external credibility, stakeholders and evaluators should guard against loss of internal applicability. Loss of internal applicability may declare an evaluation useless because the results cannot be used as they have a potential of causing hitches and shortcomings.

While power and authority in the bureaucratic and autocratic forms of evaluation seem to be concentrated in the hands of the authorities and evaluator, in the democratic evaluation attention appears to have been shifted to the programme stakeholders especially those who have been marginalised. According to Hanberger (2006) in a democratic evaluation the evaluator plays a role of an adviser. Control of the evaluation processes is given to the stakeholders no matter their school of thought. The intention is to bring together people from

different levels of the ladder, even those with different views (McDonald & Kushner, 2005). Kurt (2012) regards it as a bottom-up approach to evaluation.

The evaluator in a democratic evaluation advises the stakeholders about sharing of power in the evaluation setting in order to avert the challenge of power being concentrated in the hands authorities or certain stakeholders. Cullen and Coryn (2011) explain that one way of addressing power issues among stakeholders is to distribute programme information through discourse among them. The view held by Kurt (2012) evaluation stakeholders have various forms of knowledge which is pertinent to the evaluation but some of it may not be known to other stakeholders who may need it. This idea is grounded in the principle of the right to know which the public has in many countries and settings (Kurt, 2012; Cullen & Coryn, 2011).

Democratic evaluation puts the interests of the stakeholders at the centre of the evaluation exercise. What this implies is that the evaluator facilitates a dialogue and discussion among all stakeholders about planning and implementing the evaluation as well as its findings. The evaluation report collated from the dialogues and engagements is also availed to all stakeholders for further interrogation. In this way knowledge which gives people power is distributed equally among them. This is how democratic evaluation researchers promote the idea of an informed citizen (Rodriguez-Campos, 2012; Kurt, 2012).

Cullen and Coryn (2011) see value in democratic evaluation because power is distributed among stakeholders by engaging them in all evaluation stages thus holding them accountable for the entire evaluation exercise. The success or failure of an evaluation is, therefore, the business of all stakeholders. The evaluator helps stakeholders to identify possible threats to the evaluation and encourages them to deal with the threats to the satisfaction of all parties concerned. It makes stakeholders answerable to all evaluation activities. This model thus alleviates suspicions and doubt as well as encourage collective ownership among stakeholders. The interaction between evaluation and democracy challenges the monopolies which come with evaluation models which do not embrace democracy (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). On the basis of this, Mathison (2008) regards democratisation of evaluation as the best model to pursue social justice oriented evaluation.

3.5.3.2 House and Howe's Deliberative Democratic Evaluation (DDE) model

Evaluation literature (Tarsilla, 2010a; Donalson *et al.*, 2010) undoubtedly demonstrates that there are several models of evaluation. While House and Howe (1999) strongly believe that evaluation ought to contribute to democracy, scholars like Stake (2011) passionately disapprove of the view. House and Howe (1999) admit that even though not all evaluations are intended to contribute to democracy, majority of them have inferences and repercussions for it. This observation necessitates that evaluation participants, researchers, consumers and stakeholders should be wary of democratic or undemocratic implications of evaluations (Hanberger, 2006). In order to push their notion forward, House and Howe (1999) developed a model called deliberative democratic evaluation.

Thorough and critical scrutiny of representative democratic model and participatory democratic model made House and Howe to conclude that voting and taking part in decision making processes are inadequate in a democracy (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). While representative democratic model assumes that representation of the views of the people is adequate in a democracy, participatory democracy is entrenched in the view that people's will and power are exercised if they take part in decision making processes. Having identified the weaknesses in the two, House and Howe (1999) coined and introduced an evaluation model called deliberative democracy. According to Lehtonen (2006), there seems not to be a universally accepted definition of deliberative democracy. However, a working definition of deliberative democracy is "a forum through which judgements and preferences transformed through reasoned dialogue" (O'Neill, 2001: 6). This definition implies that the decisions and choices which people make are not sufficient for a democracy, but discussion and reflection upon them are critical elements in an evaluation. Deliberative democracy, therefore, is inclusive, deliberative and dialogical (Lehtonen, 2006).

House and Howe (1999) are of the opinion that evaluation should be conducted and designed to promote deliberative democracy. However, in order to achieve this, the evaluation process should first of all include relevant stakeholders and citizens. The primary reason for including all relevant stakeholders is that they should take part in the pre, during the course and post evaluation activities. Inclusion of all stakeholders and citizens may only yield positive results if they are given the opportunity to participate in a dialogue among themselves and together

with the evaluators. Stakeholders are essential assets in the programme, therefore, they are specifically included in the process to share various opinions, interests and ideas about the programme. Such engagement should not be limited to a mere discussion but it should be a thoughtful and intellectual debate about matters, tenets and preferences relevant to the evaluation (Cullen & Coryn, 2011). It is expected that this reflective thinking may bring fourth issues in contrast with other evaluation models (Lehtonen, 2006).

3.5.4 Use branch evaluation models

The use branch models refer to a group of models of evaluation which are oriented towards producing evaluation results which have a potential of being utilised. Evaluation researchers in this branch include Patton and Fetterman (Carden & Alkin, 2012). Initially focus among these evaluation researchers was on evaluation and making decisions. Consequently, the results of evaluations were only made available to and used by those who had decision making authority or those who sanctioned the evaluation. With time, the evaluation researchers realised that not only decision makers require such information, and as a result, there was a shift towards wider user audience. Not only that, but there was also emphasis on the evaluation results being used for capacity building in the evaluated organisation. Here follows Fetterman and Patton's evaluation models (Carden & Alkin, 2012).

3.5.4.1 Fetterman's empowerment evaluation model

As defined by Fetterman (1994) empowerment evaluation refers to a model of evaluation through which programme stakeholders actively take part in collecting and analysing data about a particular programme and lastly utilising the outcomes of such a process. Similarly, Wandersman, Snell-Johns, Lentz, Fetterman, Keener and Livet (2005) define empowerment evaluation as the model of evaluation which involves programme participants being given tools to appraise the preparation, implementation and evaluation of a programme as part and parcel of the day-to-day activities of the programme in question. It is designed to encourage programme stakeholders to take part in evaluating a programme. Cullen and Coryn (2011) regard it as a self-evaluation model. The substance of this evaluation model is it provides a framework for incorporating evaluation into the daily programme activities.

Evaluation is conducted in many organisations but for different reasons. It could be for programme or service improvement or accountability (Venter & Bezuidenhout, 2008). No matter what the reason is, it is expected that the results of an evaluation must be used for the benefit of all parties concerned in an organisation. Be that as it may, some organisations are guilty of not utilising evaluation results. Reasons for not utilising the evaluation results vary greatly from lack of will to resource inadequacy (Donaldson, Patton, Fetterman & Scriven, 2010). Fetterman's model has been developed to guide evaluation stakeholders on what to do in order to ensure that the evaluation results are utilised (Fetterman, 1994). This evaluation model is based on the proposition that if an evaluation is people-centred, the probability of the results being used among them is very high. This model of evaluation serves purposes of accountability and development (Fetterman, Deitz & Gesundheit, 2010). It is aimed at developing organisations, institutions, people, services and programmes. With regard to accountability, it is intended to evaluate the influence of a programme and determine if it has accomplished its mission and goals. These evaluations are done in line with the programme outcomes (Wandersman & Snell-John, 2005).

The practice of empowerment evaluation is guided by principles such as indigenous knowledge, community ownership, evidence-based strategies, inclusion, accountability, democratic participation, responsiveness, improvement, social justice, organisational learning, capacity building and empowerment (Mouton, 2007). These principles provide a precise structure and framework within which empowerment evaluation should happen. The message sent through these principles is that evaluation should be conducted in such a manner that the conditions under which it takes place allows and encourages the voiceless people to take ownership of the process (Fetterman *et al.*, 2010).

Miller and Campbell (2006) explain that it is the programme participants, programme management and sponsors, to name a few, who should collectively craft the evaluation outcome and interpret, debate and reflect on evaluation data. This implies that roles are shared among the evaluation team members, opportunities to take part in decision making are availed even to the voiceless, resources are made available and the design and conduct of the evaluation is a collaborative effort among all stakeholders. This multi-stakeholder involvement character of the empowerment evaluation model is seen by Cullen, Coryn and Rugh (2011) as promotion of democracy and entrenchment of democracy in the evaluation process.

It is important to note that the role of the empowerment evaluator in the whole process is to create an environment which is conducive for people to take charge of the evaluation process. The evaluator gives power to programme stakeholders (Miller & Campbell, 2006). Given that this is a “learn-by-doing process” (Wandersman *et al.*, 2005: 28) the evaluator gives programme staff members training on strategy evaluation such that they can do it on their own without the help of the evaluator. Miller and Campbell (2006) explain that this is the ultimate goal of empowerment evaluation.

Miller and Campbell (2006) explain that even though the structure of empowerment evaluation may differ from one evaluator to another, the general practice is that the evaluator plays the roles of a facilitator, adviser and coach to the programme participants. These roles specifically assist programme participants to analyse the programme, select an evaluation design, collate reliable evidence, write a report and design a strategy to implement the results. This allows programme stakeholders to gain more insights into the programme thus putting them in a better position to identify and manage the enabling and impeding factors (Miller & Campbell, 2006). Chouinard (2013) emphasises this notion of learning by explaining that programme stakeholders stand to benefit considerably because as they produce evaluation knowledge they acquire skills necessary for evaluative thinking and methodical examination.

Empowerment evaluation provides programme stakeholders with the opportunity to either improve or change it in order to produce better outcomes. During this process, programme stakeholders learn from the constructive and damaging evaluation outcomes, how to conduct evaluation at an individual and organisational level and lastly, how to deal with prejudices, bad judgement and narrow-mindedness. This may result in programme participants taking ownership of the evaluation, argue Fetterman *et al.* (2010).

The above discussion leads to the understanding that empowerment evaluation is a means of incorporating evaluation into the operations of an organisation and building capacity internally for continuous self-evaluation (Miller & Campbell, 2006). In this regard, empowerment evaluation qualifies as a use branch method because it teaches the programme participants what to do with the evaluation outcomes. The fact is that the evaluator works with the programme members to build capacity for future and continued evaluation demonstrates that indeed this evaluation approach encourages use of the evaluation outcomes.

3.5.4.2 Patton's Utilization-Focused Evaluation (UFE) model

The UFE model is defined by Patton (1980) as “evaluation done for and with specific, intended primary users for specific, intended uses.” This evaluation model is a guiding framework for evaluators and end users of evaluation results. It operates within the principle of participatory development, ensuring that intended users of the evaluation results take part in an evaluation from conceptualisation to implementation stage (Patton, 1980). The central focus of this model is that the worth of an evaluation ought to be judged on the basis of its usefulness (Donaldson, Patton, Fetterman & Shrive, 2010). Many organisations, public or private, have at some point in their history conducted some form of evaluation. This could be as a result of the requirements of the funding institution or any other important factor for that matter (Liket *et al.*, 2014). Patton (2008) argues that conducting an evaluation is neither here nor there; the important thing is the use of the evidence collected through evaluation research. The need to answer this question led to the development of a model called utilization-focused model.

Patton (2012) explains that the use of evaluation evidence is determined prior to the actual collection of the evidence itself. It can be determined through on-going consultations between the evaluator and prospective users of the evidence. The users may include the policy makers, sponsors, programme personnel and clients (Chouinard, 2013; Mizikaci, 2006). The core function of these consultations is to discuss what the prospective users of the evidence want to do with the data collected (Patton, 2012). The consultation may assist in determining the actual information needs of the prospective user. This is done to avoid a situation where evaluation evidence gathers dust in the offices of managers as suggested by Liket *et al.* (2014).

According to Patton (2008), the requirements of buy-in and mutual agreement are important factors in utilization-focused evaluation. The evaluator and the prospective users ought to discuss and agree on methods and designs of research and data collection, analysis and reporting. These should not be imposed on the prospective user otherwise buy-in is lost. Furthermore, the value of this collegial consultation is that the evaluator and the prospective users have their preferred methods and biases towards certain methods. Having a robust conversation about them to clear misconceptions is, therefore, extremely vital.

The UFE model is definitely not about having a simple conversation but it involves the evaluator presenting various frameworks comprising methods, models, theory and content to the prospective user. Subsequently, the evaluator provides guidance and assistance to the prospective user about the appropriateness of the suggestions made. It is the prospective user's prerogative to make a decision (Donaldson *et al.*, 2010). Even though these negotiations and conversations may not necessarily guarantee buy-in, they increase the prospective user's confidence and understanding which may motivate them to use the discoveries of the evaluation. The UFE is, therefore, a collaborative process controlled by the evaluator and prospective users. Both the evaluator and prospective users stand a good chance of learning from it (Patton, 2008).

According to Patton (2008), evaluation results only become important if they serve the purpose of improving a programme, knowledge development or accounting. Louw-Potgieter (2012) adds that evidence bred through evaluation can be used to correct, advance, guide or develop projects, service, policy, training or strategy. Be that as it may, there is a general observation that even though programmes, services, organisations and institutions are evaluated, evaluation outcomes are seldom utilised (Carman & Fredericks, 2010; Zerounian, Shing & Hanni, 2011). Liket *et al.* (2014) explain that the reasons for utilisation of evaluation findings include user-friendly evaluation results, stakeholders' attitudes as well as the use of an experienced evaluation team.

Even though Patton (2012) emphasises the significance of identifying users of evaluation findings prior to the commencement of evaluation, in some instances evaluations are still conducted without satisfying this requirement. Patton (2012) regards this approach as a traditional approach to evaluation because it is characterised by non-involvement of stakeholders. It denies the stakeholders the opportunity to learn and ability to conduct evaluations in the absence of the evaluator. King (2007) strongly opposes non-involvement of the stakeholders suggesting that removing programme participants from the evaluation yields rejection of the evaluation results and ultimately failure to implement. Stakeholder participation encourages and fosters evaluation use (Sridhran & Nakaima, 2010).

Patton's UFE model has been criticised for judging the worth of an evaluation on the basis of the use of the findings. Herbert (2014) argues that more often than not, decision makers have

valid reasons for ignoring the findings of an evaluation. The scholar further argues that in some instances those who commissioned an evaluation may not implement all recommendations and this may wrongly be interpreted as non-utilisation of the evaluation outcomes.

3.5.4.3 Stufflebeam's Context, Input, Process and Product (CIPP) evaluation model

During the early days of his career as an evaluator, Stufflebeam (1971), realised that evaluation models, like Tyler's and Kirkpatrick's, concentrated on defining programme goals and measuring the results in order to determine if the goals have been attained or not (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007). The major weakness in the goal-oriented models, in the likes of the two mentioned above, is that researchers lose sight of significant elements of evaluation. For example, variables aspects such as enabling factors, inhibiting factors, inputs and the plan and its implementation are given less attention. Consequently, the credibility of evaluation evidence may be questioned, thus leading to use problems. Having realised that there is much more to evaluation than goals, Stufflebeam founded the CIPP model of evaluation (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007; Stake, 2011).

According to Stufflebeam (1971: 267), the CIPP refers to a "process of delineating, obtaining and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives." Based on this definition, CIPP concerns itself with systematically collecting information upon which decisions can be made. The introduction of this model marked the transition from identifying and judging goals to a systematic evaluation process whose purpose is to produce evaluation evidence for programme improvement (Zhang, Zeller, Griffith, Metcalf, Williams, Shea & Misulis, 2011). The CIPP model sees evaluation as scientific gathering of evaluative information which is used for decision making purposes.

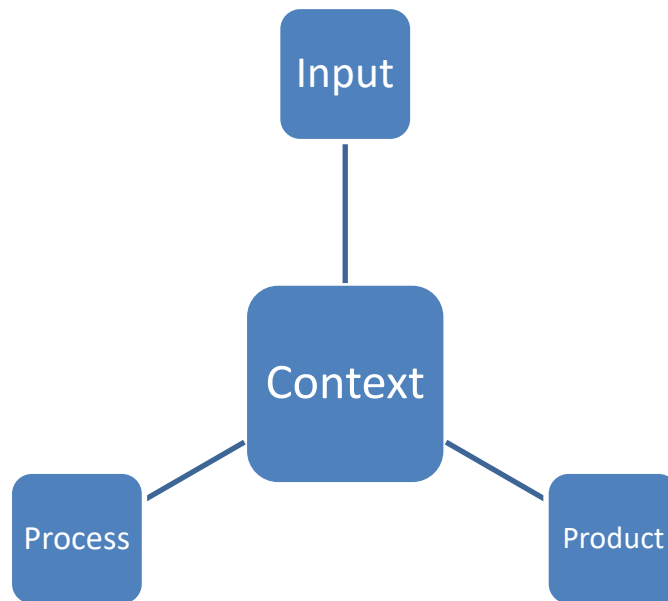
The CIPP model serves two purposes: programme improvement and accountability (Dubrowski & Morino, 2011). In order to achieve this, evaluation researchers do not limit their evaluation to determining the worth and merit of the programme only but study the programme meticulously to acquire thorough and comprehensive understanding about its operations, processes, content and results (Mohebbi, Akhlaghi, Yarmohammadian & Khoshgam, 2011). The sole intention, as articulated by Dubrowski and Morino (2011), is to improve the programme but not to prove anything about the programme. Evaluative information gathered

through the CIPP model is meant to help those with the authority to make decisions about a programme. The CIPP model provides evaluators with a clear road map in terms of evaluation design and course as well as use of the evaluation results. Mohebbi *et al.* (2011) regard it as a systematic and comprehensive evaluation outline. Similarly, Zhang *et al.* (2011) regard it highly because they see it as a guide to the programme stakeholders and evaluators regarding conducting evaluations and selection of appropriate data collection tools applicable to all the four stages of the evaluation. The four stages here referred to are context evaluation, input evaluation process evaluation and product evaluation. On this basis, Stufflebeam categorises his CIPP model as a process-inclined evaluation model (Hakan & Seval, 2011).

Frye and Hemmer (2012) indicate that what is more interesting is that compared to models proposed by Kirkpatrick and Tyler, Stufflebeam's model comprises formative and summative evaluations. It is used to evaluate programme planning, implementation and the final product. While context, input and process evaluations constitute formative evaluation, product evaluation is basically a summative protocol (Frye & Hemmer, 2012). Consequently, unlike the logic model, the CIPP evaluation model is not constrained by the principle of linear progression (Dubrowski & Morino, 2011). Depending on the evaluator's experience and knowledge, the evaluation may follow the sequence that the evaluator chooses under prevailing conditions.

Dubrowski and Morino (2011) highlight that the CIPP model is not constrained by sequencing of evaluation stages. This observation is supported by the point that the context evaluation may be conducted at any point during the course of an evaluation as shown in Figure 3.1 below. Context evaluation results are taken into consideration when conducting process, input and outcome evaluations. Following up on this observation, Wang (2009) brings up a point worth noting about these evaluations. The scholar highlights that the outcomes of every component of the CIPP model can be used as the basis for decision making; therefore it is not necessarily important that the cycle of evaluation should be completed before decisions can be made. Context evaluation is thus an important component of the CIPP evaluation model as illustrated in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1 The CIPP evaluation model adopted from Mertens and Wilson (2012)



During the input evaluation the context of each possible approach or strategy considered for adoption can be evaluated. According to Frye and Hemmer (2012), context evaluation requires that evaluators should collect data about the characteristics of a programme. Such data sheds light with regard to the state of affairs pertaining to the programme, which is the context (Fitzpatrick, 2012). This is done by detecting, uncovering and describing programme goals, assets, priorities, weaknesses, opportunities as well as the needs of the beneficiaries. The intention is to identify the needs and opportunities which are not met and used respectively as well as areas for development in view of the environment (Tokmak, Baturay & Fadde, 2013). These context study findings may constitute baseline programme information which serves multiple purposes. It can be used during the product evaluation or for funding application purposes for subsequent evaluations or interventions. The data may also serve as a basis for programme improvement (Dubrowski & Morino, 2011).

Hakan and Seval (2011) observed that the revelation by the context evaluation that there is a need to improve the programme gets responded to through the input evaluation. Input evaluation involves assessing multiple possible strategies which can be employed to meet the need. The strategies may be sourced through expert consultations, literature review as well as

observing successful and unsuccessful exemplary programmes (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007). The information gathered through this process may help programme participants identify the most appropriate strategy and justify the choice they make. The evaluators, on the other hand, should help them determine if requisite resources for implementation are sufficient (Hakan & Seval, 2011). Therefore, a context study can also be used for accounting purposes (Zhang *et al.*, 2011).

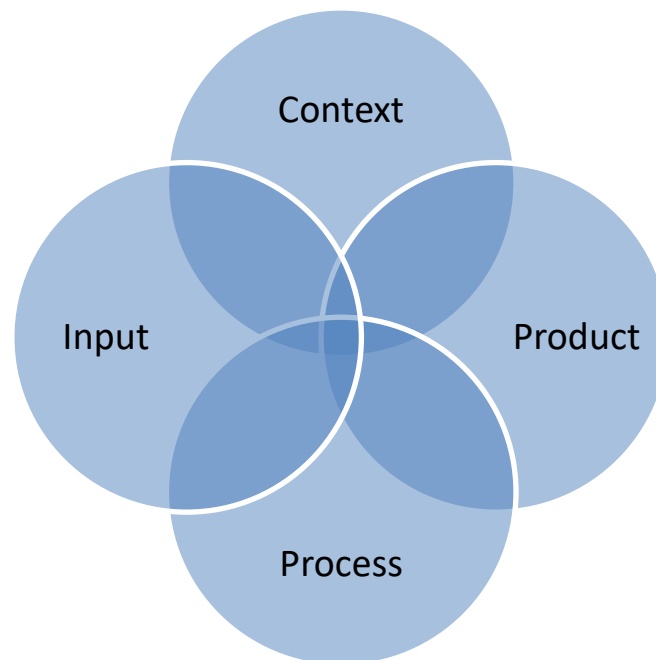
With regard to process evaluation, evaluators pay attention to the degree to which the programme has been implemented (Dubrowski & Morino, 2011). The context in which the programme was implemented is very crucial when evaluating any project. Therefore, finding out the context of the process that was followed during the implementation of a project cannot be ignored. The judgement is based on the original programme plan. The programme is assessed in terms of original cost, efficiency and plan. Frye and Hemmer (2012) recommend use of mixed methods techniques in collecting such data. The intention is to ensure sound and comprehensive understanding of hindrances and successes together with associated factors (Tokmak *et al.*, 2013). The findings are then used to determine if the programme has been implemented accordingly. Depending on the outcome, the findings may be used to revamp or strengthen the programme design (Hakan & Seval, 2011).

The last component of the CIPP evaluation model is measuring the degree to which the programme has met the essential needs of the target beneficiaries (Frye & Hemmer, 2012). Product evaluation requires that the evaluator should know the circumstances which led to the attainment of the final product. This is done by identifying and evaluating programme outcomes. These could be short or long term, negative or positive, intended or unintended outcomes. It also evaluates the impact, effectiveness, portability as well as the sustainability of the outcomes (Tokmak *et al.*, 2013). Figure 3.1 clearly shows that context evaluation is an on-going process which takes place throughout the study.

Frye and Hemmer (2012) advise that product evaluation should not be confused with the traditional summative evaluation known to many. The basis for his argument is that the CIPP product evaluation may be conducted during the course of the programme but not necessarily at the end. In this way product evaluation gives feedback upon which alternative approaches may be considered if necessitated by the findings. Consequently, process evaluation may be

helpful when conducting product evaluation. Even better, the results of the process evaluation may account for the outcome of the product evaluation. This further demonstrates the observation made by Frye and Hemmer (2012) that the components of CIPP are interrelated as shown in Figure 3.2 below. Through its four elements, the CIPP allows programme participants to understand the status of each element of the programme and be in a better position to make decisions about it.

Figure 3.2 Interrelationship among Stufflebeam’s CIPP evaluation model adopted from Frye and Hemmer (2012)



The CIPP evaluation model does not only provide a precise framework, but it also provides a list of evaluation questions which the evaluator asks in order to get answers for the evaluation. Each component of the CIPP has a specific set of questions. The answers to the questions are used to measure how a programme has been performing under specific circumstances such that its worth and significance can be determined. The examples of questions which can be asked per component of the CIPP evaluation model are provided in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1 CIPP evaluation questions adapted from Frye and Hemmer (2012)

Context	Input	Process	Outcome
i. What is the need?	i. Which potential approaches or strategies can be adopted to meet the need?	i. Is there a well-documented programme plan?	i. Which negative and positive outcomes were identified?
ii. Which factors impede meeting the need?	ii. How feasible and cost-effective is each approach given the prevailing circumstances?	ii. Was the programme implemented according to the plan?	ii. Were the intended outcomes achieved?
iii. Which physical and human resources are needed to meet the need?		iii. Was the schedule adhered to?	iii. Were the intended outcome negative or positive?
iv. Which opportunities are available?		iv. Was the programme implemented in line with the budget?	iv. Which impacts of the project were observed?
		v. Did the role players carry out their responsibilities?	v. Is the programme sustainable and effective?
		vi. Which problems were experienced during implementation and how were they managed?	vi. Can the programme be adopted by another organisation?

In the case of context evaluation the questions seek information about the identified need, possible hindrances towards the attainment of the need, available required resources and assets as well as the available opportunities. Questions for the input evaluation seek information about

the potential approaches or strategies for meeting the need as well as the feasibility and cost effectiveness of each approach or strategy. The process evaluation questions are centred on whether or not the programme was implemented according to the approved plan in relation to the schedule, budget, and problems and roles. The questions also seek to establish how the problems were resolved as well as the views of the participants about the standard of the programme. Lastly, the product evaluation is guided by questions pertaining to the intended or unintended outcomes, long and short term implications, impact, portability and sustainability of a programme.

The questions in Table 3.1 above may be used to collect data through the interviews, questionnaires, observations, focus groups discussions or review of relevant documents and records. Collection of such information develops a clearer comprehension of the programme among evaluators because as alluded to by Fitzpatrick (2012), it may not be possible to conduct an objective evaluation if the background and settings of the programme are unknown to the evaluator. These questions are therefore, crucial when evaluating a programme through the use of a CIPP evaluation model.

3.6 The evaluation framework adopted in this study

CD is one of the strategies employed by the government of South Africa to improve the living conditions of the country's citizens, especially the poor (Hart, 2012). Among others, achievement of this goal requires a cohort of qualified and experienced CDPs who facilitate quality CD. These CDPs receive formal training through institutions of higher learning which must be used to assist communities improve their lives. Given that community needs and the field of community development practice are not static, it is important that CDPs possess the knowledge, skills and experience which enhance their responsiveness to the forever changing community circumstances. CPD is essential for the attainment of this goal. It is, therefore, important that it meets this expectation. Evaluation thereof is one way of assuring quality CPD (William, 2007).

Evaluation of CPD for CDPs is essential for maintaining high standard community development practice so as to meet the expectations of the target communities. CPD is recognised world-wide as a key factor in shaping the practitioner's ability to help communities

improve their living conditions and sustain themselves (Postle, Edwards, Moon, Rumsey & Thomas, 2010). The evaluation forms which Hakan and Seval (2011) regard as happiness forms that are usually completed at the end of the programme or activity by participants are clearly not suitable to produce reliable evidence about whether or not a CPD programme meets the expectations which people have. William (2007) argues that such forms focus on trainees' perceptions about satisfaction or immediate reactions to the programme. The scholar asserts that such assessment is limiting because it sheds no light about knowledge and skills acquired as well as how the results get implemented. Alternatively, a thorough and systematic evaluation which assesses all elements of a programme is necessary.

As alluded to in the previous paragraph, the most commonly used models for evaluating programmes are Kirkpatrick's and Weiss's models. These are goal-oriented models. Nonetheless, there are process-oriented models which include Stufflebeam's process-oriented model called CIPP (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007). Stufflebeam's Context, Input, Process and Product model of evaluation has been selected for application in this study. The choice should not in any way suggest that other models are hopeless or inadequate. This model has been chosen principally because it evaluates all phases of a programme, unlike other models which are item specific. Patton's model is inclined to the use of evaluation results whereas Kirkpatrick's addresses the goals to cite but a few examples. In actual fact, CIPP regards goals as part and parcel of the process of evaluation, but not its main focus. As a consequence, CIPP was used to evaluate the context, approach, implementation and outcomes of CPD programme for CDPs.

3.6.1 Application of the CIPP model in this study

While the logic model is linear oriented thus following sequential steps, CIPP model comprises elements which are complementary (Hakan & Seval, 2011). For example the outcomes of the context evaluation can justify the specific CPD approach to be selected. Similarly, the approach determines and serves as the basis for the process followed in implementing the programme. Subsequently, the product evaluation can be conducted. The manner in which the parts of CIPP evaluation model complement one another allows the evaluator to intervene and give guidance at any point during the course of the evaluation.

Stufflebeam's model recommends use of mixed-methods for programme evaluation that is why qualitative and quantitative methods were used in this study. Data was collected in three phases: content analysis of the programme documents, and administration of a quantitative questionnaire which was followed by focus group and individual interviews. Stakeholder participation, which is also emphasised by the CIPP model, is an integral part of an evaluation process as suggested by scholars such as House, Howe, Kushner, MacDonald and Stake. This evaluation model is very useful because it guides the evaluator in terms of which questions to pose to the participants and respondents during the course of the evaluation (Hakan & Seval, 2011). Consequently, programme participants such as the CDPs and managers evaluated the programme by responding to the specific evaluation questions whose basis was Stufflebeam's CIPP framework. Thus questions focused mainly on the context, input, process and product of the CPD programme.

The context evaluation of the CPD for the CDPs affords the evaluator opportunity to identify the need which the programme intended to address. Needs assessment involved determining the factors which caused the need for CPD as well those that hindered or facilitated satisfaction of the needs. Attention was specifically on the physical and human resources such as budget and manpower. Opportunities associated with the need for the programme were also assessed. The outcome of this process provided context evaluation evidence which assisted in conducting the input evaluation (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007). The input evaluation involved gathering evidence pertaining to why and how the CPD programme was selected and applied to satisfy the needs instead of the other competing programmes (Frye & Hemmer, 212). This evaluation specifically focused on the feasibility and cost effectiveness of the programme.

The process evaluation involved determination of how the programme was implemented (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007). This evaluation involved determining whether or not the programme was implemented according to the documented plan with specific reference to the schedule, activities and budget. Finally, the researcher evaluated the programme outcomes, intended or unintended, short or long term and negative or positive. The intention was to determine if the need has been met (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007). Applying the CIPP module assisted in ensuring that all phases of the programme are evaluated. However, if Tyler's or Kirkpatrick's models were used, only the outcome of CPD would have been evaluated. In the case of Patton's model, only the implementation of the evaluation would be at the centre of

the study. This would not shed adequate light in terms of the other phases of the programme. The evaluation evidence gathered through this process gave the evaluator and programme stakeholders a precise picture about the value, worth and significance of CPD for CDPs. The corrective strategies to sustain the programme's successes are presented in the sixth chapter.

3.6.2 Possible challenges which may be experienced in using CIPP to evaluate continuing professional development and recommendations

CIPP, just like any other evaluation model, has its inherent challenges. This model involves four different levels of evaluation. That is context, input, process and product. It goes without a say that this model may require a lot of time in order to collect and process different sets of data (Hakan & Seval, 2011). Mohebbi *et al.* (2011) averted this challenge in their study by developing an evaluation tool that covered the four aspects of CIPP. The same approach was followed in this study. In order to ensure that appropriate questions were asked, advice from the experts in the field was sought.

Poor planning and implementation are always challenging in evaluation projects where CIPP is applied (Taye, 2013). This is usually caused by the use of inappropriate methods and tools for data collection, especially because CIPP requires collection of multiple data. In this study this was averted by adopting mixed-methods and collecting data through focus group interviews, face to face structured interviews and administration of one set of a questionnaire. The questionnaire comprised statements measured through a Likert scale which were responded to by the practitioners. The questions were set according to the CIPP framework and the research questions. These were checked and assessed by the experts in the field for face and content validity.

3.7 Summary

Evaluation research is a scientific study which cannot be conducted haphazardly. There are models which serve as frameworks for evaluating a programme, service or activity. Categorisation of these models is varied. Scholars do not agree on the categorisation. There is a simple categorisation of models into goal-based or theory-based, system-based or process based models. Another categorisation involves the use-branch, method-branch, value-branch as well as social justice branch. Even though scholars do not agree on the categorisation of the

models, they seem to reach a consensus on the point that the purpose of an evaluation determines the model and the design of the evaluation study. Among many models presented in this chapter, CIPP was selected for use in this study. Its strengths and the nature of the programme being evaluated influenced this decision. The next chapter presents the research design and methodology.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

Every research work needs to have a structured format that it follows such that its intended purpose is achieved. Such a structured format is basically a research methodology. According to Nakkiran and Ramesh (2009), research methodology is a collective term that explains how a study is going to be conducted. Research methodology, therefore, refers to the pre-arranged activities, instruments and methods that the researcher engages in to investigate a particular research problem (Six & Bellamy, 2012). Without a well-thought research methodology and design, a study may not be successful. Research methodology and design, therefore, remain paramount in a research study.

This chapter presents the research design and methodology. The justification for the choice of methods, suitability and limitations as well as how such limitations were overcome also forms part of this section. Furthermore, data collection instruments, target population, sampling techniques and sample size are also discussed in this section. The last section of this chapter presents methods and techniques of data analysis and interpretation.

4.2 Research design

According to Creswell (2013), research design refers to the general outline that is followed by a researcher to prepare and implement a research project. Such an outline provides clear-cut information on strategies, methods and instruments used to identify a problem, collect and analyse data as well as reporting and publishing the results. Research design is basically a scheme of work and plan comprising various research stages and activities that facilitate achievement of goals set for a particular research study. It, therefore, assists the researcher to integrate different components of the study into one articulate, well thought-out and logical plan (Babbie, 2011).

Bless, Higson-Smith and Sithole (2013) regard research design as a blueprint that lays down a step-by-step outline and procedures followed by the researcher in conducting a study. It is the most crucial part of the research process because it guides the research process thus ensuring

that possible errors are either minimised or eliminated and the most precise and applicable answers to the research questions are given. It is unthinkable to conduct a research study without a proper design (Creswell, 2013; Bless, Higson-Smith & Sithole, 2013).

As explained by Maree and van der Westhuizen (2010), the design of a study is informed by the paradigm within which the research is conducted. Researchers have schools of thought, in terms of how to conduct a study, which they subscribe to. Schools of thought such as those are called research paradigms. Research paradigm, according to Arthur *et al.* (2012) and Johnson and Christensen (2008), means the common thinking among a community of researchers. The said thinking is guided by shared principles, practices, values and views. It is such common thinking which influences a community of researchers when they have to make decisions about the research problems that they have to investigate. As noted by Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner (2007), it is not only about the research problems, but the study design, research questions, methods of data collection and analysis including presentation of the results. A paradigm, therefore, refers to a whole framework of beliefs shared by a scientific community's views about the social world, what symbolises it, what ought to be investigated in it as well as appropriate research tools and techniques for such an investigation. Research paradigm, is about how research must be conducted (Pine, 2009).

According to Pine (2009), there are four major paradigms for conducting research. Those paradigms are empirical-positivistic-quantitative, constructivist-interpretive-qualitative, critical theory-postmodern-praxis and eclectic-mixed methods pragmatic. According to Johnson and Christensen (2008), empirical-positivistic-quantitative research paradigm uses confirmatory scientific methods which focus on variables and their relationship as well as hypothesis and theory testing. Empirical data is used to test the hypothesis and theory. However, constructivist-interpretive-qualitative research paradigm is more concerned with exploratory scientific methods to generate new hypotheses or theories. It is generally used to understand people's thoughts and experiences.

The critical theory-postmodern-praxis paradigm is a research approach that is concerned with how power, control as well as the nature, foundation, scope and validity of knowledge are used (Pine, 2009). It acknowledges that even the scientific investigations conducted by communities of researchers are sometimes just a political act because they are characterized by biases and

oppressive tendencies. Its major concern is that even social and policy research do not always promote fairness, objectivity and justice. This approach seeks to provide a framework which promotes objectivity in research. As a result, research projects conducted within this framework are seen as a force that intends to free people from powers of oppression through scientific investigation (Remler, & Van Ryzin, 2011). The eclectic-mixed methods pragmatic is regarded as the type of research where the researcher blends and applies both quantitative and qualitative research methods (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007). Similarly, Creswell (2009); define mixed methods research as a category of research in which the researcher collects and analyses both qualitative and quantitative data in a single study or the study of the same phenomenon with the intention of bringing a better understanding of the research problem. Bergman (2009: 53) summarises it by saying that it refers to “adopting a research employing more than one type of research method.” Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007) observed that the exponents of this paradigm regard it highly because the two methodologies complement each other. They, therefore, promote usage of thereof.

The first three paradigms discussed here seem to compete against each other, particularly qualitative and quantitative research paradigms. Each of them maintains that it produces a reliable, valid and trustworthy volume of knowledge compared to the others. As a result, each paradigm wants acknowledgment and pre-eminence in the field of research. It is on the basis of these assumptions that the proponents of qualitative methods see no value in quantitative methods and the other way round (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). Schwandt (2006) on the other hand, criticises this paradigm war because it does not add value to the world of scientific research and enquiry. The scholar rather supports proponents of eclectic-mixed methods pragmatic because they value the two research paradigms. Proponents of the mixed methods such as Creswell and Plano Clark value the two because instead of conflicting with one another, they are complementary. The researcher who use the mixed methods approach is able to use the strengths of one to make up for the shortcomings of the other (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner 2007).

As explained by Pine (2009), the eclectic-mixed methods pragmatic encourages triangulation, complementarity, development and expansion of research studies. This approach, therefore, helps researchers to view the world holistically compared to if they were to use one exclusive narrow approach which would limit their interpretations of the research problem. However,

scholars such as Howe (2004) and Guba and Lincoln (2005) are sceptical about the eclectic-mixed methods pragmatic because they believe in exclusivity as they argue that mixed methods can result in poor research projects. The scholars also argue that qualitative methodology is always relegated to a secondary methodology in mixed method studies. Among the four paradigms discussed above, the eclectic-mixed methods pragmatic commonly known as mixed methods seems not to be restrictive in terms of choice of research tools and methods. This paradigm allows the researcher to conduct an in-depth study through a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods and tools to understand the world fully (Creswell, 2013). This empowers the researcher to help the postmodern society to solve its problems. Unlike the other paradigms that operate from a purist paradigmatic approach, the mixed methods pragmatic methodology is flexible as it uses deduction and induction which allow researchers to deal with complex issues.

The nature of this study required realism and a combination of qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis methods. The use of mixed method research methodology, therefore, gave the researcher an opportunity to collect quantitative data in relation to the roles which CDPs play in the programme; the factors which impede CPD for CDPs, whether or not CPD is based on any policies as well as to determine if it covers the components which the practitioners should know. The success of this kind of a study required use of variety of methods that cut across various paradigms. The eclectic-mixed methods pragmatic came handy in this regard.

According to Creswell (2013), it is important to identify the strategy that is going to be employed in mixing the research methods. The scholar explains that the strategies that may be employed in mixed methods research include sequential explanatory, sequential exploratory, sequential transformative, concurrent embedded, concurrent transformative as well as concurrent triangulation. Among these strategies, the sequential exploratory strategy was used in this study thus allowing the researcher to collect qualitative data through content analysis which was used to guide the selection of appropriate variables and constructs required for designing a questionnaire meant for collecting quantitative data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Edmonds & Kennedy, 2012). Therefore, the contents of the policies, documents, reports and minutes in relation to the programme, principles, content and activities of CPD for the CDPs were analysed.

4.3 Research context

This study was conducted in South Africa, with a specific focus on the provincial Department of Social Development in North West. This department comprises directorates such as Social Welfare, Sustainable Livelihoods and Community Development. The latter is the directorate under which the CDPs operate. The directorate is further sub-divided into districts and service point offices.

It is important to note that the Department of Social Development does not have its own geographic boundaries. As a result, it used the local government's boundaries as determined by the Demarcation Board to demarcate its districts and local service points. CDPs are, therefore, employed either at provincial offices, district offices or local offices. For the purpose of this study only CDPs and their immediate managers were engaged.

The North West province occupies 76 495 km² of this country's land area and is mostly rural. Almost 65% of its people live in the rural areas out of a total population of 3 509 953. Unemployment (39%) is very rife in these rural areas (Statistics South Africa, 2012). What these figures imply is that the majority of the CDPs' clients reside in rural areas. This province has only four major towns. Its economy is dominated by the tourism, agricultural and mining sectors. These factors to some degree have contributed to the increase in the number of inward migrants. The number of the inward migrants has increased from 259 206 between 2006 and 2011 to 283 498 between 2011 and 2016. These are some of the challenges that the CDPs battle with in their endeavour to facilitate community development.

This study focuses on the continuing professional development of the CDPs which mainly encompasses learning that takes place during their tenure of employment. As a result, their educational background is key in this study. Community development in South Africa is currently facilitated by practitioners with diverse background yet this field requires skilled and qualified practitioners. Acknowledgement of this reality is demonstrated through the on-going professionalization of community development practice. Pre-service and CPD which are intended to enhance the performance of the CDPs are important components of this process. Consequently, the education of the CDPs remain the centre of this study.

4.4 Research method

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the CPD programme for CDPs in South Africa, North West province and propose an alternative framework. This is, therefore, evaluation research as explained in the previous chapter. Robson (2011) recommends evaluation research for a study whose purpose is to evaluate the performance of an intervention such as a CPD programme. Evaluation research method is relevant to this study as it revealed the programme's strengths, weaknesses, threats and opportunities in terms of its content, input, process and outcome. Factor analysis was used to determine those.

4.4.1 Factor analysis

Evaluating the CPD programme for CDPs was intended to determine what hinders its success, among others. Consequently, as advised by Robson (2011) rather than identifying a series of separate variables in order to interpret them, establishing clusters of highly related variables and reducing them to a number of factors makes it easy for the researcher to understand their correlation better. Therefore, factor analysis was used to identify a set of highly related variables and determine the factors which influenced the decisions to develop the existing CPD and those that hinder its success. As noted by Gorsuch (1983) and supported by Williams, Onsman and Brown (2010), between the two types of factor analysis which are Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), the former was used in this study. The model showing linear combination of factors is shown below in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 Model showing the linear combination of factors. Source: Rencher (2003)

$$\begin{aligned}
 y_1 &= \mu_1 + \lambda_{11}f_1 + \lambda_{12}f_2 + \dots + \lambda_{1m}f_m + \varepsilon_1 \\
 y_2 &= \mu_2 + \lambda_{21}f_1 + \lambda_{22}f_2 + \dots + \lambda_{2m}f_m + \varepsilon_2 \\
 y_p &= \mu_p + \lambda_{p1}f_1 + \lambda_{p2}f_2 + \dots + \lambda_{pm}f_m + \varepsilon_p
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

The models in (1) for the p variables can be combined in the single matrix expression

$$y = \mu + \Lambda f + \varepsilon \tag{2}$$

Where

$$y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_p), \mu = (\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_p), f = (f_1, f_2, \dots, f_m), \varepsilon = (\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, \dots, \varepsilon_p) \text{ and}$$

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{11} & \lambda_{12} & \dots & \lambda_{1m} \\ \lambda_{21} & \lambda_{22} & \dots & \lambda_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \lambda_{p1} & \lambda_{p2} & \dots & \lambda_{pm} \end{bmatrix}$$

4.4.2 Factor extraction

The Principal Component Method was used to extract the factors. However, given that the initial factors extracted through it were not easy to interpret, they were, therefore, rotated through the Orthogonal rotation method to attain simple factors which can be interpreted easily as recommended by Gorsuch (1983). Among the four Orthogonal rotation methods which are equamax, orthonomax, quartimax and varimax, equamax was used to rotate the factors (Zhang & Preacher, 2015).

4.5 Population of the study

According to Daniel (2012:9), a population refers to “the set of elements that one desires to apply the findings of the study.” A population can, therefore, be the total number of human beings, animals or objects among which the researcher conducts a study at a given time. These elements are, therefore, called population of the study. In this evaluation study, the population is human beings. Johnson and Christensen (2008) and Jackson (2008) also define population as a target group that is usually a large group, which cannot be studied directly; about whom the researcher wants to develop knowledge by generalizing the sample results. Babbie (2010:199) also views a population as “specified aggregation of the elements in a study.”

The population for this study was made up of CDPs, CD assistant managers, human resource manager and senior community development manager. In total, the population of CDPs for this study was 135 while CD assistant managers were 12. Together they made a total of 147. In addition to that, the senior community development manager and human resource manager took part in this study. The demographic characteristics of the population were the academic qualifications, age, gender, experience and occupation. According to the Skills Audit Report (Department of Social Development, 2010), there were more female CDPs in South Africa compared to males. With regard to qualifications, the same report showed that about 54% of CDPs country-wide did not have a CD qualification. The same report revealed that the average

age of CDPs in the country was 45. With regard to experience, almost 40% of them had more than 10 year-CD experience.

4.6 Sampling and sampling techniques

According to Daniel (2012), selecting research participants is very important in any study, therefore, caution must be exercised when making decisions about a sample. These scholars warn that a study may fail to reach its intended goals if representation is compromised. It is for this reason that these scholars suggest that the researcher must ensure that a proper plan is drawn for selecting the sample. Such a plan is called a sample design (Helleve, 2010). The purpose of the sample design is to familiarise the researcher with the characteristics of the population. Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007) define it as exemplification of the framework within which sampling befalls. de Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2011) also define a sample design as a scheme of work or working plan that clearly stipulates in detail the total population frame, sample size, sampling technique and sample selection process.

4.6.1 Sample size determination

Leedy and Ormrod (2010) define a sample as part of the survey group that is actually studied. As explained by de Vos *et al.* (2011) such a smaller group is drawn from the target population. It is from a sample that data is collected and conjectures are made pertaining to the larger population. Daniel (2012) also defines it as a subset of the studied population whose attributes could be generalised to the former. The size of such a subset of the population is important in the study as it contributes to the success of the study. Therefore, sample size determination is a critical process in a research project.

According to de Vos *et al.* (2011), there are various formulas that may be employed to determine an appropriate sample size. For example, there are formulas designed by Cochran (1975) as well Krejcie and Morgan (1970) respectively. The latter was utilised in this study. Krejcie and Morgan (1970) developed a table that gives an indication of the most appropriate and suitable sample size that must be selected for a particular population. However, the table does not make provision for an appropriate sample size for a total population of 135 which was the total population of CDPs for this study. The closest appropriate sample size was 103 as

suggested by Krejcie and Morgan (1970). The sample size of CDPs for this study was, therefore, 103. The sampling error for this sample was calculated at 5%. From a total population of 12 assistant CD managers, a quarter (4) of them took part in the study. As suggested by Sandelowski (1995), the sample size from which qualitative data is sourced should not be too large to make it difficult for the researcher to analyse data, neither should it be too small thus making it difficult to reach saturation. The assistant managers were interviewed and saturation was reached when the fourth one was interviewed as there was no new information that was coming forth.

With regard to the sample size for the focus group, the issue of the appropriate sample size for a focus group has been a bone of contention across disciplines (Onwuegbuzie, Dickinson, Leech & Zoran, 2009). Carlsen and Glenton (2011) in their study where they evaluated focus group researches observed that many studies have not justified their sample sizes. Although the study conducted by Sagoe (2012: 1) is about “precincts and prospects in the use of focus groups in social and behavioural science research” it does not bring forth the issue of the appropriate sample size. Onwuegbuzie *et al.* (2009) took note of suggestions of focus group comprising of five to six and four to twelve or six to twelve members made by Krueger and Casey (2009) and Kamberelis and Dimitriadis (2013). A focus group comprising of six to twelve members has also been endorsed by Johnson and Christensen (2004).

Having noted the observations by scholars such as Krueger and Casey (2009) and Kamberelis and Dimitriadis (2013), the focus group interviews for this study were held with CDPs who had been with the department for more than 10 years. Each focus group comprised 5 to 6 members who were selected purposively and recruited by the researcher. There seems to be no consensus among researchers about the number of the focus groups sessions (Sagoe, 2012). Rather saturation is regarded by many as a determining factor (Carlsen & Glenton, 2011). Thus each focus group interview session lasted for two hours. Sessions were held until data saturation was reached.

4.6.2 *Sample size adequacy results*

The success of any quantitative study is among others influenced by the size of the sample. Determining the appropriate sample size is very crucial in a quantitative study, emphasises

Bartlett, Kotrlik and Higgins (2001). Nayak (2010) further notes that neither a big nor a small sample size facilitates the success of the study but the most important aspect is adequacy. This section, therefore, presents sample adequacy test results for this study. The tests results are shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.669
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square
	8478.997
	Df
	3160
	Sig.
	.000

As shown on Table 4.1, the KMO measure was used for testing sampling adequacy and the Bartlett's test of Sphericity exhibit acceptable outcomes. Testing the appropriateness of the sample size for this study resulted into a value of 0.70 as shown on Table 4.1. Therefore, the sample size is viewed as appropriate. The KMO measure was used in conjunction with the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity to further test the suitability of factor analysis to this study. Factor analysis was found to be suitable as the test revealed a value of .000. These results are in accordance with the suggestion made by Blaha, Merydith, Waallbrown and Dowd (2001). Validity and reliability results are presented in the next section.

4.6.3 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Test

Even though Krejcie and Morgan's sampling size determination table was used to determine the appropriate sample size of the CDPs, a test was conducted to confirm the sample size adequacy. Testing the appropriateness of a sample size is a basic requirement for any study (Moroke & Mavetera, 2014). For this study the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test was used to test the appropriateness of the sample size of the CDPs among whom the quantitative data was sourced for this study. As suggested by Field (2013) it is necessary to test in advance if the sample size is adequate for reliable factor extraction. The following statistical equation as depicted in Figure 4.2 is used to describe the KMO test.

Figure 4.2 Statistical equation used to describe the KMO test. Source: Kaiser (1974)

$$\begin{aligned}
 KMO &= \frac{\sum (\text{correlations})^2}{\sum (\text{correlations})^2 + \sum (\text{partial correlations})^2} \\
 &= \frac{\sum_{i \neq j} r_{ij}^2}{\sum_{i \neq j} r_{ij}^2 + \sum_{i \neq j} a_{ij}^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

Where:

r_{ij} = Pearson correlation between items i and j
 a_{ij} = partial correlation coefficient between items i and j

As explained by Fields (2005) KMO value that is between 0.5 and 1 is regarded as appropriate for factor analysis because it means that the patterns of correlations are compact. Thus it is likely to produce discrete and reliable results. Kaiser (1974) further explains that KMO values which are between 1 and 9 are marvellous but anything below 0.5 is unacceptable. The results for this study are presented in the next chapter. The KMO test was used in conjunction with the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity.

4.6.4 The Bartlett's test for Sphericity

Williams, Onsman, and Brown, (2010) point out that before factor extraction can be conducted, a number of tests should be conducted to determine the appropriateness of the data for factor analysis. One way of doing it is to check singularity of the constructs. In this study, the Bartlett's test of Sphericity was used for this purpose. For factor analysis to be suitable, the Bartlett's test of Sphericity should be less than <0.05. The formula that describes the Bartlett's test is shown in Figure 4.3 as follows:

Figure 4.3 Formula for Bartlett's test. Source: Kaiser (1974)

$$\chi^2 = - \left[(n-1) - \frac{1}{6} \left(2p + 1 + \frac{2}{p} \right) \right] \left[\ln S + p \ln \left(\frac{1}{p} \right) \sum \lambda_i \right]$$

Where:

p = number of variables

k = number of factors

λ_i = i th eigenvalue of the sample covariance matrix

$$df = (p - 1)(p - 2) / 2$$

The results of the test for this study are presented in the next chapter.

4.6.5 Sampling technique

Sampling is important in a study because it is economic, time-saving, effective, necessary, but gives detailed information (Daniel, 2012) especially if handled correctly. de Vos *et al.* (2011) define sampling as a process of selecting a predetermined appropriate percentage or ration of a larger population as a representative of that particular population.

According to Gray (2014), there are seven sampling methods which are divided into probability and non-probability. The former are simple random, systematic, stratified and cluster. On the other hand, non-probability sampling methods include accidental, purposive and quota. In this study, the probability sampling method called simple random sampling was utilised to select 103 CDPs. The lottery technique was used to select the 103 respondents (Bless *et al.*, 2013). This technique is less complicated and easy to apply.

The updated list of the target population was sourced from relevant departments through their approved protocols. The lottery technique was applied by assigning a number to each unit of the population. The number represents the names of the CDPs (Bless *et al.*, 2013). They were written on papers of the same size, shape and colour and folded the same way then put in a basket. Papers bearing the numbers were randomly picked while continuously mixing the papers until 103 was reached. The 103 CDPs whose numbers were picked up constituted the sample for this study. Purposive sampling was used to identify the human resource manager and senior community development manager as well as four assistant managers as they have been in those positions for more than four years and were directly involved in the CPD programme. A total of 26 CDPs who were also selected purposively on the basis of their experience took part in the focus group interviews. These are officials who have been with the Department of Social Development for ten years (Bless *et al.*, 2013).

4.7 Data collection techniques

Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (2010) explain that even though appropriate methodologies and instruments may be used in a study if the data itself is inappropriate, the study may not achieve the set objectives. To avoid this, Blaxter *et al.* (2010) advise that careful consideration must be made when determining the appropriateness of the instruments to be used in gathering data. Data collection, therefore, refers to the systematic gathering of information relevant to the research topic. Such information could be in the form of words, numbers, pictures or artefacts. Data may either be primary or secondary (Remler, & Van Ryzin, 2011).

As explained by Bless *et al.* (2013), research instruments are tools designed to collect data from the research participants. The same scholars explain that the most common research tools are observations, interviews, content analysis and questionnaire. Among these four, content analysis, focus group interviews, non-scheduled structured face to face interviews and a questionnaire were used to collect data. The use of these varied instruments gave the researcher an opportunity to triangulate the data to ensure validity and trustworthiness. The data collection tools for this study were evaluated by experts in the fields of CPD and CD. Feedback was used to improve the tools.

4.7.1 Questionnaire

A questionnaire refers to a self-report data collection tool that comprises standardised series of questions relating to the research question that must be responded to by the research participant (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). In the same breath, a questionnaire is defined by Babbie (2011) as a group of questions designed to solicit information from the targeted research respondents in relation to a specific research problem. This instrument can be used with any research paradigm. A questionnaire may comprise open or close-ended questions. The most important strength of a questionnaire is that it is less expensive compared to the interview with respect to sampling and data collection. Be that as it may, its weakness is that it does not offer the researcher an opportunity to ask probing questions. As a result, opportunities to modify questions are non-existent in a questionnaire. This was mitigated by subjecting the questionnaire to scrutiny by the experts before the instrument was administered to the research participants.

In this study, a questionnaire was used to collect data from the CDPs. The first section gathered demographic data of the respondents which included gender, age, academic qualifications as well as position and experience in community development practice. The second section had 80 items which were meant to elicit information on the CPD for the CDPs with the view of determining its significance. The items were determined on the basis of the research questions and Stufflebean's CIPP model. They were divided into four sub-sections which were mainly the research questions for this study. Each item was rated on a five point Likert-type scale to determine the level of agreement to the provided statements as recommended by de Winter and Dodou (2012). Hakan and Seval (2011) also support the use of five-point Likert scale in a programme evaluation study. The levels used were arranged as follows:

- 5= Strongly agree (SA)
- 4=Agree (A)
- 3=Undecided (U)
- 2=Disagree (D)
- 1=Strongly disagree (SD)

4.7.2 Interview

Empirical data for any research project may be collected through the use of an interview (Jamshed, 2014). An interview refers to a direct personal contact between the researcher and the research participants or respondents. The researcher may be the interviewer while the participant is regarded as the interviewee. The interviewer asks questions which are responded to by the interviewee. An interview can take place through non-scheduled unstructured, non-scheduled structured, scheduled structured, self-administered and mailed questionnaire or focus group interview (Gray, 2014).

The non-scheduled structured interview was used to collect data from the four community development managers. A set of open-ended questions were prepared with the provision that should a need arise, more or probing questions would be asked during the interview as recommended by Bless *et al.* (2013). The questions specifically focused on the context, input, process and product of the CPD programme for the CDPs.

4.7.3 Focus group interviews

The focus group interviews were used to gather qualitative data to further explore the roles of the practitioners in the CPD, problems associated with the programme implementation and the usefulness of the programme to the practitioners. A focus group interview is a semi structured group discussion that may comprise of about five to 15 participants who discuss a particular topic under the guidance of a facilitator or moderator with the use of a list of predetermined questions (Babbie, 2011). A focus group interview allows the research participants to discuss a particular topic freely-thus sharing knowledge and even enlightening those who did not have much information (de Vos *et al.*, 2011). Bless *et al.* (2013) reckon that it is a cheaper and quicker way of gathering data from a group of people at the same time. Sagoe (2012: 2) recommends a focus group interview for an evaluation study such as this one because it allows the researcher to use it as “an idea generation tool, for complementing quantitative and qualitative research methods” in determining whether or not the programme is successful and effective. Carlsen and Glenton (2011) share the same sentiment on the basis of their observation that it has been used in the evaluation of many health programmes.

The focus group interview was held with 26 CDPs who had been in the field for more than ten years. Onwuegbuzie *et al.* (2009) urge facilitators or interviewees to endeavour to create socially oriented and favourable setting for focus group members. Consequently, the interviewer created a tolerant and encouraging environment such that participants could be motivated to share viewpoints, experiences and concerns without feeling prejudiced (de Vos *et al.*, 2011). The interviewer ensured that the discussion remained on track thus ascertaining that no issues were omitted as recommended by Sagoe (2012). In instances where hindrances such as domination by a participant were detected, the interviewer motivated and encouraged other participants to take part in the discussion.

4.7.4 Content analysis

This study involved analysis of the content and structure of CPD programme for CDPs. Leedy and Ormrod (2010: 144) define content analysis as “a detailed examination of the contents of a particular body of material for the purpose of identifying patterns, themes, or biases.” It is clear from this definition that there is a procedure followed when studying and analysing

content. Similarly, Holsti (1969: 14) defines it as “any technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages.” Furthermore, the same scholars regard content analysis as a systematic study of qualitative data whose purpose is to identify and recapitulate message content. It can, therefore, be used when studying diaries, journals, survey open-ended questions, focus group discussions and interviews, texts or any form of communication (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010).

In view of the above, the content of the official documents such as Community Development Toolkit, Professional Development Plan (hereafter, PDP), staff induction manual as well as human resource policies, minutes and reports of the North West provincial Department of Social Development on CPD and the performance and skills audit reports on CDPs was analysed. Makunye and Pelsler (2012) advise that such documents provide factual information about the subject under study. The documents were reviewed in relation to the four evaluation focus areas as suggested by Stufflebeam’s CIPP model (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). This assisted in determining how the programme performed given the circumstances that prevailed. The review was also intended to assist in establishing the need for the programme and whether or not it entailed what the practitioners should achieve. Furthermore, relevant policies were analysed to determine if the content and the practice of CPD for CDPs was in line with such policies. The process was conducted prior to collection of data from the research participants in order to identify the variables pertinent for formulation of quantitative questions. Furthermore, as recommended by Moran, Budd, Allen and Williamson (2014) the printed information pertaining to the programme was used to corroborate the data acquired through a questionnaire and interviews.

4.8 Ensuring Validity and Reliability

Quality assurance is an important element in every scientific study (Jackson, 2008; Maxwell, 2012). Among others, ensuring validity and reliability contribute to quality assurance. This section, therefore, presents how validity and reliability were ensured in this study.

4.8.1 Validity

The results of a research study are found acceptable if the study established what it intended to. It is only when the study achieved its intended outcome that it can be regarded as valid. Validity is, therefore, a signal of how well the research study was conducted. Johnson and Christensen (2008) define validity as the correctness of the variables, interpretations, inferences, measuring instrument, research design, research findings and the entire research project. Validity is, therefore, an important element in the research study, should it be tarnished the study may be declared invalid. It is for this reason that all factors that threaten validity in a research study are controlled or eliminated (Arthur *et al.*, 2012).

In order to eliminate the factors that could threaten the validity of this study, the researcher used content analysis, questionnaire, focus group interviews and non-structured face to face interviews to collect empirical evidence in order to make comparisons, and extrapolations thus facilitating the interpretation of the results. The validation process also included thorough scrutiny of the questionnaire and interview questions by experts and experienced practitioners in the field of CPD and CD.

This study evaluated CPD of CDPs. Only people with more than ten years in CPD and community development practice, teaching or research were selected to validate the instruments. The validation team comprised:

- Four CDPs
- Four CD supervisors
- Two CD researchers/academics
- Two CPD researchers/academics
- Two Statisticians

A total number of 14 people were involved in the validation process. They specifically focused on face and content validity (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). With regard to face validity they were requested to establish if the questions are simple, clear and not clumsy. Content validity was determined by establishing if the items evaluated the programme in terms of its content, input, process and outcome. Inputs from the validation team were considered especially in all items where more than 75% of them agreed.

4.8.2 Internal consistency and reliability

According to Nakkiran and Ramesh (2009, 213), reliability refers to “the ability of a measuring instrument to give accurate and consistent result.” It may, therefore, be understood as the degree to which a measuring device produces the same results even if it is used under the same conditions several times. It is about accuracy, uniformity and stability of test scores (Babbie, 2010). Therefore, if a measuring device is used to measure an unchanging value but produces different results, its reliability is low. Choice of a measuring device in a study research must be done correctly to ensure that it is dependable, trustworthy and consistent. Testing such devices before the actual use, consequently, remains paramount.

Testing the reliability of an instrument can be done manually or with the use of computer programmes. Conducting a reliability test manually is complicated and strenuous. Using computer programmes is less complicated, cost effective and is likely to produce reliable results especially if applied accordingly. Cronbach’s alpha was chosen for this study because of its ability to use multi-item scales at the interval level of measurement (Moroke & Mavetera, 2014). It is more appropriate when testing the reliability of the constructs and consistency of the questions asked (Jackson, 2008).

The factor analysis procedure requires homogeneity among the variables. To achieve this, as noted by Moroke and Mavetera (2014), there should be correlation between the variables. The Cronbach’s alpha was used to test the internal consistency of the items and reliability of the constructs in this study as shown in Table 4.2. This establishes how well a set of items measures a unidimensional concept. This method uses a scale of 0 to 1 to estimate the reliability of an instrument. The values close to the 0 imply that items forming a construct do not measure it while those close to the latter (1) measure the same construct (Cronbach & Shavelson, 2004). The test outcome of a value which is less than 0.7 demonstrates a poor reliability coefficient but the one which is between 8 and 9 is regarded as good. Lastly, the test outcome of a value which is greater than 9 is excellent (Chrismann & van Aelst, 2006).

Table 4.2 Internal consistency of the items

Cronbach’s Alpha	Cronbach’s Alpha based	Number of items
.969	.970	80

The Cronbach's alpha was computed for all the 80 variables and the results of the calculations as shown on Table 4.2 indicate that the overall Cronbach's alpha is .969. This alpha is greater than 0.9 which is regarded as excellent by Cronbach and Shevelson (2004). The outcome indicates that there is a strong internal consistency among the 80 items. This shows that the items in the questionnaire are consistent and can be used for further analyses.

4.8.3 The correlation matrix

Factor analysis requires a description of the variation among a large number of unobservable random measures called factors (Johnson & Wichern, 2008). The process of analysing the factors is therefore guided by determining the correlation between them as noted by Moroke and Mavetera (2014). That is, to check if there is a correlation between them. The analysis was guided by the rule of thumb suggested by Norusis (1993) which says that more than 50% of the correlations should be equal to or greater than 0.3. This suggests that the correlation between factors is significant.

This study therefore, used Pearson's correlation coefficient to measure the extent of the relationship between the factors. The coefficient illustrates the strength of the relationship between the factors. The greater the scale of the coefficient, the stronger the relationship between the factors. The direction of the relationship between the constructs is indicated by the sign of the coefficient. The Pearson's correlations coefficient was compared with the p-value of 5%. If the p-value is greater than 5% then the correlation between the factors is insignificant (Pearson in Hauke & Kossowski, 2011). The results of the factor correlation for this study are presented in the next chapter.

4.9 Access and ethical considerations

All scientific studies involve or impact upon either human beings, animals or the environment. Such studies may be conducted under legal, social, economic or political settings or disciplines which may influence their studies. As explained by Maxwell (2012), it is essential that the research work demonstrate that the researcher acknowledges, appreciates and understands ethical issues as well as their implication. Such judgment is guided by ethical standards which may be universal or discipline, culture or locality specific. However, it has to be noted that

ethics used to be associated with biomedical studies but since the post second world war era, all researchers need to observe ethical standards when conducting scientific investigations (Jackson, 2008). Institutions of higher learning subject research projects conducted under their auspices to ethical code of conduct and have committees who coordinate such work. This study was, therefore, subjected to the university's code of ethics and ethical clearance was obtained as indicated on appendix A (Ethical approval certificate). In addition to that, the Constitution Act no. 108 of 1996 of the Republic of South Africa guarantees all citizens' respect for basic human right as promulgated in the Bill of Rights (Department of Constitutional and Provincial Affairs, 1996). Permission was requested and received from the Department of Social Development to conduct this study. As a consequence, the researcher observed the research participants' basic human rights.

Ethical considerations are an important part of a scientific study because it influences its research design (Punch, 2009). The researcher ought to be mindful of ethical considerations even when selecting a topic and making decisions about the choice of research approach. Jackson (2008) also holds the view that ethical considerations are significant in a scientific study because their sole purpose is to ensure that the research participants and researchers are protected. As argued by Bless *et al.* (2013), being considerate of ethics in research assists the researcher evades abuse of human rights and any risky behaviour that may threaten the success of a study. They guide and control the behaviour of researchers because they encourage them to value integrity, impartiality and respect as well as to handle research participants and data or evidence with the highest of ethical standards. Majority of scholars (Punch, 2009; Jackson, 2008; Bless *et al.*, 2013) highlighted harm, deception, privacy, anonymity, confidentiality and consent as major ethical issues.

In view of the above-discussion, the following were done to ensure compliance with the university code of ethics as recommended by Babbie (2011).

- Approval of the research proposal was sought with NWU ethics committee as well as relevant authorities in the North West provincial Department of Social Development where the study was conducted. Furthermore, Existing networks were used to facilitate access as advised by Ridley (2012).
- Respondents were fully informed about the research including but not limited to its purpose as well as how the results would be distributed.

- Written and signed consent were sought with research participants.
- Private and personal affairs of research participants were be avoided.
- Anonymity was kept (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2010). The identity of the research participants and the information that they gave were kept confidential and not divulged to anyone. Guarantee for anonymity and confidentiality was clearly explained in the covering letter on each questionnaire. Such a letter gave detailed explanation of the purpose of the study, guidance on completion of the questionnaire as well as what the research participants had to do with the completed questionnaire (Refer to Appendix B). With regard to face-to-face interviews and focus group interviews, respondents were guaranteed these prior to each session (Refer to Appendix C, D and E).
- During interviews privacy was ensured by holding them in enclosed spaces and the doors were also closed. No other person except the interviewer and interviewee were allowed in the room.
- Elements of the research project that could pose physical, mental or legal harm to the research participants were avoided.
- Research records were kept safely. Written ones were kept in a locked cupboard at all times while electronic ones were saved in a password protected computer. Not only that, but the document also required a password.
- Participation was voluntary. No one was forced to participate in the study.

4.10 Measures to ensure trustworthiness

Assuring quality and trustworthiness in the qualitative data is as equally important as is in the quantitative data suggest (Plano Clark & Ivankova, 2015). Similarly, Williams and Morrow (2009) explain that researchers are obliged to demonstrate the trustworthiness of their research findings by sharing with the research community and consumers a clear description of their research tools, procedures and methods. Trustworthiness is regarded by Bless *et al.* (2013) as the extent to which the research process and findings can be trusted. Lincoln and Guba (1985) put forward the criteria to assess the goodness and trustworthiness of the research process and findings. Trustworthiness in this study was ensured by adhering to the criteria comprising of credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability as suggested by Lincoln (1995). A description of how the criteria was applied follows.

4.10.1 *Credibility*

According to Nieuwenhuis (2016), credibility is achieved if the findings of the study are congruent with reality and thus believable. To accomplish this, Lincoln (1995) suggested a set of strategies which include prolonged engagement, triangulation, observation, member checking and peer debriefing. This study was subjected to this quality assurance measure. Bless *et al.* (2013) note that credibility can be achieved if the research design, questions and data collection and analysis methods are suitable to one another. As recommended by Barnard *et al.* (2008), all the steps of conducting this evaluation study including but not limited to the background, research design and methodology, data collection; storage and analysis and ethics were subjected to review by a panel of experts whose input was incorporated into this study. Verbatim extracts from the participants are also presented to exemplify the voices of the participants as suggested by Williams and Morrow (2009) instead of grouping them together and not allowing participants to speak for themselves.

Methodological triangulation by gathering data through a quantitative questionnaire which was corroborated and compared with the data sourced from programme documents and experienced CDPs and managers assisted in assuring credibility of the data (Williams & Morrow, 2009). Collection and analysis of qualitative data following the quantitative data helped in closing the gaps that were left by the latter thus provided the researcher with credible data with which research questions were answered. Therefore, focus group interviews with CDPs who have more than ten years of experience in the field and interviews with managers provided the researcher with rich information pertaining to the strengths, weaknesses and opportunities in the CPD programme for CDPs. The use of these multiple sources of information made the researcher to remain in the field until no new categories and themes were coming up (Williams & Morrow, 2000). During data interpretation and analysis the tape recorded interviews and transcripts were listened to and read repeatedly to ensure understanding of the perceptions of the participants (Loh, 2013)

The researcher's extended engagement in the field for the purposes of familiarity with the context and circumstances is highly recommended by Bhattacharjee (2012) as a good measure of ensuring credibility. Consequently, prior to data collection the researcher engaged with the CDPs populace in their working environment for both to get acquainted to each other thus

building a rapport and trust. As the engagement continued, rapport and trust developed thus allowing the researcher to stay longer in the field gathering rich and valuable data in relation to CPD for the CDPs (Bhattacharjee, 2012). Consistent with support for member's check as suggested by Wong and Ng (2008), the quality of the data in this study was ensured by subjecting it and the research findings to scrutiny by the research participants. This was done through continued sessions with the research participants to discuss and verify the data and research findings. Further to that, credibility was ensured through peer debriefing whereby the senior and experienced researchers in the field of CPD and CD who were never involved with this study reviewed the research findings (Williams & Morrow, 2009). Feedback from the research participants and reviewers was considered and used to further improve the study.

4.10.2 Transferability

Qualitative, unlike quantitative studies, do not necessarily provide researchers with an opportunity for generalization since randomly selected cases are not recommended in the latter as noted by Plano Clark and Ivankova (2015). Maxfield and Babbie (2016) support this view and add that it is not easy to duplicate qualitative studies because in such studies representative samples are never used. Rather, Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggested that in qualitative studies the construct of transferability should be applied. Bhattacharjee (2012) conceptualises transferability as the extent to which the researcher is able to provide a rich and detailed description of the research with respect to the context, assumptions, data collection and relationship between the researcher and research participants. The availability of such rich information allows other researchers to determine similarities and differences between the study under discussion and the others (Bless *et al.*, 2013).

Transferability in this study was achieved by giving a thorough description of the setting and boundaries of the study. The process and procedure of selecting the research participants and respondents were clearly explained. The data collection, analysis and observation of the research ethics were clearly outlined. Consequently, the other researchers can read the findings of this study with the aim of determining similarities and differences between them and those of the other studies.

4.10.3 Dependability

Dependability and credibility are closely related, noted Lincoln and Guba (1985). Therefore, Nieuwenhuis (2016) explains that credible results to a greater extent ensure dependability. Bless *et al.* (2013) thus hold that to achieve dependability, a researcher ought to choose and justify the research strategy for a particular research project. Bless *et al.* (2013) warn that failure to provide a detailed explanation in relation to sampling and data collection, recording, coding and analysis may cast doubt on the results thus the reader may not find them trustworthy. This even requires researchers to communicate any changes that may have occurred during the course of the study.

In this study, dependability was ensured by proposing a detailed research process which included sampling, instruments, data collection, recording and analysis. These were subjected to scrutiny by a panel of experts whose advice was incorporated into the study to ensure trustworthiness as suggested by Bhattacharjee (2012). Purposive sampling was used to identify the interviewees on the basis of the knowledge of the job and the years of experience they have in those positions.

4.10.4 Conformability

According to Bhattacharjee (2012), conformability refers to the extent to which an independent researcher can apply a similar research process in the same context and obtain similar findings. For this to happen the researcher should provide detailed information about the methodology (Bless *et al.*, 2013). The scholar, Bhattacharjee (2012), further explains that conformability relates to the extent to which the findings of the study provide a true reflection of the views of the research participants. That is, the participants agree with the interpretation and inferences of their lived experiences made by the researcher.

The details of the research process which include the significance, justification, ethics, statement of the problem, sampling and data collection and analysis have been provided at length in chapters 1, 3 and 4 to give the full description of the background of this study. In order to further determine conformability of the research findings for this study, the researcher

shared the data, codes and the research findings with the research participants such that they can determine the correctness thereof.

4.11 Data analysis

According to Nakkiran and Ramesh (2009), the raw data that has been collected by the researcher is meaningless until such time that it is analysed and interpreted. Analysis of data, therefore, requires that the researcher must have a thorough understanding of the study orientation. This allows the researcher to make a systematic analysis of the data features, consistent patterns, inter-relationships, causes and connections and thus make valid generalisations. The success of such a systematic exercise depends on the appropriateness of the method. It is, therefore, important that the researcher chooses the appropriate data analysis method.

As explained by Six and Bellamy (2012), data analysis in mixed methods research is guided by the data collection strategy as well as the type of data that has been collected. In most instances it involves identifying important and relevant patterns, formulating themes, statistical analysis as well theory testing. Creswell (2009) explains that this process can be done through the use of statistical procedures, qualitative analysis techniques and content analysis. In this study, given that the sequential exploratory strategy was used, quantitative data was analysed first and followed by qualitative data analysis.

The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was used as a tool to analyse quantitative data responding to the research questions. Descriptive and exploratory methods were used to interpret the data. Specifically, descriptive statistics were used to summarise the demographic characteristics of the respondents and the responses. The statistical method called factor analysis was applied to examine the relationship among the variables in order to determine if the variables could be described by unnoticeable representations called factors as recommended by Moroke and Mavetera (2014). Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was used to establish if there are commonalities among the responses given by the respondents and to support the validity and reliability of the study as suggested by De Winter, Dodou and Wieringa (2009). The results are presented under the research questions in the next chapter. With regard to the qualitative data, it was analysed descriptively. As suggested by Nieuwenhuis (2016), the

researcher transcribed the data sourced from the participants. At the end there were three sets of data, one being data sourced through focus group interviews with CDPs, and the others were sourced from the interviews held with provincial managers and assistant managers based at the service points. The researcher familiarised herself with the data by repeatedly listening to the tape-recorded interviews and reviewing the transcriptions as suggested by Barnard, Schrink and De Beer (2008).

The process was followed by a cyclical process of examining, reading and reflecting on each set of data which allowed the researcher to put together associated data in order to examine similar and different patterns that emerged. This open coding process continued until all the data was segmented. Assigning the codes to the data allowed the researcher to break it into meaningful fragments. Subsequently, as suggested by Nieuwenhuis (2016) the initial codes were reapplied to the similar segments of the data which the same scholars refer to as *in vivo* coding. During the coding process, the researcher allowed the codes to emerge from the data. These codes, Creswell (2016), identify as inductive codes. These codes were continuously compared among themselves and the literature.

Continuous reflection on the explanatory notes and memos assisted in the conceptualisation of the categories from the list of the codes that emerged as recommended by Barnard *et al.* (2008). As suggested by Barnard *et al.* (2008), in order to ensure quality, the field notes, memos and categories were compared to the original data sets. As the data analysis process evolved, the categories were compared among themselves, to the existing literature and the research questions. The interpretations were built from the themes by making sense of what is contained in the categories and codes. The themes that emerged from the data were then used to present the results as suggested by Creswell (2016).

Once the two sets of data were available, the qualitative responses were used to augment and clarify complex or contradictory quantitative responses. Similarities and differences between the two sets are also presented in the next chapter.

4.12 Summary

This section presented the process and steps followed when conducting this study. While there are qualitative and quantitative studies conducted in CPD, this is a mixed method research project. It involved collection of data through focus group interviews, questionnaire and content analysis. The sequential exploratory strategy was used where in the collection and analysis of quantitative data was followed by those of qualitative data. While qualitative data was analysed descriptively, SPSS was used to analyse quantitative data. Collection and processing of data were done in accordance with the university's ethics policy.

The next chapter focuses on data presentation and analysis.

CHAPTER 5

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the study that aimed at determining the usefulness of the CPD programme for CDPs in the Department of Social Development in the North West province. The specific research questions addressed in this study are:

- a. What are the trends and circumstances that influenced the decision to run a CPD programme for CDPs?
- b. What determines the relevance and adequacy of what was put in place in preparation for implementing a CPD programme for CDPs?
- c. To what extent is the overall design and implementation process of the CPD programme for CDPs appropriate to achieve the stated objectives? and
- d. What is the evidence of achievements and to what extent are they aligned to the programme objectives?

This is a mixed methods study which used sequential exploratory techniques to collect and analyse quantitative and qualitative data. Content analysis was used to interpret the data in the programme documents. The results of this content analysis guided the identification of the variables used in developing the questionnaire. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences version 22 (hereafter, SPSS) was used to analyse the data collected through the questionnaire. The said data is presented in tables and percentages in this chapter.

The data collected through interviews held with assistant managers, the senior community development manager and human resource manager was analysed descriptively and presented thematically under each of the relevant research questions. Lastly, the data collected through focus group interviews held with the CDPs was analysed descriptively and presented under the themes that emerged during interpretation and analysis. The data is analysed and presented in view of the existing literature. The results of the study are presented in two sections. The preliminary results which include the response rate and the demographic profile of the

respondents are presented in section A. Section B subsequently focuses on the presentation of the primary results of the study.

Section A

5.2 Preliminary results

This section presents the response rate and the demographic profiles of the respondents.

5.2.1 Response rate

One hundred and three (103) respondents were randomly selected from a total population of 135 CDPs employed in the Department of Social Development in the North West province. The questionnaire was administered by the researcher. A response rate of 100% was obtained which means that all the 103 questionnaires which were distributed were returned.

Table 5.1 below shows the response rate.

Table 5.1 Response rate

	Frequency	Percentage
Response	103	100%
Non response	0	0%
Total	103	100%

5.2.2 Demographic profile of the respondents

This section addresses the first research question which is “what are the trends and circumstances that influenced the decision to run a continuing professional development programme for CDPs?” It gives the social characteristics of the research participants which are used to determine the circumstances that influenced the decision to introduce the CPD programme for CDPs. The study sought to establish gender, age group, position, work experience and qualifications of the CDPs.

The results are presented in Tables 5.2 to 5.6 below:

5.2.2.1 Distribution of the respondents by gender

The distribution of the respondents by gender are presented in Table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2 Gender of the respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Female	75	72.8
Male	28	27.2
Total	103	100%

The data in Table 5.2 shows that there were more female CDPs (72.8%) compared to males (27.2%) who participated in this study. Given that this study involved more than 80% of the CDPs employed in the North-West province and the majority of the participants were female, it implies that there were more female practitioners. These statistics conform to those of the 2011 population census which show that females are in the majority both in South Africa and the North West province (Statistics South Africa, 2012).

5.2.2.2 Distribution of the respondents by age

The distribution of the respondents by age is shown on Table 5.3 below.

Table 5.3 Age of the respondents

Age	Frequency	Percentage
25-34 years	35	33.9 %
35-44 years	39	37.8 %
45-54 years	21	20.3%
55 years and above	8	7.7 %
Total	103	100 %

With regards to age, the majority of the respondents (37.8%) are aged between 35 and 44 years while those aged between 45 and 54 years accounted for 20.3% of the CDPs. Young CDPs amounted to slightly above 33.9% of the respondents in this study. This does not come as a surprise because the 2015 youth labour statistics released by Statistics South Africa (2015) revealed that there has been an increase in youth unemployment and participation in the economy since the 2008 economic recession.

5.2.2.3 Distribution of the respondents by work experience

The distribution of the respondents by work experience is presented in Table 5.4 below.

Table 5.4 Work experience of the respondents

Work experience	Frequency	Percentage
0-5 years	55	53.4%
6-10 years	39	37.9%
16-20 years	5	4.9%
21 years and above	1	1.0%
Total	103	100%

It is evident from the data presented in Table 5.4 that the majority of the respondents (53.4%) have been with the department for five years or less. This figure is followed by those who have some work experience which ranges between 6 and 10 years. They make up 37.9% of the respondents. The data shows that it was only 3.9% of the respondents with work experience of more than 16 years, indicating that the experience in terms of years of service is somewhat constrained. While the department employed assistant CDPs and CDPs, only the latter were involved in this study.

The assistant CDPs were not involved in this study as they are mostly interns who serve a department for a period of a year.

5.2.2.4 Distribution of the respondents by qualification

The distribution of the research participants by educational qualifications is presented in Table 5.5 below.

Table 5.5 Educational qualifications of the respondents

Educational qualification	Frequency	Percentage
Matric or equivalent	1	1.0%
Diploma	11	10.7%
Degree	52	50.5%
Honours degree	38	36.9%
Master's degree	1	1.0 %
Total	103	100%

It is evident from the data presented in Table 5.5 that all the respondents had Grade 12 qualification. This confirms the findings by Statistics South Africa (2012) that the figures of people aged 20 and above in the North West province that have Grade 12 grew from 18.1% in 2001 to 25.11% in 2011. However, with regards higher educational qualifications the study revealed a situation which is totally different from the province's general indicators. While Statistics South Africa (2012) reported in the 2011 population census that the North West province has the lowest percentage of people with higher education qualifications, this study revealed that 99% of the respondents have higher education qualifications. To be precise, among the 103 respondents 10.7% had a Diploma, 50.5% held a Bachelor's degree, 36.9% were Honours graduates albeit there is only 1% with a Master's degree.

The qualifications which the CDPs in South Africa hold have been a bone of contention for many years. Scholars such as Swanepoel (1997), Mulwa (2012), Mendes (2008) and the United Nations 1963 in Awortwi (2013) raised serious concerns that the current CDPs lack practical and theoretical knowledge required in community development practice. That necessitated the analysis of the subjects in which the current cohort of CDPs specialised in as this would facilitate the researcher's understanding of the circumstances which influenced the decision to

offer the current CPD for CDPs. It is therefore not sufficient to only know that CDPs have degrees and diplomas whereas the area of specialisation is unknown.

The next section presents the disciplines that the participants specialized in through their training.

5.2.2.5 Distribution of the respondents by the subject of specialisation

The table below presents the subjects which the CDPs specialised in.

Table 5.6 Specialisation * Highest qualifications Cross tabulation

Specialisation		Highest qualifications					Total
		Matric equivalent	or Diploma	Degree	Honours	Masters	
Admin	Count	0	0	1	0	0	1
	% within Specialisation	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
B Tech	Count	0	0	1	0	0	1
	% within Specialisation	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Commercial admin	Count	0	1	0	0	0	1
	% within Specialisation	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Community Dev	Count	0	5	0	0	0	5
	% within Specialisation	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Development Stud	Count	1	0	14	14	0	29
	% within Specialisation	3.4%	0.0%	48.3%	48.3%	0.0%	100.0%
IKS	Count	0	0	0	1	0	1
	% within Specialisation	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Industrial Psychology	Count	0	0	0	1	0	1
	% within Specialisation	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Industrial Soc	Count	0	0	4	0	0	4
	% within Specialisation	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Land Reform	Count	0	0	3	1	0	4
	% within Specialisation	0.0%	0.0%	75.0%	25.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Management	Count	0	0	0	1	0	1
	% within Specialisation	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
No Ind	Count	0	2	6	8	1	17
	% within Specialisation	0.0%	11.8%	35.3%	47.1%	5.12%	100.0%
Nursing	Count	0	1	0	0	0	1
	% within Specialisation	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Population Stud	Count	0	0	1	5	0	6
	% within Specialisation	0.0%	0.0%	16.7%	83.3%	0.0%	100.0%
Psychology	Count	0	0	5	0	0	5
	% within Specialisation	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Public Admin	Count	0	1	2	1	0	4
	% within Specialisation	0.0%	25.0%	50.0%	25.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Public Admin and Gov.	Count	0	0	0	1	0	1
	% within Specialisation	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Public Man and Gov.	Count	0	1	1	4	0	6
	% within Specialisation	0.0%	16.7%	16.7%	66.7%	0.0%	100.0%
Social Science	Count	0	0	12	0	0	12
	% within Specialisation	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Social Work	Count	0	0	0	1	0	1
	% within Specialisation	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Sociology	Count	0	0	2	0	0	2
	% within Specialisation	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Total	Count	1	11	52	38	1	103
	% within Specialisation	1.0%	10.7%	50.5%	36.9%	1.0%	100.0%

It would be observed in Table 5.6 that the majority of the respondents (29%) are Development Studies graduates. Those with a Bachelor's and Honours degree in Development Studies constituted 48.3% each as indicated in Table 5.7 while only 3.4% hold a post matric certificate. The second highest qualified respondents (12%) held a Bachelor's degree in Social Science. This figure is followed by holders of qualifications in Public Administration and Governance (6%) as well as Population Studies Bachelor's degree graduates (6%). About 66.7% of those with a Public Management and Governance qualification hold an Honours degree while Bachelor's and Diploma holders each constituted 16.7%. The Population Studies Bachelor's graduates made up 16.7% of the sample and the Honours graduates were in the majority (83.3%). Both disciplines are followed by Community Development (5%) and Psychology (5%). All the respondents who were qualified in Psychology and Community Development held a Bachelor's degree and Diploma respectively.

The next group of respondents in terms of numbers is Public Administration (4%), Industrial Sociology (4%) and Land Reform (4%). In the case of Public Administration, those with a Diploma and Honours degree each constituted 25% while 50% hold a Bachelor's degree. All those who were qualified in Industrial Sociology held a Bachelor's degree. Lastly, those who

were qualified in Land Reform all had an Honours equivalent qualification. All the respondents (2%) who are qualified in Sociology held a Bachelor's degree. As indicated in Table 5.6, a Bachelor's degree is held by one candidate in Administration and Technology while an Honors degree or equivalent is held by a candidate in Indigenous Knowledge Systems, Industrial Psychology, Management, Nursing, Public Administration and Governance as well as Social Work respectively.

There was also one candidate who had a Diploma in Commerce. Given that the respondents were requested to indicate their area of specialisation or the discipline field of their qualification in order to determine relevance, it is worth noting that about 16.5% of the respondents did not indicate their areas of specialisation. It is clear from the data in Table 5.6 that the CDPs have varied academic qualifications. This finding is similar to the one reported in the study conducted by the Department of Social Development in 2010. Chile (2012) is of the view that this is the situation in many countries. Botswana is one of such countries as observed by Malinga-Musamba and Ntshwarang (2013). Lekoko (2007) advises that the lack of relevant qualifications could be remedied through tailor-made professional learning for CDPs.

The next section presents the primary results of the study.

Section B

5.3 Qualitative and quantitative results

This section presents primary qualitative and quantitative results as well as the discussion thereof. The quantitative results are presented first and followed by the qualitative results.

5.3.1 Quantitative results

This section presents the empirical results of the study. The quality of data used in quantitative studies is very important as it determines its acceptability (Mavetera & Moroke, 2014). The

first part of this section presents evidence in relation to the quality of the data used in this study. The last part addresses the research questions.

5.3.1.1 Factor Analysis

The results of factor analysis are presented in this section. The factor analysis results focus mainly on reliability and validity of the constructs, variance extraction, factor loadings and correlation matrices. The first three are presented in Table 5.7 and the last one in Table 5.8.

Table 5.7 Convergent validity and internal consistency and reliability

	Factor			
	Items	Factor loading	Variance extracted	Cronbach's alpha
Trend and circumstances	TC2	.399	30.658	.902
	TC5	.504		
	TC6	.594		
	TC7	.425		
	TC8	.671		
	TC9	.428		
	TC10	.435		
	TC15	.408		
	TC16	.703		
	TC17	.403		
	TC18	.689		
	TC19	.623		
	TC20	.466		

	Factor			
	Items	Factor loading	Variance extracted	Cronbach's alpha
Planning and implementation	PI1	.490	8.310	.946
	PI2	.717		
	PI3	.564		
	PI4	.783		
	PI5	.736		
	PI6	.762		
	PI7	.704		
	PI8	.509		
	PI9	.659		
	PI10	.634		
	PI11	.627		
	PI12	.782		
	PI13	.696		
	PI14	.553		
	PI15	.384		
	PI16	.541		
	PI17	.656		
	PI18	.669		
	PI19	.654		
	PI20	.541		
Design and implementation	DI1	.404	6.569	.949
	DI2	.419		
	DI3	.722		
	DI4	.463		
	DI5	.748		
	DI6	.735		
	DI7	.716		
	DI8	.689		
	DI9	.747		
	DI10	.582		
	DI11	.466		
	DI12	.518		
	DI13	.556		
	DI14	.535		
	DI15	.670		
	DI16	.537		
	DI17	.471		
	DI18	.605		
	DI19	.444		
	DI20	.609		
Overall impression	OI1	.733	4.816	.946
	OI2	.694		
	OI3	.741		
	OI4	.751		
	OI5	.697		
	OI6	.719		
	OI7	.725		
	OI8	.646		
	OI9	.689		
	OI10	.729		
	OI11	.618		
	OI12	.681		
	OI13	.742		
	OI14	.729		
	OI15	.634		
	OI16	.676		
	OI17	.605		
	OI18	.494		
	OI19	.335		
	OI20	.408		

a. Reliability results

Cronbach's Alpha was used to test the reliability of the constructs in the research instrument. Table 5. 7 presents the internal consistency scores for each of the four constructs. *Trends and circumstances* scored .902 while *overall impression* as well as *planning and implementation* have a similar score of .946. Lastly, *design and implementation* scored .949. Based on the rule of thumb by Cronbach (Cronbach & Shavelson, 2004), these scores are regarded as excellent. Hakan and Seval (2011) also support these scores because they

regard a score that is above .70 as acceptable. Mavetera, Moroke and Sebetlela (2014) agree that such a score provides a guarantee that the data and constructs are reliable and consistent. Variance extraction is discussed in the next section.

b. Variance extraction

The correlation matrix Table 5.7 shows the 80 variables which are basically the questions that were responded to. As the data in the table illustrates, the constructs 1 up to 4 have values which are 30.658, 6.569, 8.310 and 4.816 respectively. The fact that when the variances are combined, they make up 50.353% confirms that all of them are acceptable. While there is convergence among the four constructs, the respondents seem to concur more on the first construct (30.658%), which is trends and circumstances, compared to the other three. Mavetera, Moroke and Sebetlela (2014: 6) hold the view that such a result gives “an assurance that the data and constructs used are reliable and consistent.” The suggestion by Churchill (1995) that a pattern of low correlation in a matrix implies that factoring is inappropriate does not apply in this study therefore. The factor extraction method called Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was used to extract the factors.

c. Factor correlation

Factor analysis requires a description of the variation among a large number of unobservable random measures called factors (Johnson & Wichern, 2008). The process of analysing the factors is, therefore, guided by determining the correlation between the variables as noted by Moroke and Mavetera (2014). The analysis is guided by the rule of thumb which says that the factor loadings should be greater than 0.3. All factor loadings which are below 0.3 were dropped from the analysis, as shown in Table 5.7. The Varimax Rotation with Kaiser Normalization method recommended by Weiner, Schinka and Velicer (2012) and Pett, Lackey and Sullivan (2003) were used to attain these loadings. This kind of loading, according to these scholars, is effective in maximally differentiating the factors and variables simultaneously. These results could not be shown on a table due to its size.

Factor correlation is an important step in factor analysis. As suggested by Chen and Krauss (2004), the Pearson correlation coefficient was used to measure the relationship between the four factors. Table 5.8 presents the results thereof.

Table 5.8 Factor correlation

		Trend and circumstances	Planning and implementation	Design and implementation	Overall impression
Trend and circumstance	Pearson Correlation	1	-.057	.001	-.293
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.853	.998	.331
	N	13	13	13	13
Planning and implementation	Pearson Correlation	-.057	1	-.042	.156
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.853		.861	.512
	N	13	20	20	20
Design and implementation	Pearson Correlation	.001	-.042	1	.174
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.998	.861		.462
	N	13	20	20	20
Overall impression	Pearson Correlation	-.293	.156	.174	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.331	.512	.462	
	N	13	20	20	20

The results of the correlation among the trends and circumstances, planning and implementation, design and implementation as well as overall impression are presented in Table 5.8. The Pearson correlation coefficient was conducted at 5% level of significance. The results show that there is a mixture of negative and positive insignificant relationships between the four constructs. Responses confirm a negative effect by *trend and circumstances* on *planning and implementation* (-0.57) and *overall impression* (-.293). However, this construct positively affects *design and implementation* (.174)

The responses further show that *trends and circumstances* have an insignificant positive relationship (.998) with *design and implementation*. *Planning and implementation* has a negative insignificant relationship (-0.42) with *design and implementation*. However, the construct of *planning and implementation* has a positive significant relationship (.156) with *overall impression*. In the same breath, there is a positive significant relationship (.174) between the latter and *design and implementation*.

The p-value for all factors is greater than 0.05 level of significance. This confirms that the four evaluation steps are interrelated; therefore none of them can be achieved without considering the

others. Zhang *et al.* (2011) also confirm in their study that the components of Stufflebeam’s model are so interrelated that one cannot be assessed or achieved without the others. That is, the context within which a programme is implemented influences the final product in the programme evaluation cycle.

The next section presents the research questions and the responses proffered.

5.3.1.2 Research question 1: What are the trends and circumstances that influenced the decision to run a CPD programme for CDPs?

The researcher sought to seek the views of the CDPs about the trends and circumstances that influenced the decision to run a CPD programme for CDPs. The views of the CDPs are presented in Table 5.9 below.

Table 5.9 Views about the trends and circumstances that influenced the decision to run a CPD programme for CDPs

Statement:		1	2	3	4	5
		SD	D	U	A	SA
1.	The programme is adequately budgeted for.	23.3	31.1	19.4	20.4	5.11
2.	The programme is available to all community development practitioners.	22.3	27.2	17.5	27.2	5.5
3.	The programme is a once-off activity.	17.5	21.4	30.1	28.2	2.9

4.	The programme is provided for on my work schedule.	21.4	24.3	16.5	32.0	5.11
5.	The programme is one of my top priorities	9.7	12.6	15.5	34.0	28.2
6.	The programme keeps me up to date with the developments in the field.	10.7	10.7	18.4	39.8	20.4
7.	The programme is informed by the continuing professional development policy.	11.7	13.6	26.2	38.8	9.7
8.	The programme has well-structured and tailor-made activities for individual practitioners.	23.5	21.6	22.5	26.5	5.12
9.	The programme comprises activities which are aligned to the department's continuing professional development strategy.	11.7	20.4	26.2	33.0	8.7
10.	The programme has goals which are compatible with my professional development needs.	6.8	11.7	27.2	35.0	19.4
11.	The programme is well coordinated.	20.4	28.2	16.5	25.2	9.7
12.	The programme has facilitators, coaches and mentors who are knowledgeable and helpful.	20.4	20.4	23.3	19.4	16.5
13.	The programme has appropriate infrastructure.	32.0	27.2	17.5	17.5	5.11
14.	The programme is supported by the management of the department.	17.5	23.3	17.5	27.2	14.6
15.	The programme is compulsory for all community development practitioners.	17.5	12.6	20.4	40.8	8.7
16.	The programme comprises mainly of practical problems which I experience at work.	14.6	14.6	21.4	36.9	12.6
17.	The programme takes place mainly through workshops and seminars.	8.7	14.6	17.5	47.6	11.7
18.	The programme takes place mainly through short learning programmes.	18.4	25.2	17.5	30.1	8.7
19.	The programme takes place through observations and learning by doing.	14.6	16.5	17.5	37.9	13.6
20.	The programme mainly takes place through qualification driven programmes.	20.4	29.1	17.5	24.3	8.7

As shown in Table 5.9, more than half (54.4%) of the respondents were of the view that CPD for the CDPs is not adequately budgeted for while 26.2% thought that there is sufficient budget for it. The scholars, Joyce and Cowman (2007), argue that this may be so because of the attitudes of the employers towards CPD. According to the data in the same table, there were about 19.4% of the respondents who could not make a decision about the budget for the programme. The rationale behind the “undecided” response could be that there were a number of CDPs who explained during the focus group interviews that they were not sure if the programme was budgeted for as they never had access to the budget nor had they been told about it. Amongst the respondents, 59.2% of the CDPs held the view that CPD does not have appropriate infrastructure. This figure is followed by 23.3% of the respondents who thought that the programme had appropriate infrastructure. Joyce and Cowman (2007) also reported in their study that management did not set aside infrastructure and resources for the

programme, and this negatively affected the planning, design and implementation of the programme.

According to the data in Table 5.9, 49.5% of the respondents did not agree that CPD is available to all CDPs whereas 32.7% agreed and 17.5% were undecided. Still on the issue of access to CPD, data in the same table indicates that 49.5% of the respondents believed that the programme is compulsory for all CDPs while 30.1% of the respondents did not agree that the programme is compulsory and only 20.4% were undecided. Alsop (2013) explains that CPD is a personally motivated, self-directed and self-initiated undertaking, therefore participation in it should not be dependent on whether or not it is compulsory.

The majority of the respondents (38.9%) disagreed that CPD seems to be a once-off activity as depicted in Table 5.9. The participants in the study by Sandholdz (2002) which was about school-university partnership also felt that their CPD was just a one-shot programme and thus regarded it as irrelevant, boring and ineffective as they easily forgot what they learned. However, 31.1% of the respondents agreed that CPD in the Department of Social Development is treated as a one-shot activity and 17.5% were undecided. Megginson and Whitaker (2007) supported by Steyn (2011) revealed in their studies that some employers treat CPD as a once-off activity even though the name suggests that it is an on-going professional learning process. While 37.8% agreed that CPD is provided for in their work schedule, only 16.5% were undecided. This decision may have been influenced by the observation made by some participants during the focus group interviews that they are overloaded and as a result have to do some CPD activities outside their working hours. On the other hand, the majority of the respondents (45.13%) disagreed that CPD is provided for in their work schedule. Friedman and Phillips (2004) noted that there are employers who do not create a conducive environment for professionals to learn.

Even though the majority of the respondents (45.13%) agree that CPD is not provided for in their schedule, 62.2% treated CPD as one of their top priorities as shown in Table 5.9. However, 23.3% did not regard it as such while only 15.5% were undecided about the place of CPD in the tenure of their profession. Being undecided may have been influenced by lack of knowledge about what CPD entails. Westoby and van Blerk (2012) appreciate the point that

practitioners prioritise CPD despite the odds because they realise that it is their responsibility to continue learning otherwise they may become both redundant and irrelevant. This result is consistent with the research findings by Alsop (2013) that while learning at college or university was controlled and guided by the authorities, professional learning requires the professional to take charge and control of it. According to Table 5.9, about 60.2% of the respondents were of the opinion that the CPD programme keeps them up to date with current developments in the field. The response is in line with the view by many scholars (Kotze, 2012; Lammintakanen and Kivinen, 2012; Lucas *et al*, 2012) that CPD is a learning process whose purpose is to keep professionals up to date with the changes taking place in their field. While 18.4% was undecided, 21.4% held the view that it does not keep them up to date. Those who were undecided could be feeling that way because they may not have experienced the impact of CPD.

Table 5.9 shows that more than half of the respondents (54.4%) believed that the CPD programme for CDPs features goals which are compatible with their professional development needs. While 27.2% were undecided, only 18.5% did not agree with the statement. When asked if CPD has well-structured and tailor-made activities for individual practitioners, 45.1% disagreed while about 34.4% agreed as depicted in Table 5.9. Westoby and Ingabells (2012) also found out that since practitioners have varied experiences and qualifications as alluded to by Chile (2012), they need tailor-made professional learning activities. About 22.5% were undecided about the prominent goals of CPD. As shown in Table 5.9, the majority of the respondents (48.5%) said that CPD is informed by the policy whereas 25.3% did not think so. About 26.2% were undecided about the matter. The same table shows that 41.7% of the respondents agree that CPD programme consists of activities which are aligned to the Department's CPD strategy. This figure is followed by 32.1% which did not agree with the statement. Only 26.2% were undecided over what principally informs the CPD programme.

About 48.6% of the respondents did not agree that the CPD programme for CDPs is well coordinated as the data in Table 5.9 shows. However, 35.12% of the respondents agreed that the programme is well coordinated. At the same time there were those who were undecided (16.5%). Lombard *et al*. (2010) and Kotze (2012) strongly opine that a CPD

programme should be well structured and coordinated. Kotze (2012) has added well-crafted and implemented accordingly to the list of characteristics of a CPD programme. It is only 16.5% who were undecided. According to Table 5.9, the majority of the respondents (40.8%) did not agree that the programme has facilitators, coaches and mentors who are knowledgeable and helpful whereas 35.12% thought it does. About 23.3% of the respondents were undecided. This finding is not consistent with the research findings by William (2007) that the research participants were extremely satisfied with the level of knowledge, enthusiasm, experience and support that the facilitators exhibited.

As shown in Table 5.9, about 40.8% of the respondents did not agree that the management of the department supports CPD. It is only 41.8% who agreed that the management supports the programme. Mansour *et al.* (2014) appreciate the employers who support CPD programme because it benefits not only the employee but employer as well. In actual fact Maharaj (2013) strongly opines that shared CPD responsibility between employer and employee enhance performance and production which ultimately benefit the two. Friedman and Phillips (2004) reckon that it is in the best interests of the employer to support the programme as it is intended to produce a calibre of competent, forward-looking and flexible professionals. There were about 17.5% of the respondents who were undecided.

The data in Table 5.9 shows that almost half of the respondents (49.5%) agreed that CPD comprises practical problems which they experience at work. About 29.2% of the respondents did not agree that the programme comprises practical problems that they experience. Just above 20% was undecided about this matter. Studies by Ikenwilo and Skatun (2014) and Fraser, Kennedy, Reid and McKinney (2007) also revealed professionals had to deal with real and live problems in their CPD programme which were similar to the experiences they had. According to Table 5.9, about 59.3% of the respondents agreed that CPD mainly takes place through workshops and seminars. On the other hand, 23.3% do not agree with 17.5% undecided. William (2007) supported by Gravells (2012) also observed that CPD opportunities are availed through workshops in many professions. Data in Table 5.9 shows that 38.8% of the respondents agreed that CPD is offered mainly through short learning programmes. The majority of the respondents (43.6%) disagreed while 17.5% is undecided.

As depicted in Table 5.9, more than half of the respondents (51.5%) agreed that CPD is offered mainly through observations and learning by doing but 31.1% disagreed. Friedman (2012) highly regard observations and learning by doing because the usage thereof demonstrates that a professional is committed and willing to learn. Margaryan, Littlejon and Milligan (2013) advise that CPD can either be structured or unstructured and observation is a good example of the latter. These scholars support it because it encourages practitioner-centred learning. About 17.5% is undecided. The data in Table 5.9 shows that 42.3% of the respondents disagreed that CPD takes place mainly through qualification driven programmes whereas about 33% agreed. Tynjala (2008) also observed that qualification driven CPD is popular. Gravel (2012) advises that it should not just be about studying for a qualification but about a relevant and appropriate qualification. About 17.5% of the respondents were undecided.

5.3.1.3 Research question 2: *What determines the relevance and adequacy of what was put in place in preparation for implementing a CPD programme for CDPs?*

The researcher sought the views of the CDPs about the relevance and adequacy of what was put in place in preparation for implementing a CPD programme for CDPs. Table 5.10 below presents the views of the CDPs.

Table 5.10 Views of the CDPs about the relevance and adequacy of what was put in place in preparation for the implementation of a CPD programme for CDPs

	Statement	SD	D	U	A	SA
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1.	Community development practitioners' needs assessment survey.	13.6	3.9	5.11	47.6	29.1
2.	The outcomes of the evaluation of the continuing professional development programme by community development practitioners.	10.7	14.6	13.6	46.6	14.6
3.	The need to keep abreast of changes taking place in the profession.	4.9	6.8	7.8	58.3	22.3
4.	Statutory requirements of the professional body.	8.7	10.7	12.6	39.8	28.2
5.	Inputs from the department's management structures.	6.8	14.6	12.6	45.6	20.4
6.	Advice from mentors or coaches.	11.7	8.7	15.5	42.7	21.4
7.	Public demand for a continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners.	8.7	14.6	13.6	41.7	21.4
8.	Gaps identified by professionals through formal and informal discussions.	3.9	9.7	10.7	51.5	24.3
9.	The department's continuing professional development strategy.	8.7	4.9	12.6	48.5	25.2
10.	The National Development Plan.	9.7	9.7	13.6	42.7	24.3
11.	The Department's Continuing Professional Development Policy.	6.8	10.7	15.5	46.6	20.4
12.	Scholarly work in the form of books and articles.	8.7	15.5	26.2	29.1	20.4
13.	Input from sister departments.	12.6	25.2	18.4	26.2	17.5
14.	The performance management reports of the community development practitioners.	8.7	12.6	12.6	49.5	16.5
15.	Sole decision of the management of the department.	8.7	21.4	24.3	34.0	11.7
16.	Reports produced by the experts.	9.7	9.7	8.7	46.6	25.2
17.	Gaps identified in the training curriculum offered by institutions of higher learning.	11.7	7.8	15.5	44.7	20.4
18.	Gaps between the theory and practice of continuing professional development.	9.7	9.7	8.7	46.6	25.2
19.	Lessons from other countries.	12.6	18.4	16.5	27.2	25.2
20.	Job description of the practitioners.	12.6	8.7	9.7	36.9	32.0

It is evident from data presented in Table 5.10 that the majority of the CDPs (76.7%) agreed that the programme is developed on the basis of the data gathered through a need assessment survey conducted among them. This view is supported by Hardy and Melville (2013) who observe that professional learning can only be successful if it is based on the needs that are sourced from the professionals. On the contrary, about 17.5% of the respondents disagreed with the statement. Ikenwilo and Skatun (2014) opine that CPD programmes which lack the voice of the professional are characterized as prescriptive

models. Thus Steyn (2011) warns that such prescriptive models are a good recipe for disaster as they may not facilitate learning due to irrelevance and lack of ownership among others. It is only about 5.11% of the respondents who were undecided.

The responses in Table 5.10 show that 61.2% of the respondents agreed that the current programme is informed by the outcomes of the evaluation of CPD programme by the CDPs. Sridhran and Nakaima (2010) fully support the evaluation of CPD programme as this gives feedback about its performance. While 13.6% were neutral, about 25.3% did not agree that the programme is guided by the outcome of an evaluation process. Such non-involvement of stakeholders has been criticised by Kalb (2009) because it may trigger rejection of evaluation results. It is clear from the responses in Table 5.10 that the majority of the respondents (80.6%) agreed that they need to keep abreast with changes in the profession and to be informed about the planning and implementation of the CPD programme. The view of the respondents is aligned to the findings by Van der Heijden, Boon, Vander Klink and Meijs (2009) that it is through CPD that professionals can keep themselves up to date with what is happening in their field. About 11.7% did not agree whereas 7.8% were neutral.

According to the data in Table 5.10, about 68% of the respondents agreed that the planning and implementation of the CPD programme is informed by the statutory requirements of the professional body whereas 19.4% did not agree. Gravells (2012) notes that in some disciplines the board or council requires professionals to undertake CPD and award them points. Fewer respondents (12.6%) were undecided about this. The majority of the respondents (66%) as shown in Table 5.10 agreed that the planning and implementation of the CPD programme was based on the input of the management structures of the department but 21.4% did not agree while only 12.6% were undecided. The same table shows that 45.13% of the respondents agreed but 30.1% did not agree that the CPD programme is the sole decision of management. It was only 24.3% who were undecided. A study by Fraser, Kennedy, Reid and McKinney (2007) also revealed that some employers and managers dominate decisions about CPD programme planning and implementation.

As shown in Table 5.10 almost 20.4% of the respondents did not agree that the programme is planned and implemented on the basis of advice given by the mentors and coaches. Tsotetsi and Mahlomaholo (2013) also observed in their study that mentors are not always available to give advice to novice practitioners, especially during their first year of practice. Those who agreed (64.1%) have submitted views aligned to the findings by Lammintakanen and Kivinen (2012) that mentors and coaches are important sources of CPD content as they network with CDPs thus getting to know about their gaps, needs and challenges. About 15.5% of the respondents were undecided.

The responses in Table 5.10 show that 63.1% of the respondents agreed that the CPD programme for CDPs is influenced by the demands and needs of the public as also noted by Mulwa (2012) and Walzer (2010), while only 13.6% were neutral, about 23.3% of the respondents did not agree that the programme is influenced by the public. Friedman and Phillips (2004) strongly oppose such a practice because they see CPD as a mechanism which the employer can use to guarantee the community members that the professionals in the service are abreast with current advancement and practices in the field. It is evident from the responses shown in Table 5.10 that 75.11% of the respondents agreed that the gaps noticed by the professionals through formal or informal discussions are used as the basis for planning and implementing the CPD programme for CDPs but 13, 6% did not agree. This revelation from the study confirms the observation made by Brodie (2013) that professionals learn among themselves through debates, asking questions and sharing insights. These can happen through formal or informal platforms as Brodie (2013) notes. At the same time about 10.7% were undecided.

The majority of the respondents (73.7%) as shown in Table 5.10, seemed to be in agreement that the programme is informed by the CPD strategy while 13.6% disagreed. It is only 12.6% who were undecided. The majority of the respondents (67%) as shown in Table 5.10 agreed that the National Development Plan is also used as the basis for planning and implementing the CPD programme. However, 19.4% of them disagreed. This figure is followed by 15.5% of respondents who were undecided. With regards lessons from other countries, more than half of the respondents (52.4%) agreed that they form the basis for this programme. About 31% did

not agree and as such support the view by Kenny (2011) that currently regional collaboration and global coordination of community development practice are weak and need a lot of re-positioning. Table 5.10 shows that 67% of the respondents agreed that the programme is, among others, guided by the CPD policy in the Department but 17.5% disagreed. According to data in Table 5.10, about 43.7% of the respondents agreed that the input made by other departments informs the planning and implementation of the CPD programme. Mubangizi (2009) has also revealed that such multi-stakeholder involvement is necessary because of the multidisciplinary nature of CD. Mubangizi (2009) further notes that this character has been endorsed in this country by establishing CD in public service units such as health, water, local government, agriculture and social development. Be that as it may, about 37.8% of the respondents did not agree that inputs from such units inform the CPD programme.

Almost half of the respondents (49.5%) as shown in Table 5.10 agreed that scholarly works like books and articles are used as the basis for planning and implementing the CPD programme which is an aspect that is supported by CPD scholars such as Gravells (2012). Be that as it may, 24.2% of the respondents did not agree while 26.2% were undecided. It is evident from data presented in Table 5.10 that the majority of the respondents (66%) agreed that the performance management reports were used as the basis for planning and implementing the CPD programme. However, 21.3% did not agree whereas 12.6% were undecided. Almost 71.8% agreed that expert reports are also used as a source of information for the specifications pursued in CPD programmes but less than 20% disagreed. About 8.7% of the respondents were undecided. Freedman (2012) also established in his study that expert reports are invariably used as the basis for CPD.

The data in Table 5.10 illustrates that quite a sizeable number of the respondents (65.1%) agreed that the gaps that have been identified in the pre-service curriculum offered by institutions of higher learning serve as the basis for planning and implementing CPD. Closing such knowledge gaps through CPD has been recommended by many scholars in the field of Community Development. Even though about 19.5% did not agree while 15.5% were neutral, these figures are less than those identified in the positive and therefore their opinion holds. Walzer (2010) is of the view that CDPs do not have to choose to learn theory or practice

because they need both for successful facilitation of CD. About 71.8% of the respondents as shown in Table 5.10 agree with Walzer (2010) in saying that the gaps between the two are efficiently closed through offering relevant CPD. Almost 19.4% did not agree that CPD is informed by such gaps and only a few (8.7%) were neutral, again showing the minority status of those who respond in the negative.

According to data in Table 5.10, almost 70% of the respondents agreed that the job description serves as the basis for developing and implementing CPD. However, 21.3% concurred with Naulty and Jindal-Snape (2011) whose study revealed that there is lack of synergy among the job, knowledge and skills offered in any CPD programme. There is an apparent need to close this gap in the offerings of the CPD programmes.

5.3.1.4 Research question 3: To what extent is the overall design and implementation process of the CPD programme for CDPs appropriate to achieving the stated objectives?

The researcher sought to seek the views of the CDPs about the extent to which the overall design and implementation process of the CPD programme for CDPs is appropriate to achieving the stated objectives.

The views of the CDPs are presented in Table 5.11 below.

Table 5.11 Views of CDPs on design and implementation of CPD in achieving stated objectives

	Statement	SD	D	U	A	SA
1.	It is informed by the needs of the practitioners.	7.8	6.8	16.5	41.7	27.2

2.	It is implemented according to the plan.	12.6	14.6	25.2	36.9	10.7
3.	It is implemented according to the pre-agreed goals and objectives.	7.8	17.5	17.5	42.7	14.6
4.	Its activities, procedures and steps are well documented.	13.6	15.5	28.2	33.0	9.7
5.	Its activities are carried out according to the schedule.	12.6	17.5	25.2	33.0	11.7
6.	It runs on the approved budget.	8.7	13.6	32.0	31.1	14.6
7.	Its facilitators, coaches and mentors carry out their tasks in line with the pre-agreed goals.	8.7	5.11	32.0	35.12	17.5
8.	Its facilitators, coaches and mentors are knowledgeable and experienced.	5.11	13.6	24.3	41.7	14.6
9.	Appropriate facilities and infrastructure are used.	11.7	19.4	24.3	33.0	11.7
10.	Learning activities are practitioner-centred.	5.11	17.5	22.3	40.8	13.6
11.	Participants are assessed in line with the goals and aims of the programme.	7.8	14.6	24.3	40.8	12.6
12.	The participants accepted and carry out their responsibilities.	3.9	5.11	22.3	49.5	18.4
13.	Implementation hindrances are addressed by the relevant authorities.	9.7	14.6	27.2	38.8	9.7
14.	There is continuity in planning and execution of continuing professional development activities for community development practitioners	6.8	14.6	34.0	30.1	14.6
15.	Its facilitators, coaches and mentors are supportive and motivating.	4.9	9.7	33.0	41.7	10.7
16.	Its facilitators, coaches and mentors communicate effectively with the participants and guide them accordingly.	5.11	10.7	31.1	40.8	11.7
17.	It is organised and implemented at the service point level.	19.4	19.4	18.4	29.1	13.6
18.	Practitioners are motivated to take part in it.	12.6	14.6	19.4	38.8	14.6
19.	It is a collective effort among practitioners, supervisors and the management of the department.	11.7	13.6	25.2	38.8	10.7
20.	Community development practitioners have a clear understanding of what continuing professional development for community development practitioners entail.	9.7	11.7	21.4	38.8	18.4

Table 5.11 illustrates that 68.9% of the respondents agreed that the CPD programme is informed by the needs of the CDPs. Many scholars and development institutions (Boyle *et al.* 2005; Gravani, 2007; William, 2007, UN (1963) in Aworti, 2013) advise that this is the route which employers and professions must follow if they want to keep professionals up to date, deepen their knowledge and sharpen their skills as CDPs . While 16.5% were undecided, 14.6% did not agree that the programme is informed by the practitioner' a needs. Steyn (2011) warns

that if a CPD programme is not needs-based, then there is minimum chance that it can benefit the practitioners.

As shown in Table 5.11, about 47.6% of the respondents agreed that the programme is implemented in accordance with the plan while 27.2% did not agree. The majority of the respondents (57.3%) as shown in Table 5.11 agreed that the programme is implemented according to the pre-agreed goals and objectives. Megginson and Whitaker (2007) strongly hold the opinion that, it is within the decentralised framework of CPD that professionals are given the liberty to determine the CPD agenda and objectives as well as ensure that these objectives and goals are met. However, 25.3% of the respondents did not agree that the programme is implemented on the pre-agreed goals. Ndege (2006) made a similar finding and concluded that it is under such circumstances that professionals lose ownership of CPD.

Table 5.11 also shows that about 42.7% of the respondents agreed that the activities, procedures and steps of the programme were well-documented which is in agreement with the findings by Gravells (2012). About 29.1% of the respondents did not agree while 28.2% were undecided. These could be the same CDPs who explained during the focus group interviews that they have not bothered to read the programme documents. The same table shows that 44.7% of the respondents agreed that its activities are carried out according to the schedule. This is in line with the suggestions by many scholars (Tofade *et al.*, 2011; Friedman, 2012) in the field of CD that CPD must be systematic and well organised for the purposes of ensuring that the objectives are met. On the other hand, 30.1% did not agree that the activities are carried out according to the schedule.

The success of any programme is influenced by the availability of requisite inputs such as budget. Table 5.11 shows that 22.3% of the respondents did not agree that the CPD programme runs on an approved budget but 45.13% agreed. This finding is consistent with the one by Joyce and Cowman (2007) that some employers fail to avail a budget for CPD. Frazer *et al.* (2007) hold the opinion that failure to budget for CPD results from the negative attitudes among employers or managers and when such an eventuality occurs, then the CPD is fraught with

challenges connected to finance and accountability for the expenditure. More than half of the respondents (56.3%) agreed that its facilitators, coaches and mentors are knowledgeable and experienced as presented in Table 5.11. Steyn (2013) also sees value in the relationship between such experienced professionals and novice ones. This figure is followed by 24.3% of those who were undecided. It is only 19.4% who were not in agreement. About 53.4% of the respondents agreed that the coaches, mentors and facilitators engaged for the CPD carry their tasks in line with the pre-agreed goals whereas 14.5% did not agree. Quite a sizeable number (32%) was undecided. These officials may have observed that while some facilitators are experienced, the others are not as experienced nor as qualified as they would expect.

Data in Table 5.11 shows that 52.5% of the respondents agreed that the programme's mentors, facilitators and coaches are supportive. This is in line with the recommendation made by Fraser *et al.* (2007) that experienced, inexperienced and novice professionals need to create a friendly learning environment which is beneficial to them. About 14.6% of the respondents did not agree that the facilitators, coaches and mentors are supportive. On the other hand, 33.0% were neutral. Just above half of the respondents (52.5%) concur that the facilitators, coaches and mentors communicate effectively with the participants and guide them accordingly. On the other hand, 16.5% of the respondents did not agree while 31.1% were neutral. The latter group could be neutral because they may have had contrasting experiences from CPD courses that were offered earlier and therefore a comparative aspect clouds their perceptions of the course in general.

According to data in Table 5.11 about 44.7% of the respondents agreed that appropriate facilities and infrastructure are used but 31.1% did not. The response is consistent with the observation by Nel (2014) and Schenck *et al.* (2010) that shortage of or inappropriate facilities and infrastructure are problems which professionals have to battle with. About 24.3% were undecided. These could be the newly appointed CDPs who may have not had the opportunity to assess the situation in other different contexts. The data in Table 5.11 shows that 54.4% of the respondents agree that learning activities are practitioner-centred but 22.3% were undecided. The decision by the latter group could be influenced by the point that CDPs hold the view that the provincial management of CD seems to be controlling aspects such as needs

identification for the CDPs. Nel (2014) applauds such an approach because it gives the practitioner the opportunity to control the learning. Gray and MacBlain (2012) discourage the observation made by 23.3% of the respondents that learning is not practitioner-centred because it disallows the practitioner the opportunity to construct her own knowledge. About 53.4% of the respondents as shown in Table 5.11 agreed that the participants are assessed in line with the goals and aims of the programme. The views of these participants are in line with the revelation by Mertens and Wilson (2012) that any assessment of CPD has to be conducted in line with the agreed set of objectives. While those who were undecided make up 24.3%, those who did not agree are 22.4%. Van Osselaer and Janiszewski (2012) opine that assessment of the value and contribution of any CPD has to be in line with the objectives because if it is not then the entire undertaking becomes futile and may thus give misleading results.

The majority of the respondents (67.9%) agreed that participants accept and carry out their responsibilities as illustrated in Table 5.11. What these respondents are saying supports the view that CPD is a personal motive, effort, initiative and obligation, a view also held by Jordan *et al.* (2008). Fewer respondents (9.7%) did not agree while 22.3% were neutral. As shown in Table 5.11, about 48.5% of the respondents agreed that implementation hindrances are addressed by the relevant authorities but 24.3% did not agree. About 27.2% were undecided perhaps because one of the concerns they have is that some of the CD supervisors and managers lack basic CD content such as theories, strategies and approaches as noted by Swanepoel (1997) and Mulwa (2012).

While many scholars suggest that CPD should be continuous, systematic, well-coordinated and implemented accordingly, (Tsoetsi and Mahlomaholo, 2013; Collin *et al.*, 2012) it emerged that 21.4% of the respondents did not agree that this is the case at the Department of Social Development as depicted in Table 5.11. Ndlovu (2011) agrees with 44.7% of the respondents who hold the view that there is continuity in planning and execution of CPD activities. It is only about 34.0% who were undecided and these respondents could have been influenced by the point that CDPs acknowledged challenges associated with CPD activities. Data in Table 5.11 illustrates that 42.7% of the respondents agreed that the programme is organised and implemented at the service point level. Such an approach is highly recommended by renowned

scholars such as Burton and Johnson (2010) because the activities are planned for by the management and the practitioners in view of the local context. However, about 38.8% did not agree that organisation and implementation take place locally. While there is no agreement among practitioners, Ndlovu (2011) is of the view that whether organisation and implementation take place locally or centrally is insignificant; what is key for this scholar is a programme which is objective, continuous and informative.

As shown in Table 5.11, about 53.4% of the respondents agreed that practitioners are motivated to take part in the programme while 27.2% did not agree. O'Sullivan in Jones and Jenkins (2006) opines that practitioners should not feel compelled to take part in CPD; rather they should feel motivated as this is a self-directed learning programme, even though 19.4% were undecided. About 49.5% of the respondents agreed that CPD is a collective effort among practitioners, supervisors and the management of the department while only 15.3% disagreed as depicted in Table 5.11. Boud and Hager (2011); Fraser *et al.* (2007) and Kennedy (2014a) also found out that CPD benefits the employer, the innate profession and the professional thus it is prudent to continue offering CPD courses. More than half of the respondents (57.2%) agreed that CDPs understand what CPD programme entails, even though those that did not agree or were undecided, each make 21.4%.

5.3.1.5 Research question 4: What is the evidence of achievement and to which extent is it aligned to the programme objectives?

The researcher sought to seek the views of the CDPs about the evidence of achievement and the extent to which it is aligned to the programme objectives. The views of the CDPs are presented in Table 5.12 below.

Table 5.12 Views of the CDPs about the evidence of achievements and the extent to which it is aligned to the programme objectives

	Statement	SD	D	U	A	SA
1.	Gives me adequate practical experience.	2.9	8.7	11.7	50.5	26.2
2.	Has improved my level of community development insights.	2.9	5.11	11.7	55.3	24.3
3.	Strengthens my knowledge of community development theories, strategies and approaches.	1.9	7.8	9.7	51.5	29.1
4.	Reinforces my ability to initiate and manage community projects.	2.9	7.8	10.7	53.4	25.2
5.	Enhances my research skills.	2.9	8.7	13.6	49.5	25.2
6.	Heightens my ability to mobilise resources, stakeholders and communities for community development activities.	1.9	4.9	13.6	52.4	27.2
7.	Exposes me to various strategies of relating with people from different backgrounds.	2.9	3.9	7.8	59.2	26.2
8.	Has improved my ability to manage the dynamics of urban and rural communities.	2.9	6.8	13.6	53.4	23.3
9	Sharpens my planning, organising and coordination skills.	0	8.7	7.8	53.4	30.1
10.	Has equipped me with the skills and knowledge which I can still be able to implement in any given context of community development.	1.0	6.8	13.6	52.4	26.2
11.	It teaches me how to avoid conflict of interest.	2.9	4.9	13.6	51.5	27.2
12.	Motivates me to adhere to professional principles outlined in my contract.	1.9	3.9	15.5	57.3	21.4
13.	Motivates me to adhere to professional values outlined in my contract.	1.9	7.8	12.6	51.5	26.2
14.	Has helped me establish and maintain professional and objective relationships.	1.0	8.7	13.6	57.3	19.4
15.	Has helped me avoid conflict of interest.	1.9	7.8	10.7	55.3	24.3
16.	Teaches me to disengage from activities which may cause unethical or illegal benefits.	0	3.9	12.6	64.1	19.4
17.	Gives me the opportunity to discuss ethical dilemmas with certified bodies.	5.11	6.8	14.6	50.5	22.3
18.	Helps me maintain confidentiality.	3.9	7.8	14.6	45.6	28.2
19.	Teaches me to perform duties in a legal and ethical manner.	4.9	8.7	8.7	50.5	27.2
20.	Gives me a chance to consult confidentially with colleagues whose behaviour may be in question or if requested to take part in resolving an ethical or legal dilemmas.	3.9	8.7	14.6	45.6	27.2

Table 5.12 illustrates that the majority of the respondents (76.7%) agreed that the programme gives them adequate practical experience. This result is consistent with the research findings by Alsop (2013) that CPD provides professionals with an opportunity to acquire practical

experience, especially the new graduates as they may have been exposed to theories and less of practice in the main training. About 11.6% of the respondents did not agree that CPD gives them practical experience which is something that Walzer (2010) has warned CDPs against, suggesting that the practical enrichment derived from CPD is not negotiable. As Table 5.12 reveals, 79.6% of the respondents agreed that the programme has improved their insights into the essence of CD. This experience is aligned to the suggestion made by Batten (1962: 5) in Westoby and van Blerk (2012) that CPD is intended to reinforce the practitioner's knowledge about CD. While 11.7% were undecided, almost 8.7% did not agree that the programme has improved their insights into the essence of the CPD.

The majority of the respondents (80.6%) are of the view that the programme strengthens their knowledge of CD theories, strategies and approaches as shown in Table 5.12. This seems to address the concerns raised by Mulwa (2012), and the United Nations (1963) in Awortwi (2013) and Swanepoel (1997) that the majority of the CDPs are not schooled in CD theories, approaches and strategies. Those who did not agree or were undecided constitute 9.7% each. Steyn (2011) believes that a CPD programme may not help build capacity for CDPs due to factors such as not being needs-based or if it is based on an inappropriate model or approach. Table 5.12 reveals that 78.6% of the respondents agreed that the programme reinforces their ability to initiate and manage CD projects. Phillips and Pittman (2009) acknowledge that a CDP uses projects rooted in community experiential tenets to facilitate CD-thus practitioners ought to acquire capacity to do so through CPD. Those who were undecided and disagreed constitute 10.7% each.

The data in Table 5.12 illustrates that 74.7% of the respondents agreed that CPD enhances their research skills whereas 11.6% did not agree and 13.6% were undecided. Mubangizi (2009) and Maistry (2008) observed in their studies that successful facilitation of CD requires research skills such that CDPs can compile community and household profiles needed as sources of baseline information for the commissioning and implementation of CD plans. About 79.6% of the respondents as shown in Table 5.12 agreed that the programme heightens their ability to mobilise resources, stakeholders and communities. Matarrita-Cascante and Brennan (2012) and Mubangizi (2009) share a similar sentiment that CPD helps CDPs to bring together

stakeholders for the purposes of sharing ideas and resources. While 6.8% did not agree, 13.6% of the respondents were undecided. This could be as a result of lack of experience.

Almost 85.4% of the respondents as depicted in Table 5.12 agreed that the programme exposes them to various strategies of relating to and working with people from different backgrounds. However, 6.8% did not agree while 7.8% were undecided. Maistry (2012) also noted that South Africa's CDPs indeed work with communities which are characterised by inequality and poverty thus requires them to learn continuously in order to give them the support they need. This exposure to strategies is invariably an empowering element derived from the programmes. As shown in Table 5.12, about 76.7% of the respondents agreed that the programme has improved their ability to manage the dynamics of urban and rural communities. Mubangizi (2013) reckons the ability to manage rural-urban dynamics is a must-have for CDPs. About 9.7% of the respondents did not agree that the programme has offered them any assistance in this regard.

The majority of the respondents (83.5%) as Table 5.12 shows, agreed that participation in the programme has sharpened their planning, organisation and coordination skills which is strongly supported by Phillips and Pittman (2009). Mubangizi (2009) reckons that without these skills CDPs might not be able to facilitate CD. It is only 8.7% who do not agree while 7.8% were undecided.

About 78.6% of the respondents, as Table 5.12 illustrates, agreed that the programme has equipped them with the skills and knowledge which they can apply in any given context of CD. De Beer and Swanepoel (2012) support this view on the basis of the fact that a CDP who possess the skills of performing as an enabler, advisor, guide, advocate and facilitator can indeed succeed in any CD context. While 13.6% were undecided, only 7.8% disagreed. Table 5.12 reveals that the majority of the respondents (79.6%) agreed that the programme has helped them avoid conflict of interest, whereas 9.7% did not agree. Furthermore, the same table shows that about 78.7% of the respondents agreed that the programme teaches them how to resolve or avoid conflict in the communities that they work in. It is only 7.8% who did not agree while

13.6% were undecided. Therefore, conflict management is a key attribute in this field (Phillips & Pittman, 2009). Maistry (2014) made a similar finding and advised that since communities are not homogeneous and work with multiple stakeholders under the guidance of a CDP who has her own background, the latter needs to possess sharp conflict resolution skills in order to tackle any such instance in the performance of their duties.

The programme is regarded as motivating by about 78.7% of the respondents as Table 5.12 indicates, whereas only 5.11% did not agree. While Jordan *et al.* (2008) concur with the former group that the programme is motivating, Jones and Jenkins (2006) take the view further by stating that the practitioner must also be self-motivated otherwise no learning takes place. About 77.7% agreed that the programme motivates them to adhere to the professional values but 9.7% did not as indicated in Table 5.12. Professional values are significant in any profession as they guide the professional in carrying out their responsibilities, a point that Phillips and Pittman (2009) reckon to be indispensable for CDPs.

Data in Table 5.12 indicates that 76.7% of the respondents agreed that CPD programme has helped them establish and maintain professional and objective relationships with their clientele. As Phillips and Pittman (2009) noted, professionalism and objectivity are core principles in CD. While CPD is expected, among others, to entrench professionalism and objectivity, 9.7% of the respondents did not agree that the programme facilitates the development of these qualities. It is clear from Table 5.12, that the majority of the respondents (83.5%) agreed that the programme teaches them to disengage from activities that may cause unethical and illegal benefits. It is only 3.9% who disagreed. About 72.8% of the respondents, as illustrated in Table 5.12, agreed that the programme gives them the opportunity to discuss ethical dilemmas with certified bodies but 11.7% did not agree. Further to that, 77.7% of the respondents agree that the programme teaches them to perform duties in a legal and ethical manner. Maharaj (2013) concluded in a study that ethics constitute an important element in all professions and explains that is why in some professions it is compulsory for professionals to participate in ethics-oriented CPD activities.

Table 5.12 shows that about 73.8% of the respondents agreed that the programme helps them to maintain confidentiality. However, while 11.7% did not agree, about 14.6% were undecided. Still on the issue of confidentiality, about 72.8% of the respondents agreed that the programme gives them a chance to consult confidentially with colleagues whose behaviour might be in question or if requested to take part in resolving ethical or legal dilemmas. Maistry (2012) also found out that CDPs sometimes deal with individual community members and families whose information ought to be kept confidentially, and as practitioners, they are bound to maintain the value of confidentiality.

5.3.2 Qualitative results

The qualitative results are presented below. The data was collected through focus group interviews held with CDPs who have ten years of experience in the field, interviews with CD assistant managers who are based at the service points, a community development senior manager from the CD chief directorate and a manager from the human resource unit as well as through content analysis of the policy and CPD programme documents. The data is presented under the categories that emerged from the codes during the interpretation and analysis process or questions posed to the participants. The said data is presented in view of the research questions.

5.3.2.1 Perceptions of the CDPs about the CPD for the CDPs

The following section presents data collected through focus group interviews. The specific details about the date, composition and venue are presented in Table 5. 13 below.

Table 5.13 Schedule of focus group interviews

Location	Date	Time	Composition	Participants	FG #
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Mafikeng	7.08.2015	13H00-15H30	All the North West province service points	6	1
Rustenburg	18.08.2015	12H00-14H00	Bojanala District service points	5	2
Vryburg	19.08.2015	10H00-12H00	Dr Ruth Mompati District service points	5	3
Potchefstroom	27.08.015	10H00-12H30	Dr KK District service points	5	4
Lichtenburg	9.09.2015	13H00-15H00	Ngaka Modiri Molema District service points	5	5

The participants were recruited among the CDPs who served the Department of Social Development for ten years and above. The first focus group meeting comprised CDPs from all the service points in the province while the members for the other four were recruited from the district where the meeting was held. The rule of data saturation as recommended by Sagoe (2012) and Carlsen and Glenton (2011) guided this study. During the fifth session it was realised that data saturation was reached as no new information was coming from the participants.

The number of the participants ranged between five and six and in total they were 26. The sessions lasted for two hours and were conducted in English. The focus group interviews were conducted between the months of August and September 2015 as shown in Table 5.13 above. The venue and the date in the table are used to identify a particular focus group.

A set of pre-approved questions were used to solicit insights into the attitudes, perceptions and views of the CDPs about the CPD programme for CDPs. The researcher facilitated the process by posing a question at a particular point in time. Such data is presented under the categories that emerged during the interpretation and analysis of the results or the questions which were posed to the participants. A sample of the words of the respondents are rendered verbatim and set in italics.

Research question 1: What are the trends and circumstances that influenced the decision to run the CPD programme for the CDPs?

a. Involvement of CDPs in the CPD for the CDPs

One of the categories that emerged from the questions which were posed to the CDPs is the involvement of the CDPs in the CPD programme for the CDPs. In this section, the views of the CDPs are presented as well as analysis and interpretation thereof.

Focus group #1

Participant 5: We made inputs towards the content of the training programmes as well as programme objectives, outcomes and delivery method. So I am proud to say I have contributed to the development of the programme but evaluation!! Oh noooo! We have not evaluated it.

The responses given by the participants suggest that they did take part in developing the programme. A sense of pride and ownership was expressed by participant five in focus group one who said that “...I am proud to say that I have contributed to the development of the programme.” Megginson and Whitaker (2007) note that such expressions demonstrate that professionals take ownership of the programme, especially if they were actively involved in it and the programme is framed within the decentralised or less structured approach.

Focus group #2

Participant 1: Our role is to identify our learning needs and the management decides on the final product. I also read for myself and engage in discussions with colleagues in formal or informal platforms.

Participant 5: I have also taken part in developing the programme by indicating my learning needs and whenever I have to take part in the activities of the programme, I avail myself without any delays.

Evidence of involvement of CDPs in developing and implementing the programme was provided by participants one and five who indicated that they suggested needs such as report writing, financial management, facilitation and research in their PDP course components. This showed that they were clear about the specific educational needs which they wanted addressed

by the programme. Frye and Hemmer (2012) and by Al-Khathami (2012) who used the Stufflebeam CIPP model to evaluate educational programmes, also concluded in their studies that there should be specific educational needs that influence the introduction of professional development programme.

Focus group #3

Participant 5: *Learning is a personal thing, so after suggesting my needs I also organise meetings among us where we observe others, ask questions and interact.*

There was an element of acting proactively among CDPs which was demonstrated by participant five who explained that apart from the formal sectional meetings arranged by the assistant manager, the CDPs organised their own meetings which are used as learning platforms. During such meetings learning methods such as observations, question and answer and discussions are used to acquire knowledge. Just like community development workers in the study by Westoby and van Blerk (2012), the CDPs meet and share ideas, advise each other and discuss the problems they are experiencing. Collin, Vander Heijden and Lewis (2012) regards such as good examples of informal CPD.

Focus group #4

Participant 3: *I support the view because we suggested our needs through the PDPs. The needs that I have identified are my weak points so I need help in that regard so that I can improve my performance. So the programme has to be about things that we need [and] if not, [the programme] cannot help us.*

While Frye and Hammmmer (2012) confirmed in their study that context evaluation of a programme involves establishing whether or not resources such as funding and facilitators are available for programme implementation, participant two expressed the concern that they were not afforded the opportunity to make inputs about the infrastructure, budget and facilitators.

Focus group #5

Participant 4: *It is the management that is playing a bigger role because we only complete the PDP. We always emphasise the significance of evaluating our interventions, but we have not evaluated this programme.*

Participant 5: *For me my role in implementing the programme is when I take part in activities planned by the department and I go all out to get information for myself. It can be from colleagues, books, documents and media.*

All the CDPs affirmed that they contributed to the development of the programme by indicating their professional learning needs in the PDP form. The research participants in the study by Sadler-Smith and Badger (2006) also revealed that they use the PDPs to identify their professional learning needs for the purpose of inclusion in the CPD programme. However, as explained by participant four, the management plays a bigger role in developing and implementing the programme. Gameda and Tynjala (2015) advise against such erroneous assumption held by the management that they know all the needs of the professionals. Stufflebeam (in Stufflebeam and Shinkfield, 2007) stresses the same point by indicating that there should be actual and real educational needs upon which CPD is based.

The data sourced from the CDPs revealed that all of them never evaluated the programme. The learning facilitators had a similar experience in the study by Tsotetsi and Mahlomaholo (2013) wherein they are required to facilitate a learning programme which neither facilitators nor the professionals participated in designing nor evaluating it. Ntloana (2009) also holds the notion that it is a common practice among authorities to offer programmes that lack the voice of the professionals who undertake the study. These scholars discourage this because it is never easy for professionals to implement a programme which they did never designed. The point that professionals were not involved with the final product as suggested in all focus group interviews insinuates that the programme is framed within a top-down model of CPD as suggested by Sandholdz (2002), who ultimately indicts such practices.

Table 5.14 presents the codes, responses, reflective notes and the category that emerged from the questions which were posed to the CDPs.

Table 5. 14 Involvement of CDPs in the CPD for the CDPs

Reflective notes	Response	Codes	Category
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<p>Emotions: Sense of pride. Surprised.</p>	<p>Researcher: Which specific roles did you play in developing, implementing and evaluating the CPD for the CDPs?</p> <p>Participant 5 Focus group (FG) #1: <i>We made <u>inputs towards the content of the training programmes as well as programme objectives, outcomes and delivery method.</u></i></p> <p><i>So I am proud to say I have contributed to the development of the programme but evaluation! Oh nooooo! We have <u>not evaluated it.</u></i></p> <p>Participant 1 FG# 2: <i>Our role is <u>to identify our learning needs and the management decides on the final product.</u></i></p> <p><i>I also read for myself and engage in discussions with colleagues in <u>formal or informal platforms.</u></i></p>	<p>Input by CDP on the content. Input by CDP on the objectives, outcomes and method of delivery.</p> <p>CDPs have not evaluated the programme.</p> <p>CDPs identify their learning needs. Provincial management determines substantive content of the programme.</p> <p>CDPs use formal and informal platforms to ensure learning takes place.</p>	<p>Involvement of CDPs in the CPD for the CDPs</p>
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The next section presents awareness about the policy with regards to development and implementation of CPD.

b. Awareness about CPD policy

One of the categories that emerged during interpretation and analysis of the results is a heightened awareness about the CPD policy. This section presents responses of CDPs about the nature of and processes involved in CPD policy development and implementation.

Focus group #1

Participant 1: *Oh my God! I was informed about it but I have never bothered to check it, I guess it is laziness on my part. I just have myself to blame. So I cannot tell if the programme is based on the policy.*

It was evident from the participants' narratives that while some CDPs made an effort to familiarise themselves with the CPD policy, others did not. Laziness to read the policies mentioned by participant one was also identified by Hemmington (2000) as one of the factors hindering successful implementation of CPD. The fact that no or minimal effort was made to read or access the policy as mentioned by participants three and four is not in line with the CD principles of self-help and self-reliance as alluded to by Saliu (2014). Participants two and six were aware of the policy and were familiar with elements such as methods of delivery, rationale, objectives and aims.

Focus group #2

Participant 4: *I have also read the policy. It explains that it is intended to create opportunities for us to learn in order to improve how we facilitate community development. It also gives the learning opportunities that the department offers, like workshops, short course, bursary to study and time to study.*

The participants in this focus group interview demonstrated some knowledge of the CPD policy and its contents unlike those cited in the study by Hemmington (2000) and those in the first focus group interview where professionals demonstrated lack of knowledge about CPD policy and practice. The programme was deemed to be following the guidance provided in the policy in terms of activities, purposes and objectives. While there were CDPs who referred to the policy out of necessity, others did not.

Focus group #3

Participant 1: *I read the policy regularly. This policy informs the CPD programme for the CDPs. It gives rules and regulation for professional learning, guidance on the platforms that for learning and roles of stakeholders. For example that the department shall make a budget for CPD.*

Participant 3: *Oh Gosh! I am clueless about its content. My word! I am not sure if the programme is informed by the policy. I have been relying on what colleagues have been saying.*

There was agreement among participants about the existence of the CPD policy. Participants one and five expressed the view that the policy addressed CPD funding and outlined the CPD activities which were implemented through the programme. On the contrary, participants two, three and four acknowledged that they had not read the policy thus were unable to say if the programme was informed by policy. Hemmington (2000) has also cited lack of knowledge about CPD policy among professionals as one of the impediments to the successful implementation of CPD. The same scholar, Hemmington (2000) is of the view that efforts should be made by all parties concerned to facilitate a sustained understanding of the concept and practice of CPD.

Focus group #4

Participant 1: *Yes I am aware of the policy and I do read it sometimes. Sadly, things like rotation for participation in CPD are not in the policy but that is how the programme is implemented.*

Participant 2: *I am aware of and familiar with the policy. The programme is to some degree informed by the policy because the learning activities that the policy refers to are the same as the ones we use in the programme. The policy also guides about CPD processes and procedures.*

The narratives by participants in this focus group interview showed that they were aware of the CPD policy and its content. Participants two, three and five held the view that the programme was based on the policy because the activities, processes and procedures of the programme were provided for in the policy. On the contrary, participant one conceded that the programme was based on the policy but contended that it was not implemented according to policy per se.

The participant felt that while the policy said that PDPs must be used to determine the needs of the CDPs, it seemed the management deviated from the policy and decided what was to be learned. Gameda and Tynjala (2006) regard such an employer-led CPD not to be in support of the principles of CPD that it has to be practitioner-centred. While in the previous focus group interviews there was a high prevalence of not referring to the policy, in this one the participants explained that they had read it.

Focus group #5

Participant 2: I am aware of the CPD policy and refer to it if necessary. I also participated in the workshops where the policy was developed. The programme is implemented through workshops and PDPs which are provided for in the policy so it is based on the policy.

Participants were aware of the CPD policy and referred to the framework when they were experiencing some problems. While participants one, two and three expressed the view that the programme activities were informed by the policy, participant four expressed dissatisfaction with evident deviation from the policy by the authorities and those charged with ultimate responsibility for ensuring the programme works. David and Bwisa (2013) also revealed in their study that the CPD programme was not implemented according to the policy. There was also some lack of knowledge about whether or not the programme was based on the policy. Kennedy (2014a) strongly discourages professionals against not being familiar with the CPD policy because it deters them from using it to their advantage and even interrogating it with the intention of ensuring that there is alignment between policy and practice.

Table 5.15 presents the reflective notes, responses, codes and the category that emerged during data interpretation and analysis.

Table 5. 15 Awareness about CPD policy

Reflective notes	Responses	Codes	Category
Ignorance	<p>Researcher: Are you aware of the CPD policy for CDPs? Is the CPD programme for CDPs based on such policy and how often do you refer to it?</p> <p>Focus group #1 Participant 1: <i>Oh my God! I was informed about it but I have never bothered to check it, I guess it is laziness on my part. I just have myself to blame. So I cannot tell if the programme is based on the policy.</i></p> <p>Focus group #3 Participant 1: <i>I read the policy regularly. This policy informs the CPD programme for the CDPs. It gives rules and regulation for professional learning, guidance on the platforms that for learning and roles of stakeholders. For example that the department shall make a budget for CPD.</i></p>	<p>Knowledge about the existence of the policy.</p> <p>Laziness to read the policy.</p> <p>Lack of knowledge about policy content.</p> <p>Knowledge about the existence of the policy.</p> <p>Knowledge that the programme is informed by the policy.</p>	Awareness about CPD policy

The next section presents participants' views with regards to the relevance and adequacy of what was put in place in preparation for implementing a CPD programme for CDPs?

Research question 2: What determines the relevance and adequacy of what was put in place in preparation for implementing a CPD programme for CDPs?

c. Reflection

Another category that emerged during the interpretation and analysis of the results is reflection. It emerged from the data that the CDPs spend time thinking, applying their minds and reflecting on the work they do in order to determine where they are strong or weak. This section presents the views of the CDPs and analysis and interpretation thereof.

Focus group #1

Participant 2: *I spend time thinking, reflecting and asking myself questions about my work. Out of that I am able to determine my needs and weaknesses.*

Reflection on own performance is also used by the CDPs to identify their professional development needs. Participants two and three relied on reflecting upon how they did their work as well as challenges they battled with as a way of identifying their professional learning needs. Westoby (2014) regards reflection upon one's performance as critical in identifying the strong and weak points with the view of determining the kind of CPD interventions required such that the CPD programme becomes an empowering undertaking. As noted by de Groot *et al.* (2012) reflecting on one's performance, knowledge and expertise provides a learner with the opportunity to determine the learning needs and a process of meeting such. Consequently, Grado-Severson (2007) advocates that reflection facilitates learning.

Focus group #2

Participant 3: *Job description and my supervisor's views.*

Participant 5: *I am guided by my job description and the problems I experience when performing my work.*

It is evident from the narratives of participants three and five that they used a combination of the job description and feedback from supervisors or colleagues as well as their own reflections to identify their professional learning needs. Fraser *et al.* (2007) agree with these CDPs in observing that some CPD programmes are based on the needs that have been suggested by the supervisors while others are derived from sources such as the organisational job description profile. Cossam and Fields (2007) regards such a practice as demonstration of a top-down approach to CPD whose purpose is to serve the interest of the employer rather than the practitioner's.

Focus group #3

Participant 1: *I identify them personally by reflecting on my performance. I do this to check what my strengths and weaknesses are.*

Participant 3: *I think I know them, I know what is difficult for me.*

Reflection as a means of determining learning needs is mentioned again by participants one, three and five. Moon (2004) also holds the view that reflection is a key element in one's personal development because it gives the person an opportunity to think critically about a particular aspect.

Focus group #4

Participant 1: *I compare what the job description requires from me and what I am able to do.*

Participant 2: *It is easy, I look at what I am able or unable to do. So I include those I cannot do.*

Focus group #5

Participant 1: *I do a self-assessment on the basis of my performance in order to determine my needs. My supervisor also inform[s] us of the needs we have to include in our PDPs and I hate it so much.*

A number of CDPs indicated that they identified their learning needs on the basis of their weaknesses which they determined through self-reflection or assessment. Participants three and four indicated that they know their needs which are basically their weaknesses and where they need further development. These CDPs agreed with the revelation by Megginson and Whitaker (2007) that professionals are the ones who know and understand their needs better than any other person, contending that their input is, therefore, critical in ensuring relevant CPD programmes are initiated.

Table 5.16 presents the reflective notes, responses, codes and the category which emerged from the responses.

Table 5. 16 Reflection

Reflective notes	Response	Codes	Category
Emotion: hatred.	<p>Researcher: How do you identify the needs that you write on the PDP?</p> <p>Participant 2 FG#1: <i>I spend time <u>thinking, reflecting and asking myself questions</u> about my work. Out of that I am able to determine my needs and weaknesses.</i></p> <p>Participant one FG#5: <i>I do a <u>self-assessment</u> on the basis of my <u>performance</u> in order to determine my needs. My <u>supervisor also informs us</u> of the needs we have to include in our PDPs and I hate it so much.</i></p>	<p>Thinking, reflection and asking questions.</p> <p>Self-assessment. Performance. Supervisor imposes needs.</p>	Reflection

The next section presents participants’ views about the extent to which the overall design and implementation process of the CPD programme for CDPs was appropriate to achieve the stated objectives

Research question 3: To what extent is the overall design and implementation process of the CPD programme for CDPs appropriate to achieve the stated objectives?

d. Imposition

It emerged during the data analysis and interpretation that although the CDPs are given the opportunity to suggest areas for professional development, the management does impose the learning areas that must be included in the programme. Different opinions which suggested were shared by the participants.

Focus group #1

Participant 1: *Our CPD programme is partially based on the needs CDPs identified and those suggested by our assistant managers and provincial community development.*

Focus group #2

Participant 1: *Aaah! This programme is based on the needs of our authorities. In the past three years I asked for training on policy formulation but to date, no training no explanation.*

Focus group #3

Participant 1: *This programme is based upon the NDP, expert knowledge and the views of management. Our views are rarely considered. Aag...this is just a mess.*

Focus group #4

Participant 1: *I doubt if our PDPs ever considered [our views] because I was shocked to realise that the only training available is still at an introductory level when I need advanced.*

Focus group #5

Participant 2: *I fully agree that the CPD programme is based on almost 80% of management's and the experts' interest and only 20% of our real needs.*

There is a common view among the participants that the programme is based on the needs and inputs of the management as noted by participants one, two, three and four who regard this as a top-down approach towards CPD. Furthermore, participants one, two, three and five raised the concern that a common CPD programme is used for all CDPs, even those who do not have social science background. For this reason, participants four and five in this focus group interview argue that this programme is not tailor-made to the needs of the CDPs. CPD content-related problems have also been revealed in the study conducted by David and Bwisa (2013). Swanepoel (1997) has also observed that lack of synergy between the practitioners' needs and CPD content is a major factor that hinders CDPs from successfully approaching and working with communities. Westoby (2014) also criticises this weak link of CD. The criticism is based on the fact that the one-size-fits-all approach contradicts the principle of diversity and bottom-up constructions of learning needs entrenched in the Constitution Act no. 108 of 1996 of the

Republic of South Africa. Ndlovu (2011) posits that this challenging situation could be remedied through a customised professional learning as it will provide for the diverse background and needs.

The reflective notes, responses, codes and the category which emerged from the responses are presented in Table 5.17 below.

Table 5.17: Imposition

Reflective notes	Response	Codes	Category
<i>Sense of doubt.</i>	<p>Researcher: Which problems have you encountered in the implementation of the CPD programme for the CDPs?</p> <p>Participant 4 FG#3: <i>Aaah! Our PDP are just a matter of compliance. <u>The basis of the programme is either the expert's views or management's.</u></i></p> <p>Participant 2 FG#5: <i>I fully agree that the CPD <u>programme is based on almost 80% of management's and the experts' interest and only 20% of our real needs.</u></i></p>	<p>The programme is based on the experts' views or management's.</p> <p>The programme is based more on management and experts' views than ours.</p>	Imposition

The next section presents the views of the CDPs about planning of CPD activities.

e. Poor planning

During the focus group interviews, perceptions pertaining to the planning of CPD activities were raised. The views of the CDPs are presented in this section.

Focus group #1

Participant 1: *We always receive invitations to workshops, training sessions and meetings a few days before. This is not good because we do not get a chance to prepare ourselves by way of reflecting on what we already know and the subject to be tackled.*

Participant 6: *It seems to me that when planning is done for this programme, the fact that CDPs are working in all the programmes in the directorate, is not considered. It has happened that CPD activities for two different programmes are scheduled at the same time. This became a problem to me because I needed to take part in those two.*

Participants one, three and four specifically mentioned that the absence of a schedule upsets service point and the individual's plans and hinders them from preparing themselves in advance. This is echoed in the suggestions made by respondents in the study by Makunye and Pelsler (2012) that a schedule for a year should be drawn in order to allow CDPs to organise themselves in advance. The concern about high workload is also consistent with the results of the study by David and Bwisa (2013) where professionals cited it as a hindrance to participation in CPD.

The views of participant one and three were consistent with the findings by Arthur, *et al.* (2006) that practitioners did not take part in CPD as empty slates on which information could just be written. As professionals they too have a lot of input that must legitimately be considered. The same scholars support the participants because the information they already have could serve as the basis for professional learning activities. In actual fact, the constructivist theory suggests that new knowledge is constructed on the basis of experiences and reflections of those that participate in a particular programme as noted by Singh, Yutakom, Yager and Ali (2012).

Focus group #2

Participant 3: *It is sad how planning is done. CPD planning is centralised and controlled by the human resource unit and the senior community development management. At the service point level we initiate and plan our learning activities.*

The concern raised by CDPs relates to centralised planning. Fraser *et al.* (2007) do not approve this approach because such an employer-controlled programme neglects the needs, aspirations and interests of the concerned professionals. In such cases, it is the employer's concerns and needs that become the focus of the programme yet the programme is intended to keep the practitioner up to date and relevant for the benefit of both. Furthermore, participants three and four expressed the view that it is the provincial management that determines the CPD plan as well as the activities, therefore, the CDPs play a minimum role in the process of articulating the contents of the programme content on offer. Cossam and Fields (2007) regard such a centralised and prescriptive model of CPD as less developmental and more threatening.

The attitudes which professionals have towards a professional development programme, as expressed by participant five, can make it succeed or fail the entire programme delivery and essence (Fraser *et al.*, 2007). Lekoko (2007) suggests that CPD can facilitate the development of appropriate attitudes needed by CDPs. Hemmington (2000) in the study about barriers to CPD, found evidence to support Lekoko's interpretations of the challenges in programme delivery. The evidence brought forward is that professionals often have negative attitudes towards professional development due to lack of understanding. Therefore, it is important that they become familiar with it. Shortage of funding identified by participant one does not come as a surprise as De Beer and Swanepoel (2013) also observed that the field of CD has always been plagued by shortage of resources such as funding and experienced human resources. Inadequate resources to some extent also resembles challenges in relation to planning.

Focus group # 3

Participant 2: There is also a problem of shortage of resource[s] which shows poor planning. I had to hitch-hike to Mafikeng to attend a workshop because I did not have a pool car and enough money for a taxi. Oh Lord! I really put my life in danger.

Dissatisfaction with how CPD is planned in this department has been raised by all participants in this focus group. Participants three and five complained about clashes resulting from failing to arrange for activities accordingly and even to disseminate the poorly organised plans. Grace

(2001) attests to the observation made by the participants by saying that in some organisations CPD interventions such as training are not planned at all. Steyn (2011) advises that professional development can only be effective if it is planned appropriately.

Participant one raised the concern that CPD activities are usually scheduled in large numbers towards the end of the financial year which imply challenges with regard to planning. Ono and Ferreira (2010) also observed a similar practice in their study and discourage it because where CPD is carried out for compliance purposes learning is never a concern. While participant one observed that there is a tendency not to use funds for CPD during the course of the year despite the need, participant four is not even sure if CPD is budgeted for. Shortage of other resources like transport was mentioned by participant two. In a study conducted among educators in Nigeria, Iyunade (2011) found that shortage of resources such as funds hindered successful implementation of CPD. This same researcher recommended that funding for CPD could be secured through legislation from companies as part of their Cooperate Social Responsibility (hereafter, CSR).

Focus group #4

Participant 3: The community development provincial management is the one that determines the CPD plan that is why most of the information about the programme comes from them.

The narratives by the participants suggest that the CDPs played a minimal role in planning CPD in the department. The situation seems to be worsened by communication problems mentioned by participants two and three. Mansour *et al.* (2014) advise against non-involvement of professionals in a CPD programme because it diminishes their opportunity to take ownership of the programme. Duplication of CPD activities and content material has been cited by participant one as an example of poor planning. Grace (2001: 524) has also made a similar revelation that “people will often be attending courses on the same subject unnecessarily, or going to courses in areas they are already competent in.”

Focus group #5

Participant 1: Planning for CPD takes place at the provincial level and service point level without consultation. This is poor planning [of] the highest degree. How do you plan for the same people at two different places aag man? The end result...chaos...

The participants also identified lack of synergy between the provincial management and service point management plans as one of the major problems they have experienced. There is a common view from the focus group participants that the local plans were not taken into consideration by the provincial management when they drew the final CPD plan. Cossam and Fields (2007) do not support this approach because it pays much more attention to the needs of the employer while undermining the principles of CPD, and therefore the views of those for whom the training is targeted.

Table 5.18 below presents the reflective notes, responses, codes and the category in relation to planning of CPD activities.

Table 5.18 Poor planning

Reflective notes	Response	Codes	Category
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<p>Display of anger.</p> <p>Act of fear.</p>	<p>Researcher: Apart from those problems, are there other problems which hinder the achievement of the objectives of the CPD programme for the CDPs?</p> <p>Participant 1 in FG#5: <i>Planning for CPD takes place at the provincial level and service point level <u>without consultation</u>. This is <u>poor planning</u> at the highest degree. How do you plan for the same people at two different places aag man? The end result...chaos...</i></p> <p>Participant 2 in FG#3: <i>There is also a problem of <u>shortage of resource[s]</u> which <u>shows poor planning</u>...I did not have a pool car and enough money for a taxi. Oh Lord! I really put my life in danger.</i></p>	<p>Lack of consultation.</p> <p>Poor planning.</p> <p>Shortage of resources.</p> <p>Poor planning.</p>	<p>Poor planning.</p>
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The next section presents the views of the CDPs about the selection criterion in relation to participation of CDPs in the CPD programme.

f. Absence of a selection criteria

From the focus group interviews held with CDPs about the problems they experienced in the implementation of CPD, concerns were raised about the criteria used to determine participation of the CDPs in the CPD programme. The views of the CDPs are presented in this section.

Focus group #1

Participant 5: Oh! Yes absence of a selection method causes people to use different methods. The head office sometimes chooses participants, other times the community development managers do. This is unfair because people take part in CPD activities which they do not need. This causes tension between us.

The narratives by the CDPs demonstrated that different managers used various methods as said by participants four and five. While assistant managers used rotation, the provincial community development management drew lists of the CDPs who had to take part in some of the training activities. Boud and Hager (2011) seem not to support the principle of rotational basis because CPD ought to be continual training and empowerment process if it is to succeed. Participant three and six mentioned that the policy spoke of the need as the primary determinant of involvement in CPD.

The point that the data in the PDPs was not considered and the involvement of management in determining who had to take part in certain CPD activities were not appreciated by participants one, three and four because PDPs seemed not to be considered in the selection process. In the study about models of CPD, Kennedy (2014a) described such a model which is dominated by the employer as a transmissive model of CPD. Gameda and Tynjala (2015) criticised such a transmissive model because it took control and authority away from the beneficiary, and apportioned them to the authorities.

Focus group #2

Participant 3: *There is lack of consistency when it comes to workshops. The PDP is not followed instead the manager's discretion is used or people are asked to rotate.*

The participants in this focus group reiterated the point that their needs as outlined in the PDPs are not used as a means to determine their involvement in CPD which they feel is not good for their professional development. Similarly, Adu and Okeke (2014) observed in their study among university lecturers that success in CPD is influenced by strict adherence to the needs of the professionals and the context within which they operate. The participants saw the use of the managers' discretion which led to rotation and favouritism as deterrents to the meaningfulness of these programmes. A Kenyan study by David and Bwisa (2013) also highlighted lack of fair opportunities as hindrances to CPD.

Focus group #3

Participant 4: *The department does not use a clear criterion of selecting those who have to take part in the CPD activities. Sometimes we take part in the CPD activities because we were available when the call was made.*

The participants in this focus group expressed the view that there is no criterion to determine participation in CPD activities. Participants one and four explained that while in one instance participation is determined on the basis of availability in another one it is either the provincial management or the assistant managers using the rotation system. Participants one and five explained that absence of a criterion opens room for bias among managers and prevents them from benefiting in CPD. Unlike what the practitioners purport to be the case at their workplace, many studies (Hardy and Melville, 2013; Steyn; 2011; Vemic, 2007) contend that CPD has to be based on the needs of the CDPs. Khan (2010) takes the point further by stating that these needs of the practitioners can be identified through self-assessment or assessment by colleagues, management or it could be on the basis of regulatory requirements. None of these scholars mention aspects such as favouritism, even though focus group participants mentioned this phenomenon in the current study.

Focus group #4

Participant 3: *I have also realised that our needs are no longer used to determine our participation in the programme.*

The participants held the view that the process of needs-identification through the PDPs happened to be a matter of compliance with the policy because the content of the PDPs seemed not to be considered. Consistent with these views are studies by Rutter (2013) and Westoby and van Blerk (2012) who reckon that a proper needs-analysis process should be instituted by all organisations that deem PDP courses an integral part of their success and functionality.

Focus group #5

Participant 2: *I would not say any specific method is used to determine our involvement. Sometimes it is the head office or the manager who decides.*

Participant 5: *I have I attended the same training over and over again due to a number of reasons. Either the person whose turn it was, was on leave, or attending some event or it was my turn to attend. So clearly I was attending for the sake of representing the service point.*

The focus group interviews held with the CDPs revealed that there was lack of consistency in planning and coordinating CDPs' involvement in the CPD programme. This was illustrated through the use of different ways of determining who should take part in the programme. The major contributing factor to this challenging situation was the absence of a clear cut criteria. Collin *et al.* (2012) regard CPD as a well-planned and an organised systematic process of learning. These researchers, therefore, do not support the manner in which CPD is managed in this department.

Table 5.19 below presents the reflective notes, responses, codes and the category which emerged from the responses in relation to the methods used to determine participation of CDPs in the CPD programme.

Table 5.19 Absence of a selection criteria

Reflective notes	Response	Codes	Category
<p><i>Fear Shows concern.</i></p>	<p>Researcher: Apart from those problems, are there other problems which hinder the achievement of the objectives of the CPD programme for the CDPs?</p> <p>Participant 5 in FG#1: <i>Oh! <u>Yes absence of a selection method causes people to use different methods. The head office sometimes chooses participants, other times the community development managers do. This is unfair because people take part in CPD activities which they do not need. This <u>causes tension between us.</u></u></i></p>	<p>Selection method is not available.</p>	<p>Absence of a selection criteria.</p>

The next section presents views of the CDPs on the support that they get from the assistant managers.

g. Lack of support from the assistant manager

In responding to the question about the problems associated with this programme, lack of support from the assistant managers was brought forward as a hindrance by the participants. This section presents the views of the CDPs.

Focus group #1

Participant 1: *There are managers who do not support us in implementing the new knowledge if they have not been trained on the same thing. They simply do not acknowledge and support CPD yet it benefits all of us.*

There seemed to be lack of support among managers with regard to allocation of time, transport as well as considering the new insights learned by CDPs through the programme. Vemic (2007) totally rejects such an attitude on the basis that no organisation can grow and be productive if its workforce is not continuously learning and improved through such training as embedded in professional courses. What came out clearly from participant one is the understanding that CPD did not only benefit an individual but the entire organization, especially if the knowledge, competencies and information were tailored to blend with the strategic growth and development of the organisation. This is exactly what Vemic (2007) encourages in the study conducted about training and development.

Focus group #2

Participant 1: *There are managers who do not have [a] social science background, so if we tell them about some of the approaches we learned, they do not give us their full support and cooperation. As a result, it is not easy for us to practice what we learned.*

The CDPs felt that the managers were not as supportive as they were supposed to be due to lack of information, and as a result, they diverted CPD opportunities to staff members in the administration service and allowed personal grudges to interfere with the implementation of the professional development programme. While there seems to be an agreement among participants about lack of support, Sadler-Smith and Badger (2006) found that there was no agreement among participants in their study about support received from managers across organisations.

Focus group #3

Participant 1: *Our manager inducted us into community development programme and taught us about all processes, procedures and approaches followed in this department. My only wish is that it be continuous.*

Participant 2: *I only attended the public service induction. No induction at the unit level. It was more of me finding out about how things are done at the unit level.*

Participant 4: *I was inducted by colleagues not manager. My manager introduced me to them and asked them to show me what our job entails as they are experienced.*

As explained by the research participants in this focus group, their managers either did not induct them into the programme, delegated induction to experienced CDPs or did certain parts of the induction programme. This contradicts the findings by Rafferty and Griffin (2004) who found that supervisors supported subordinates by helping them resolve issues, valuing their input and facilitating their skills development. Contextual factors and variables could explain the responses established from the focus group in this study in South Africa.

Focus group #4

Participant 2: *I sometimes feel that our manager does not make an effort to embrace what we learn through CPD. Most of the time when [we] give feedback on training [offered], she is not welcoming and enthusiastic about it. So implementation becomes challenging.*

CPD is regarded by scholars such as Gravells (2012); Rutter (2013); Collin *et al.* (2012) as a joint venture among the professional, employer and the supervisor. However, the views submitted by the participants in this focus group interview suggested that the managers and supervisors reject the information acquired through CPD, are less interested in supporting CDPs to implement the new information and they also deny them essential resources required for CPD.

Focus group #5

Participant 5: *Our manager is a qualified Social Worker so she does not give CDPs much support like she does with those in the Social Work programme.*

The narratives by the participants which are captured here suggested that even though they made their desire to be exposed to some interventions or to be given support in certain areas, some managers decide to act against that and simply impose what CDPs never asked for. This is similar to the findings in the study conducted by Westoby and van Blerk (2012) in which almost all participants reported that their needs are ignored even if they indicate them on the performance review forms. There was also an insinuation made by CDPs that they do not seem to receive support from their supervisor who is a Social Worker. This seems to cause tension among colleagues.

Table 5.20 below presents the views of the CDPs about support from their managers which emerged from the questions posed to the CDPs.

Table 5.20 Lack of support from the assistant manager

Reflective notes	Response	Codes	Category
Shows dissatisfaction.	<p>Researcher: Apart from those problems, are there other problems which hinder the achievement of the objectives of the CPD programme for the CDPs?</p> <p>Participant 5 in FG#5: <i>Our manager is a qualified Social Worker so she does not give CDPs much support like she does with those in the Social Work programme.</i></p>	<p>Inconsistencies cause tension.</p> <p>CDPs are supervised by Social Workers.</p> <p>Lack of support from the manager.</p>	<p>Lack of support from the assistant manager</p>

The next section presents the views of CDPs on the relationship between CPD and family life.

h. Competition between CPD and family life

It emerged during the focus group interviews that there seemed to be some unspoken competition between CPD and family life. The views of the respondents are presented in this section.

Focus group #1

Participant 5: *The way in which some CPD activities are organized, causes more harm than good. As explained earlier, if we do not finish the tasks on time we take them home and they interfere with family matters.*

According to the participants in this focus group interview, much as they appreciated and wanted to participate in CPD, to some extent the activities planned for them interfered with their private and family life. Participants one, two and three were specifically concerned about the time they spent away from their families, the short notice period that they are given and the distance that is involved in travelling to the training venues. The concern raised by participant four and six relates specifically to having to leave children behind and travelling to take part in CPD activities. This finding ties very neatly with the outcomes of the study by Gould, Drey and Berridge (2007) which reported discontentment among professionals due to having to abruptly arrange for their child care when they have to take part in some CPD activities.

Participant five expressed strong reservations in the view that after spending considerable time away from their families, they still have to take the unfinished work back home. In their study, Arthur *et al.* (2006) inferred a similar situation as one's inability to balance work and family time. However, Friedman (2012) disagrees because sometimes professionals, willing as they may be to participate in CPD, are constrained by stringent demands for time from family and work environments. Joyce and Cowman (2007) and Fraser *et al.* (2007) hold the view that the situation may be as a result of the value that the employer attaches to CPD.

It has been noted from the comment by participant three that their workload hindered them from taking part in CPD. This view is consistent with what lecturers in the study by Adu and Okeke (2014) observed; the lecturers felt that they had too much work to do and as a result they found it difficult to engage meaningfully and purposefully in CPD.

Focus group #2

Participant 2: *I sometimes feel that I am kind of pushed to choose between CPD and my family. This is not good because the two are important to me. There has never been a time when I chose my family over CPD, unfortunately my family and I suffer.*

Improper planning was cited by the participants as a factor that caused ill-feelings among CDPs. Participants one and three were mainly concerned about activities that were scheduled towards the end of the year as it meant that these participants had to go away regularly. On the contrary, in the study by Tsoetsi and Mahlomaholo (2013), a participant expressed the view that as the year was coming to an end, they invariably had not yet been exposed to any CPD opportunities and therefore lagged behind in terms of preparedness when the new year started.

Shortage of resources which the respondents said that kept them away from their families, was also identified in the study conducted by Vemic (2007). The study by Vemic recommended that modern day productive organisations should set aside sizeable resources for professional learning and development to ensure success, adding that such activities ought to be planned for convenient times for the stakeholders to participate fully without the extraneous encumbrance.

Focus group #3

Participant 1: *Involvement in these activities, especially at short notice, affects us psychologically because by the time we are attending the course we keep thinking about whether or not children and family are fine.*

The participants in this focus group interview mentioned that there was lack of appreciation of CPD among them and family members. This finding is consistent with the findings in a study by Lessing and de Witt (2007) which assessed the value which professionals in the Gauteng province attached to a CPD programme. The aforesaid study revealed that professionals developed a negative attitude and lack of interest towards CPD because it kept them away from their families. Arthur *et al.* (2006) also reported personal inconveniences as some of the disincentives for professionals refusing to take part in ill-planned and inconvenient CPD. These results totally contradict what Hemmington (2000) found in relation to the views of participants about the timing for CPD. In the said study, the participants did not express any dissatisfaction or concerns about having to spend what they regard as family time attending CPD activities.

The participants felt that they lost more than what they gained. There were also some disagreements between men and women about the effect of CPD on their family life. While participant four feels that it affects men and women the same way, participants three and five think that women are the hardest hit. Rutter (2013) supports participant one who said that the rift between CPD and family made them unhappy, thus hampering the intended learning. The scholar concluded in that study that there is no way learning can take place if learners have ill-feelings about a learning programme.

Focus group #4

Participant 5: *I find it difficult to concentrate on the learning activities while thinking about my children's safety.*

The narratives by the CDPs demonstrate a sense of dissatisfaction, unhappiness and a frame of mind that is not ready to learn because of being torn between CPD and family responsibilities. As mentioned by participants one, they felt that some of the time they spent engaging in CPD activities would have been used better doing family chores or CD work. Thus undertaking the training programme became a major challenge as suggested by participant five. Similarly, Boud and Hager (2011) also found out that from a constructivist theory point of view, learning

cannot take place if professionals are not attentive, motivated and have some reservations about CPD.

Focus group #5

Researcher: Are there other problems which hinder you from achieving the objectives of the programme?

Participant 1: *I enjoy the informal CPD activities that take place at our service point because we do them during working hours. The problem is traveling to other places. It interferes with my private space.*

Participant 5: *You can imagine having to leave my house at three in the morning and come back at eight in the evening. Am I not ignoring family's needs?*

There was some level of satisfaction among participants about CPD in this focus group but the challenge they experienced was the time factor. While the time factor seemed to be of great concern to the participants, a study by Adu and Okeke (2014) revealed that it was indeed the least inhibiting factor among the study participants in his context. In their study, Adu and Okeke (2014) found that the programme activities were well planned yet this does not necessarily seem to be the case here.

Table 5.21 presents the reflective notes, responses, codes and a category which emerged from the responses in relation to the relationship between family life and CPD.

Table 5.21 Competition between CPD and family life

Reflective notes	Response	Codes	Category
Show of dissatisfaction again	<p>Researcher: Are any further problems?</p> <p>Participant 5 FG#1: <i>The way in which some CPD activities are organized, causes more harm than good. ...if we do not finish the tasks on time we take them home and <u>they interfere with family time.</u></i></p>	<p>CPD activities interfere with family life.</p>	<p>Competition between CPD and family life</p>

In sum, there are intricate sentiments against ill-planned CPD programmes that interfere with private family life and these are seen in a negative light by the majority of the participants, a result that is markedly different from similar studies elsewhere.

The next section presents views of the CDPs about the type of CPD activities they prefer.

i. Workplace versus boardroom CPD activities

In this section the views of the CDPs about their preference between CPD activities that take place in a boardroom and those at the workplace are presented.

Focus group #1

Participant 5: *CD is about people's real life situations, so the boardroom CPD does not afford us the chance to experiment and see which methods can yield better results in communities.*

The participants were clearly not satisfied with the fact that most of their CPD activities were boardroom-based because it did not give them a chance to learn about real life situations. There was some satisfaction with the workplace-based CPD as it gave them a sense of control of the learning process. Megginson and Whitaker (2007) found that the manner in which CPD is structured and implemented can make it a success or failure. It is clear in this study that there is much preference for workplace-based CPD because it affords CDPs the opportunity to experiment and discover things for themselves.

Focus group #2

Participant 4: *Oh my word! I do not prefer boardroom activities because some of the presenters just lack information and downplay our questions.*

Participant 5: *Sometimes a person just reads the material to us without interacting with us or even using a real life example to demonstrate the point. Learning then becomes difficult for us.*

According to the participants in this focus group, workplace-based CPD was much more useful because CDPs acquired extended experience through them compared to the boardroom based ones. Bhattacharyya *et al.* (2001) supports these views of the facilitation processes of CPD because even in their study participants revealed that they were able to learn effectively through community-based interventions. In this way, practitioners were able to create their own knowledge thus facilitating self-learning as recommended by Sandholtz (2002). Participants four and five also did not appreciate boardroom CPD because some presenters lacked information and chose to read the material to the trainees. This result is consistent with the finding by Tsotetsi and Mahlomaholo (2013) in which a participants complained about lack of real life simulations and information among presenters who end up simply reading the material to them.

Focus group #3

Participant 4: *I think boardroom activities promote laziness and being passive especially if the presenter is unable to come up with activities which require CDPs to be in action.*

The CPD activities which took place in the boardroom seemed not to be the preferred version of the participants. Participants one, two, three and four saw them as hindrances to active participation in learning, especially when the presenters could not demonstrate any creativity and just focus on the regurgitation of learning material instead of the learner. Participant four says they promote laziness and passiveness. Above all, participant one is of the view that it is mostly difficult to implement what has been learned through boardroom CPD activities. Participants in a study by Zuber-Skerrit and Teare (2013) were also unable to implement what they learned from a CD oriented training that took place away from the workplace.

Focus group #4

Participant 4: *The boardroom CPD activities are far removed from the actual situation that we are working in. So I prefer locally based ones because we are in control of things. Local is "lekker."*

Even in this focus group interview, there was consensus among participants that local or workplace-based CPD affords them the opportunity to experiment and learn at their own time, space and pace. As said by participant four, they had control over the local process unlike centrally organised activities that did not establish tangible connections with the real CD context. Burton and Johnson (2010) shares similar views with the participants on the basis that most of the time when learning activities take place in simulated circumstances and environments, chances are that by the time the presenter or team of experts depart, the learners or trainees have also forgotten what they learned. However, Ndlovu (2011) argues that where CPD activities take place is immaterial, what is important is that the programme should be objective, needs-based, continuous and informative.

Focus group #5

Participant 1: *I definitively go for workplace-based CPD because it gives us a chance to talk and even work on practical challenges that we are experiencing whereas with the boardroom in most instances we use scenarios.*

All the participants in the focus group expressed appreciation and support for workplace-based CPD. Participant one echoes the sentiments of Adu and Okeke (2014) that workplace-based CPD offers professionals an opportunity to share ideas and experiences. Participants two and three supported the workplace-based CPD as it gave them an opportunity for experiential and practical learning which they did not get at the university. A study by Mokhele and Jita (2010) also revealed that professionals prefer workplace-based CPD because it has more chances of closing the gaps left by higher education.

The reflective notes, responses, codes and the category which emerged from the responses in relation to the type of CPD which the CDPs prefer are presented in Table 5.22.

Table 5.22 Workplace versus boardroom CPD activities

Reflective notes	Response	Codes	Category
Displays preference.	<p>Researcher: Are there other problems which hinder you from achieving the objectives of the programme?</p> <p><i>Participant 4 in FG#4: The <u>boardroom CPD activities are far removed from the actual situation that we are working in. So I prefer locally based ones because we are in control of things. Local is “lekker”.</u></i></p>	<p>Preference for contextualised and relevant activities.</p>	<p>Workplace versus boardroom CPD activities</p>

The next section presents the solutions to the problems that participants perceived as hindering the achievement of the objectives of the CPD programme for the CDPs.

j. Solutions to the problems that hinder achievement of the objectives of the CPD programme

This section presents views of the CDPs about what is currently done to resolve the problems as well as the specific roles that the CDPs play in the process. It is important to acknowledge that this specific category emerged from the question that was posed by the researcher to the participants. The participant's views are presented below.

Focus group #1

Participant 2: As explained earlier, our manager is a Social Worker who gives special preference to Social Workers. We alerted the provincial management about this and requested for a community development manager. Up to now, there is no positive response.

The discussion as revealed in this focus group interview demonstrated that there is an understanding among CDPs that professional learning is a self-initiated journey. Participant four made the point that as CDPs they took it upon themselves to ensure that they learn on their own and not rely completely on the management. Similarly, Lucas, Nasta and Rogers (2012) found in their study that professionals initiated learning activities in order to ensure that they are familiar with developments in their field of work. Participants in Sadler-Smith and Badger (2006) also made it clear that they know that their professional development is their lifelong responsibility and therefore insisted on proactive rather than reactive involvement in the re-design and planning for such critical activities.

The participants in this focus group interview, just as in the Malinga-Musamba and Ntshwarang (2013) study, were concerned about CD being managed by Social Workers. Malinga-Musamba and Ntshwarang (2013) observed a similar practice in Botswana as well. These scholars argue that such a practice leads to CD being influenced by the social welfare approach and this is not in line with the intrinsic principles of CD which encourage self-reliance and self-help.

Focus group #2

Participant 2: *Our manager is only able to help us resolve problems that occur at the service point. With regard to coordination and planning matters relating to CPD activities organised centrally, he referred them to the district and provincial management. So far there is no improvement.*

There was a common view among CDPs that out of the concerns that they raised with the assistant manager, those that were about the centrally-based CDP coordination and planning were referred to the provincial management of CD as alluded to by participants one, two and three. All the participants explained that they discussed their concerns and experiences during the sectional meetings. Gravells (2012) supports the use of such meetings as a platform for tailor-made CPD where the input of practitioners is taken heed of and ultimately integrated into the facilitation and training.

Focus group #3

Researcher: How were the problems that you raised addressed? Which role do you play in solving the problems?

Participant 4: *Discussing the challenges we experience with our supervisor also helps because she is such an experienced person who started working as an assistant manager.*

Participant 5: *I prefer to conduct research for myself before I even ask a colleague or my supervisor for advice or assistance.*

There was demonstration of self-learning, collective effort and creativity among participants as they all explained the efforts that they came up with to resolve challenges they experienced when facilitating CD. What the CDPs were doing augers well with the view by constructivist theorists that learning takes place effectively through such interaction and dialogue (Grado-Severson, 2007). Steyn (2011) regards this as co-construction of new meanings on the basis of what is already known. Maistry (2008) adds that the process facilitates in-depth understanding of a phenomenon since it is initially informed by the practical experiences of the persons involved.

Focus group #4

Researcher: How were the problems that you raised addressed? Which role do you play in solving the problems?

Participant 1: *To address absence of a selection criterion for participation, at our service point we developed a schedule which is informed by our needs and we stick to it. We also read books and articles and discuss issues during meetings.*

Participant 2: *We enquired about lack of synergy between our needs and what the programme offers and learned that we can apply for funding which we did but unfortunately funds were depleted.*

The narratives by the CDPs showed that they were making an effort to solve the CPD problems that they were experiencing despite the challenges. Participants one, three and four explained that they dealt with the criteria for participation in CPD during sectional meetings. Participant five reported that they devised the means to get transport if it was not organised for them. This finding concurs with the results in the study by Lucas *et al.* (2012) that the practitioners actively devised measures towards resolving CPD related problems.

Focus group #5

Researcher: How were the problems that you raised addressed? Which role do you play in solving the problems?

Participant 4: *Since my manager wants us to include similar needs on our PDPs, as CDPs at my service point we always insist that CPD is about our needs therefore we refuse to write similar ones.*

Lack of support, as mentioned by participant two, among colleagues or management in dealing with CPD problems has also been cited in the study by Tsotetsi and Mahlomaholo (2013). Participant four seemed to have taken a stance that even though the manager may advise them about their weaknesses which are basically their needs, they chose to include those they have

identified amongst themselves. Westoby and van Blerk (2012) confirms the point made by the participants that it is their ultimate responsibility to ensure that they learn what is relevant and derived from their immediate experiences and that they effectively use what they have learned. The study by Wallace (2008) supports this view by submitting the recommendation that professionals need to take ownership of their professional development journeys.

The reflective notes, responses, codes and the category that emerged from the questions posed to the participants are presented in Table 5.23 below.

Table 5. 23 Solutions to the problems that hinder achievement of the objectives of the CPD programme

Reflection	Responses	Codes	Category
Sense of responsibility.	<p>Researcher: How have you been resolving the problems you have mentioned?</p> <p>Participant 1 FG# 4: <i>To address absence of a selection criterion for participation, at our service point we developed a schedule which is informed by our needs and we stick to it. We also read books and articles and discuss issues during meetings.</i></p>	Developed a schedule that is responsive to own needs.	Solutions to the problems that hinder achievement of the objectives of the CPD programme

The next section presents the views of the CDPs in relation to how the programme can be improved.

k. Programme alignment

Programme alignment emerged as one of the categories during interpretation and analysis. This section presents the views of the CDPs about what should be done to improve the depth and breadth of the programme.

Focus group #1

Participant 3: *CPD should be tailor-made to the needs of different CDPs to address their specific challenges.*

The participants were in agreement that a tailor-made CPD was required in order to address the specific professional needs of the CDPs. Similarly, a call for tailor-made CPD has been made across professions and disciplines by various scholars (Steyn, 2011; Jordan *et al.* 2008). Jordan *et al.* (2008) further note that constructivist theorists also support the need for a tailor-made programme. Many researchers (Delannoy, 2000; Pitsoe and Maila, 2012) are in support of the view by the participants that their real needs had to be analysed in order to determine the appropriate content developed for intervention because society is changing, therefore, CPD content must keep up to date with such changes.

Focus group #2

Participant 1: *I suggest that personal circumstances should be taken into consideration when planning and implementing CPD to ensure active participation and concentration and reduce negative effect on family.*

Participation in CPD has been said to have a negative influence on personal circumstances and family by participants, but Davies and Preston (2006) found that the majority of participants in their study experienced a positive influence of CPD activities on their family life. Self-learning through experimentation suggested by participants is also encouraged by Pitsoe and Maila (2012) in their study because it affords learners the chance to construct knowledge on the basis of their prior experiences.

Focus group #3

Participant 1: *This thing is easy. Just put more emphasis on the on-site CPD activities, CPD policy review and include CDPs in planning and budgeting. I am telling you we shall win especially if we can also be supervised by Development Studies or Community Development graduates.*

Participants one and five highly recommended inclusion of policies in the CPD content. Previous studies (Westoby and van Blerk, 2012; Kennedy, 2014b) also identified a need for training in policy content and processes due to the confusion detected during the interviews that the scholars conducted among community development workers in the Free State province in South Africa. To remedy this, Westoby and van Blerk (2012) recommend that professional development for CDPs should, among others, focus on policies.

Focus group #4

Participant 3: *We need advanced level courses to build up on the introductory courses we had. The programme must move away from once off approach. This can be achieved if our PDPs are used to determine CPD content.*

The views of participant three that the once-off approach to CPD denied them the opportunity to learn continuously are consistent with the conclusion drawn by Van der Heijden *et al.* (2009). Ndege (2006) also notes that, unfortunately, treating CPD as a once-off activity is prevalent in most African states. Van der Heijden, Boon, Van der Klink and Meijs (2009) also hold that CPD only becomes effective if it is a continual offering. The scholars drew this conclusion in their study conducted among the non-academic university staff members.

The significance of thorough planning of CPD activities, brought forth by participant five has also been highlighted by Joyce and Cowman (2007) as a necessary requirement for successful continual professional learning. Popularisation of the CPD in terms of its concepts and purpose was also seen as a significant element in improving CPD in the study by Paul and Bwisa (2013).

Focus group #5

Participant 3: *Another way of improving CPD is to reduce the programmes we work in so that we can specialise and engage in the relevant CPD unlike now where we are expected to be up to date with all the programmes. This will give us sufficient time for CPD.*

The suggestion made by participants one and two that the managers too need support such that they can support practitioners through their learning process has also been made by Joyce and Cowman (2007). The scholars hold that this is an investment that could yield positive results because ill-prepared managers have been seen as hindrances to CPD. The different suggestions made by the other participants have been summarised by Sadler-Smith and Badger (2006) who contend that CPD could be improved by aligning its requirements, professionals' needs and the community needs to ensure relevance and effectiveness of the professional. Joyce and Cowman (2007) observed in their study that failure to interpret and analyse appropriately the results of the needs analysis surveys leads to inappropriate intervention and therefore recommended that caution must be exercised when handling such results.

The suggestion made by participant two is supported by Batten (1962) who argues that as much as CDPs are trained, even those who work with them in facilitating CD should receive the same training. This would assist in putting all of them on the same page. What became clear from the participants is that the programme needs to be aligned to the resources and needs of the practitioners.

The reflective notes, responses, codes and the category which emerged from the responses are presented in Table 5.24.

Table 5.24 Programme alignment

Reflective notes	Response	Codes	Category
Positive attitude	<p>Researcher: What do you think should be done to improve the CPD programme for the CDPs?</p> <p>Participant 1 in FG #3: <i>This thing is easy. Just put more emphasis on the on-site CPD activities, CPD policy review and <u>include CDPs in planning and budgeting</u>. I am telling you we shall win especially if we can also be <u>supervised</u> by Development Studies or Community Development graduates</i></p>	<p>Improve components to respond to the need for on-site activities.</p> <p>Involve CDPs</p> <p>Improve supervision capacity.</p>	Programme alignment

The next section presents the views of the CDPs about the evidence of achievement and to what extent were the achievements aligned to the programme objectives?

Research question 4: What is the evidence of achievement and to what extent were the achievements aligned to the programme objectives?

1. CPD is developmental

One of the categories that emerged during interpretation of the results and analysis of the results is that the CPD is developmental. The section presents the views of the CDPs.

Focus group #1

Participant 1: *Before I took part in this programme, I struggled with report writing but ever since I started taking part the my reports are no longer sent back as many times as it used to be.*

Participant 2: *We did not do much on community-based planning at the university. Right now my level of knowledge has improved following the courses that I attended.*

Participant 6: *I appreciate the programme because there is a lot of information I have acquired from the workshops and the networks that we have at the service point and district.*

Although CDPs had reported CPD glitches during most of the focus group interviews, there was a sense of appreciation of the programme because of the benefits accrued from it. Participants two, three, four and six found the programme useful because it addressed the learning areas which higher education did not cover extensively. Sadler-Smith and Badger (2006) also reported that participants in their study appreciated the value of the CPD programme because it afforded them the opportunity to learn and keep up with the demands of the changing nature of their job. In their study about testing acceptability of a perinatal education programme in South Africa, Rundare and Goodman (2012) also found out that programme participants and supervisors endorsed and appreciated the programme because it addressed their needs.

While participant six reported improvement in report writing, participant five was even overjoyed because of the credit bearing certificate awarded then. The benefit of improved job prospects on getting a certificate conferred was well received by the participants in Sadler-Smith and Badger (2006).

Focus group #2

Participant 4: *I also benefited a lot from training on the toolkit and problem solving because ever since I attended the workshop I am able to use it on a regular basis.*

Participant 5: *I was able to acquire more knowledge on project management and community capacity enhancement as a result of attending the credit bearing short course and consulting with my colleagues.*

It became clear from the views of the participants that it was as a result of their involvement in the programme that they were able to use the toolkit and carry out responsibilities such as Non-Profit-Making Organisations (hereafter, NPO) registration which they could not do before as noted by participants one, three and four. The programme also enhanced their performance by enlightening them about the programmes that the department renders. Steyn (2013) concurs with the CDPs that an individual's performance could improve as a result of taking part in the programme. A similar sentiment is shared by William (2007) who observed that CPD helps professionals to improve their competence thus putting them in a better position to meet the demands of the job.

Focus group #3

Participant 1: *I used to dislike group activities so much but the more sectional and informal meetings I attend, the more I see the benefit. I have also made new friends through the group activities. We even call each other to talk about other job related activities.*

From the narratives provided here, there was a sense among practitioners that the programme did not only benefit them in terms of job performance but it helped them establish friendships and improve how they relate with the communities they worked with. The appreciation expressed here is worth noting because it shows that despite the challenges raised by the participants earlier, they still find the programme helpful. These sentiments are shared by participants one and three. The data in the study conducted by Mokhele and Jita (2010) also

revealed that CPD programmes become successful if they have personal meaning to professionals.

Focus group #4

Participant 3: Since I grew up in an urban area I did not know much about rural communities except the little bit of knowledge I acquired at the university. Through participation in CPD, I gained confidence and I am even able to organise community meetings without having to ask for assistance from my colleagues.

A cordial relationship between the CDP and the community and other stakeholders is important for successful facilitation of CD. The participants were able to achieve this as a result of participation in the CPD programme. The experience of improved stakeholder relationships experienced by participants three, four and five is consistent with what Mestry and Singh (2007) found. These participants felt that they were able to relate better with communities and even facilitate establishment of community-based organisations. This result fits very well with the finding by Lekoko (2007) to the effect that an effective CD training programme should change the attitudes of CDPs and prepare them to work with communities. It is interesting to note that a call made by the former President of the CDS (Walzer, 2010) has been acceded to in the CPD programme for CDPs as it exposes them to the use of technology in implementing CD interventions.

Focus group #5

Participant 2: The programme is useful as it exposes us to what we missed at the university and our manager and experienced colleagues mentor, coach and teach us through demonstrations and role play. This is with no doubt developmental!

Participant 4: Useful...? Oho! It is not, at least for me. It does not meet my computer and finance related learning needs and there is no indication that my specific needs will ever be covered.

Literature (Vemic, 2007; Joyce and Cowman, 2007) shows that participation in CPD facilitates improvement in the relationships and interaction among the professionals. Participants one and five explained that they were able to discuss, share ideas and support one another in pursuit of meeting the obligations of CD as a result of taking part in workshops and meetings. The supervisor-employee relationship and support were mentioned as positive outcomes of the programme by the participants. A similar experience was reported by Makunye and Pelsler (2012) in their study where professionals explained that they were motivated by the CPD to collaborate with others. Participant three held the view that CPD assisted them in addressing what higher education could not achieve. Khan (2010) in a study conducted among medical practitioners also concluded that CPD complements formal undergraduate and post graduate studies as the former fills the gaps which could not be accomplished by the former. There was also a level of dissatisfaction about the content of the programme as suggested by participant three which is similar to the findings of the study conducted by David and Bwisa (2013).

Table 5.25 presents the codes, response, reflective notes and the category which emerged from the responses.

Table 5.25 CPD is developmental

Reflective notes	Response	Code	Category
<p>Sense of appreciation again.</p> <p>Loss of hope.</p>	<p>Researcher: What is the usefulness of the CPD programme for you as a CDP?</p> <p>Participant two in FG #5: <i><u>The programme is useful as it exposes us to what we missed at the university and our manager and experienced colleagues mentor, coach and teach us through demonstrations and role play. This is with no doubt developmental!</u></i></p> <p>Participant four in FG#5: <i>Useful...? Oho! <u>It is not</u>, at least for me. It <u>does not meet my computer and finance related learning needs</u> and there is no indication that my specific needs will ever be covered.</i></p>	<p>The programme is useful.</p> <p>CPD is developmental.</p> <p>The programme is not useful.</p> <p>Programme does not meet my needs.</p>	<p>CPD is developmental</p>

The next section presents the perceptions of the assistant managers about CPD for CDPs.

5.3.2.1.2 Perceptions of the assistant community managers about the CPD programme for the CDPs

Interviews were held with the CD assistant managers in the four districts of the North West province. One assistant manager per district was selected through purposive sampling on the basis of them having served in the position for more than four years. For the purpose of this study, the assistant managers are regarded as CD officials one up to four.

Research question 1: What are the trends and circumstances that influenced the decision to run the CPD programme for the CDPs?

a. Involvement of CDPs in the CPD programme for the CDPs

During the interpretation and analysis of the results the involvement of the CDPs in the CPD programme for CDPs emerged.

CD official 4: *The CDPs (laughs)...they play a minimal role because they write their learning needs on the PDP and hope that they will be covered in the programme. Only a few of them took part in developing the programme items like objectives, rationale and purpose. The management makes decisions about what has to be included in the programme and how it has to be implemented. They learn from one another and refer to books and journals. They have not evaluated the programme.*

CD official 2: *No. I do not insist but I encourage them.*

Data collected from the assistant managers showed that the CDPs were involved in meetings and workshops that considered the programme items such as objectives, principles and rationale and all of them suggest their learning needs by completing PDPs. This practice is supported by Pitsoe and Maila (2012) who hold the view that the specific needs of professionals are the ones that must inform a CPD programme. Despite this, there was a common view among the assistant managers that CDPs play a minimum role in this regard because they did not have influence over the final product as it is finalised by the provincial community development management.

When asked if they did insist that CDPs should include certain needs in their PDPs, a common view among the assistant managers was that they only make recommendations and suggestions to the CDPs on the basis of their observations. Contrary to that, some assistant managers acceded to insisting that the CDPs should include certain needs in their PDPs such that they could get help and avoid hampering progress in the unit and lagging behind in terms of reaching the targets. The study by Brekelmans *et al.* (2013) also revealed that the needs of the employer should be considered when developing CPD programme as it is intended to benefit the employee, employer, profession and the community. Other assistant managers explained that they encouraged CDPs to include similar needs even though this approach caused tension between them and the CDPs. The study by Vemic (2007) revealed that such tensions are not necessary because managers and supervisors are no longer expected to know it all but to act as mediators and a source of inspiration to sub-ordinates.

As explained by many of the managers consulted in this study, the newly appointed CDPs observed the experienced CDPs and made efforts to learn by doing, as well as reading books and articles. In line with the views of the participants, Westoby and van Blerk (2012) noted that the most common forms of CPD for CDPs are reading case studies, role play, direct supervision, refresher courses, seminars and workshops.

With regard to evaluation, the assistant managers concurred that the CDPs had not evaluated the programme. The point that the programme has not yet been evaluated does not come as a surprise because Lee, Barnard and Owen (2011) reported that there are managers who do not have programme evaluation as one of their key performance areas thus never bother to evaluate programmes. Mohebbi *et al.* (2011) does not support the idea that professionals have not yet evaluated their learning programme since it is acknowledged that evaluation is a necessary step in professional learning as it determines learning needs as well as a programme's strengths and weaknesses.

Comparison of the views of the CDPs and their managers with regard to the involvement of the former in the CPD programme revealed that there is some agreement in the responses

given by both. With regards to the role that the CDPs played in the development and implementation of the programme both the managers and CDPs do agree that even though the former did play some role but it was very minimal. There was also agreement between the groups that the CDPs have never evaluated their CPD programme. Some assistant managers have confirmed that in deed there is a tendency of imposing the needs on the CDPs. The view held by some CDPS that there are managers who motivate and encourage them to include areas where they need development in their PDP was supported by the assistant managers.

The reflective notes, responses, codes and the category which emerged from the responses that were derived from the assistant managers are presented in Table 5.26.

Table 5. 26 Involvement of CDPs in the CPD for the CDPs

Reflective notes	Response	Codes	Category
<p>Emotional expression (laughter)</p>	<p><i>Researcher: What is the role of the CDPs in developing, implementing and evaluating the CPD programme for the CDPs?</i></p> <p><i>CD official 4: The CDPs (laughs). The CDPs play a <u>minimal role</u> ...<u>suggest their learning needs on the PDP</u> and Only <u>a few</u> of them took part in <u>developing the programme items</u></i></p> <p><i>Otherwise, they learn from one another and refer to books and <u>journals</u>.</i></p> <p><i>They have <u>not evaluated the programme</u>. The <u>management makes decisions</u> about what has to be included in the programme and how it has to be implemented.</i></p> <p>Researcher? Do you insist that CDPs should include certain needs in their PDPs?</p> <p>CD official 2: <i>No. I do not insist but I encourage them.</i></p>	<p>CDPs suggest learning needs.</p> <p>They developed some programme items.</p> <p>Coping strategy.</p> <p>CDPs have not evaluated the programme.</p> <p>Provincial management plays a major role.</p> <p>Encouragement.</p>	<p>Involvement of CDPs in the CPD for the CDPs</p>

The next section presents views on the awareness about the CPD policy.

b. Awareness about the CPD policy

Awareness about the policy also emerged during interpretation and analysis of the results. The views of the assistant managers are presented below.

CD official 3: It is informed by the Education and Training Policy. This policy indicates that it is there to guide the education, training and development of the CDPs. It talks about the point that CPD can be facilitated by internal staff members or by an approved external provider. It also indicates that CDPs shall acquire points especially if they attend approved short courses, skills programmes and conferences.

CD official 4: The CPD for CDPs is based on the Education and training policy of the department. It regulates the development, education and training of the CDPs. It gives provision for CDPs to be trained and developed by attending conferences and short courses with the intention to accrue points. CPD can also take place informally through learning by doing or observing others. I refer to the policy regularly because I use it to approve participation of CDPs in CPD.

There was commonality among the officials about the programme being informed by the education and training policy. There are also views that the CPD activities provided for in the policy are the ones that provide parameters for the programme. The managers, unlike most of the CDPs who took part in this study, confirmed that they referred to the policy more often for guidance in handling CPD and supervising CDPs. Most of the managers did not report any weaknesses about the policy unlike in the study by Makunye and Pelsler (2012) where professionals recommended that the CPD policy should be clearly defined. As mentioned by official three, the policy outlines that the practitioners shall be awarded points upon engagement. Contrary to this finding, the study by Boud and Hager (2011) revealed that

it is more fulfilling to have the evidence that demonstrates that professionals have learned one or two things, unlike producing a mere confirmation through a register and awarding them points.

Table 5.27 presents the codes, responses, reflective notes and the relevant category.

Table 5.27 Awareness about the CPD policy

Reflective notes	Responses	Codes	Category
	<p>Researcher: Which policy governs the CPD programme of the CDPs?</p> <p>CD official 4:</p> <p><i>The CPD for CDPs is based on the <u>Education and training policy of the department. It regulates the development, education and training of the CDPs. It gives provision for CDPs to be trained and developed by attending conferences and short courses with the intention to <u>accrue points</u>. CDP can also take place informally through learning by doing or observing others. I <u>refer to the policy regularly</u> because I use it to approve participation of CDPs in CPD.</u></i></p>	<p>Education and training policy.</p> <p>Accrue points.</p> <p>Reference to policy.</p>	<p>Awareness about the CPD policy</p>

The next section presents views on what determines the relevance and adequacy of what was put in place in preparation for implementing a CPD programme for CDPs.

Research question 2: What determines the relevance and adequacy of what was put in place in preparation for implementing a CPD programme for CDPs?

c. Availability of options of CPD programme.

Availability of options to choose from emerged from the question posed to the participants. The views of the assistant managers are presented below.

CD official 1: *Options to choose from? None were provided. For me this seems to be what the department is be able to deliver. The activities seem easy to implement, manage and coordinate.*

CD official 2: *No...no...no...we have never been given a number of programmes to choose from.*

Stufflebeam and Shinkfield (2007) suggest that prior to endorsement and adoption of a CPD programme, a number of options should be considered. Contrary to the suggestion by Stufflebeam and Shinkfield (2007), it was clear from the narratives by the officials that there were no options to choose from. Therefore, it was not surprising that officials reported that they accepted the programme that was brought before them, in spite of its shortfalls. The view of the assistant managers is in line with the point put forward by the CDPs that there was an element of lack of consultation between the provincial and local offices. This resulted in the decision taken by the provincial management being the final one. Such an approach is aligned to the centralised approach to CPD which has been discouraged by scholars such as Ono and Ferreira (2010) because of its bureaucratic nature.

Table 5.28 presents the codes, response and reflective notes for this category which emerged from the questions posed to the participants.

Table 5.28 Availability of options to choose from

Reflective notes	Responses	Codes	Category
Surprised	<p>Researcher: Were there other programmes to choose from and why did the department settle for this programme?</p> <p>CD official 1: <i>None were provided. For me this seems to be what the department is able to deliver. The activities seem easy to implement, manage and coordinate.</i></p> <p>CD official 2: <i>No...no...no...we have never been given a number of programmes to choose from.</i></p>	<p>No options were given.</p> <p>Simplicity.</p> <p>No options were given.</p>	<p>Availability of options to choose from</p>

The next section presents the views of the assistant managers on programme content.

d. Programme content

The category, programme content, emerged from the question that was posed to the participants. The views of the officials are presented here.

CD official 3: *The programme comprises formal and informal CPD activities. Formal ones include induction, workshops, training and courses. These focus mainly on project*

management, toolkit, monitoring and evaluation, mentoring and coaching, on-line NPO registration, stakeholder mobilisation, business plan, theory, approaches, as well as household and community profiling. Informal learning takes place through learner network, observations, learning by doing, meetings as well as reading books, articles and newspapers. All records are kept safely for use in the department.

CD official 4: The number of hours is not stipulated in the policy or plan but the policy says they have to accumulate points. The point system is not implemented.

There was a common view among the assistant managers that the programme entailed formal and informal activities. The formal ones were organised by the department while informal ones were initiated by the CDPs. This was also confirmed by the CPDs. The CPD activities outlined by the assistant managers are in line with Westoby and Ingamells (2012) and De Beer and Swanepoel (2007) who deem this facet a necessary engagement for successful community development practice. The views of the assistant managers about the use of information technology being part of the CPD is consistent with the results of the study by Walzer (2010) which revealed that CDPs need to continually expand their information and technology skills and knowledge such that they can use technology to facilitate development.

It is clear from the narratives of the assistant managers that they agree with the CDPs that the latter were able to initiate learning activities for themselves. Such an initiative taken by the CDPs to devise the means of self-learning concurs with the findings by Ledwith (2011) that if people take the responsibility to acquire new information it is more developmental than if they were passive recipients. This was also confirmed by the CDPs who explained that active involvement in learning activities gave them control and ownership of the learning process. The assistant managers' explanation that the programme was compulsory and available to all CDPs is consistent with the finding by Walzer (2010) that CPD is imperative for CDPs as communities are continuously changing. While many studies (Gravells, 2012; Ross, Barr and Stevens, 2013) revealed that professionals are required to spend a particular number of hours engaging in CPD and records should be kept, the assistant managers explained that there was no specific stipulation of how the system had to be managed.

Table 5.28 below presents the reflective notes, responses, codes and the category which emerged from the responses.

Table 5. 28 Programme content

Reflective notes	Response	Codes	Category
	<p>Researcher: What does the programme entail?</p> <p>CD official 3: <i>The programme comprises formal and informal CPD activities. Formal ones include induction, workshops, training and courses. ...focus mainly on project management, toolkit... Informal learninglearner network, observations, ...</i> <u>All records are kept safely</u> </p> <p>Researcher: <i>Does the programme specify the number of hours that CDPs have to spend doing CPD activities?</i></p> <p>CD official 4: <i>The number of hours is not stipulated but the policy says they have to accumulate points. The point system is not implemented.</i></p>	<p>Formal and informal CPD activities.</p> <p>Formal CPD activities.</p> <p>Informal CPD activities.</p> <p>Record keeping.</p> <p>Number of hours not stipulated.</p>	<p>Programme content.</p>

The next section presents participants' responses in relation to the extent to which the overall design and implementation process of the CPD programme for CDPs was appropriate to achieve the stated objectives.

Research question 3: To what extent is the overall design and implementation process of the CPD programme for CDPs appropriate to achieve the stated objectives?

e. Poor planning

During the interpretation of the results and analysis, another category that emerged is poor planning. The views of the assistant managers are presented in this section.

CD official 1: The programme seems not to emphasise critical professional learning needs of the CDPs like communication, presentation and language skills. CDPs acquire these through their own initiative or support from managers. Another biggest problem [sic] is that some activities do not take place as and when required. For example, every CDP requires training on the toolkit but not all CDPs have been trained on it. There is lack of continuity in CPD activities because CDPs receive basic training most of the time. As a result such training does not meet their professional learning needs. There are no supervisors in our district so we serve as supervisors and managers which is challenging because we do not have enough time to support the CDPs in their work and CPD. Major issue is that we also do not get enough training. Shortage of funding, unrealistic targets and short term interventions such as Setsokotsane consume the CDPs' time thus they do not have enough time for CPD. All these come down to poor planning.

CD official 4: The absence of a CPD schedule makes it difficult for the CDPs to plan and prepare themselves for the sessions. Sometimes they even leave their family members in a short notice [sic] to take part in CPD. As a result, they complain that they do not concentrate

because of worrying about their families. Sometimes the management cancels CPD activities because of shortage of resources. All these are caused by poor planning for CPD.

Lack of support for CPD from the IT unit is shown through people not being given passwords or still using old computer programme deters CDPs from implementing what they learned. Lack of cooperation among them and personal grudges also disturb CDPs when they have to engage in learning activities. Some CDPs influence each other when identifying their professional needs. As a result, CPD loses meaning and value. The CPD activities are not evaluated to determine their impact. So even though we see that CDPs are improving there is no scientific proof.

Shortage of time for CDPs to prepare for participation, travel to venues or literally take part in the CPD programme was raised by the officials as one of the factors that hindered the CDPs from taking part and benefitting from the programme. The CDPs raised a similar concern and even explained that these factors led to tension between them and their families. Similarly, professional in the study by Gould, *et al.* (2007) also complained about time spent travelling to where CPD activities can be accessed. Contrary to this finding, the study by Hemmington (2000) revealed that the majority of the respondents did not see the time factor as a hindrance. In actual fact, they explained that the value they attach to CPD pushes them to make time for the programme even if it means having to use their personal time.

The officials highlighted shortage of resources as one of the key factors that hindered successful attainment of the programme objectives. Similarly, shortage of resources was repeatedly mentioned by CDPs as a major hindrance. Unavailability of resources to engage with the knowledge and information acquired through CPD was also found to be prevalent in the studies by Makunye and Pelsler (2012) and Mohebbi *et al.* (2011). Lack of cooperation and personal grudges among CDPs also emerged as serious impediments. Community development workers in the study conducted by Westoby and van Blerk (2012) also cited fights, disagreements and tension as encumbering the participants from carrying out their tasks, including training-related activities.

Failure of the programme to pay attention critical CD aspects was seen as a major hindrance to the programme because it failed to respond to the needs of the practitioners. Diaz-Punte *et al.* (2012) made a similar observation in their study and recommended adaptation of the training content towards the specific needs of the professionals for the purpose of achieving programme objectives. The same scholars (Diaz-Punte *et al.*, 2012) argue that aligning the programme with the needs of the professionals is likely to trigger change in their attitudes of the professionals.

Table 5.30 presents the reflective notes, responses, codes and the category which emerged from the responses.

Table 5.30 Poor planning

Reflective notes	Response	Codes	Category
<p>Time is mentioned again.</p>	<p>Researcher: Which problems have you encountered in developing and implementing the CPD programme</p> <p>CD official one: <i>The programme seems not to <u>emphasise critical professional learning needs of the CDPs like communication, presentation and language skills. CDPs acquire these through their own initiative or support from managers. Another biggest problem is that some <u>activities do not take place as and when required. For example, every CDP requires training on the toolkit but not all CDPs have been trained on it.</u></u></i></p> <p><i>There is <u>lack of continuity in CPD activities because CDPs receive basic training most of the time. As a result such training <u>does not meet some professional learning needs.</u> There are no supervisors in our district so we serve as supervisors and managers which is challenging because we do not <u>have enough time to support the CDPs in their work and CPD. Major issue is that we also do not get enough <u>training.</u></u></u></i></p> <p><i><u>Shortage of funding, unrealistic targets and <u>short term interventions</u> such as Setsokotsane consume the CDPs' time thus they do not have enough time for</u></i></p>	<p>Critical learning needs are not emphasised.</p> <p>Inconsistent implementation of activities.</p> <p>Training is required.</p> <p>Lack of continuity.</p> <p>Training does not meet needs.</p> <p>Insufficient time to support CDPs.</p> <p>Unable to give enough support.</p> <p>Lack of training for assistant managers.</p> <p>Shortage of resources</p> <p>Unrealistic targets.</p> <p>Interference by short term interventions.</p> <p>Poor planning.</p>	<p>Poor planning.</p>

	CPD. All these come down to <u>poor</u> <u>planning.</u>		
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The next section presents the solutions suggested by the assistant managers.

f. Solutions to the problems that hinder achievement of the objectives of the CPD programme

Another category that emerged from the questions that were posed to the participants is the solutions to the problems that hinder achievement of the objectives of the CPD programme. The views of the assistant managers are presented in this section.

CD official 1: *Ohoo! We raise these issues with management but they do not do much to help. So we find ways to solve the problems. Lack of cooperation among CDPs is resolved by having team building exercises at a unit level. The issue of selection of CDPs, in my service point we have grouped CDPs and shared the programmes among them so that they can take part in CPD activities that are linked to their programmes only.*

CD official 4: *Hey! It is not easy to deal with CPD problems especially workshop and short course attendance. For a particular intervention, we give priority to those who indicated it in their PDPs. We train CDPs on the toolkit at our service point level and they also discuss it during their learner-network meetings. We always recommend to management that CPD budget be done in line with what external providers are asking for to avoid shortage.*

The narratives by the managers showed that there was an effort at the service point and district levels to solve the problems without always waiting for the provincial office to intervene. Official four, just like many CDPs, recommended that the input resources such as budget should be informed by the needs of the CDPs. In the studies by Makunye and Pelsler (2012) and Mohebbi *et al.* (2011), the scholars recommended that the programmes should be strengthened by aligning the budget to it as well as ensuring that CPD is integrated into the job descriptions and strategic planning processes.

As explained by official one, they were using team or group work to reduce the effects of workload, unrealistic targets and lack of cooperation among CDPs. A similar sentiment was shared by the CDPs. Formation of groups that share duties for the purposes of ensuring that while one team does the work the other part of the team attends training was found to be a useful strategy in the study by Diaz-Puente *et al.* (2012).

The reflective notes, responses, codes and the category which emerged from the questions to the respondents are presented in Table 5.30 below.

Table 5.31 Solutions to the problems that hinder achievement of the objectives the CPD programme

Reflective notes	Response	Codes	Category
<p>Sense of disillusionment</p> <p>Intuitive intervention.</p>	<p>Researcher: How are you solving such problems?</p> <p>CD official 1</p> <p><i>Ohoo! We raise these issues with management but they <u>do not do much to help. So we find ways to solve the problems.</u> Lack of cooperation among CDPs is resolved by having <u>team building exercises</u> at a unit level.</i></p> <p><i>The issue of selection of CDPs, in my service point we have grouped CDPs and <u>shared the</u></i></p>	<p>Lack of support from management.</p> <p>Device own solutions.</p> <p>Team building exercises are used to entrench unity for professional learning.</p> <p>Sharing the programmes among</p>	<p>Solutions to the problems that hinder achievement of the objectives the CPD programme.</p>

	<p><i>programmes among them so that they can take part in CPD activities that are linked to their programmes only.</i></p>	<p>CDPs to reduce workload.</p>	
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The next section presents the views of the participants in relation to how the programme can be improved.

g. Programme alignment

Programme alignment emerged as a category during interpretation and analysis of the results. The views of the assistant managers are presented in this section.

CD official 1: *The programme should be implemented according to the policy from A to Z in order to ensure fairness and that no element of CPD is ignored. The criterion should be discussed and finalised by the CDPs, human resource unit and the managers. We as managers should undergo the train the trainer such that we can induct and give CDPs support.*

CD official 3: *The CPD programme should be implemented according to the CDPs' needs and the job description. CPD requires proper and efficient time management and to achieve this more CDPs and supervisors must be employed to ease the workload. The budget for CPD should also be increased and aligned to their learning needs. Managers and CDPs should draw CPD schedules and sign and stick to them.*

The assistant managers made different suggestions including emphasising alignment of the programme with the budget, needs and job description of the CDPs. It is clear that both the assistant managers and the CDPs agree that the different parts of the programme should be aligned in order to achieve better results. Further suggestion was that there has to be a signed

CPD schedule between the manager and a practitioner in order to promote ownership of the programme. This finding conforms with the one by Gravells (2012) that professionals and managers need to sign a CPD contract outlining the activities a practitioner will embark on to ensure ownership and proper management of the programme. It is worth noting that the CDPs did not mention the aspect of signing any CPD related agreement. The managers also aligned themselves with the finding by Megginson and Whitaker (2007) that CPD should be controlled and coordinated at the point where practitioners are operating. In this instance it is the service point.

The reflective notes, responses, codes and the category which emerged from the responses are presented in Table 5. 32.

Table 5.32 Programme alignment

Reflective notes	Responses	Codes	Category
Confidence	<p>Researcher: How can the programme in your department be improved?</p> <p>CD official 3</p> <p><i>The CPD programme should be implemented according to the <u>CDPs' needs</u> and the job description.</i></p> <p><i>CPD requires proper and efficient time management and to achieve this <u>more CDPs and supervisors must be employed</u> to ease the workload.</i></p> <p><i>The <u>budget</u> for CPD should also be increased and aligned to their learning needs.</i></p>	<p>Programme be based on the needs and job description.</p> <p>Efficient management.</p> <p>Employ more CDPs and supervisors.</p> <p>Align the budget to the needs.</p>	Programme alignment.

	<i>Managers and CDPs should draw <u>CPD schedules and sign and stick to them.</u></i>	Draw and sign a schedule.	
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The next section presents the views of the participants in relation to supervision by assistant managers.

h. Supervision inadequacies

Supervision inadequacies emerged as a category during analysis and interpretation of the results. The views of the assistant managers are presented in this section.

CD official 1: *In my supervision I use the job description, strategic plan and policies as my guiding documents. My biggest challenge is that there is no training that prepares one to become a supervisor. We learn as we supervise. Myself and the CDPs we develop the monthly and weekly plans together which I then use to monitor their performance. I observe them physically and use reports to see if they are still sticking to the plan. They present their reports during group or individual meetings where we identify need for intervention, if any. I also use those meetings to motivate and encourage them so that they can perform very well.*

CD official 4: *I observe them as they do their work to ensure that they stick to the plan that we set for ourselves. I monitor their performance through group and individual meetings to ensure that they perform appropriate activities. I also check if the resources are there and used for the right purpose. I communicate with them regularly and allow them to make inputs about how they should perform their tasks. I use policy documents of the department to guide my supervision.*

The narratives by the assistant managers showed that they referred to documents such as the job profile of the CDPs, performance management and development system, CPD policy and the toolkit and used them as a holistic guide for supervision. All officials agreed that weekly and monthly plans as well as receiving and giving feedback about performance of the CDPs all took place during individual or group meetings. As explained by some assistant managers, they monitored CDPs through the meetings and the reports that they wrote and presented.

Official four maintained regular communication with them, especially when they were in the field so that assistance could be offered if needed. If they were not performing well, official one motivated and encouraged them. The finding about keeping constant communication with subordinates is consistent with the research results of a study by Westoby and van Blerk (2012). The community development workers in that study attest to the significance of having someone to talk to when experiencing some difficulty in the field.

The practice by the Department of Social Development that newly appointed supervisors did not undergo any supervision training which the officials felt compelled them to learn by doing is consistent with the results of the study by Bush, Kiggundu and Moorosi (2011) that there is no training programme that one could undergo if she wants to become a supervisor. The scholars emphasise that this is a promotional position so one learns to supervise while on the job. Milne (2010) made a similar finding and took the point further by indicating that even CPD for the supervisors has been overlooked.

Supervision is regarded by scholars (Fraser *et al.*, 2007) as a key component is CPD. In this study, it was reported by assistant managers and CDPs that in some service points there are no supervisors as a result the assistant managers have to carry this extra load. This situation, therefore, makes it difficult for the assistant managers to give CDPs adequate support. The point raised by some CDPs that they do not get sufficient support from their supervisors, therefore, stands. This clearly serve as a hindrance to successful facilitation of CPD as noted by Westoby and van Blerk (2012). The absence of supervisors in some service points raises the issue of unequal distribution of resources yet entire cohort of CDPs are expected to perform optimally.

The reflective notes, responses, codes and the category which emerged from the responses are presented in Table 5.32 below.

Table 5.32 Supervision inadequacies

Reflective notes	Responses	Codes	Category
Lack training mentioned again.	<p>Researcher: How do you supervise CDPs?</p> <p>CD official 1</p> <p><i>In my supervision I use <u>the job description, strategic plan and policies</u> as my guiding documents. My biggest challenge is that there is <u>no training</u> that prepares one to become a supervisor. We learn as we supervise. Myself and the CDPs we develop the <u>monthly and weekly plans</u> together which I then use to <u>monitor their performance</u>. I <u>observe</u> them physically and <u>use reports</u> to see if they are still sticking to the plan. They present their reports during group or individual meetings where <u>we identify need for intervention</u>, if any. I also use those meetings to</i></p>	<p>Job description, strategic plan and policies guide supervision.</p> <p>Lack of training for supervisors.</p> <p>Collective agreement.</p> <p>Monitor performance.</p> <p>Needs are identified.</p> <p>Motivate and encourage CDPs</p>	Supervision inadequacies.

	<p><i>motivate and encourage them so that they can perform very well.</i></p>		
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The next section presents the views of the assistant managers about the evidence of achievement and the extent to which achievements were aligned to the programme objectives

Research question 4: What is the evidence of achievement and to what extent were the achievements aligned to the programme objectives?

- i. CPD offers new insights

The category of codes that reflected that CPD offers new insights emerged during analysis and interpretation of the results. The views of the assistant managers and the analysis and interpretation thereof are presented below.

CD official 1: *The programme is useful because when some of the CDPs joined the department they did not know how to approach and talk to communities especially young CDPs. Since they started attending workshops on communication skills and our sectional meetings where we talk a lot about this, there is some improvement. Even community members have attested to this.*

CD official 2: *Jaaa! It is useful. Some CDPs are able to improve how they do their work as a result of their involvement in the programme. The more the CDPs received training on electronic NPO registration, the more they improved. I had two in my service point who even trained the others from another service point.*

CD official 3: *The programme is useful to the CDPs because it exposes them to the department's programmes and CD theory and practice, especially those without Development Studies or Community Development background. Training on computer systems such as NISIS helps them to do their work efficiently.*

CD official 4: *Jaaa! It does help. Half [a] glass is better than an empty one. The programme is useful, especially for those who did not do any practical work at the university. It gives them the opportunity to practise research methods such as community profiling and also learn on*

their own through reading and observations. They also learn about CD approaches and strategies. The programme also exposes them to using computers in community development.

In responding to the question about the usefulness of the programme, the officials explained that they noticed some improvements among CDPs in how they communicated, used technology and conducted research as suggested by officials one, two and four. The general view among the managers is that CDPs were able to acquire new knowledge as a result of taking part in the programme. It was also said to be facilitating self-learning among CDPs. The observations by the assistant managers are consistent with those of the CDPs as they also explained that they benefitted from the programme despite the glitches that were there. Makunye and Pelser (2012) also found that CPD facilitates self-learning among professionals. These results seem to be a direct response to the call made by Walzer (2010) that CDPs need to be current and use technology to deal with emerging community issues.

Table 5.34 presents the reflective notes, responses, codes and the category which emerged from the responses.

Table 5.34 CPD offers new insights.

Reflective notes	Response	Codes	Category
Partial appreciation. Importance is acknowledged. Metaphor.	Researcher: What is the usefulness of the CPD programme for the CDPs and the department? CD official 4: <i>Jaaa! It does help. Half glass is better than an empty one. The programme is useful especially for those who did not do any practical work at the university. It gives them <u>the opportunity to practice research methods</u> such as <u>community profiling and also learn on their own through reading and observations.</u> They also learn about <u>CD approaches and strategies.</u> The programme also exposes them to <u>using computers in community development.</u></i>	Useful for those without practical experience. Opportunity to do practical work. Promotes self-learning. CD approaches and strategies. Exposure to computer use.	CPD offers new insights.

The next section presents the perceptions of the human resource manager and the senior community development manager about the CPD for CDPs.

5.3.2.3 Perceptions of the human resource manager and the senior community development manager about the CPD for the CDPs

This section presents the perceptions of the human resource manager who were selected purposively and interviewed. For the purpose of this study, human resource manager is regarded as CD official 5 and the senior community development manager is referred to as CD official 6.

Research question 1: What are the trends and circumstances that influenced the decision to run the CPD programme for the CDPs?

a. Awareness about CPD policy

Awareness about the policy emerged as a category during the analysis and interpretation of the results. The views of the human resource manager and senior community development practitioner are presented in this section.

CD official 5: The department has approved the Education and training policy as its CPD policy. It provides rules, regulations and conditions under which CPD takes place. The policy acknowledges that for CDPs to render services and facilitate community development, they must learn continuously so that they are informed, knowledgeable and up to date with the developments and trends in the sector. However, it says availability of funds will determine if CPD opportunities can be accessed. The policy says CPD has to be needs-driven and relevant to the priorities of the department.

CD official 6: *The CPD policy for the CDPs is governed through the Education and training policy whose aim is to facilitate continual learning among practitioners to keep them up to date and ensure that their skills do not become obsolete and irrelevant. It is also intended to improve their performance so that they can render and facilitate CD effectively. The policy further says no employee shall be discriminated against and compels the department to budget for CPD.*

The two officials explained that CDP policy outlined the rules, regulations and conditions under which CPD took place. For example, it explains that CPD is available for all practitioners. Many scholars (Arthur *et al.*, 2006; William, 2007) concur that CPD has to be available to all professionals to enhance their performance and competencies as required in the CPD policy. It is worth noting that while the management seemed confident about the point that CPD was governed through the Education and training policy which among other assured CDPs that the programme is available to all of them, some CDPs registered concerns about discriminatory practices when it came to the selection process. While in this study the policy compelled the department to fund CPD, practitioners in the study by Hemmington (2000) found it difficult to take part in CPD activities because they had to pay for the activities yet they did not have sufficient funds. Similarly, in the study by David and Mwisa (2013) lack of funding deterred participants from taking part in CPD.

The point raised by the human resource manager that both the needs of the department and the practitioners' served as the basis for the programme is in line with the finding by Brekelmans *et al.* (2013) that it is not only the needs of the professionals that inform CPD but the employer's as well.

Table 5.35 presents reflective notes, responses, codes and the category thereof which emerged from the responses.

Table 5.35 Awareness about CPD policy

Reflective notes	Response	Codes	Category
Confidence	<p>Researcher: Which policy governs the CPD programme of the CDPs?</p> <p>CD official 5: <i>The department has approved the <u>Education and training policy as its CPD policy.</u></i></p> <p><i>...CPD has to <u>be needs-driven and relevant to the priorities of the department...</u></i></p>	<p>The education and training policy.</p> <p>Policy says CPD be needs based and address the department's priorities.</p>	Awareness about the policy.

The next section presents the views of the participants about the relevance and adequacy of what was put in place in preparation for implementing a CPD programme for CDPs.

Research question 2: What determines the relevance and adequacy of what was put in place in preparation for implementing a CPD programme for CDPs?

b. Needs identified from multiple sources

Need identification emerged from the question that was posed to the human resource manager and the senior community development manager. Their views are presented in this section.

CD official 5: We got information about the needs from the CDPs through their PDPs, job description, internal report produced by managers, NDP and the department's priorities.

CD official 6: We refer to the CDPs' PDPs, the priorities and needs of the department to fulfil its mandate, job description, expert's views and internal reports, for example from supervisors and managers.

According to the officials they do consult multiple sources in order to determine the needs of the CDPs. Those sources include PDPs, job description, reports and the priorities of the department. The views of the official are consistent with those of Fraser, Kennedy, Reid and McKinney (2007) who hold that the needs which are addressed through CPD came from different sources such as job description and supervisor's inputs. While the official cited job description as one of the sources of the information used to determine what was included in the programme, Naulty, Jindal and Snape (2011) discovered in their study that there was much difference between the CPD activities and the job description. Contrary to what the senior officials said, the CDPs reported that most of the needs that they presented through the PDPs seem not to be provided for in the programme instead preference is given to what the management suggests.

Table 5.36 presents the reflective notes, responses, codes and the category which emerged from the responses.

Table 5. 36 Need identified from multiple sources

Reflective notes	Response	Codes	Category
	<p>Researcher: What was used to determine the needs of the CDPs that were included in the programme?</p> <p>CD official 5: <i>We got information about the needs from the CDPs through <u>their PDPs, job description, internal report produced by managers, NDP and the department's priorities.</u></i></p> <p>CD official 6: <i>We refer to the <u>CDPs' PDPs, the priorities and needs of the department to fulfil its mandate, job description, expert's views and internal reports...</u></i></p>	<p>Needs identified from multiple sources.</p>	<p>Needs identified from multiple sources.</p>

The next section presents the views of the senior community development practitioner and human resource manager in relation to programme content.

c. Programme content

Programme content also emerged from the question posed to the participants. The views of the human resource manager and the senior community development practitioners are presented in this section.

CD official 5: The CPD takes place through formal and informal activities which focus mainly on induction, CD planning; processes and approaches, project management and research.

CD official 6: It focuses on CD processes; strategies; approaches and planning, project management, research and the toolkit. These are further broken down into learning activities or units.

According to the officials the CPD programme takes place formally or informally. Among others the focus areas of the programme include community development planning; processes, project management and research. The learning areas listed by the participants were in line with the results of the study conducted by Westoby and van Blerk (2012) which revealed that community development workers and practitioners ought to be regularly trained on CD processes, strategies, approaches values and principles. The views of the senior managers are consistent with those of the assistant managers and the CDPs'.

Table 5.37 presents the reflective notes, responses, codes and the category which emerged from the responses.

Table 5.37 Programme content

Reflective notes	Response	Codes	Category
	<p>Researcher: Which learning areas does the CPD focus on?</p> <p>CD official 5: <i>The CPD takes place through formal and informal activities which focus mainly on <u>induction, CD planning; processes and approaches, project management and research.</u></i></p>	<p>Induction, CD planning; processes and approaches, project management and research.</p>	<p>Programme content.</p>

The next section presents views about the extent to which the overall design and implementation process of the CPD programme for CDPs was appropriate to achieve the stated objectives selection criteria.

Research question 3: To what extent is the overall design and implementation process of the CPD programme for CDPs appropriate to achieve the stated objectives?

d. Selection criteria

The other category that emerged during the interpretation and analysis of the results is the criteria used to determine participation of CDPs in the CPD programme. The views of the human resource manager and senior community development practitioners are presented in this section.

CD official 5: The policy does not specify a method to be used in determining participation of the CDPs except to say that the training committee is responsible for nominating trainees, participants or beneficiaries. The common practice in the department is that at the service point all CDPs take part in activities that are arranged by them or their manager. For activities organised by the provincial office, service point assistant managers are asked to nominate CDPs. The understanding is that it is done according to the individual's PDP. Furthermore, either the human resource unit or provincial community department unit recommends lists to service point managers but the district is given the responsibility to finalise the list as they are closer to the CDPs and understand their situation far much better than us.

CD official 6: As the provincial community development management, we identify the CDPs on the basis of their PDPs and the priorities of the department or the assistant managers are asked to nominate CDPs. According to the policy we are supposed to have a committee that handles this aspect but it is not done at the moment. This, of course, causes implementation problems for the programme.

According to the human resource manager, selection for participation in centrally organised activities is supposed to be done by a committee but this is not the case. The decision is left is left to the district and service point management. Many scholars (Khan, 2010; Boud and Hager, 2011; Sadler-Smith and Badger, 2006) concluded in their studies that CPD only becomes successful if it is systematic, self-directed and based on the needs of the professional unlike in this study where the managers determined lists of participants. This approach to CPD was not appreciated by the CDPs because it led to inconsistencies and favouritism which ended up causing tension between the CDPs and between them and their managers. The study by Khan (2010) has also revealed deviation from CPD policy during the implementation of

the programme. The scholar has, therefore, recommended that CPD has to be coordinated properly and in accordance with the policy without compromising the professionals' needs.

Table 5.38 presents the reflective notes, responses codes and the category which emerged from the responses.

Table 5.38 Selection criteria

Reflective notes	Responses	Codes	Category
	<p>Researcher: Which method is used to determine participation of CDPs in the CPD programme?</p> <p>CD official 5: <i>The policy does not specify a method...assistant managers are asked to nominate CDPs</i></p> <p><i>...human resource unit or provincial community department unit recommends lists.</i></p>	<p>No specific method in the policy.</p> <p>Assistant managers asked to nominate.</p> <p>Recommendation.</p>	<p>Selection criteria.</p>

Supervision inadequacies are presented in the next section.

e. Supervision inadequacies

Supervision inadequacies emerged as a category during interpretation and analysis of the results. The views of the senior community development manager and human resource manager are presented in this section.

CD official 5: *CD assistant managers are trained on supervision but the programme needs to be improved by aligning it to the CDPs' CPD.*

CD official 6: *They are trained on supervision and management but it is not adequate. They still need training on staff induction and some on the strategies and approaches we use in CD because they sometime reject the information that the CDPs learn at the training sessions and workshops.*

According to the officials the assistant managers have been receiving support from the department through training. However, the two do acknowledge that there is a need to improve the programme. This is utterly important because there are those assistant managers who are not trained in CD or related disciplines such as Development Studies and may therefore lack some theoretical grounding of this practice. What makes the improvement of the said programme urgent is the point some of these managers also supervise CDPs with a similar background. Batten (1962) also recommended in his study that if CD work is to succeed, it is not only CDPs who should be trained but the supervising officers too. Similarly, Milne (2010) reported in a study that professional development for supervisors seems to have been ignored, and as a result some supervisors find it difficult to guide, coach, support and monitor subordinates. This was clearly a case in this study as it was suggested that there were some managers who chose not to appreciate what the CDPs were able to learn through CPD.

Table 5.39 presents reflective notes, responses, codes and the category which emerged from the responses.

Table 5.39 Supervision inadequacies

Reflective notes	Responses	Codes	Category
	Researcher: Which kind of support do the assistant managers receive to help them		

Lack of confidence	implement the CPD programme? CD official 5: <i>CD assistant managers are <u>trained</u> on supervision but the programme needs to be improved by aligning it to the CDPs' CPD.</i>	Offered training. Improve supervisor's training programme.	Supervision inadequacies.
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The next section presents the views of the senior community development manager and human resource manager in relation to how the programme can be improved.

f. Programme alignment

Programme alignment emerged as a category during interpretation and analysis of the results. The views of the senior community development manager and human resource manager are presented in this section.

CD official 5: *We need to plan according to the needs of the CDPs and implement the policy as it is. We should strengthen the programme by building capacity for supervisors, decentralising most CPD activities, improve the induction programme and evaluate the CPD activities.*

CD official 6: *We need to clarify the criterion that is used to determine participation in the programme to avoid misuse of the programme thus ensur[ing] that CDPs engage in relevant CPD activities. We have to develop and regularly update a database of CPD participation. The PDPs must be analysed scientifically to ensure that relevant tailor-made activities are developed for specific groups of CDPs. Our CPD activities should be evaluated to gauge their performance and reception by the CDPs. The outcome [would] be used to strengthen the programme. Our communication strategy and capacity building for supervisors and managers also needs improvement.*

There is emphasis on improving the different aspects of the programme to ensure that they are aligned and support one another such that the real needs of the CDPs can be met. It is also evident from the views of the officials that the process of needs analysis required some improvement. The purpose thereof is to ensure that the programme is tailor-made to the needs of the CDPs. This fits very well with the findings by Filipe, Silva, Stulting and Gonik (2014) that a careful analysis of the professionals' needs is required in order to align the programme to the actual and real needs of the professionals. Boud and Hager (2011) also recommended in their study that one of the best ways to improve CPD is to approach it from a point of view of that the diversity of the learning needs of the professionals cannot be avoided, therefore, its policy and practice should embrace such diversity.

The point that the programme has not been evaluated which was reiterated by the CDPs has been confirmed by the senior management of community development practice. The management sees value in evaluating the programme because the outcomes thereof would be used to improve the different aspects of the programme. For example, aligning the human and physical resources of the programme. If done accordingly, it may even strengthen the anticipated alignment process. Kirkpatrick (1967), strongly warns against failure to evaluate the programme, which is the case in this organisation, because the feedback from the consumer is vital for programme improvement.

Table 5.40 presents the reflective notes, responses, codes and the category which emerged from the responses.

Table 5. 40 Programme alignment

Reflective notes	Response	Codes	Category
Hope	<p>Researcher: What should be done to improve the CPD programme?</p> <p>CD official 5: <i>We need to <u>plan according to the needs of the CDPs and implement the policy as it is.</u></i></p> <p><i>We should strengthen the programme by <u>building capacity for supervisors, decentralising most CPD activities, improve the induction programme and evaluate the CPD activities.</u></i></p>	<p>Needs-based planning.</p> <p>Implement the policy accordingly.</p> <p>Build capacity for supervisors.</p> <p>Adopt decentralisation.</p> <p>Improve induction.</p> <p>Evaluate activities.</p>	<p>Programme alignment.</p>

The next section presents the perceptions of the senior community development and human resource manager in relation to the evidence of achievement and the extent which the achievements were aligned to the programme objectives.

Research question 4: What is the evidence of achievement and to what extent were the achievements aligned to the programme objectives?

g. CPD offers new insights

Another category that emerged during data analysis and interpretation is that CPD offers new insights. The views of the senior community development manager and human resource manager and interpretation and analysis thereof are presented below.

CD official 5: The programme is very important to the CDPs in the sense that most of not all of them did not get exposure to the field of practice prior to us employing them. So this programme closes such a gap. The practical activities that they do, give them a chance get to observe and even do activities which teaches what to expect in the field. Since the programme is aimed ensuring that they learn continuously, they get to engage in activities on a continual basis which is benefit to them and the department as it keep them up to date with the changes and developments in the sector. This programme exposes them to research activities like community profiling which they did not do practically at the university. Communication is a very important aspect of community development, it is through this programme that our CDPs are able to learn about communication methods as a results some have even improved how they communicate and relate with communities.

CD official 6: Even though we are not able to meet all the needs of the CDPs through this programme, but I am delighted that most of them have been able to improve on report writing, how they manage projects, computer skills, research skills and proposal writing and presentation. These achievements are not by accident but what we have set out to obtain with the programme. The programme objectives emphasise that the practitioners should be able to perform and improve how they are facilitating development and what we are seeing is that the CDPs are gradually using what they learn to improve how they facilitate development.

There is a sense of acknowledgement of the point that the programme has not been able to meet all the needs of the practitioners. The views of the officials are consistent with those of Adedokun, Adeyemo and Olorunsola (2010) who hold that among others the success of

community is dependent on the ability of the CD agents to communicate clearly with communities. At the same time the official expresses satisfaction with the point that the programme has managed to facilitate acquisition of some skills. The finding that such skills are used by the practitioners to improve how they facilitate CD is consistent with the finding by William (2007). The general satisfaction and some level of displeasure expressed by the manager tie with the findings by Gould *et al.* (2007) who reported that even though professionals acknowledged and appreciated positive benefits that they accrued from the CPD programme, they felt that it brought with it unintended results. In this instance there is acknowledgement that the programme could not meet the needs of all the professionals. A similar concern was raised by some CDPs and some assistant managers.

The reflective notes, codes, response and category which emerged from the responses are presented in Table 5.41.

Table 5. 41 CPD offers new insights

Reflective notes	Response	Code	Category
Sense of appreciation.	<p>Researcher: What is the usefulness of the CPD programme for the CDPs and to what extent are the achievements aligned to the programme objectives?</p> <p>CD official 5: <i>The programme is very important to the CDPs in the sense that most of not all of them did not get exposure to the field of practice prior to us employing them. So <u>this programme closes such a gap.</u></i></p>	<p>Programme offers practical experience.</p> <p>Acquire skills.</p>	CPD offers new insights.

	<p><i><u>This programme exposes them to research activities.....</u></i></p> <p><i>Communication is a very important aspect of community development, <u>it is through this programme that our CDPs are able to learn...</u></i></p>	<p>CDP learn through this programme.</p>	
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The next section presents a comparison between the qualitative and quantitative results.

5.3.3 Comparison of the qualitative and quantitative results

This section presents a comparative analysis of the qualitative and quantitative results.

5.3.3.1 What are the trends and circumstances that influenced the decision to run a continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners?

The need to keep professionals up to date was confirmed by the respondents and participants as the key factor that influenced the decision to run CPD programme for the CDPs. There is also an ultimate convergence between the qualitative and quantitative results that CPD is a top priority for the CDPs because of the value they see in it. This has been attributed to the point that the programme comprises of the problems that CDPs experience in their specific deployment at workstations.

Review of the CPD policy revealed that CPD is available to all CDPs and no one is discriminated against in the implementation of the policy. However, in this study, there is a high level of agreement between the respondents and the participants that CPD is not available to all CDPs. Shortage of resources and poor planning were cited by the interviewees and focus group participants as the major factors which limit CPD from being accessible to all CDPs.

There is confirmation from both sets of the quantitative and qualitative results that the programme is based on both the CPD strategy and policy. Further policy review revealed that it was established to guide CPD stakeholders and ensure that the programme does not take place in a haphazard and disjointed manner without any form of control through procedures and guidelines.

The decision to run a programme is, among others, influenced by the availability and appropriate use of resources and infrastructure. Be that as it may, both the qualitative and quantitative results revealed that there were not enough funds set aside for the professional development programme. The participants explained that shortage of this significant input is exacerbated by poor planning as in most instances the activities which require funding are cramped towards the end of the financial year.

The view of the respondents that CPD is not provided for in their work schedule is supported by the participants who reiterated that the workload of the CDPs does not permit them to take part in some of the CPD activities as oftentimes upon returning from the workshops they are required to replace the time they spent there.

Although the need to address the real needs of professionals is an important factor in running a CPD programme, absence of a well-structured and tailor-made set of activities for individual CDPs brought forward by the respondents has been corroborated by the research participants. The latter referred to the CDPs who do not have Development Studies or Community Development qualifications as an example of CDPs who need a tailor-made professional development programme because they do not have proper grounding on CD.

There was no agreement between the participants and respondents on the issue of CPD being a once-off activity or a continual and recursive process. The view that it is a once-off activity is substantiated by the point that at times CDPs who attended basic training in some areas were

not permitted to advance to the next level because of the system of rotating CDPs when it comes to participation in CPD.

Human resources are important decision-making departments in deciding whether to run a CPD or not. While the majority of the respondents did not agree that the facilitators, mentors and coaches are knowledgeable and helpful, focus group participants emphasised the point that although their coaches and mentors are helpful and knowledgeable, some facilitators lack subject matter as they just read through the materials during workshops and short learning programmes.

The respondents were split almost equally on the aspect of management's support for the programme. While half agreed that the management supports the programme, the other half did not. However, amongst the focus group members there was much support for the point that there is lack of support from the management both at the service point and provincial levels.

5.3.3.2 What determines the relevance and adequacy of what was put in place in preparation for implementing a continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners?

There seems to be much synergy between the qualitative and quantitative results with regards determination of the relevance and adequacy of what was offered in the CPD programme. The narratives of the participants confirmed the respondents' views that the programme is based on the results of the needs assessment process. Furthermore, the focus group interviews corroborated the view of the respondents that there is dire need to remain relevant and up to date with the changes and developments taking place in the sector. The research participants also confirmed that the programme is based on the inputs from the mentors and coaches.

The view that the programme is based on the sole decision of the management held by the respondents was also shared by the focus group participants and acceded to by some assistant

managers. There was also a strong view among the focus group participants that expert input seems to have been highly considered when the programme was put together. These two aspects created much dissatisfaction among the participants because they felt that their inputs were not given the attention that they deserved.

There is synergy between the participants' and respondents' views about the point that the programme is also guided by the CDPs' job description, NDP, CDP policy, performance management system outcomes, a disjuncture between theory and practice as well as higher education gaps. Lessons from other countries mentioned as the basis for the programme are corroborated by the results of content analysis of the programme documents.

It is clear from the views of the respondents that their inputs made through formal and informal discussions were considered when the programme was put in place. However, during the focus group interviews concerns were raised that even though the CDPs made inputs towards programme components such as objectives and methods of delivery during meetings and workshops were not fully considered nor included in the final product.

The respondents held the view that the programme is also informed by its evaluation results but it was clarified and confirmed during the interviews with managers and focus group interviews that the programme has not yet been evaluated - a sore omission in such an integral programme.

5.3.3.3 To what extent is the overall design and implementation process of the continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners appropriate to achieve the stated objectives?

While the majority of the respondents held the view that CPD for CDPs was informed by the needs of the CDPs, the participants expressed dissatisfaction with the point that it is the needs that were identified by the management at different levels which are given priority. The interviewees even confirmed this.

With regard to resources, both the qualitative results revealed that the programme runs on an approved budget and infrastructure and facilities are available. However, during the focus group interviews shortage of resources and infrastructure were raised as serious hindrances and there was even doubt if in deed the programme is budgeted for.

The respondents made it clear that the programme is implemented according to a plan and schedule but the focus group participants and the interviewees raised concerns ranging from poor planning to absence of a schedule or communicating it very late. Planning related challenges were cited by the participants as one of the factors discouraging them from taking part in the programme. Despite this, the participants still feel that they are motivated to take part in the programme.

Although the quantitative results showed that the majority of the respondents said that the programme is implemented according to the pre-approved goals and objectives, focus group participants raised the concern that they were never given the opportunity to consider and input into the final version of the programme objectives.

According to the respondents, the programme was organised and implemented at the service point level, but the participants made it clear that some activities were planned and implemented locally while others at the provincial level. The participants unreservedly supported, appreciated and preferred those at the local level because those provide them with practical experience and they become more in control and in charge. Unlike the quantitative results, the qualitative results revealed lack continuity in the planning and implementation of the programme.

While the respondents agreed that the hindrances are addressed by the relevant authorities, it became clear from the narratives by the assistant managers and the focus group participants that the provincial management is not making any efforts to resolve the problems that CDPs

are experiencing. Similarly, the respondents held the view that the programme's processes, procedures and activities are well documented. However, the qualitative results paint a different picture which the provincial manager acceded to and identified as one of their key focus areas for programme improvement.

The qualitative results confirmed that CPD is a collective effort among practitioners, supervisors and management, whereas during the focus group interviews concerns about management imposing some decisions and even needs on the practitioners was raised. This was cited as an example of problems which management has had on its desk for quite some time without any solution. Suggestions of how some of these problems could be resolved were made during the interviews. Among others, it was suggested that the programme can be improved by ensuring that the programme is needs-based, unconditional adherence to the schedule, employment of CDPs and supervisors and deployment of required resources and infrastructure.

The qualitative and quantitative results confirmed that the CDPs accepted and carried out their CPD responsibilities to a point where the participants explained that they take their CPD work home to ensure that they complete and submit as agreed with the facilitators. During the focus group interviews participants even explained that they understand that CPD is their responsibility. The narratives by the participants confirmed the qualitative result that the CDPs have a clear understanding of what CPD is all about.

5.3.3.4 What is the evidence of achievements and the extent to which it is aligned to the programme objectives?

There is much synergy between the qualitative and quantitative results. The respondents and participants provided evidence to substantiate their views that the programme is useful to them. From both the qualitative and quantitative results, participants and respondents agreed that the programme has improved their CD insights, skills and knowledge. The view of the respondents that the programme gives them practical experience was clarified by the participants who explained that they acquire more practical experience from the workstation-based CPD. Both

participants and respondents also attested to the point that the programme has strengthened their knowledge of the theories, approaches and strategies of CD.

The respondents and participants all agreed that the programme has helped them to mobilise resources, stakeholders and communities. Some participants even confirmed that prior to participating in the programme, they had never interacted and worked with rural communities but currently the community even appreciates their efforts and how they are assisting them to improve their lives. Furthermore, the views held by the respondents that the programme helped them to abide by the CD values and principles thus avoid and resolve conflict were confirmed by the participants. The latter supported these views by explaining that even their attitudes towards group activities have changed for the better due to taking part in CPD activities. Consequently, the research participants suggested that the programme planning, design and implementation need to be reviewed.

It is also necessary to acknowledge that from the two sets of the results, there were participants and respondents who held the view that the CPD programme did not give them much knowledge, insights, confidence and skills. As a result they were unable to achieve the objectives of the programme.

The next section presents a comparison between the qualitative and quantitative results.

5.4 Summary

This chapter presented the quantitative and qualitative results of the study. It focused specifically on the views of the CDPs about the role that they play in developing, implementing and evaluating CPD, barriers that the CDPs experience in relation to the implementation of CPD, solutions put in place to address these barriers, the usefulness of the programme, ways in which CPD could be improved and whether or not the programme is implemented according

to the CPD policy. This chapter also presented the views of the assistant managers, human resource managers and senior community development managers on the same aspects.

While CDPs did express some appreciation of benefits they accrue from the programme, they also suggest that the programme requires urgent improvement mainly in relation to the manner in which their professional learning needs are identified and assessed. Their view was that a more robust and scientific analysis of the PDPs might contribute to effective alignment of the CPD activities and their professional needs. Be that as it may, there seemed to be an acute lack of knowledge among the CDPs about CPD policy which results in their failure to understand and appreciate how CPD is provisioned and implemented in the department.

What seemed to be one of the major weaknesses in the implementation of CPD activities was lack of support by assistant managers to enable CDPs to implement CPD effectively. This aspect, coupled with absence of an integrated evaluation of the system for the individual CDP activities, contributed to the department not being able to determine whether or not CPD yielded expected results, especially connected to organisational enhancement. Lack of or poor utilisation of the CPD personnel and structures which were provided for in the policy seem to hamper successful implementation of CPD because these structures were not serving the purpose that they were intended for.

The next chapter presents summary of the research findings, recommendations and offers the conclusions reached in this research.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, a summary of critical points emerging from this study is presented. The summary is organised according to the research questions. It focuses specifically on the trends and circumstances that influenced the decision to run the programme, programme design, programme implementation and the outcomes of the programme. The presentation of the conclusions drawn from the main findings of the study then follows. This is followed by recommendations reflecting how the programme could be improved.

6.2 Summary

The results of the study were presented and analysed in the previous chapter and this section presents a summary of the key research findings.

6.2.1 Trends and circumstances which influenced the decision to run the programme.

The trends and circumstances which refer to the context of the programme as articulated in Stufflebeam's CIPP evaluation model focused on the needs for the introduction of the programme, provision for CPD in the work schedule of CDPs, prioritisation of CPD by CDPs, the role of CDPs in developing, implementing and evaluating the programme, programme resources and infrastructure, awareness about the policy as well as learning activities.

With regard to the decision to run the programme, the research findings revealed that CDPs experienced problems as they facilitated CD and they needed to be up to date and

knowledgeable since they are the key to the decision to run the CPD programme for the CDPs. This finding is in line with the suggestion by Shinkfield and Stufflebeam (2007) that there should be a particular need that influenced the decision to run a programme. Even though the need to keep professionals up to date with the development in community development practice influenced the decision to run the programme, the findings of this study revealed lack of well-structured and tailor-made CPD activities for CDPs, especially those who did not have Community Development or Development Studies qualifications. This finding has been a challenge in this field since Swanepoel (1997) first raised it during the late 1990s.

The CIPP model that was used to evaluate the CPD programme for the CDPs showed that the need alone is not sufficient to determine whether or not to run a programme. Programme resources also played an important role in making such a decision as they form the context within which a programme is implemented (Shinkfield & Stufflebeam, 2007). Despite the necessity to ensure that resources are available to implement a programme, this significant requirement seems to have been overlooked because this study revealed that the programme lacked resources such as funds and infrastructure. It is worth noting that the qualitative results revealed that there were concerns about lack of knowledge among some of the facilitators. This was evidenced by lack of subject content thus reading through the programme materials without assisting the professionals to construct new knowledge as deemed necessary by constructivist theorists (Rout & Behera, 2014; Grado-Severson, 2007). However, in the case of mentors and coaches, they were praised for being knowledgeable and helpful.

While the CPD policy clearly showed that CPD was compulsory and available to all CDPs, both qualitative and quantitative results painted a different picture. The research findings revealed that some CDPs could not take part in some CPD activities due to poor planning or shortage of resources. This finding is similar to the observation by De Beer and Swanepoel (2013) that CD has always suffered from shortage of resources due to poor planning. However, in respect of infrastructure, resources such as venue were appropriate in the scope of this study. Another significant finding still with regard to accessing the programme is that the workload given to the CDPs denied some of them the opportunity to take part in CPD, a problem they suggested should be resolved through deployment of CDPs in specific programmes of the

department. Despite the negative effect of the workload, their call has not been heeded to. This study further revealed that even though the programme was supported by management and CDPs prioritised it, the heavy workload was not prioritised to fit into their work schedule. Elshami, Elamrdi and Abuzaid (2016) concluded in their study that workload denied professionals the opportunity to engage meaningfully in CPD.

Lack of knowledge about the CPD policy among the CDPs also emerged as a shortfall from this study. The quantitative results revealed that the majority of the respondents delineate the role of policy in programme design and implementation. This anomaly resulted from laziness and ignorance. Hemmington (2000) made a similar finding where professionals lacked knowledge about CPD policy. However, there was acknowledgement that this situation needs to be corrected in order to ensure successful implementation of the programme and that CDPs themselves accrue benefits as planned. With regard to the role of the CDPs in the programme, findings from the study point to the fact that CDPs made inputs towards programme components such as need identification, objectives, and method of delivery. Further to that, they demonstrated participatory learning by reading, observing others and consulting among themselves. Be that as it may, the research findings revealed that a major constraint in the role of the CDPs was that the programme and its activities had never been evaluated. Programme evaluation, if done accordingly, must show programme strengths and weaknesses. The failure to evaluate denies programme owners access to such information. This finding is consistent with the observation by Tsotetsi and Mahlomaholo (2013) that professionals often engage in professional learning programmes which have never gone through any form of evaluation.

6.2.2 Programme planning

The success of any project is influenced by the plan that has been put together for it. The study has revealed that the CPD for the CDPs had a well-documented plan which comprised basic necessities such as goals, objectives, activities, procedures and steps to be followed in implementing the programme. What became clear from the findings of this study was that even though there was a plan, it had many shortcomings. Concerns raised included improper

planning in terms of funding where funds were either not sufficient or a lot of them were spent towards the end of the financial year. This ultimately led to deviation from the plan as activities ended up being congested towards the end of the year. Another significant element in the input evaluation was to establish if there were approaches which the programme owners had to choose from before settling for the current programme. The empirical evidence showed that during the planning and preparation of the programme, no options were availed for the stakeholders to choose from. Consequently, the stakeholders made inputs towards what management had put on the table.

This study revealed that CPD is facilitated through workshops, short courses which are credit-bearing or non-credit bearing, self-learning, learning by doing, mentoring, coaching and meetings. CD aspects covered were theories, strategies, household and community profiling, stakeholder and resource mobilisation, business plan writing, NPO registration and research. These findings are consistent with Westoby and Ingamells (2012) who also observed that training of CDPs also takes this form. While the policy makes it clear that the practitioners shall accrue points when they take part in the CPD activities approved by the department, the programme plan is silent on this aspect. Further to that, during the interviews it was made clear that this policy provision was not adhered to.

The empirical evidence revealed lack of involvement of CDPs in planning the CPD programme. While there were meetings and workshops which were aimed at gathering inputs from the programme beneficiaries the research findings showed that either those were not considered at all or only some part thereof was incorporated. Ntoana (2009) observed a similar practice of denying professionals the opportunity to take part in planning and designing learning programmes that are targeted at them and the professionals strongly advise against this practice. What further emerged from this study with regard to programme planning is that the needs of the CDPs upon which the programme was designed were obtained from different sources. The Professional Development Plan was acknowledged by the CDPs as the form through which they communicated their professional development needs to the management. Even though there was such a clear means of communication, dissatisfaction was raised by the CDPs that only the needs that were identified by the management were prioritised when the

programme and learning activities were designed. This practice was read by the CDPs as silencing of their voice by the management. In line with this observation, Ikenwilo and Skatum (2014) hold the view that learning programmes that lack the voice of the professionals are prescriptive and deny the latter the opportunity to fulfil their actual and real learning needs.

According to this study, the sources of information for mounting a learning programme for the CDPs were the CPD policy, National Development Plan, the public, job description, the gap between theory and practice, CD strategy and policy, scholarly discussions as well as gaps identified by professionals. Reliance on such a wide range of sources of information is confirmed by the results of a study by Mubangizi (2009) who found out that it is necessary to involve many stakeholders in CD oriented programmes because of the multidisciplinary nature of CD. Be that as it may, during the focus group interviews, the participants suggested that the only source of information about the interventions they need should be themselves.

Another significant finding of this study is that the CDPs demonstrated some high level of conceptualisation of CPD by using their job description, feedback from mentors, coaches and supervisors, CPD policy, and performance management system outcomes as a guide when identifying the needs which they wanted the programme to address.

6.2.3 Programme implementation

This study highlighted several findings in relation to the challenges experienced during the implementation of the programme. The study identified challenges relating to the goals and objectives, involvement of the CDPs, method of CPD, policy issues, the needs of the CDPs, support from the managers, planning, resources and programme improvement. A significant finding is that the programme was implemented in line with the pre-approved goals and objectives. In line with this finding the study by Megginson and Whitaker (2007) found out that given that professionals participated in the formulation of the programme objectives, they ensured that the programme was implemented according to the said objectives. A challenge associated with the said goals and objectives in this current study was that the voice of the

CDPs was limited and controlled when they were being formulated because these officials only participated during the drafting stage but never gave input during the final stages.

Key to the findings in relation to the absence of the voice of the prospective participants was that it led to CDPs concluding that the programme was developed and implemented within a top-down approach framework to CPD as plans which were developed by the senior management rarely embraced local ones. In line with this observation, Fraser *et al.* (2007) reported that such employer-controlled CPD neglects the professional needs of the practitioners. This study further found out that community or workstation-based CPD was more preferable to the CDPs than boardroom-based ones because the former gave them the opportunity to determine, control, influence and own their professional learning process.

There was general dissatisfaction about the process of determining participation of CDPs in CPD activities, especially those that were organised centrally. While the policy made it clear that a committee shall be responsible for such a determination, community development managers at the service points and provincial offices have taken this responsibility. Still on policy matters, the policy made provision for accrual of points for engagement in CPD which was confirmed by the assistant managers who also explained that they kept such records. Keeping records of participation of professionals in CPD is consistent with the findings by Gravells (2012) who explained that such records could be used as evidence for promotion and seeking better employment opportunities.

The research findings further revealed that management sometimes overrides the needs that were identified by the practitioners to ensure that CDPs also embark on CPD activities that would build capacity for attainment of the general goals of the department. This finding is consistent with the study by Westoby and van Blerk (2012) which revealed that participants raised concerns about their needs being ignored by the management. This practice brewed dissatisfaction among the CDPs because their understanding of CPD is that it has to be needs-based. Inconsistencies that resulted from such practices signalled lack of support from the managers as observed by the CDPs. With regard to lack of support from the assistant managers,

the empirical evidence revealed that there is need for strengthening the support programme for assistant managers and employing CD supervisors as the assistant managers currently perform their managerial work and supervisor's roles because they are only available in one district. Another weakness on the part of the assistant managers is that the induction programme formed part of the CPD programme but some managers did not induct CDPs into the CD programme. This created a knowledge gap among those who were not inducted.

An important finding worth noting is that the top-down approach to CPD did not deter CDPs from actively engaging and initiating CPD activities as well as supporting fellow colleagues in CPD endeavours. CDPs demonstrated further understanding of the practice and conceptualisation of CPD by creating knowledge for themselves through reading, observations as well as coaching and mentoring. The research revealed that poor planning affected the implementation of the programme negatively because it caused contrasts and even duplication of CPD activities to the extent that some CDPs found themselves being double-booked for CPD activities. The situation was exacerbated by communicating the poorly organised plan late and the absence of a schedule of activities. Grace (2001) has also observed that in some organisations CPD interventions are not planned at all. Still with regard to time, this study revealed that generally inadequate time allotted to prepare or take part in CPD was a hindrance. On the contrary, in a study by Hemmington (2000), professionals never saw time as a hindrance. In actual fact, they even used their time for CPD.

Shortage of resources which emanated from poor planning also formed part of the key findings of this study. This was demonstrated through lack of resources such as transport when professionals had to attend activities taking place outside their service points. Further to that, this study revealed that even where resources such as funding were available, there was a tendency to wait until the end of the financial year to spend the CPD budget, for example. This led to collision and duplication which discouraged CDPs. The study by Vemic (2007) also revealed shortage of resources for CPD and ultimately recommended proper resource planning and allocation for CPD. The understanding by CDPs that professional learning is significant for their own development, however, kept them motivated to embark more on self-initiated

learning activities such as reading, discussion groups, mentoring and coaching by experienced CDPs.

The research revealed that, to some degree, the manner in which CPD was planned caused tension between CDPs' families and their work because CPD activities seemed to overlap and interfere with family time. The CDPs felt that in some instances they had no choice but to sacrifice family time for CPD as it was their responsibility to ensure that they learn continuously. Acceptance of the notion of learner responsibility also formed part of the key findings of the study by Sadler-Smith and Badger (2006). However, the study also revealed that some CDPs developed a negative attitude towards CPD due to challenges such as conflict over time between family and CPD. This made it difficult for them to embrace the programme and the anticipated benefits. Rutter (2013) also observed that once professionals develop negative attitudes towards a programme, such attitudes prevent them from learning through it. This attitudinal consequence limits the effectiveness of the programme.

Addressing implementation hindrances was an issue in this study. While the quantitative results showed that the majority of the respondents agreed that the hindrances are addressed by the authorities, the individual and group interviews revealed slow progress in solving those. Concerns that problems such as shortage of resources, poor planning and communication, as well as ill-preparedness among some facilitators were raised with the provincial management but there was not much evidence to show keenness towards addressing those. The findings from the study on programme improvement revealed that there was consensus among the professionals and the management that the programme had to be improved by adhering to the policy prescripts, popularising the policy among CDPs, improving on workload allocation, total decentralisation and building capacity for supervisors. What also came out clearly from the findings is that the CDPs demonstrated commitment to the programme and their own development through self-learning activities such as observations, reading books and journal articles as well as organising meetings for consultation and discussions. In line with this finding are the results of the study by Lucas *et al.* (2012) which found out that professionals devised their own strategies to resolve some of the CPD challenges which they experienced.

6.2.4 The outcomes of the programme

The product evaluation revealed that participation in the CPD programme contributed to improved understanding of CD and attaining practical experience among the CDPs. Such practical experience was mainly acquired through the community or workstation-based CPD. Further to that, the study revealed that the programme was found useful because CDPs were able to facilitate planning and management of the CD projects, uphold CD values and principles, avoid conflict of interest, maintain confidentiality, work with people of varied backgrounds, maintain professional and objective relationships as well as consult confidentially with colleagues and professional bodies. Successful facilitation of CD requires CDPs to have research, mobilisation, planning, organisation and coordination skills. The CDPs seemed elated by acquiring skills from the programme. In line with this finding is the study by Sadler-Smith and Badger (2006) which revealed satisfaction among professionals about the programme. Despite the elation in this study, the CDPs still recommended rigorous programme review.

It became very clear from this study that while some respondents and participants expressed satisfaction with the programme, there were CDPs who felt that the programme does not meet their professional development needs because they were unable to acquire much in terms of knowledge, skills and insights relevant to CD. This finding is consistent with the findings of David and Bwisa (2013) which reported general satisfaction with the programme as it enhanced the participants' skills and level of knowledge.

6.3 Conclusion

This study evaluated the CPD for the CDPs in the Department of Social Development of the North West province in South Africa. The concern which compelled this study was that ever since the implementation of the programme, it has never been evaluated thus there is no scientifically gathered information about its performance. As a consequence, it was unclear if

the programme benefits the department and the practitioners as well as other stakeholders. The study was guided by Stufflebeam's CIPP model of evaluation.

From the above research evaluation findings, it is irrefutable that the CPD programme for the CDPs require major improvements if the programme is set to achieve its objectives. The use of factor analysis to analyse the context, input, process and product elements of the programme demonstrated that these four parts of the programme are interrelated. However, a mixture of both negative and positive insignificant relationships among the four constructs was revealed. The construct, trends and circumstances providing the context of the programme, affected the programme input and product negatively. However, context of the programme has a positive effect on the process of implementation. The programme input had a negative effect on the process of implementation but affected the product positively. The implementation process had a positive effect on the product of the programme. This shows that among the programme's context, input, process and product, there are factors that advance a programme and others that militate against successful programme implementation. This anomaly calls for concern and shows that had the programme been evaluated regularly, this challenge could have been detected and managed better. Applying both factor analysis and Stufflebeam's CIPP model assisted in detecting the incongruity among the components of this programme.

CPD was planned and implemented within a top-down approach as major decisions were influenced and driven by the management both at the service point and provincial level. Delays in resolving the problems raised by the CDPs further demonstrated keenness among the management team not to engage the latter in improving the programme that was intended to develop them. It is unlikely that such an approach could yield positive impact. Even though need assessment was conducted to determine the specific CPD programme, in practice there was deviation from the policy as determination of participation by the CDPs was not aligned to the process outlined in the policy. The feeling among CDPs that the programme has no specific criterion to determine participation in CPD is valid because the policy says the manager or supervisor shall identify training needs of the CDPs but gives the same responsibility to the CDPs. Clarity with regard to the specifics of the process is not provided.

This opened an opportunity for the management to impose the programme on CDPs with no regard for their needs.

This study further revealed that while the policy made it clear that CPD should be needs-based, some activities were found not to be aligned to the specific needs identified by the CDPs. The management acceded to the point that the PDPs which were used to gather data about the needs of the CDPs were not analysed scientifically. This created suspicion among CDPs that the programme activities were chosen and imposed by the management without due regard to data collected through PDPs. Had the training committee been carrying out its mandate as stipulated in the policy, this anomaly could have been avoided.

Lack of accountability among the management team hindered the successful achievement of the programme goals. It led to poor planning which appeared to be at the centre of the challenges experienced in the programme. It contributed to misallocation of resources, confusion and clashes of CPD activities and family or private matters. Lack of and poor communication exacerbated these planning related challenges. While record keeping is a prerequisite in the programme for ease of reference, it was not consistent in this study. Not all managers kept records, despite the policy requirements. About time spent on CPD, the policy is silent on the purpose and use thereof.

Deviation from the policy led to the implementation of the strategies that were not synchronised with it, leading to inability of the programme to attain pre-specified objectives and goals. The above factors show that there was inconsistent implementation of the CPD policy and procedures among the managers at all levels. Determination of what was to happen was at the discretion of a particular manager than the policy description, hence the inconsistencies. Over and above that, lack of knowledge about the CPD policy denied CDPs an opportunity to ensure compliance and implementation to the latter. This could be attributed to the selective implementation of the induction programme that forms part of the CPD but some managers do not induct CDPs into the programme. Failure to evaluate the programme and its specific programme interventions denied all the stakeholders, especially the professionals and the

management, the opportunity to address the weaknesses and sustain the strengths of the programme.

Generally, there was satisfaction among CDPs with regard to the benefits they accrue from the programme despite the hindrances they experienced. Evidence was given by the CDPs that they gained theoretical insights and acquired some practical experience as a result of taking part in CPD activities. Be that as it may, there was much preference for the practical elements of the programme, especially those that took place at the workstation. The basis for the preference was their learner-centeredness and practical experience acquired through such activities.

6.4 Recommendations

Consistent with the outcomes of this study, a number of recommendations have been made with regard to the improvement of the CPD programme for the CDPs. Guidelines are provided in the next chapter in relation to the implementation of the recommendations. In pursuit of improving this programme, this study makes the following recommendations.

- The purpose of accrual of the CPD points should be clearly spelt out in the policy and the programme to ensure proper implementation.
- An in-depth scientific analysis of the data gathered through the PDPs should be conducted by the department's research unit and the results for each CDP must be discussed by the individual CDP and immediate supervisor. This could assist in making the correct needs assessment thus being in a position to determine relevant intervention.
- Resource allocation and utilisation should be determined on the basis of research findings.
- The specific roles of all stakeholders should be clearly defined to avoid confusion and duplication of activities thus ensuring that each person or institution carries out required duties meticulously and take accountability for own actions.

- Even though the main curriculum documents may be generic, the facilitators ought to contextualise it by incorporating the views of the local communities where the work is likely to be done.
- The trainees and facilitators should be encouraged to familiarise themselves with the conditions under which communities they serve live such that they can be able to contextualise the interventions.
- Communication between the CDPs and management requires improvement to ensure access to information and common understanding of the programme activities.
- Given that the programme could not satisfy the needs of some of the CDPs, there should be provision in the programme for establishment of local learning communities which would devise strategies to address such needs within the relevant context.
- The schedule of CPD activities as well as service providers should be made available in advance to assist the CDPs and the managers to make proper arrangements.
- The programme should be reviewed periodically with the involvement of the all relevant stakeholders. Consultation among stakeholders, especially the CDPs and management, on the evaluation outcome should take place with the view of implementing the recommendations.
- Thorough CPD of CDPs and managers on CPD policy may assist in the successful implementation of the programme.
- Introducing specialisation in the programmes or focus areas of the department would relieve CDPs from the heavy workload that they currently have to ease their workloads. Reducing the workload coupled with creating space in terms of time in the work schedule of the CDPs would give them sufficient time to engage in CPD.
- Supervision is key in the success of any CPD programme. Employment of CD supervisors in all the districts ensures that there are specific people deployed to, among others, give support to the CDPs to practice what they have acquired through CPD. In order to achieve this, supporting supervisors through CPD would give them the power to manage effectively the implementation of the programme. This could also address the inconsistencies that currently exist.
- Designating coordination of CPD to specific officials who work hand in hand with the supervisors and practitioners is required to strengthen the implementation of the programme.

- Consultation and speedy resolution by management to the concerns raised by the CDPs is also essential in strengthening the CPD programme for the CDPs.
- The planning process for the programme should involve all stakeholders and must be guided by the available resources.
- Decentralising CPD for the CDPs by planning and organising it at the service point level gives the CDPs the opportunity to take part in making decisions that could facilitate successful implementation of the programme.
- Each CDP should propose a plan of activities, discuss it, agree to it and sign it with the immediate supervisor.
- Promote a workstation or community-based CPD to ensure that activities are practitioner-centred to encourage ownership and control of the programme by the CDPs. Full implementation of the induction programme adds value to the programme.
- Formalise mentoring and coaching by making them part of the key performance areas for the experienced CDPs and supervisors.

6.5 Areas for further research

In this evaluation study, Stufflebeam's CIPP model was used. Further research could be conducted using a different model such as the Kirkpatrick's four level evaluation model. As the name says, it uses four levels to evaluate a programme. It evaluates reaction of the trainees to a programme, learning activities, behaviour or performance of the trainees and the results of a programme (Smidt, Balandin, Sigafos & Reed, 2009). The outcome of such an evaluation could then be compared to the results of this study.

Methods such as mentoring, coaching, observations, discussions, workshops and short courses were used to deliver CPD to the CDPs. Further research is suggested on the effectiveness of each method to provide detailed performance report about each.

Further research is essential on the attitudes of the CDPs towards CPD as well as how these relate to variables such as age, gender and position of employment.

6.6 Summary

This chapter presented a summary of the key findings of this study from which a conclusion was drawn. Important recommendations have also been made. The next chapter presents a proposed framework of CPD for CDPs. Finally, the areas for future research were dealt with.

CHAPTER 7

PROPOSED CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FRAMEWORK

7.1 Introduction

This chapter proposes a CPD framework for CDPs. Currently, there is no such a framework in South Africa. The perceptions and expectations of the CDPs and the managers elicited, as well as information from the programme documents, guided the development of the framework presented here. The findings could assist in the revision of the current CPD programmes for the CDPs.

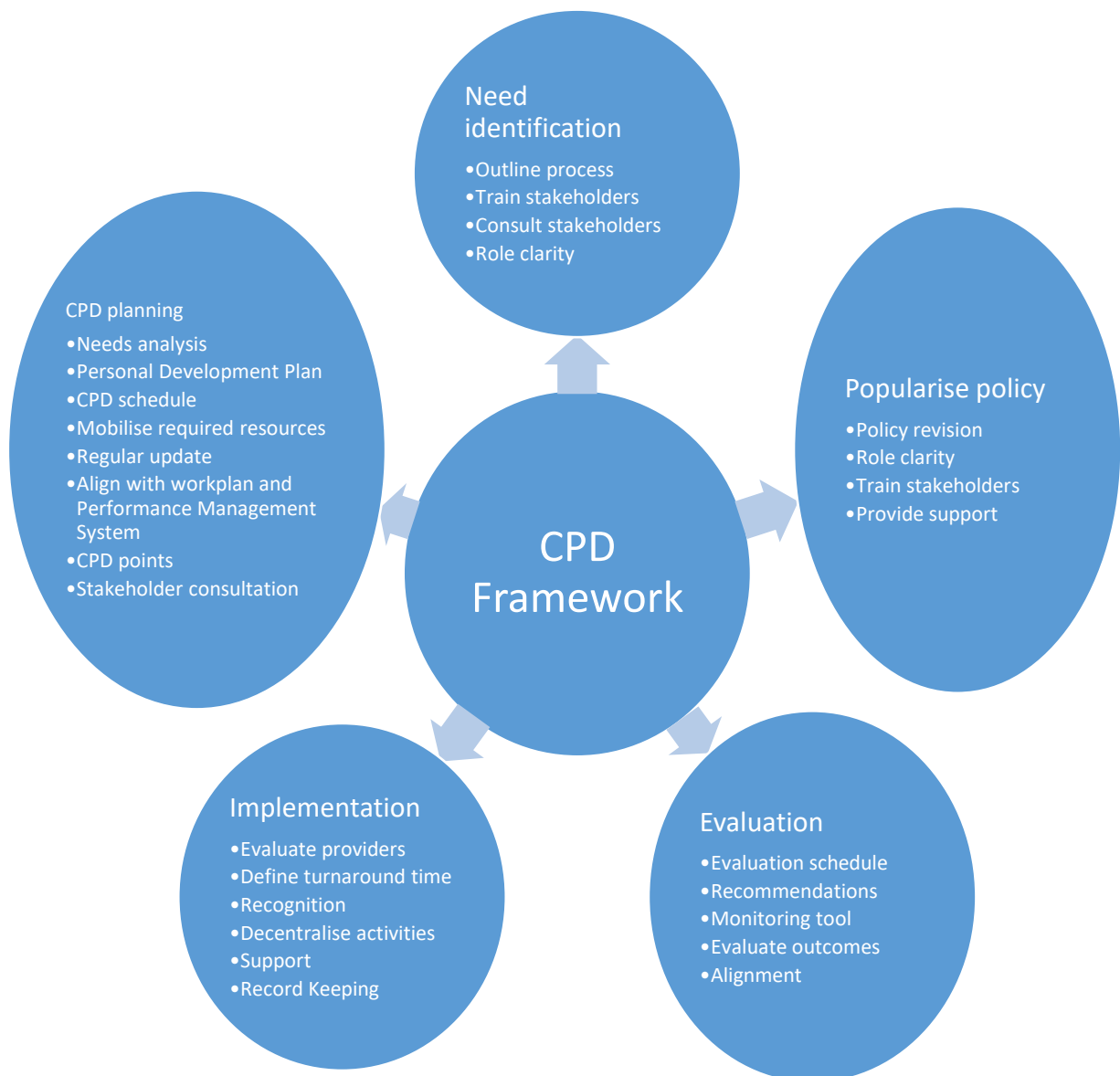
7.2 Proposed CPD framework for the CDPs

The proposed framework provides guidance with regards to how the CPD could be improved. The perceptions and expectations derived from the investigation in this study led to the identification of key standards of the framework which are presented in Figure 7.1 below. Alongside the standards, there is a set of criteria which addresses the research findings. The criteria could be used to determine the specific activities that could be embarked upon by different stakeholders with the view of improving the CPD programme for CDPs. The figure illustrates that the key standards of the framework are interrelated and thus influence one another.

More importantly, what has to be borne in mind when using the proposed framework is the suggestion by Chambers (2005) that there should be flexibility when designing the interventions and planning the activities to ensure that the programme responds to the actual needs of the practitioners. In support of this approach, Westoby and van Blerk (2012) recommend that stakeholders should be mindful of the ever-changing dynamics and working practices. Much as it is the responsibility of the CDPs to learn throughout their professional life, effective supervision is necessary for the success of the proposed framework. Westoby and Ingamells (2012) are convinced that building capacity for supervisors should be oriented

towards assisting them to engage practitioners in a manner that promotes and constructs personal practices that results from integrating personal experience and organisational practice. Consequently, the framework privileges an integrated approach to CPD as depicted in Figure 7.1 below.

Figure 7.1 Proposed framework for continuing professional development for community development practitioners



Standard 1: Popularise the CPD policy

It emerged from the study that not all CDPs are familiar with the policy. There was even acknowledgement from them that lack of knowledge denied them the opportunity to benefit from the programme and raise concerns from an informed position. Therefore, compliance in the following areas is required.

Criteria

In order to ensure familiarity and compliance with the policy the following should be considered:

- Review the CPD policy.
- Clarify roles of the stakeholders in the policy.
- Regular training of the CDPs and managers on the content of the policy and its implementation.
- Align the key performance areas of the community development managers with the CPD policy.
- Clearly articulate commitment towards CPD in the strategic planning processes.
- Policy should make provision for allocation of time for CPD in the job descriptions and day-to day activities of the CDPs (Villeneuve-Smith, West & Bhinder, 2009).

Standard 2: Needs identification

Even though there was general satisfaction with the programme outcome among the CDPs, one of the key findings of this study was dissatisfaction that some of their specific and unique needs were not addressed by the programme.

Criteria:

For the CPD programme to achieve its goals and objectives, the actual needs of the CDPs must be identified such that appropriate interventions are sought. It is important that the CDPs and the managers are familiar with the process of identifying the needs. The following should be undertaken.

- Outline the steps to be followed when identifying needs.
- Train all stakeholders on the process of needs identification.
- Clarify the roles of different stakeholders in needs identification.
- Supervisors and CDPs must discuss the latter's CPD needs.
- Views of CDPs should not be rejected without due consideration.
- This process must be guided by the CPD policy.
- Designate the portfolio of CPD to a specific official (Westoby & van Blerk, 2012).

Standard 3: Developing a CPD plan

The research findings showed that CPD was not planned effectively. Challenges were experienced in relation to allocation of resources, planning of activities, time factor and facilitators.

Criteria

Planning for CPD of the CDPs should involve the following:

- Analysing the CDPs' needs scientifically.
- Identifying the interventions required to address the needs.
- Supervisor and CDP finalise the latter's CPD plan and sign it.
- Use the needs of the CDPs as the basis for the CPD programme.

- Develop a schedule of the programme activities, especially internally organised ones, and circulate it by the beginning of the fourth quarter to allow CDPs and managers to plan accordingly.
- Allocate resources according to the needs.
- Allocate time and points for CPD accordingly.
- Align the point system to the performance management system.
- Assess internal and external facilitators to assure quality.
- Give a regular update to the stakeholders on the planning process (Katz & Earl, 2010).
- Align the CPD plans to the work plans (Villeneuve-Smith, West & Bhinder, 2009).

Standard 4: Implement the programme according to the plan

This study revealed that there were inconsistencies in the implementation of the programme. Such inconsistencies were mainly experienced in relation to the CPD approach, support from managers, resources, time and above all resolving some of these challenges.

Criteria:

The inconsistencies in the implementation of the programme could be addressed by:

- Involving CDPs in decision-making processes pertaining to CPD.
- Organising and implementing more CPD activities at the service point.
- Self-learning efforts initiated by CDPs should be given recognition.
- Addressing the challenges raised by the CPD stakeholders timeously to avoid glitches in the implementation of the programme.
- Management consulting with the CDPs on the appropriate turn-around time for solving problems and adhering to it.

- Using the feedback from assessment of CPD activities to evaluate the performance of the service providers.
- Enforcing record-keeping among managers and CDPs.
- CDPs ought to establish learning groups among themselves and engage in existing ones to benefit from peer learning (Westoby & van Blerk, 2012).

Standard 5: Evaluate the programme and individual activities

This study revealed that the programme has not been evaluated to determine its worth and significance. The same applies to some individual CPD activities, especially those that are facilitated by internal stakeholders.

Criteria

In order to determine the performance of the CPD programme for the CDPs, it has to be evaluated. Consequently, the following must be considered:

- Develop an evaluation schedule for the programme and evaluate it internally and externally.
- Implement the recommendations of the evaluation reports.
- Develop a monitoring tool and use it consistently.
- Develop an evaluation tool for both internally and externally provided CPD activities.
- Evaluate attainment of each learning outcome.
- Analyse the feedback and use it to improve the programme further.
- The evaluation exercise should be made part of the key performance areas of a particular senior manager.

7.3 Policy and practical implication for institutions that may want to adopt the proposed framework

The challenge for the institutions that may want to adopt the proposed framework is that they will have to ensure that the statement of intent in relation to the CPD direction that they would want to pursue is clearly articulated. The policy also ought to clearly spell out the resource mobilization process for the CPD programme. The stakeholder relation and roles also require clear articulation to avoid confusion and duplication. The CPD model must also find clear expression in the policy. The policy should emphasise a needs-based programme. The policy must also be authored in a simple and clear language.

To allow the model to be successfully implemented, the employer and employees in particular need to have a shared value of the purpose of CPD. Uniform implementation of the programme should be enforced. Resources should also be distributed according to the needs that have been agreed upon. The active involvement of the service point or local branches which are responsible for implementing the programme must be rewarded in accordance with the policy.

7.4 Final reflections

CPD is at the heart of community development practices. More importantly, prerequisites for implementation of such professional learning include a needs-based programme, relevant up-to-date policy, commitment from the professionals, employers and service-providers as well as a conducive environment. Such important requisites would not be useful in the absence of proper planning, good coordination and excellent execution. Should the negative conditions prevail as detailed in this study, CPD goals and objectives would not be realistically attained.

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NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITHI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT

Private Bag X6001, Potchefstroom
South Africa 2520

Tel: (018) 299-4900
Faks: (018) 299-4910
Web: <http://www.nwu.ac.za>

**Institutional Research Ethics Regulatory
Committee**

Tel +27 18 299 4849
Email Ethics@nwu.ac.za

ETHICS APPROVAL CERTIFICATE OF PROJECT

Based on approval by the **Human Resource Research Ethics Committee, Mafikeng Campus**, the North-West University Institutional Research Ethics Regulatory Committee (NWU-IRERC) hereby approves your project as indicated below. This implies that the NWU-IRERC grants its permission that, provided the special conditions specified below are met and pending any other authorisation that may be necessary, the project may be initiated, using the ethics number below.

Project title: A framework for a continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners in North West and Gauteng provinces.																																	
Project Leader: Prof A Oduaran																																	
Student: MP Molope																																	
Ethics number:	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>N</td> <td>W</td> <td>U</td> <td>-</td> <td>0</td> <td>0</td> <td>2</td> <td>2</td> <td>2</td> <td>-</td> <td>1</td> <td>5</td> <td>-</td> <td>A</td> <td>9</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="3">Institution</td> <td></td> <td colspan="6">Project Number</td> <td></td> <td colspan="2">Year</td> <td colspan="2">Status</td> </tr> </table>			N	W	U	-	0	0	2	2	2	-	1	5	-	A	9	Institution				Project Number							Year		Status	
N	W	U	-	0	0	2	2	2	-	1	5	-	A	9																			
Institution				Project Number							Year		Status																				
	<small>Status: S = Submission; R = Re-Submission; P = Provisional Authorisation; A = Authorisation</small>																																
Approval date: 2015-06-01	Expiry date: 2020-05-31	Category:	N/A																														

Special conditions of the approval (if any): None

General conditions:

While this ethics approval is subject to all declarations, undertakings and agreements incorporated and signed in the application form, please note the following:

- The project leader (principle investigator) must report in the prescribed format to the NWU-IRERC:
 - annually (or as otherwise requested) on the progress of the project,
 - without any delay in case of any adverse event (or any matter that interrupts sound ethical principles) during the course of the project.
- The approval applies strictly to the protocol as stipulated in the application form. Would any changes to the protocol be deemed necessary during the course of the project, the project leader must apply for approval of these changes at the NWU-IRERC. Would there be deviated from the project protocol without the necessary approval of such changes, the ethics approval is immediately and automatically forfeited.
- The date of approval indicates the first date that the project may be started. Would the project have to continue after the expiry date, a new application must be made to the NWU-IRERC and new approval received before or on the expiry date.
- In the interest of ethical responsibility the NWU-IRERC retains the right to:
 - request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project;
 - withdraw or postpone approval if:
 - any unethical principles or practices of the project are revealed or suspected,
 - it becomes apparent that any relevant information was withheld from the NWU-IRERC or that information has been false or misrepresented,
 - the required annual report and reporting of adverse events was not done timely and accurately,
 - new institutional rules, national legislation or international conventions deem it necessary.

The IRERC would like to remain at your service as scientist and researcher, and wishes you well with your project. Please do not hesitate to contact the IRERC for any further enquiries or requests for assistance.

Yours sincerely

Linda du Plessis
Digitally signed by Linda du Plessis
 DN: cn=Linda du Plessis, o=NWU,
 ou=Vaal Triangle Campus,
 email=Linda.duplessis@nwu.ac.za,
 c=ZA
 Date: 2015.08.11 13:06:02 +0200

Prof Linda du Plessis
 Chair NWU Institutional Research Ethics Regulatory Committee (IRERC)

Appendix b: questionnaire for community development practitioners



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT
MAFIKENG CAMPUS

Department of Development Studies

Private Bag X2046 Mmabatho 2735

Tel: 0183892524 Fax: 0183892504

www.nwu.ac.za mokgadi.molope@nwu.ac.za

Dear participant

I am a duly registered PhD student at the North-West University, Mafikeng Campus, conducting a study on continuing professional development for community development practitioners. You are hereby invited to participate in this study whose purpose is to evaluate the programme used to train and build capacity for community development practitioners who are employed by the department.

Data collected through this study will be treated confidentially and used for academic purpose only. Anonymity of participants is guaranteed. Your participation in this study is voluntary. The copies of the questionnaire together with all other research records will be kept safe. Written ones will be kept in a locked cupboard at all times while electronic ones will be saved in a password protected computer. Not only that, but the document will also require a password. The results of the study will be shared with concerned department and the research participants.

About the questionnaire.

- It may take up to twenty minutes to complete this questionnaire.
- Guidelines for answering the questions are provided.
- All questions can be answered by ticking the most appropriate answer.
- Please answer the questions in the attached questionnaire as honestly as possible.

Thank you very much for your cooperation

.....

Mokgadi Molope (Researcher)

Please sign the form to indicate that:

- You have read and understand the information provided above.
- You give your consent to participate in the study on a voluntary basis.

.....

Section A: Personal details

The following questions are about your personal information. Specific items included in this section are gender, age, position, community development work experience and educational qualification. *Please tick the most appropriate response.*

1. Gender

1. Female	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Male	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. Age

Less than 25	<input type="checkbox"/>
26-36	<input type="checkbox"/>
37-47	<input type="checkbox"/>
48-57	<input type="checkbox"/>
58 and above	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. Community development position

Community development practitioner	<input type="checkbox"/>
Community development supervisor	<input type="checkbox"/>
Others: Specify	<input type="checkbox"/>

4. Community development work experience

0-5 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
6-10 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
11-15 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
16-20 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
21 plus	<input type="checkbox"/>

5. Highest educational qualification

Qualification	Tick	Provide qualification title and specialisation. E.g. B Soc Sc (Development Studies)
Matric or equivalent	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Diploma	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Degree	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Honours	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Masters	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Phd	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Section B: Continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners

Below are some statements provided which relate to continuing professional development of community development practitioners of which you are a participant. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by placing a tick in the most appropriate box that corresponds with your opinion or experiences.

Please rate the responses on a five-point-Likert scale:

- 5= Strongly agree (SA)
- 4=Agree (A)
- 3=Undecided (U)
- 2=Disagree (D)
- 1=Strongly disagree (SD)

Statement		<i>1</i> <i>SD</i>	<i>2</i> <i>D</i>	<i>3</i> <i>U</i>	<i>4</i> <i>A</i>	<i>5</i> <i>SA</i>
The continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners						
1.	is adequately budgeted for.					
2.	is available to all community development practitioners.					
3.	is a once off activity.					
4.	is provided for on my work schedule.					
5.	is one of my top priorities.					
6.	keeps me up-to-date with the developments in the field.					
7.	is informed by the continuing professional development policy.					
8.	has well-structured and tailor-made activities for individual practitioners.					
9.	comprises activities which are aligned to the department's continuing professional development strategy.					
10.	has goals which are compatible with my professional development needs.					
11.	is well coordinated.					
12.	has facilitators, coaches and mentors who are knowledgeable and helpful.					
13.	has appropriate infrastructure					
14.	is supported by the management of the department					
15.	is compulsory for all community development practitioners					

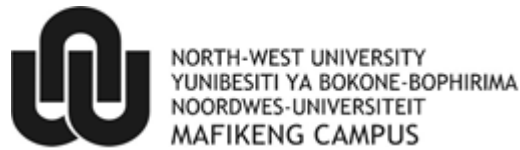
16.	Comprises mainly of practical problems which I experience at work.					
17.	Takes place mainly through workshops and seminars.					
18.	Takes place mainly through short learning programmes.					
19.	Takes place through observations and learning by doing.					
20.	Mainly takes place through qualification driven programmes.					
The planning and implementation of the continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners is informed by the following:						
1.	community development practitioners' needs assessment survey.					
2.	the outcomes of the evaluation of the continuing professional development programme by community development practitioners.					
3.	the need to keep abreast of changes taking place in the profession.					
4.	statutory requirements of the professional body.					
5.	inputs from the department's management structures.					
6.	advice from mentors or coaches.					
7.	public demand for a continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners.					
8.	gaps identified by professionals through formal and informal discussions.					
9.	the department's continuing professional development strategy.					
10.	the National Development Plan.					
11.	the Department's Continuing Professional Development Policy.					
12.	scholarly work in the form of books and articles.					
13.	input from sister departments.					
14.	the performance management reports of the community development practitioners.					
15.	sole decision of the management of the department.					
16.	reports produced by the experts.					
17.	gaps identified in the training curriculum offered by institutions of higher learning.					

18.	gaps between the theory and practice of continuing professional development.					
19.	lessons from other countries.					
20.	Job description of the practitioners.					
The design and implementation of the continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners is appropriate to achieve the stated objectives because						
1.	it is informed by the needs of the practitioners.					
2.	it is implemented according to the plan.					
3.	it is implemented according to the pre-agreed goals and objectives.					
4.	its activities, procedures and steps are well documented.					
5.	its activities are carried out according to the schedule.					
6.	it runs on the approved budget.					
7.	its facilitators, coaches and mentors carry out their tasks in line with the pre-agreed goals.					
8.	its facilitators, coaches and mentors are knowledgeable and experienced.					
9.	appropriate facilities and infrastructure are used.					
10.	learning activities are practitioner-centred.					
11.	participants are assessed in line with the goals and aims of the programme.					
12.	the participants accepted and carry out their responsibilities.					
13.	implementation hindrances are addressed by the relevant authorities.					
14.	there is continuity in planning and execution of continuing professional development activities for community development practitioners					
15.	its facilitators, coaches and mentors are supportive and motivating.					
16.	its facilitators, coaches and mentors communicate effectively with the participants and guide them accordingly.					
17.	it is organised and implemented at the service point level.					
18.	practitioners are motivated to take part in it.					

19.	it is a collective effort among practitioners, supervisors and the management of the department.					
20.	community development practitioners have a clear understanding of what continuing professional development for community development practitioners entail.					
The overall impression I have about the programme is that it						
1.	gives me adequate practical experience					
2.	has improved my level of community development insights.					
3.	strengthens my knowledge of community development theories, strategies and approaches					
4.	reinforces my ability to initiate and manage community development projects.					
5.	enhances my research skills.					
6.	heightens my ability to mobilise resources, stakeholders and communities for community development activities.					
7.	exposes me to various strategies of relating with people from different backgrounds.					
8.	has improved my ability to manage the dynamics of urban and rural communities					
9.	sharpens my planning, organising and coordination skills.					
10.	has equipped me with the skills and knowledge which I can still be able to implement in any given context of community development					
11.	it teaches me how to avoid conflict of interest					
12.	motivates me to adhere to professional principles outlined in my contract					
13.	motivates me to adhere to professional principles outlined in my contract.					
14.	has helped me establish and maintain professional and objective relationships.					
15.	has helped me avoid conflict of interest.					
16.	teaches me to disengage from activities which may cause unethical or illegal benefits.					
17.	gives me the opportunity to discuss ethical dilemmas with certified bodies					
18.	helps me maintain confidentiality. .					

19.	teaches me to perform duties in a legal and ethical manner.					
20.	gives me a chance to consult confidentially with colleagues whose behaviour may be in question or if requested to take part in resolving a ethical or legal dilemmas.					

Appendix C: Interview questions for assistant managers



Research topic: Evaluation of continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners in the North West province.

Confidentiality

Data collected through this study will be treated confidentially and used for academic purpose only. Anonymity of participants is guaranteed. Your participation in this study is voluntary. The copies of the responses to the interview questions together with all other research records will be kept safely. Written ones will be kept in a locked cupboard at all times while electronic ones will be saved in a password protected computer. Not only that, but the document will also require a password. The results of the study will be shared with the concerned departments and the research participants.

About the interview

The interview questions ask for information about a continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners in South Africa.

The purpose of the study

The study intends to evaluate the continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners with the view to propose a robust framework for future implementation of a continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners

Thank you very much for your cooperation

.....

Mokgadi Molope Researcher

Please sign the form to indicate that:

- The researcher explained the purpose and process of this interview.
- You have read and understood the information provided.
- You give consent to participate in this study.

.....

Interviewee

1. What is the role of community development practitioners in the development, implementation and evaluation of the continuing professional development programme?
2. Is continuing professional development in your department informed by any policies? What do such policies entail?
3. Were there other CPD programmes to choose from and why did you settle for this one?
4. What does your department's continuing professional development entail?
5. Which problems have you encountered in developing and implementing the continuing professional development programme in your department?
6. How are you solving the problems experienced in developing and implementing continuing professional development?
7. How can the continuing professional development programme be improved?
8. How do you supervise the community development practitioners?
9. What is the usefulness of the programme?

Appendix D: Focus group interview questions



Focus group interview questions

Research topic: Evaluation of continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners in the North West province.

Confidentiality

Data collected through this study will be treated confidentially and used for academic purpose only. Anonymity of participants is guaranteed. Your participation in this study is voluntary. The copies of the responses to the interview questions together with all other research records will be kept safely. Written ones will be kept in a locked cupboard at all times while electronic ones will be saved in a password protected computer. Not only that, but the document will also require a password. The results of the study will be shared with the concerned departments and the research participants.

About the interview

The interview questions ask for information about a continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners in South Africa.

The purpose of the study

The study intends to evaluate the continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners with the view to propose a robust framework for future implementation of a continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners

Thank you very much for your cooperation

.....

Mokgadi Molope Researcher

Please sign the form to indicate that:

- The researcher explained the purpose and process of this interview.
- You have read and understood the information provided.

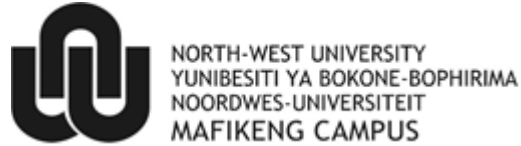
- You give consent to participate in this study.

.....

Interviewee

1. Which roles do you play in developing, implementing and evaluating the continuing professional development programme for the community development practitioners?
2. Are you aware of the continuing professional development policy for community development practitioners and what does such a policy entail?
3. How do you identify your professional development needs?
4. Which problems have you encountered in developing and implementing the continuing professional development programme in your department?
5. How are you solving the problems experienced in developing and implementing continuing professional development?
6. How can the continuing professional development programme be improved?
7. What is the usefulness of the programme?

Appendix E: Interview questions for human resource manager and senior community development manager



Research topic: Evaluation of continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners in the North West province.

Confidentiality

Data collected through this study will be treated confidentially and used for academic purpose only. Anonymity of participants is guaranteed. Your participation in this study is voluntary. The copies of the responses to the interview questions together with all other research records will be kept safely. Written ones will be kept in a locked cupboard at all times while electronic ones will be saved in a password protected computer. Not only that, but the document will also require a password. The results of the study will be shared with the concerned departments and the research participants.

About the interview

The interview questions ask for information about a continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners in South Africa.

The purpose of the study

The study intends to evaluate the continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners with the view to propose a robust framework for future implementation of a continuing professional development programme for community development practitioners

Thank you very much for your cooperation

.....

Mokgadi Molope Researcher

Please sign the form to indicate that:

- The researcher explained the purpose and process of this interview.
- You have read and understood the information provided.
- You give consent to participate in this study.

.....

Interviewee

1. Which policies govern continuing professional development for community development practitioners?
2. What does your department's continuing professional development entail?
3. What was used to determine the professional learning needs of the community development practitioners?
4. Which method was used to determine participation of community development practitioners in the continuing professional development programme?
5. Which kind of support do the assistant managers receive to help them implement the programme?
6. How can the continuing professional development programme be improved?