DEVELOPMENTAL NEEDS OF HRD PRACTITIONERS IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN

PUBLIC SERVICE

by

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DECLARATION

I, Headman Mbiko, declare that the dissertation titled "Developmental needs of HRD practitioners in the South African Public Service", is my own work, and has not previously been submitted for a degree at this or any other tertiary institution. I furthermore declare that all sources which I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

Nkosiyakhetha, Headman Mbiko

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ABSTRACT

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DEPARTMENT: Human Resource Management

DEGREE: M.Com. (Industrial Psychology)

The purpose of the study was to determine the developmental needs of HRD practitioners in selected departments of the South African Public Service. Developmental needs as an independent variable and the role of HRD practitioners – marketing HRD interventions, conducting training needs analyses, designing and developing HRD interventions, implementing HRD interventions, and monitoring, evaluating and giving feedback on HRD interventions - were investigated.

A sample of seventy (70) HRD practitioners working in seven public service departments was drawn. The developmental needs to market HRD interventions, conduct training needs analyses, design and develop HRD interventions, implement HRD interventions,

and monitor, evaluate and give feedback on HRD interventions were determined within and between HRD practitioners and public service departments to establish differences and similarities.

Results averred that HRD practitioners have developmental needs to perform the abovementioned functions. However, compared to Blacks and Whites, Coloureds and Indians seem to have more developmental needs in marketing, conducting training needs analysis, implementing HRD interventions and generic HRD skills. HRD practitioners from the departments of Health and Transport seemed to have more developmental needs in conducting training needs analyses and designing and developing HRD interventions when compared to other public service departments. Females need more development in marketing and implementing HRD interventions than males. HRD practitioner developmental needs in implementing, monitoring, evaluating, and giving feedback on HRD interventions were the same for all age groups.

HRD practitioners in the department of Health and Transport need more development in generic skills compared to other departments. However developmental needs on generic skills are the same for all age groups.

KEY TERMS: Human resource development, Training and development, Organisational development, Career development, Intervention, Practitioner, Developmental need, Marketing design, Development, Monitoring, Evaluation feedback, Generic skills

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

DOL **Department of Labour**

GTZ **Germany Technical Cooperation**

HRD **Human Resource Development**

ETD **Education, Training and Development**

SQA **South African Qualifications Authority**

AsgiSA **Accelerated Strategy for Growth Initiative in South Africa**

JIPSA **Joint Initiative Programme for Skills Acquisition in South Africa**

PPP **Private Public Partnership**

PALAMA **Public Service Leadership and Management Academy**

GIBS **Gordon Institute for Business Science**

ANC **African National Congress**

ILO **International Labour Organisation**

BBBEE **Broad-Based Business Economic Empowerment**

ASTD **American Society for Training and Development**

GDP **Gross Domestic Product**

SABC **South African Broadcasting Corporation**

OD **Organisational Development**

ANOVA **Analysis of Variance**

NTSI **National Training Strategy Initiative**

MQA **Mining Qualifications Authority**

YEM **Youth Employment in Mining**

CIPD **Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development**

ADDIE **Analyse, Design, Develop, Implement and Evaluate**

WSP **Workplace Skills Plan**

NOPF **National Occupational Pathways Framework**

NSDTA/APHSA	**National Staff Development and Training/American Public Human Service Association**
CVR	**Content Validity Ratio**
ETDPSETA	**Education Training and Development Practitioners Sectoral Education and Training Authority**
SME	**Subject Matter Expert**
WC	**Western Cape**

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1   Introduction

This study focused on assessing the developmental needs of HRD practitioners in the public service. The first chapter provides the background to and motivation for the research, followed by a problem statement. The general objectives of the research were formulated; thereafter the research design and methodology indicating procedures for the execution of the study were outlined. The chapter was concluded by the outline of the dissertation.

1.2   Background

McLagan (1989, as cited by Anderson, 2006), defines HRD as the integrated use of training and development, organisational development and career development in order to improve individual, group and organisational effectiveness for the betterment of quality of life. The aim of this study was to determine the developmental needs of HRD practitioners in selected departments of the South African Public Service and a sample of employees, using a quantitative research approach.

Currently there are many strategy implementation initiatives for HRD in the Public Service. There is an HRD function in each public service organisation with a full staff establishment charged with a mandate of implementing national HRD strategy initiatives. The skills development programmes are implemented in terms of Skills Development Act No 97 of 1998, Skills Development Levies Act No 9 of 1999, SAQA Act No 58 of 1997, Employment Equity Act No 55 of 1998, AsgiSA (2004), JIPSA, as well as New Growth Path. The HRD strategic initiatives are imperative for cutting edge business competitiveness, not only in South Africa but on a global scale, as well as for the improvement of service delivery in the public service.

Preliminary research on the topic has been conducted. However, worldwide there are no records of any studies that have been conducted on the developmental needs of HRD practitioners specifically in the public service . According to the report on a joint meeting on HRD in the public service in the context of structural adjustment and transition, which was held at the International Labour Office in Geneva in December 1998 (International Labour Organisation, 1998), most of the research focused on effective implementation of HRD strategies in the public service. Pillay (2009) conducted a similar study in the South African public service, although it focused on the broader human resources skills capacity of the state to deliver on its programmes. The findings of the study, among other things, highlighted the inadequate resources to implement service delivery programmes. Public service outsources HRD activities and is therefore reliant on

1

external service providers, which has resulted in there being no uniform approach in implementing HRD programmes; service quality is often inconsistent, redundant, costly, complex and driven by external methodologies (Pillay, 2009). Preliminary research on scarce and critical skills has revealed the importance and impact of HRD competencies in the public service. Kuye (2009) and Plaatjies (2011) view professional development of HRD practitioners in the public service as critical for continuous professional utilisation of resources and human capital. Kuye (2009) further mentioned that skills acquisition was a continuous process. This implies that public service must consistently develop its HRD practitioners, which indicates the need to explore this topic.

Plaatjies (2011) advocated the advancement of a culture of learning and professionalism in public service, and argued that in doing so public service would improve organisational development and subsequently service delivery. Plaatjies (2011) perceived the end results of this intervention as "public quality goods, services, policy implementation and management". Plaatjies (2011) also asserted that the improved service delivery would be achieved through organisational development processes such as management and executive development to set up structures, systems and processes, instil a culture of openness to learning, and set up solidified learning and professional development networks and systems. Plaatjies (2011), cited the benefits of advanced learning and professional development to be the institutionalisation of capacity building that shapes strategic direction, provides high-quality professional development within the workplace, returns intellectual property and content, develops internal practitioners, trainers and teachers within the public service, and avoids the use of public service as a "milk cow" by external service providers. The study was greatly influenced by this perspective.

The recommendations of this study could lead to the development of practitioners, where necessary, and contribute substantially to excellent service delivery in the public service, the HRD profession, and academic and business spheres. Kuye (2009) argued that the developmental state shall be an interventionist in development. Manana (2011) held the same view and described HRD practitioners as change agents in the public service whose skills base is important for the South African economy as a developmental state.

1.3 Problem statement

Capability and competence of HRD practitioners in the public service are currently perceived to pose serious impediments to service delivery, hence the necessity for this study. Currently, HRD practitioners in the public service play a "co-ordination of training" role – a single element of the role of HRD practitioners. The research study focused on determining developmental needs of

HRD practitioners in public service in terms of demographics such as race, gender, location, and age. A comparative empirical analysis was conducted to determine the extent to which developmental needs differ among HRD practitioners in terms of these demographics. The rationale behind the comparative analysis was to determine the baseline difference of the developmental needs of practitioners in terms of race, gender, location, and age in order to give effect to the objectives of the Employment Equity Act. The Employment Equity Act aims to redress past imbalances in terms of employment opportunities, skills development and career advancement. In the public service it is important that the employment equity baseline in terms of race, gender, location, and age is determined. Currently, there is a perception that the developmental needs among practitioners differ in terms of race, gender, and age. There is evidence that HRD competences play a crucial role in implementing HRD strategy initiatives effectively, which in turn influences the implementation of government programmes to uplift the living standards of communities in terms of the Batho Pele philosophy (public service delivery) (Baloyi, 2009).

There is a poor understanding of HRD, both as a concept and a function in the public service. Neethling (2009) pinpointed the unevenness in depth understanding of HRD in public service and emphasised the need for professionalising HRD practice to enhance the knowledge, skills and attributes of the public service HRD practitioners and for the use of a holistic and integrative approach in implementing HRD strategic frameworks. It has been years since Rouda and Kusy (1995) have described HRD as a rapidly growing profession, yet public service HRD practitioners do not seem to fully understand their roles and competencies. Their understanding and therefore professionalisation will only be possible when they are thoroughly trained, certificated, and registered with professional bodies such as the South African Board for Personnel Practice. Determining the practitioner competency baseline is the first step of the process, hence this study becomes important.

From the arguments by Neethling (2009) and Anderson (2006), it could be ascertained that the concept of HRD as "the field of practice", "the profession", and the competencies of HRD practitioners are misconceptualised and therefore generally misunderstood in South Africa and in particular in the South African public service. Consequently there is a need for this study, which could ultimately inform the creation and professionalisation of an HRD practitioner cadre in the public service.

The concept of a Public Private Sector Partnership (PPP) has been extended to include training and development in the public service. The partnership concept has not come as a surprise. Stolovitch and Keeps (1992) said that "the year two thousand and beyond will be characterised

by corporate-university partnerships; remaining flexible in the face of changing skills requirements and co-operating with other institutions; trainer's multi roles in organisations; systems approach to education processes". Due to the challenges mentioned above, HRD practitioners have to be more effective, either as role players or as monitors of the HRD processes. The PPP agreement has been signed between the Public Service Leadership and Management Academy (PALAMA) and Gordon Institute of Business Science (GIBS), where GIBS is expected to provide training in leadership and management development programmes to all public service officials. The agreement extends over a period of more than twenty-five years. The PALAMA plays the role of monitoring and evaluation while GIBS will deliver training programmes per outcomes-based specifications (Rocha, 2011).

Outsourcing the implementation of HRD programmes, coupled with economic instability, could be very costly for public service and could deplete the training budget. As a consequence the public service of South Africa, as a developmental state, would be unable to transform socially, politically and economically. It could lead to poor service delivery and poor quality of life for all citizens of the country. Hence it becomes necessary to implement proactive alternative strategic interventions to build HRD competence and therefore there is a need for consistent research on this topic. Baloyi (2009) agreed on the importance of roles played by HRD practitioners and argued the importance of HRD capacity to deliver on government mandates. Baloyi (2009) also emphasised training and development of HRD practitioners through education institutions such as universities. This research would benefit the public service by establishing the baseline competence of practitioners in terms of race, gender, location, and age, and put in place capacity building interventions to address any identified gap.

The study was a self-assessment of the developmental needs of HRD practitioners in selected departments in the South African public service. The definition of an HRD practitioner was adopted from the American Society for Training and Development, National Staff Development and Training Association (NSDTA) and American Public Human Services Association (APHSA), Training and Curriculum Designer Competency as well as South African HRD Practitioner Competence Models (Craig, 1996; NSDTA, 2004; Coetzee *et al.,* 2007). HRD practitioners are defined as professionals who execute certain duties throughout their careers and carry out specific professional roles in their practice, that is, as programme designers, researchers, administrators, facilitators, individual career advisors, ETD material developers, organisation change agents, evaluators, and marketers. The training and development process model, adopted as a model in the present study, consolidates the roles into a sequential step-by-step process of marketing, training, and development functions, identification of training and

development needs, design and development of training interventions, implementation of training and development interventions, and evaluation of training and development interventions.

The determination of developmental needs was conducted on marketing HRD programmes, conducting training need analysis, designing and developing HRD interventions, implementing HRD interventions, and evaluating and reporting on HRD interventions. Rothwell & Kazanas (1992) agreed on the roles of an HRD practitioner.

1.4 Objectives of the study

1.4.1 Objectives

Following on the above-mentioned problem statement, the objectives of the study were to conduct a survey on developmental needs of HRD practitioners in the public service. The study further aimed to determine developmental needs of HRD practitioners in the following areas, which are the main components of the functions of HRD practitioners:

- Marketing HRD interventions
- Conducting training needs analysis
- Designing and developing HRD interventions
- Implementing HRD interventions
- Monitoring, evaluating and giving feedback on HRD interventions.

1.4.2 Sub-objectives

The sub-objectives of the study were to determine whether HRD practitioners differ by gender, race, location, and age in terms of developmental needs regarding
- Marketing HRD interventions;
- Conducting training need analysis;
- Designing and developing HRD interventions;
- Implementing HRD interventions; and
- Monitoring, evaluating and giving feedback on HRD interventions.

1.5 Research questions

1.5.1 Questions

The research questions for the study were as follows: Do HRD Practitioners have developmental needs in

- Marketing HRD interventions?
- Compiling training needs analysis?
- Designing and developing HRD interventions?
- Implementing HRD interventions?
- Monitoring, evaluating and giving feedback on HRD interventions?

1.5.2 Sub-questions

Do HRD practitioners differ by gender, race, location, and age in terms of developmental needs in

- Marketing HRD interventions?
- Compiling training needs analysis?
- Designing and developing HRD interventions?
- Implementing HRD interventions?
- Monitoring, evaluating and giving feedback on HRD interventions?

1.6 Hypotheses

The following working hypotheses were postulated for the study:

- H_0: HRD practitioners do not have developmental needs in marketing HRD programmes; conducting training need analysis; designing and developing HRD interventions; implementing HRD programmes; evaluating and giving feedback on HRD interventions.
- Ho: HRD practitioners do not differ by gender, race, location and age in terms of developmental needs in marketing HRD programmes; conducting training need analysis; designing and developing HRD interventions; implementing HRD programmes; monitoring, evaluating and giving feedback on HRD interventions.

- H_1: HRD practitioners do have developmental needs in marketing HRD programmes; conducting training need analysis; designing and developing HRD interventions; implementing HRD programmes; evaluating and giving feedback on HRD interventions.

- Hi: HRD practitioners do differ by gender, race, location and age in terms of developmental needs in marketing HRD programmes; conducting training need analysis; designing and developing HRD interventions; implementing HRD programmes; monitoring, evaluating and giving feedback on HRD interventions.

HRD initiatives in the public service are ineffective due to the incompetence of HRD practitioners. According to Baloyi (2009) the Government is faced with a challenge to transform its business in such a way that the quality of its service adds value and improves the lives of all citizens in the country. Government meets its objectives emanating from its mandates through public service departments. The efficiency and effectiveness by which this is done depends upon the manner in which public organisations perceive and undertake their responsibilities, which include skills capacity building, professionalism, and ethical conduct. Kuye (2009) asserted that HRD practitioners could add value to this process through the implementation of HRD programmes.

Kuye (2009) argued that responsiveness to government development initiatives refers to the extent to which the planning and strategic prioritisation of each department is found upon the core developmental and transformational implementation of the government's policy agenda. Each government department should have the infrastructure and processes in place to ensure that every effort is being made to align its activities with core priorities of government.

Baloyi (2009) stated that legislation on the transformation of public service was also supported by a principle of service delivery enshrined in the slogan of "Batho Pele", which means "people first". Naidoo (2009) agreed that public service continued to be a challenge to improve services for better lives. Baloyi (2009) further argued that, in order to achieve the goals of improving service delivery, the public service faced another challenge, the Skills Development Act, No 97 of 1998. This Act aims to provide a framework for a skills revolution in South Africa to enable the country to compete globally, redress past injustices, fight poverty and promote equal employment opportunities.

Howard (2009) pointed out that the government, in pursuit of redressing the imbalances of the past, must respond to both demographics and aggressive investment of infrastructure and resources into facilities, health and police services. According to Howard (2009) the ANC-led

government has set the standard very high and reassured citizens, particularly from the poor communities, that service delivery will not be compromised, that there will be accountability, transparency, caring and responsiveness by government at all levels and that lazy, incompetent and corrupt officials have no place in public service.

The report on the Joint Meeting on Public Service of the ILO (International Labour Organisation, 1998) mentioned that there was a need for improved service delivery and HRD was an important strategy to achieve an efficient public service. According to this report, training and retraining are essential elements of successful public service reform. This challenges HRD professionals and practitioners to be consistently developed and equipped with skills and competencies to enable them to discharge the mandate. Neethling (2009) highlighted the challenge faced by HRD in South Africa and asserted that HRD in the South African public service struggled to anchor itself and find meaning and stability.

The South African government has implemented various skills development initiatives since the attainment of democracy in 1994. Legislative initiatives such as the Skills Development Act No 97 of 1998, the South African Qualifications Authority Act No 58 of 1997 and the Employment Equity Act No 55 1998 were promulgated to redress past socio-political, economic imbalances, eliminate unemployment, fight poverty and enhance global competitiveness. Lately, programmes such as AsgiSA, JIPSA, BBBEE and Batho Pele also advocate the advancement of skills development in South Africa, particularly in the public service.

As the custodian of skills development through the Department of Labour, Department of Basic Education and Department of Higher Education and Training, government is expected to lead by example in terms of the implementation of skills development both within its institutions and among all other major role players in the South African economy. The primary challenge is also a setback in terms of the implementation of skills development due to the incompetence of HRD practitioners in the public service, hence conducting the study (National HRD Strategy South Africa: Vision 2015).

The study aimed to determine the developmental needs of HRD practitioners in the public service in the following key roles of the profession, namely, marketing HRD interventions, compiling training needs analysis, designing and developing HRD interventions, implementing HRD interventions, evaluating and giving feedback on HRD interventions.

Based on the acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis, recommendations were made for further research and further interventions were proposed to capacitate HRD practitioners in order to perform the roles effectively and efficiently. Subsequently, public service would be able to carry out its mandate to accelerate the new growth path and redress past socio-economic and political imbalances meaningfully.

1.7 Significance of the study

Problems cited in the previous section highlighted the importance of and need to conduct the present study. The study is a significant initiative to determine developmental needs of HRD practitioners in the public service with regard to race, gender, location, and age, and to make recommendations for further research. Where necessary, HRD capacity and competence building programmes need to be put in place with the subsequent aim of promoting employment equity and elevating the role of HRD practitioners to that of a profession through equipping HRD practitioners with the required competences (National Staff Development and Training Association/American Public Human Services Association, 2004). Neethling (2009) pointed out the unevenness in depth understanding of HRD in public service and emphasised the need for professionalising HRD practice to enhance knowledge, skills and attributes and to use a holistic and integrative approach in implementing HRD strategic frameworks.

The American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) and South African HRD Practitioner Competence Model have identified 35 competencies for HRD work (McLagan, 1989; Coetzee *et al.*, 2007). This initiative is a great milestone towards professionalising HRD work. Pace, Smith and Mills (1991) asserted that these competencies were the personal resource that HRD practitioners must bring to their work and maintained that some competencies were more important than others, depending on a person's particular job requirement and career goals.

The significance of the study is that HRD practitioners who participated in the study by completing the questionnaire on developmental needs could use it as a basis for self-assessment. They could gain insight into HRD competencies and rate themselves on each competency according to their developmental needs.

The self-assessment tool to determine the developmental needs in HRD competences was developed from the HRD Competence Model and Occupational Pathways, the National Staff Development and Training Association/American Public Human Services Association Models. The outcomes could assist public service to establish an intervention (framework) to develop HRD practitioners. Pace *et al.* (1991) argued that the assessment of competences helps

9

individual staff members select and commit to developing one or two competences. Such an assessment also determines which competence will need the most development given the staff projected labour supply, future forces and HRD strategies to develop, and the practitioner can then carry out an action plan to build competences that the organisation needs. Pace *et al.* (1991) furthermore stated that the outcomes of the study on determination of developmental needs could assist in managing the HRD professional performance for individuals and teams, enhance goal setting and improve performance feedback and review.

The outcomes will enable managers in the public service to develop career paths and render career advice to HRD practitioners. Pace *et al.* (1991) asserted that HRD managers have to frequently advise prospective HRD practitioners about entering the HRD field. The results of the study will be useful for supporting the process of facilitating implementation of employment equity career plans and actions for people who already do HRD work. According to Pace *et al.* (1991) assessments can help individuals understand the HRD career implications of the organisation and the HRD department's strategies. Assessments also provide personal insights about an individual's strengths and weaknesses and support an individual's planning process.

Although the literature review showed no evidence of a study previously conducted on the developmental needs of HRD practitioners in the public service, Fourie (2004) did a study titled "Training needs analysis for middle management: a South African public service experience". The results of the study revealed a conviction, based on the literature review, that there is a need to develop HRD competence so that HRD practitioners can play a meaningful role in developing human resource capacity in the public service. Neethling (2009) agreed with Fourie as she highlighted the need to establish compulsory capacity programmes for human resource professionals in the public service. This initiative included professionalisation of HRD. Neethling (2009) and Anderson (2006) argued that HRD still struggled to anchor itself and find meaning and stability in South Africa, particularly in the public service.

This study will assist the public service to gain a deeper understanding of the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities or challenges it faces in its drive to achieve transformation and enhanced service delivery through HRD capacity building. As a custodian of skills development in the country, the government is expected to lead and champion the skills revolution in line with the national vision to transform economic, political and societal arenas in South Africa (National HRD Strategy South Africa: Vision 2015). Kuye (2009) argued that in the past fifteen years, the South African government has been characterised by policies and policy reforms and emphasised the importance of identifying skills gaps with the purpose to build capacity in the public service. According to Kuye (2009) the immediate goal is to redress past imbalances,

increase economic stability and enhance meaningful participation in the global arena through skills development.

The outcomes of the study would give an indication of whether public service is able to drive and participate meaningfully in the implementation of programmes such as Accelerated shared growth initiative in South Africa (AsgiSA) and Joint Initiative on Priority Skills Acquisition (JIPSA). AsgiSA is one of the key strategic programmes aimed to redress past imbalances. The initiative is, however, thwarted by the fact that the economy needs skilled workers and specialists, while South Africa is faced with a lack of skilled labour, which is one of the major growth constraints. AsgiSA resulted from government's commitment to half unemployment and poverty by 2014 (AsgiSA Annual Report 2007; 24 April 2008). The second initiative is the Joint Initiative on Priority Skills Acquisitions (JIPSA). JIPSA was established to address the scarce and critical skills needed to meet AsgiSA's objectives. The National Skills Accord has been entered into by representatives of business, organised labour, the community constituency and government. This is a partnership aimed at achieving the New Growth Path target of five million new jobs by 2020. The parties have identified a number of commitments they can make on training and capacity building to support the New Growth Path. Public service has to build internal capacity in order to realise its commitment to the new economic policy. In the public service this commitment could be realised through the supply of a competent and vibrant HRD practitioner cadre.

Currently, the whole world is faced with a persistent economic meltdown crisis that poses a serious challenge to the South African economy, and culminates, among other things, in retrenchments and a high rate of unemployment. As government is put under pressure to create employment, the National Human Resource Development Strategy of South Africa (NHRDS) and the HRD strategy in the Public Service: Vision 2015 have been identified as source of the country's competitive advantage. The rationale behind the NHRDS is to contribute to employment creation and skills development by promoting and monitoring the achievement of the objectives of the National Skills Development Strategy II and III.

SABC news reported on 19 January 2009 that the private sector has done much to catch up with global productivity levels over the past decade but that the same cannot be said of the public sector. The public sector's perceived inefficiency is a threat to the sustainability of economic growth and development, as well as public service delivery.

This study provides the business community and the public with an understanding of critical issues facing public service with respect to human resource development, hence poor service

delivery. It contributes to the body of knowledge that already exists (theory) by adding its findings on the subject of HRD competence in the public service.

In the field of Human Resources/Industrial Psychology the results of the study provides more knowledge on human resource development, both as a profession and a function in the public service context. The findings of the study enabled the researcher to recommend the appropriate models, approaches and techniques to be employed in building effective HRD capacity in the public service.

1.8   Overview of the structure of the study

This study began with a conceptual and theoretical foundation of human resource development where a review of available research first focused on defining HRD and creating the basis for the research argument and then explored and differentiated the definition of HRD from other HR-related concepts. From this point the review identified the nature of HRD. Research findings revealing the developmental needs of HRD practitioners in the public service in terms of race, gender, location, and age led to recommendations being made on interventions to be put in place to enhance and/or build such competencies in order to support human resource development initiatives in the sector.

The first section of this study culminated in the importance and orientation of HRD competences within the broader HRD framework and a compelling motivation for the study at hand. The various research questions were then identified and presented accordingly, along with an indication of the significance of the study. Thereafter the research approach, design and methodology were proposed with an indication of the sample, identified participants and the procedure for collecting and analysing the data obtained. The ethical issues of the study were then discussed comprehensively.

1.9   Delimitations and assumptions

1.9.1   Delimitations

The following delimitations in the study are acknowledged:

This study is limited to the determination of developmental needs in training and development competencies of HRD practitioners in the public service in South Africa. The study determined developmental needs of HRD practitioners in selected departments in the public service. It was

not possible to conduct assessments of the competence due to time constraints and bureaucracy. Furthermore, it was not possible to determine the developmental needs of organisational development and career development competences broadly and in depth because these sub-fields of HRD are still at infancy stage in the South African public service. In this study, determination of developmental needs for HRD practitioners in these fields is at elementary level. There was low control on extraneous variables as the stratified random sampling cannot reduce the effects of extraneous variables.

1.9.2 Assumptions

HRD practitioners are familiar with HRD roles and competences of their job as contained in the Public Service Output Profiles.

1.10 Definition of key terms

Human Resources Development (HRD): Rouda and Kusy (1995) and McLagan (1989) defined HRD as the integrated use of training and development, organisational development, and career development to improve individual, group and organisational effectiveness. Pace *et al.* (1991) defined human resource development, often called training and development or personnel development, as that function in organisations concerned with improving the quantity of output or productivity and the quality of work life.

Training and Development: According to Bosman (2001), Rouda and Kusy (1995) and Anderson (2006), training and development can be defined as a strategy used to provide human resources with the necessary skills so that employees develop their full potential in the interest of both the organisation and themselves, to ensure pliable and adaptive employees to technological changes affecting their work.

Organisational Development (OD): Burke and Litwin (1991), Duka (1995), Rouda and Kusy (1995), French and Bell (1999) and Anderson (2006) defined organisational development as a planned, long-range and collaborative organisation-wide effort from top management to improve or change the culture system and behaviour of an organisation with the assistance of a change agent or a catalyst and the use of behavioural science aimed at improving organisational effectiveness and employee wellbeing.

Career Development: Coetzee *et al.* (2009), Greenhouse *et al.* (2000), Otte and Kahnweiller (1995), and Rouda and Kusy (1995) defined career development as a strategy to enhance

employees' careers by empowering them with the right skills and competencies needed in the business.

Professional Development: Moleko (2009) referred to professional development as the systematic maintenance, improvement, and broadening of knowledge and skills. Moleko (2009) furthermore argued that professional development includes the development of personal qualities necessary for one's professional and technical duties throughout life.

Practitioners: Rouda and Kusy (1995) and Pace *et al.* (1991) defined practitioners as professionals who execute certain duties throughout their careers. HRD practitioners carry out specific professional roles in their practice, namely, that of programme designer, researcher, administrator, facilitator, individual career advisor, ETD material developer, organisation change agent, evaluator, and marketer.

Assessment: Assessment is a process during which evidence of performance is gathered and evaluated against agreed criteria.

Competence: Competence is the acquisition or possession of relevant knowledge, skills, and attitude to perform certain allocated tasks effectively and efficiently.

Perception: Perception is a complex set of ideas that a person holds about a person or situation that arises from her or his personal belief about past experience, values, stereotypes and assumptions.

Developmental Need is a skills gap identified by HRD practitioners. Skills gaps are identified for developmental purposes.

1.11 Chapter layout of the study

The study comprises the following chapters:

Chapter one presents the importance of the study on developmental needs of HRD practitioners in the public service context. A review of the current situation in the public service with regard to HRD strategy initiatives and its impact upon HRD practitioner competence are discussed. Some theoretical foundation regarding the HRD concept and the use of different models are highlighted.

Chapter two sheds light on the theoretical background of different models and theories on HRD - the field and relevant competence.

Chapter three discusses research methods, population and sample, measuring instruments, rationale for using such instruments and their validity and reliability. The *ex post facto* methodology is explained in detail. Its advantages and appropriateness in this study, which includes a pilot study to determine the validity and reliability of the instruments, are demonstrated.

Chapter four provides an overview of the statistical techniques utilised in the study and presents the results of the study. The results are related to the theoretical rationale and review of the relevant literature. The major statistical techniques presented are chi-square, Kruskal-Wallis Test, Welch and Brown Forsyth Robust Test, ANOVA Test, and descriptive statistics.

Chapter five covers the implications of findings, recommendations, limitations and contribution of the study. Finally, the areas of future research are suggested and conclusions are drawn.

1.12   Summary

This chapter provided a brief exposition of the background to the study, the problem statement, objectives, research questions, hypothesis, significance of the study, delimitations and assumptions, definitions of the terms used in the study, and an overview of each chapter outlay.

Apart from the background to and motivation for the research study, the chapter also provided a well-structured research study framework that served as blue print to the study and ensured a logical flow and sequence of the chapters.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   Introduction

With reference to the research objectives, as discussed in chapter 1 (section 1.4), the objective of this chapter was to review literature on human resource development, which consists of three important components, namely, training and development, organisational development, and career development.

The chapter focuses on a literature review which provides a theoretical framework for the study. It defines the concept of HRD from different perspectives, ranging from models, approaches, methodologies and methods to processes. The chapter broadly demonstrates the importance of studying HRD and its professionalisation in the South African public service. Specific attention is paid to the training and development process cycle which contains important sequential roles such as marketing of HRD interventions, conducting training and development needs, designing and developing HRD interventions, implementing HRD interventions, and evaluating and giving feedback on HRD interventions.

2.2   Theoretical framework

2.2.1   Introduction

In this section HRD is defined. A perspective is shared on HRD practice models such as ASTD, the HRM wheel, and the South African HRD Competence Model. The Training and Development process model, Organisational Development process model, career development framework, and HRD practitioner roles and competence matrix are discussed in detail. A background to HRD work in the public service is outlined. Professionalisation of HRD work in the public service is recommended as a high priority and long overdue initiative. The National Staff Development and Training/American Public Human Service Association (NSDT/APHSA) (2004) held the same view on professionalisation. Rouda and Kusy (1995) also stressed the importance of professionalisation of HRD work as a rapidly growing profession.

2.2.2 Theoretical foundation

2.2.2.1 Human resource development (HRD) defined

In order to conceptualise HRD competences and developmental needs of HRD practitioners, it is important to firstly define human resource development. Swanson (1995, as cited by Anderson, 2006) asserted that theoretical foundations of HRD emanated from psychological, systems and economic theories. Swanson (1995) emphasised the importance of these theories as major pillars on which HRD stands to be considered a major business process. According to Swanson (1995) HRD is a business process which, as a "standard system model" (that is, input – process – output), is a subsystem of the business organisation system. Wright and Snell (1991) used the open system theory to describe HRD. They asserted that HRD as a subsystem of a business organisation system treats "the skills and abilities" of employees as inputs from the environment, employee behaviour as throughput/transformation, and employee satisfaction and performance as outputs. In this study, developmental needs of HRD practitioners were determined with the view to develop their capability and competence. Chalofsky and Reinhart (1988) supported the view of the HRD business process as a subsystem of a business organisation system and the skilling of HRD practitioners as a critical factor for the effectiveness of the subsystem. Chalofsky and Reinhart (1988), through Wright and Snell (1991), argued that "an effective HRD function as a subsystem of the organisation should have a highly trained professional staff".

Swanson (1995) defined HRD "as a process of developing and/or unleashing human expertise through organisation development and personnel training and development for the purpose of improving performance. Swanson (1995) stated that training and development and organisational development are two major components of HRD. Swanson (1995) furthermore argued that human resource management, career development and quality improvement are critical areas for application of HRD.

The definition used by Rouda and Kusy (1995) and McLagan (1989) differs from that of Swanson (1995) in that the former viewed career development as the third component of HRD, while the latter viewed career development as one of the critical areas for application of HRD. McLagan (1989) defined HRD as the integrated use of training and development, organisational development, and career development to improve individual, group and organisational effectiveness and stated that these three areas (training and development, organisational development and career development) use development as their primary process. These areas are the focal points of this study. Rouda and Kusy (1995) and McLagan (1989) asserted that

HRD is known by its results where individuals, groups and an organisation itself have a greater capacity to create value when the knowledge, skills and energy within and among people have increased.

Wachira (2010), also emphasised "the strategic importance of HRD as a cutting edge of Africa's strategic developmental agenda", and asserted that "it equips people with knowledge, skills and attitudes that enhance their capacity to produce value" (Wachira, 2010:2). Tailor (2001, as cited by Wachira, 2010), stated that "in an increasingly knowledge based economy, capacity building is recognised as an essential component in the process of reform". Wachira (2010) and Rouda and Kusy (1995:2) mentioned that "the competitive global environment has brought challenges to develop ambitious Human Resource Development programmes to ensure that staff keeps assimilating new skills and appropriate attitude at work". McLagan (1989) described HRD as an integrating system and outlined key outputs of HRD work as individual's competencies, knowledge, skills, values and attitudes. McLagan (1989) asserted that the individual uses these competencies to perform a variety of tasks, behaviours and activities, and that these activities and behaviours produce products and services (i.e. outputs that are provided for use by others).

As background to the HRD function, the public service adopts a systems approach and indicates four HRD strategic pillars aimed at supporting and building human capital for high performance and enhanced service delivery and to realise a vision (a dedicated responsiveness and productive public service) for HRD in the public service. In the public service context, outputs of HRD could, among other things, provide improved service delivery, redress past imbalances through affirmative action, promote employment equity, and fast track the development of vulnerable groups through diversity management programmes. McLagan (1989) asserted that the quality of these outputs and the reactions of those who receive them lead to results or consequences that may be positive, negative or neutral. Rouda and Kusy (1995) and McLagan (1989) maintained that HRD function aligns individual responsibility with organisational requirements, with the objective to achieve a business plan. McLagan (1989) asserted that the alignment creates a positive environment which develops, retains and attracts the best employees.

McLagan (1989) and Swanson (as cited by Anderson, 2006) further argued that HRD helps the organisation maintain a motivated workforce that is capable of growing their competence. McLagan (1989) maintained that the organisation gains measurable benefit by integrating core development activities across the organisation. Viewed from the forgoing perspective, human resource development (education, training and development, organisational development, and career development) faces a serious challenge at the dawning of a South African democratic

society, particularly in the public service, as the masses and the poorest of the poor essentially rely on the delivery of basic essential services for a better life for all (Baloyi, 2009). It is crucial to create an HRD system that ensures that people are able to realise their full potential in the South African society for successful achievement of their goals. In South Africa, particularly in the public service, the HRD system should develop people to improve service delivery, sustain economic growth and enhance competitive participation in a global economy, hence the study.

2.2.3   HRD practice models

The following models formed the theoretical and philosophical foundation for identifying the HRD developmental needs determined in the present study.

2.2.3.1   McLagan's model

McLagan (1989) maintained that in the 1990s and beyond business strategies would become dependent on the quality and versatility of human resources; work structures and designs would change dramatically; hierarchies would melt into flatter structures; business would continue to focus on customers and quality; and HRD would be one of the key competitive characteristics. McLagan (1989) furthermore predicted that workforces would become more diverse and more female, literacy gaps would widen, more people would do knowledge work, and people would expect meaningful work and involvement. Workers would have to possess the competencies needed to meet the evolving needs of organisations (McLagan, 1989). As a result organisations would evaluate the impact of HR-oriented interventions such as HRD, and the impact evaluation would be on whether career development efforts actually improve timely availability of skills and variety in HRD tools and theories (McLagan, 1989). McLagan (1989) argued that these changes would have major implications for the HRD profession, hence this study.

McLagan (1989) maintained that HRD has great economic and personal value for HRD practitioners in being able to optimise the performance of individuals, teams and the entire organisation; hence the importance of determining developmental needs of HRD practitioners using the HRD practitioner models. Pace *et al.* (1991) argued that HRD can be viewed as a process of increasing capacity of human resource through development. It is thus a process of adding value to individuals, the team or organisation as human system (Pace *et al.,* 1991).

McLagan's model of HRD work is illustrated through the use of the model "Human Resources Wheel". In this model HRD is viewed as a subset of human resource discipline and focuses on

three of eleven areas of human resource practice. McLagan (1989) asserted that HRD differs from other HR processes in that it focuses on development as its primary objective.

This study focused on these three areas of HRD with the view to determine developmental needs among HRD practitioners, with subsequent professionalisation of HRD work in the public service. HRD practitioners of the new millennium are expected to perform a great variety of work as they apply their competencies to the many development challenges facing organisations (McLagan, 1989). The National Staff Development and Training Association/American Public Services Association (2004) and McLagan (1989) outlined the following outputs as the products, services or information that are at the heart of the HRD field: (i) Plans to market HRD programmes, (ii) Need Analysis (definition and description of desired individual or group performance, (iii) Programme or intervention design, (iv) Implementation of HRD intervention (print-based learner material, instructor and facilitator guides, presentation of materials, facilitation of learning), and (v) Evaluation of training (individuals with new knowledge, skills and attitudes).

In line with the objective of this study, it is important to conceptualise the role of HRD practitioners in the public service as inclusive of the above-mentioned outputs or services. HRD practitioners are people for whom training and development, organisation development and/or career development form part of their professional careers, hence the need to determine the developmental needs in terms of competencies that would enable them to perform their roles professionally and with the right attitude.

HRD as the field, a career and profession can be differentiated from other HR functions through the use of the "Human Resource Wheel" model adapted from McLagan (1989). The model is illustrated in Figure 2.1 below.

HRD
HRD is the integrated use of Training and Development, Organisation Development and Career Development to improve individual, group and organisational effectiveness. These three areas use development as their primary process and are the focal point of this study

Training and Development Focus: identifying, assuring and - through planned learning - helping develop the key competencies that enable individuals to perform current or future jobs

HR Research and Information Systems Focus: assuring an HR information base

Union Labour Relations Focus: assuring healthy union/ organisation relationships

Employee Assistance Focus: provide personal problem-solving counselling to individual employees

Compensation Benefits Focus: assuring compensation, fairness and consistency

Selection and Staffing Focus: matching people and their career needs and capacities with jobs and career pathS

Performance Management Systems Focus: assuring individual and organisation goals are linked and that what individuals do every day supports the organisational goals

HUMAN RESOURCE RESULT

- Productivity
- Quality
- Innovation
- HR fulfilment
- Readiness for change

Organisation Development Focus: assuring healthy inter- and intra-unit relationships and helping groups initiate and manage change

Career Development Focus: assuring an alignment of individual career planning and organisation career management processes to achieve optimal organisational needs

Organisation/Job Design Focus: defining how task, authority and systems will be organised and integrated across organisational units and individual jobs

Human Resource Planning Focus: determining the organisation's major human resource needs, strategies and philosophies

These areas are closely related to the three primary HRD areas, in which development is important, but not the primary orientation or process

21

McLagan (1989) defined HRD as the integrated use of training and development, organisation development, and career development to improve individual, group and organisational effectiveness. McLagan (1989) furthermore asserted that HRD is distinct from other HR processes in that its three areas use development as their primary process and focal point. Therefore, it is important to elaborate on the main themes of HRD as a conceptual framework for this study.

According to McLagan (1989) HRD is known by its results: individuals, groups and an organisation itself have a greater capacity to create value when the knowledge, skill and energy within and among people have increased. For the purpose of this study, it is therefore important to fully define the meaning of the main components of HRD as a concept.

McLagan (1989) and Rouda and Kusy (1995) elaborated on each HRD theme as follows:

- **Integrated** means that HRD is more that the sum of its parts. It is more than training and development or organisation development or career development in isolation. It is the combined use of all developmental practices in order to accomplish higher levels of individual and organisational effectiveness than would be possible with a narrower approach.

- **Training and Development** focus on identifying, assuring and helping to develop, through planned learning, the key competencies that enable individuals perform current or future jobs. Training and development's primary emphasis is on individuals in their work roles. The primary training and development intervention is planned individual learning.

- **Organisational Development** focuses on assuring healthy inter- and intra-unit relationships and helping groups initiate and manage change. Organisational Development's primary emphasis is on relationships and processes between and among individuals and groups. Its primary intervention is an influence on the relationship between individuals and groups to effect an impact on the organisation as a system.

- **Career Development** focuses on assuring an alignment of individual career planning and the organisational career management process to achieve an optimal match of individual and organisational needs. Career development's primary emphasis is on the person as an individual who performs and shapes his or her various work roles.

McLagan's model provides a conceptual framework for this study in that the integrated use of the three components of HRD becomes the focal point of this study, with greater emphasis on the training and development process.

2.2.4 HRD models and professionalisation of HRD work

HRD models play a significant role in the professionalisation of HRD work. Professionalisation of HRD work is particularly imperative for public service transformation and improved service delivery. McLagan (1989) highlighted the importance of professionalisation of HRD work by referring to important matters such as the definition of HRD, what quality HRD should be, how to identify such quality, or what capabilities and ethics HRD practitioners should possess or develop. HRD models such as American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) can guide the HRD field successfully through the turbulent future, for competitive advantage through people (McLagan, 1989). Swanson (1995) asserted that in terms of HRD values, HRD practices should be theoretically and ethically sound. Anderson (2006), Swanson (1995) and National Staff Development and Training Association/American Human Services Association (2004) emphasised the importance of connecting sound theory and sound practice within a theoretically sound and ethical framework in HRD practice. Professionalisation of HRD practice in the public service is the ultimate objective of this study. Swanson (1995:209) stated that HRD practitioners must have a passion for learning as professionals; they should love the personal sense of self that results from being efficient and effective; they should also have a passion for performance because learning and expertise alone are not sufficient for improved business and industry performance.

HRD can best be defined and understood by using the open systems theory. Swanson (1995) argued that the underlying philosophy of system theory is appropriate and relevant to enhancing human understanding of the role of human resource development in any organisational setting, be it private or public. System theory is premised on the assumption that organisations have similar characteristics to other living organisms and is defined as an arrangement of interrelated parts (Swanson, 1995). McLagan also argued that there are challenges in defining HRD as a field or profession. Wachira (2010:2) said one of the key challenges facing HRD in Africa is "the way the function operates at country and organisational levels; and the role of HRD professionals and how they go about their professional practice". Wachira argued that challenges facing HRD in Africa can be solved by practitioners by focusing on their practice and by making it professional, by emphasising learning and by integrating HRD practices into the organisation.

These challenges are more prominent in the South African public service, as witnessed by Neethling (2009) in her assertion that there is unevenness in depth understanding of HRD in the South African public service; and by Anderson (2006:279) who asserted that HRD work in South Africa is performed in an unstructured way with no uniform approach to HRD practice. Anderson (2006:279) stated that "HRD thoughts and practices are lumped together and consist of as many understandings as the number of people involved". To correct this problem and professionalise HRD practice in South Africa, Anderson proposed a set of tools which she termed "sound HRD social constructs" that could be used to effectively theorise human resource development in South Africa.

The first challenge cited by McLagan (1989) is that HRD is an emerging field and only a few educational programmes or curricula directly prepare people to do HRD work. Secondly, HRD is a very dynamic field in that what worked in the past in a more stable organisational environment may not effectively address current and future problems (McLagan, 1989:3). McLagan (1989) and Rouda and Kusy (1995) claimed that new technology, new learning research, and new and evolving theoretical models, as well as better exchanges of information and learning among HRD professionals, all contribute to the dynamics. Thirdly, HRD relies on more than one subject matter. McLagan (1989), Swanson (1995, as cited in Anderson, 2006) asserted that HRD is an applied field that draws on theories from a number of disciplines including education, organisational behaviour, management science, industrial and individual psychology, communication, counselling, economics, sociology, general systems science, the humanities, and political policy science. McLagan (1989) argued that the fact that HRD relies on more than one subject matter makes it difficult for the professionals to master it. HRD is within the larger human resource arena , which includes the other organisational functions that affect people's performance but do not use development as their primary mechanisms of influence (McLagan, 1989). These functions include recruitment and selection, and labour relations which are not primarily developmental in nature but interdependent. McLagan (1989) argued that because of this interdependence, the boundaries around HRD are not always clear.

One of the challenges of HRD is that it is a pervasive function (McLagan, 1989) because HRD does not exist in one department only and is not done by selected people only. Every employee, every manager, and even customers and suppliers and consultants play a role in the development of individual and group knowledge, skills and attitudes (McLagan, 1989). Nevertheless, the professionalisation of HRD (which would help to assure quality in HRD practice) must be carefully balanced with support for everyone's ability to develop himself or herself and others (McLagan, 1989). McLagan (1989) concluded that the development of people and organisations is important work due to rapidly changing and highly competitive times.

Society and organisations already make substantial investments to develop work-related knowledge, skills and values; and many people consider themselves HRD practitioners and do jobs that involve HRD responsibilities (such as line managers), or prepare people who perform HRD roles (McLagan , 1989:4). Wachira (2010) argued that HRD practitioners cannot empower others if they do not empower themselves. Anderson (2006) affirmed this assertion by stating that HRD practitioners cannot grow as HRD professionals unless they develop an accurate understanding of what HRD is. Wachira (2010:10) suggested continuing professional development of HRD practitioners as a mechanism which will help them maintain, improve and broaden their knowledge and skills and develop the personal qualities required in their professional lives. This tendency exists within the South African skills development context and it cuts across all economic sectors, including the public service.

2.2.5   The role of models for HRD practice

Models play an important role in professionalising HRD practice. McLagan (1989), Rouda and Kusy (1995), Anderson (2006) and DOL and GTZ (2005) maintained that ASTD, the National Staff Development and Training Association/American Public Human Services Association, National Occupational Pathways Framework, and Anderson's HRD theoretical model, as models for HRD practice, have been put in place in an effort to continuously provide guidance and a common vision and language for HRD. Models are put in place to stimulate a higher level of quality in HRD preparation and practice, and to increase awareness of HRD as a function that has critical organisational and individual performance and success (McLagan, 1989:4). McLagan (1989) warned that the description of HRD and the models are meant to encourage support and enhance continuous evolution and innovation in HRD, but a complex field like HRD should not be restricted by its definition. Without definitions and models, the practitioners in a field lose the ability to exchange information efficiently and guide the development of their field (McLagan, 1989). So, it is necessary to adopt HRD models that help us conceptualise and understand the HRD framework, which is also the premise of this study.

HRD models can be used by HRD practitioners for various purposes. HRD practitioners are people for whom training and development, organisation development and/or career development are a major part of their job. McLagan (1989) extended the definition of HRD to include line managers and others who perform HRD roles, as well as people whose profession is HRD. The National Staff Development and Training Association/American Public Human Services Association (2004) and McLagan (1989:63-67) also argued that practitioners can use HRD models to develop their job profiles and role profiles; as valuable tool to guide HRD-related performance; career planning; as a tool for guiding development of HRD-related competencies; competency assessment of HRD practitioners; ethics self-check. Furthermore, these models

can be used by HRD managers for designing HRD organisation and HRD jobs; staffing for success; assessing and developing HRD staff; managing HRD professional performance; assuring ethical conduct; career advising; research agenda; and learner assessment (McLagan, 1989; Rouda & Kusy, 1995).

2.2.5.1   HRD outputs and competences as units of analysis – adopted approach in the study

Anderson (2006), the National Staff Development and Training Association/American Public Human Services Association (2004) and McLagan (1989) stated that HRD work involves two elements, namely, outputs or outcomes and competencies. This study also focused on the analysis of these two elements. It assessed whether HRD practitioners have developmental needs to deliver specific outputs, which are marketing of HRD programmes, conducting training need analysis, implementing HRD interventions, evaluating and giving feedback on HRD interventions, as well as competences practitioners must acquire in order to deliver on these outputs. McLagan (1989) cited the differences between job analysis which has traditionally focused on behaviours and activities (what people must do in the course of their work) and competence analysis which focuses on competencies (the knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes that enable performance), outputs (the products of performance), or results (the consequences of performance) (McLagan, 1989:15). For example, HRD practitioners use their knowledge, skill, and attitudes when marketing HRD programmes, conducting HRD needs analysis, implementing HRD interventions, and evaluating and giving feedback on HRD interventions.

McLagan (1989) emphasised the fact that HRD models focus on competences and outputs, and demonstrated that the choice of focusing on competences has assisted in devising models that are useful for the professional development of HRD practitioners. The rationale for focusing on outputs rather than results (the quality of outputs and the reaction of those who receive them) is that outputs are more controllable. The objective of this study is in line with McLagan's rationale. This study assessed developmental needs of HRD practitioners (knowledge, skills, attitudes) essential for carrying out specific HRD work outputs. The study did not assess whether specific HRD work or outputs had been carried out or not, but whether practitioners had developmental needs in terms of knowledge, skills and attitude to carry out such outputs. Outputs are roles carried out by practitioners in the course of executing their professional duties. McLagan (1989) defined output as that which people are paid for to produce or deliver to those they serve. Drucker (as cited in McLagan, 1989) described results or outcomes as evidence that the jobs have been done, and are not the job itself. The current study focused more on outputs than outcomes. Outcomes are seen as results of delivery of outputs, and they can only be assessed

through a comprehensive outcome-based competence assessment process, which was not possible and not intended for this study. The focus of the current study was on HRD developmental needs to perform HRD duties (outputs).

McLagan (1989) argued that focusing on outputs rather than behaviours means to respect the judgement component of HRD work and to support the continuous improvement in the HRD field. The development of people and groups in organisations is complex work that, with few exceptions, cannot be described in step-by-step prescriptions of specific behaviours (McLagan, 1989). McLagan (1989) maintained that an HRD professional must have a broad store of behaviours and must be able to invent new appropriate behaviours in reaction to HRD problems and opportunities as they arise. According to McLagan (1989) many possible combinations of behaviour can support the achievement of a quality output. In keeping with this philosophical paradigm, an HRD practitioner must be able to select and invent the best behaviours based on situation, the output he or she is trying to produce, and his or her own competences. McLagan (1989) advocated that the individual must get clarity on what he or she must produce (output) and maintained that this approach contributes to the selection of appropriate behaviours. She also emphasised that a clear, common vision of the output can guide people in their individual selection of behaviours to make the output a reality. The figure below illustrates the HRD model which focuses on the competencies, outputs, quality and ethical requirements (standards) for successful integration and use, implementation of training and development, organisational development and career development for individual, group and organisational effectiveness. McLagan (1989) and the National Staff Development and Training Association/American Public Human Services Association (2004) highlighted the fact that the models are relevant to all people doing HRD work. McLagan stated that these people include human resource and HRD practitioners, managers, and individual employees. The models provide a theoretical framework for this study.

Figure 2.2: Possible units of analysis (The *Models* focus on competencies and outputs.)

Individuals have **competencies** (knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes) →	They use these competencies to perform a variety of **behaviours and activities** →	Their behaviours and activities produce products and services (**out-puts)** that are provided to others →	The quality of these outputs and the reactions of those who receive them lead to **results** that may be positive, negative, or neutral for the organisation and its customers

Adapted from McLagan (1989), Models for HRD Practice; The Models, American Society for HRD Practices

2.2.6   A South African model, approach and perspective

The South African Education Training and Development Practitioner Model took into account that education, training and development (ETD) should not be restricted by models, but without models practitioners lose the ability to exchange information efficiently and to guide the development of the field. In order to develop a model that accommodates the needs and aspirations of all stakeholders   (employers, employees, providers and the state) the South African model was tested for validity in terms of stated principles of being indigenous to the needs of the South African practitioners ; descriptive of the work of practitioners at all levels, in all types of organisations and within various roles; able to provide career paths that encourage both vertical and horizontal progression; able to provide formal recognition of practitioner competence at all levels within a national framework; and able to accommodate full- and part-time practitioners (National Training Strategy Initiative,1994: National Occupational Pathways Framework 2005).

The main components of the South African model are similar to those of the ASTD model, namely, behaviours and activities, outcomes, competencies, and results. Behaviours and activities are what people do in the course of their work. Outcomes are what people must produce/achieve as a result of the work they do. Competences are the skills and knowledge that practitioners require to do the work. Results are the consequences of the work they do (National Training Strategy Initiative, 1994; National Occupational Pathways Framework, 2005).

Although the South African model is similar to the ASTD model in many respects, the former puts more emphasis on outcomes while the latter puts more emphasis on outputs. Secondly, the South African model has an outcome-based approach focusing on what people produce/achieve as a result of their work, while the ASTD model focuses on behaviour and competences acquired that enable them to perform their roles/outputs. The ASTD approach is formative and developmental in nature as it focuses on developing one or two competences that enable practitioners to perform their roles/outputs. The ASTD model and approach is adopted in this study. The South African model, although it recognises the importance of behaviour and competence acquisition by HRD practitioners, tends to focus more on the outcomes (what people are able to achieve as a result of HRD practitioner intervention). The South African model is summative in approach as it focuses on what HRD practitioners produce and does not necessarily pinpoint behaviour and competence acquisition by HRD practitioners. This paradigm could have a negative consequence - non-development and non-professionalisation of HRD practitioners in the public service. Currently in the public service, the focus is more on building capacity for better service delivery through outsourcing training and development than actually building capacity of internal practitioners who are professionally responsible for capacity building within the sector.

Similar to the ASTD model, the South African HRD model also emphasises the importance of ethics in the HRD profession. According to the model, practitioners are accountable to the organisations and sectors or communities they serve. The practitioners should promote the transfer of learning in the workplace, be involved in individual counselling on personal matters and career development, as well as in organisational change processes and conflict resolution because their work influences and is influenced by the climate and culture of the organisations in which they work. The model emphasises that practitioners must always play their roles in a professional and ethical manner (National Training Strategy Initiative, 1994; National Occupational Pathways Framework, 2005).

In conclusion, the four elements of the South African model, namely, roles, outcomes, quality standards, and competencies are clustered around five key areas which are research, design/development, delivery, administration, and management. The difference between this model and the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) model is that it describes the full range of ETD work in terms of outcomes (products/achievements) and focuses on outcomes rather than competences/behaviour and activities. ASTD describes the full range of HRD work in terms of the outputs or roles. The main focus of the ASTD model is on practitioners understanding their roles and developing the skills and attitudes required to perform such outputs/roles. The South African model focuses more on the outcomes delivered

by the practitioners in the process of executing the HRD work. The South African model is therefore performance/outcome based while the ASTD model is role/output based. The approach adopted in this study take both models into consideration but is more aligned to the ASTD model, as it emphasises development of practitioners and professionalisation of the field. The reason for choosing this model was, firstly, that South Africa is still in a developmental state and professionalisation of HRD work is a priority; and secondly, it cannot be assumed that HRD practitioners can deliver on outcomes of HRD work efficiently and effectively without building their capacity first. Hence the assumptions of the South African model could be viewed as "putting the cart before the horse" by de-skilling practitioners and creating a situation where the majority of citizens do not participate in the skills development. This could lead to a situation where those who already practice become richer and richer, and those who lack competence are on the periphery become marginalised and poorer and poorer.

Both models recognise the fact that a practitioner may specialise on only one role or perform numerous roles simultaneously. The South African model is outcome based as it focuses on outcomes achieved by practitioners and assumes that output/roles are already in place, hence training of practitioners does not seem to be prioritised. This approach could be detrimental to the economic growth of South Africa and service delivery in the public service. The ASTD model is competency based as the main focus is on development and acquisition of skills that in turn equip the HRD practitioner to become a professional and enable practitioners to play the required roles or outputs, which will eventually lead to the achievement of HRD outcomes.

The outcome-based South African model could be seen as good being goal based, but it is difficult or impossible to adopt because "quality standards" as norms guide the creation and evaluation of outcomes; however, a full range of outcomes and standards for HRD practice is not defined in the model. The South African model defines competences as the skills, attitude and knowledge the ETD practitioner needs in order to be able to produce specified outcomes in accordance with the required quality standards. The emphasis of the South African model is on what HRD practitioners produce, irrespective of whether they are trained or not. In this study the outcomes- and competence-based approaches are equally important as the former addresses effectiveness while the latter puts more significance on development and professionalisation of HRD practitioners, so that they are ready to discharge their mandate as and when required but still enjoy professional status in the HRD field.

2.2.7   HRD roles/outputs and competence

HRD practitioners need to possess certain competencies to be able to effectively deliver on HRD programmes. McLagan (1989), in her research study on "what are the future components of HRD work; what quality requirements or standards should guide HRD work; what ethical requirements are associated with HRD; and what competencies will HRD practitioners of 1990s need in order to do HRD work in future", identified 74 key work dimensions for the entire HRD field. McLagan (1989) described these dimensions as outputs, products or services that are at the heart of the HRD field. She further consolidated and summarised the 74 dimensions as five key HRD outputs or roles. They are Marketing of HRD programmes, Conducting HRD need analysis, Design and Development of HRD interventions, Implementation of HRD interventions, and Evaluation and Monitoring of HRD interventions. These roles are the central focus point of this study.

In order to deliver on these outputs, practitioners should possess certain sets of competences. Competence in the context of HRD work can be defined as the acquisition or possession of relevant knowledge, skills, and attitude to perform certain allocated tasks, roles and outputs effectively and efficiently. McLagan (1989) and the National Staff Development and Training Association/American Public Human Services Association (2004) identified four sets of HRD competencies, namely, technical competencies, business competencies, interpersonal competencies, and intellectual competencies. McLagan (1989), Rouda and Kusy (1995) and Anderson (2006) also maintained that HRD competences are knowledge, skills, and attitudes that HRD practitioners must possess to perform HRD roles or outputs. McLagan (1989) described business competence to entail understanding of business processes; politics and culture; structures and policies; organisational behaviour understanding; financial position and strategies. Technical competence includes technical skills such as organisational development, career development and training and development; adult learning principles; design and development of HRD interventions; assessment skills; and research skills. Interpersonal competence refers to couching, giving feedback to learners, negotiation skills, presentation skills, and relationship building. Intellectual competence focuses on data reduction, information searching, model building, envisioning, and self-knowledge (McLagan, 1989).

This study determined the developmental needs in certain competences that enable HRD practitioners to deliver specific outputs. As practitioners may not be on the same level of competence and some may need to focus on competences that are key to their HRD work roles, respondents were also required to rate themselves on the importance of and need to develop a specific competence. McLagan (1989) pointed out that some HRD practitioners may narrow their focus on specific roles and become more specialised. For example, some HRD

practitioners may choose to specialise in learning material development, while others may become assessors, instructors, facilitators, individual career development facilitators, organisational development or change agent specialists, researchers, HRD programmes marketers, programme designers, administrators, or HRD managers.

Bellis (1994) concurred that some HRD practitioners may focus on specific roles and become specialised. Bellis (1994) argued that the changing nature of the HRD practitioner's role within the South African context could entail that the role changes from trainer who instructs to practitioner who carries a specific role or range of roles that are interwoven and complex. For example, a practitioner may no longer be required to run a training course but may be expected to interact with a range of processes, and behavioural and attitudinal phenomena within the organisation (Bellis, 1994).

Ethics has also become a topical issue in the public service. Entrenchment of ethical conduct is contained in public prescripts and service delivery orientation guidelines such as the public service staff code and Batho Pele (service delivery principles). Ethics are important for the HRD profession and practitioners because HRD practitioners interact with different stakeholders in their daily work and must hold a high moral ground on how they conduct themselves. They also have access to privileged or confidential information about people issues.

Rouda and Kusy (1995), McLagan (1989) and the National Staff Development and Training Association/American Public Human Services Association (2004) also highlighted the issue of ethics in doing HRD work. McLagan asserted that high quality HRD work is ethical work, and identified 13 areas where ethical dilemmas are likely to arise in the course of HRD work in the future (McLagan, 1989:58). These ethical issues include the violation of copyright, use of psychological instruments by people who do not have proper credentials, conflict of interest, and managing personal biases.

The roles played by HRD practitioners, competencies required in playing these roles meaningfully, and good ethics to be displayed by practitioners qualify the HRD field as a profession. This study brings in the value of good ethics among HRD practitioners in the public service, with the consequent goal of professionalising HRD work in the public service through the professional development of HRD practitioners.

Moleko (2009) and Rouda and Kusy (1995:3) referred to professional development as the systematic maintenance, improvement, and broadening of knowledge and skills. Moleko (2009) argued that professional development also includes the development of personal qualities necessary for professional and technical duties throughout life. It could be concluded from this

assertion that HRD practitioners are professionals who execute HRD duties through specific roles in the profession. These roles include that of programme designer, researcher, administrator, facilitator, individual career advisor, ETD material developer, organisation change agent, evaluator, and marketer. In order for practitioners to carry out such roles, they need to be equipped with a broad range or set of skills (competences). Hence McLagan (1989) identified four sets of skills that HRD practitioners must have, as displayed in the following role/competence matrix. The matrix provided a crucial model for the execution of this study.

2.2.7.1 The broad set of roles and competences

The first set of skills is education and development, organisational development and career development theories and is known as technical skills. The second set of skills is classified as business skills and includes business processes, politics and culture, structures and policies, organisational behaviour understanding, financial positions and strategies. The third set of skills is known as interpersonal skills, and includes coaching, feedback negotiations, presentations, and relationship building. The fourth set of skills is intellectual skills, and these skills include data collection, information search, model building, envisioning and self-knowledge.

McLagan (1989) maintained that in order to train for impact the HRD practitioner has to build credibility, visibility, and involvement with business issues; address clients primary concerns; build networks; support and promote ideas and presence; and ensure results. The following table (Table 2.1) illustrates the integrated different roles and competencies that HRD practitioners have to display and play. The competences indicated in the role and competence matrix are a main focus of this study. In this study, the developmental needs of HRD practitioners are determined on the following output/role dimensions: determining training and development needs, designing and developing HRD interventions, implementing HRD interventions, marketing HRD interventions, evaluating and giving feedback on HRD interventions.

In terms of the National Occupational Pathways (2005) developed by the Department of Labour for Training and Development Professionals, and the National Staff Development and Training Association/American Public Human Services Association (2004), various tasks are performed under each role. For instance, in the phase of identifying training and development needs, the HRD practitioner is tasked to identify training needs and requirements of individuals and the organisation. During the design and development of HRD interventions phase, the HRD practitioner is tasked to set human resource development objectives and evaluate learning outcomes; prepare and develop instructional training materials and aids such as handouts, visual aids, on-line tutorials, demonstration models, and supporting training reference

documentations. In this phase, HRD practitioners also design, co-ordinate, schedule, and conduct training and development programmes that can be delivered in the form of individual or group instructions, and facilitate workshops, meetings, demonstrations and conferences. During the implementation phase, the HRD practitioners liaise with external training service providers to arrange delivery of specific training and development programmes. During the marketing of HRD interventions phase, HRD practitioners promote internal and external training and development and evaluate these promotional activities. During the evaluation and giving feedback phase, HRD practitioners monitor and perform ongoing evaluation and assess training quality and effectiveness, as well as review and modify training objectives, methods, and course deliverables. HRD practitioners also advise management on development and placement of staff and provide career counselling for employees.

Table 2.1:   HRD practitioner roles and competencies matrix (Adapted from McLagan, 1989)

Competencies			Researcher	Marketer	Org. Change Agent	Needs Analyst	Programme Designer	ETD Mat. Developer	Instructor/Facilitator	Ind. Career Dev. Adv	Administrator	ETD Manager	Evaluator
	Technical	Adult Learning Understanding											
		Career Dev. Theories & Tech. Understanding											
		Competency Identification Skill											
		Electronic Systems Skills											
		Facilities Skill											
		Objectives Preparation Skills											
		Performance Observation Skill											
		Subject Matter Understanding											
		Train and Dev. Theories & Techs. Understanding											
		Research Skill											
	Business	Business Understanding											
		Cost-Benefit Analysis Skill											
		Delegation Skill											
		Industry Understanding											
		Organisation Behaviour Understanding											
		Organisation Dev. Theories & Techs. Understanding											
		Organisation Understanding											
		Project Management Skill											
		Records Management											
	Interpersonal	Coaching Skill											
		Feedback Skill											
		Group Process Skill											
		Negotiation Skills											
		Presentation Skill											
		Questioning Skill											
		Relationship Building Skill											
		Writing Skill											
	Intellectual	Data Reduction skill											
		Information Search Skill											
		Intellectual Versatility											
		Model Building Skill											
		Observing Skill											
		Self- Knowledge											
		Envisioning Skill											

2.3   OD process model

Organisational development (OD) forms part of the technical competences as indicated in the HRD Roles and Competences Matrix and is therefore an integral part of the HRD practitioner's work. This study sought to determine the developmental needs of HRD practitioners, of which organisational development is one of the critical elements. HRD practitioners play a crucial role in facilitating organisational development working as change agents, facilitators, as well as managers.

Organisational development is defined as a planned process to improve the organisation's effectiveness and health by modifying individual, group and organisational behaviour as a premise from which to effect development. The National Staff Development and Training Association/American Public Human Services Association (2004) and Bellis (1996) described organisational development as a subdivision of the organisational behaviour field of study. Organisational behaviour is defined as a scientific field of study in which the behaviour of individuals, groups and organisational structures are studied so that one can understand, forecast and influence the behaviour in order to improve the effectiveness of the organisation. It can be concluded that organisational development focuses on the development of organisation effectiveness.

French and Bell (1999), Rouda and Kusy (1995), Kanter, Stein and Jick (1992), Burke and Litwin (1991) and Kimberly and Quinn (1989) defined organisational development as a planned or implemented response to pressures and forces which involve movement of elements in a particular direction. Kurt Lewin (1943), in his model on change management, claimed that HRD practitioners facilitate change at two levels. The first level focuses on changing the individual in terms of skills, values, and attitude because "individual behaviour is always instrumental to organisational change". The second level is where the HRD practitioner as a change agent is highly instrumental in organisational structures and systems. The practitioner plays a meaningful role in designing and developing reward systems and reporting relationships and work design. Kimberly and Quinn (1989) claimed that these change interventions could lead directly to changing the organisational climate and interpersonal relationship style. Robinson and Robinson (1990) concurred with Lewin's approach to organisational development (OD) and added that the aim of change is to alter structure, technology (systems) and behaviour of individuals.

Stolovich and Keeps (1992) described change as a process with stages of creating awareness of change, helping people accept change, implementing by supporting people as they carry out

36

the change plan, adopting of change by involving people in the change, accepting their feelings, and showing respect and support. Rothwell and Shredl (1992:66) described organisational development (OD) as comprising three important components. The first major component is "laboratory research" based on a structured small group session where participants learn about themselves, others and the nature of group processes. This component is much more effective for enhancing learning about group functioning as it allows giving feedback to the group (Rothwell & Shredl, 1992).

The second major element of organisational development (OD) is a survey guided development where attitude and climate surveys are conducted and results used to stimulate organisational change. However, Rothwell and Shredl (1992) argued that in order for organisational change to be effective, managers and subordinates should use the results and jointly plan organisational improvement.

The third major component of organisational development is action research (Rothwell & Shredl, 1992), which is a model for problem solving and change. The model is used by HRD practitioners as vehicle for facilitating change. The model comprises an identifiable and continuous sequence of activities. Rouda and Kusy (1995), Rothwell and Shredl (1992) and Duka (1995) agreed on the sequence of events and stated that the sequence of activities includes entry contracting, diagnosing, feedback, planning action/intervention, and evaluation.

During the implementation of the three major components of organisational development (OD), the HRD practitioner is expected to play the role of a change agent, and in doing so needs to display a set of competences that brings about impact on change. The National Staff Development and Training Association/American Public Human Service Association (2004) and Gebelein (1989) asserted that the HRD practitioner must possess technical, conflict management, communication, and interpersonal skills as critical consulting skills in order to be effective in their job. In this study, Duka's (1995) action research model has been adopted to illustrate the role of HRD practitioners as change agents in organisations, and developmental needs on specific competences to achieve this output were determined.

Duka's model can be effectively used to conceptualise and demonstrate the role of an HRD practitioner as OD specialist and change agent because it is based on the principles of Kurt Lewin's model. Rouda and Kusy (1995) and Duka (1995) defined organisational development as a planned, long range and collaborative organisation-wide effort from top management to improve or change the culture system and behaviour of an organisation, with the assistance of a change agent or catalyst and the use of behavioural science aimed at improving both organisational effectiveness and employee wellbeing.

Rouda and Kusy (1995) and Duka (1995) developed a framework that could be used to explain and understand the OD process in the business organisation context. Duka (1995) maintained that OD aims to optimise productivity and improve quality of work life (i.e., culture, climate, morale, attitude, etc.) by using interventions designed to change or improve the organisation. Duka (1995) also maintained that OD aims to improve organisational effectiveness and business results.

HRD practitioners play an important role in analysing, designing and developing, implementing and evaluating organisational development processes. Rouda and Kusy (1995) and Duka (1995) stated that the process of OD begins with the identification of a felt need for action. HRD practitioners determine the nature of the felt need by using different assessment tools. The felt need for action leads to systematic planning and interventions. The OD process, as illustrated by the OD Model in Figure 2.3 below, begins with diagnosing the organisation, followed by planning and designing interventions, carrying out the implementation of plans (interventions), and then evaluating the intervention results (e.g. measurement of success, audits, and follow-up feedback).

Figure 2.3: OD process model (Adapted from Duka,1995)

| DIAGNOSTIC PROCESS | PLANNING AND DESIGN PROCESS | CARRYING OUT THE PLAN | EVALUATING THE INTERVENTION RESULT |

FELT NEED

OD CONSULTED — BY MANAGEMENT

OD CONSULTED — WITH MANAGEMENT

COLLECT DATA — SURVEYS, INTERVIEWS etc.

ANALYSE DATA

PROVIDE FEEDBACK — TO MANAGEMENT

PROBLEM IDENTIFIED?   REDESIGN   NO

YES

RECOGNISED BY MANAGEMENT?   REDESIGN   NO

YES

DESIRE TO CHANGE/IMPROVE?   REDESIGN   NO   YES

PLAN WITH MNGT ON WAYS TO IMPROVE

SELECT STRATEGY AND TARGET LEVEL

DESIGN ACTIVITIES TO IMPLEMENT ACTION PLAN

DEVELOP EVALUATION PLAN FOR THE EFFORT

ACTION PLANS APPROVED?   NO   YES

CONDUCT ACTIVITIES

MID-COURSE EVALUATION

CHANGE NEEDED?   CONTINUE AS PLANNED   NO

YES   REDESIGN   NO

MANAGEMENT   NO   YES

EVALUATE RESULTS: SURVEYS, INTERVIEWS

REVIEW PROCESS

CHANGE IMPROVED?   NO   YES

REINFORCE OD PHILOSOPHY IN ORGANISATION

TERMINATE EFFORT

39

2.4 Career development framework

Career exploration/ assessment

Career planning

Awareness of self and environment

Organisation workforce needs

Individual career needs (PDP)

Career pathing

Short-term & long-term goals

Career development

Career strategies (T&D)

Career appraisal/ performance assessment

Figure 2.4: Career development framework (Adapted from Coetzee, 2009)

This study aimed at determining the developmental needs of HRD practitioners in implementing career development, although at an elementary level. The discussion becomes important as it touches on career planning and pathing of HRD practitioners in the South African context, and also in the public service. Career development can be defined as the process of balancing the interests of an individual and an organisation through harmonising (balancing) an individual

employee's life and career stages with organisational business goals. In the process, individual employees and organisations perform specific tasks (Rouda & Kusy, 1995:1); HRD practitioners conduct marketing and promote career development programmes; do career development needs analyses, implement programmes; and monitor and evaluate the effectiveness of the career development programmes.

Rothwell and Shredl (1992:66) stated that career development is used to help employees identify their need for training and education and to satisfy their career objectives, as well as facilitate career progression or career pathing. HRD practitioners in the public service are also expected to play a very important role in individual career advice, career counselling, and career development facilitation. However, currently there is a competence gap among the practitioners in the public service; hence this study becomes crucial to gauge the baseline competence of HRD practitioners.

In this study, Coetzee's (2009) career development framework model was adopted due to its simplicity and sophistication in explaining the career development process. Coetzee (2009) and Greenhouse, Callanan and Godshalk (2000) defined career development as a strategy to enhance an employee's career by empowering him or her with the right skills and competencies needed in the business. Coetzee (2009), Rouda and Kusy (1995) and Otte and Kahnweiller (1995) stated that the process of career development begins with a career exploration that enables the employee to become fully aware of himself and his environment. Coetzee (2009) argued that, in the process of career exploration, the employee does not only gain insight into his values, interests and skills in both his work and personal life but also becomes more aware of job options and their requirements, as well as opportunities and obstacles in the organisation.

Coetzee (2009) and Rouda and Kusy (1995) furthermore asserted that a greater awareness of oneself and the environment helps the employee choose career developmental goals to pursue. The establishment of realistic goals in turn facilitate the development and implementation of a career strategy. The implementation of a reasonable career strategy can produce progress towards the stated career goal and provides useful feedback to the employee, which enables the employee to appraise his/her career (Coetzee, 2009). HRD practitioners play a very important role in every step of the career development process.

41

According to Coetzee (2009) the information derived from career appraisal becomes another vehicle for career exploration that continues the career development process. For example, an employee may discover that he/she has performed poorly on the newly acquired managerial portion of his/her job, which may lead to the employee considering to change his/her goal or to retain his/her goal but to revise the strategy.

2.4.1 Career development and progression for HRD practitioners – ASTD model

One of the most important steps in professionalising HRD practice is to map up career paths and develop required competences for career progression.

Schein (1978, as cited by Pace, 1991) defined career as "generally thought of as employment, often after a period of formal qualification, in an occupation or profession, spanning the time between entry into the career and retirement". Pace *et al*. (1991) argued that a career may be institutionalised, meaning that the person in the career is committed to the organisation and seeks continued, long-term employment in the organisation; or professionalised, meaning that the person in the career is committed to the professional area and seeks continued, long-term employment in the profession regardless of the organisation. Pace *et al*. (1991) also maintained that a career can be both institutional and professional, allowing a person to function in the same professional area and in the same organisation on a continued long-term basis. For most HRD practitioners in the public service, their career is both institutionalised and professionalised. This means that HRD practitioners aim to work for public service for the rest of their working career, but as professionals in their field for better contribution to HRD processes. This study aimed to suggest this approach in professionalisation of HRD in the South African public service, as it is in the developmental state.

Rouda and Kusy (1995:1) and Pace *et al*. (1991:212) stated that the field of human resource development has all the characteristics of a profession and it is being recognised as a career field for professionals. According to Pace *et al*. (1991:212) HRD professionals meet all the criteria established for classification as professionals in the workplace. HRD professionals have a defined area of competence, an organised body of knowledge, academic programmes that help

control access into the profession, and positions in organisations where professionals function independently (Pace *et al.*, 1991:212). This is the professionalisation culture that must be inculcated in the South African public service as part of a developmental state.

2.4.2 Stages in the career of an HRD professional

There are stages that could be followed in developing capability and professionalising HRD in South Africa and in the public service in general.

Pace *et al.* (1991) identified four distinct stages in the career of a professional. During the first stage, the individual works under the direction of others as an apprentice. In the second stage, the individuals demonstrate their competence as independent contributors. In the third stage, the individuals broaden and act as mentors to others. In the fourth stage, the individual provides direction to the organisation (Pace *et al.*, 1991:213).

2.4.3 Categories of HRD employment opportunities

HRD is a broad field with a variety of possible opportunities for HRD practitioners to zoom into specific areas as career choices and anchors. This is an ideal situation for the South African economy, and the public service in particular, and this study aimed to recommend this approach.

Pace *et al.* (1991:216) distinguished six categories of HRD employment opportunities. These categories are organisational effectiveness, management development, consulting and training services, sales training, career development, and technical training. In promoting organisational effectiveness, HRD practitioners assist in creating work environments that promote open communication and responses based on mutual respect where "personal risk taking, innovation, and individual and team participation in goal setting, problem solving, and decision making are encouraged and recognised" (Pace *et al.,* 1991). In the management development category, HRD practitioners are employed to create, conduct and administer programmes for supervisors, middle management, and executive management. In consulting and training services, HRD practitioners perform various services, ranging from design and production of materials, presentation and facilitation of programmes, marketing and sales of products. In

the sales training category, HRD practitioners prepare employees for the transition to service philosophy, marketing and customer services.

In the South African public service, HRD practitioners facilitate service delivery principles such as Batho Pele (people first). In the career development category, Pace *et al*. (1991) mentioned that due to technological changes, and subsequent diminishing job opportunities, HRD practitioners assist employees in taking responsibility for their own careers and work vitality. In the technical training category, HRD practitioners develop employees' computer skills and skills to refine work systems. In the South African public service context, one or two of the professional roles should be developed and HRD practitioners motivated to develop one or two competences towards attainment of professionalism in the HRD field category of their choice.

2.4.4 HRD practitioner career path

Pace *et al.* (1991) claimed that an HRD practitioner begins as a training specialist and rises to the level of senior HRD manager. Pace *et al.* (1991) and the National Staff Development and Training Association/American Public Human Services Association (2004) agreed with McLagan (1989) that the technical responsibilities of HRD professionals include programme planning, programme design, material development, delivery of training programmes, and administrative support. These responsibilities could play a role in areas such as management development, technical training, sales training, or support staff development.

2.4.5 Career development and progression for HRD practitioners – South African model.

A Discussion Document on a National Training Strategy Initiative (National Training Board, 1994) and the South African Model on ETD (Education Training and Development) based career progression of HRD practitioners on the development of expertise assessed in terms of the ability to produce outcomes.

The model advocates that progression is facilitated by the acquisition of credits for each of the following:

(i)   Occupational/subject matter expertise
(ii) Contextual understanding
(iii) Core ETD competences
(iv) Occupational expertise
(v)   ETD expertise.

A Discussion Document on a National Training Strategy Initiative (National Training Board, 1994) stated that there is a required level of core needs to be achieved prior to development in any of the ETD specialisation roles. Hence this study aimed to determine the developmental needs of HRD practitioners in the public service, determine a skills baseline, and, where necessary, propose development interventions.

It was stated in the discussion document (National Training Board, 1994:141) that practitioners first require a certain level of occupational expertise (subject matter expert) in the same area as the one in which they conduct training and that the relevant authorities should determine the range and level of those competencies. According to the National Occupational Pathways Framework (2005) the core HRD practitioner expertise is to plan, develop, implement and evaluate training and development programmes to ensure that management and staff acquire the skills and develop the competences required by organisations to achieve their objectives.

Secondly, the practitioners need a contextual understanding of the environment in which they practice HRD. The contextual understanding refers to national requirements in the broad fields of social and economic understanding, as well as an understanding of the sector in which an occupational specialisation falls (National Training Board, 1994:141). This study explored the contextual understanding of the environment in which HRD practitioners in the public service do their work. The contextual environment refers to the contributions of HRD to support the Government Programmes of Actions, service delivery, and provisions of legislation such as Skills Development Act No 97 of 1998, South African

Qualification Authority Act No 58 of 1997, and Employment Equity Act No 55 of 1998.

Thirdly, HRD practitioners must possess the core HRD competencies. In the discussion document core HRD competencies were defined as those competencies that are regarded as being essential for each practitioner (National Training Board, 1994:141). The core HRD competencies provided the contextual platform and key constructs of this study.

It was stated in the discussion document (National Training Board, 1994) that the model on Career Development and Progression for HRD Practitioners was designed to provide maximum flexibility with regards to the needs, requirements and capacity of the sectors, organisations, groups and individuals, yet provide a framework which could structure the development of practitioners.

2.5   Training and development process model

Figure 2.5: Training and development process model (Adapted from Bosman, 2001)

2.5.1 Strategic human resource development

HRD practitioners play a very important role in the human resource development strategic plan. The majority of HRD practitioners are managers and therefore play an important role in aligning HRD function and strategy with overall business strategy. Some HRD practitioners are merely implementers of different programmes and not necessarily managers. However, it is crucial for them to understand the value chain of HRD functions and activities in the whole organisational business strategy.

Harrison (1997, as cited by Wachira, 2010) defined strategic HRD as development arising from a clear vision of peoples' ability and potential to provide competitive advantage to an organisation. Wachira argued that strategic HRD is driven by the organisation's goals and operates within these goals to develop human capital and, therefore, HRD is a purposeful way of matching people to an organisation (Wachira, 2010:14).

Analoui (2008) and Garavan (1991), Gainer (1989) and Hall (1984), as cited by Rieger (1997), defined strategic human resource development as the identification of needed skills and active management of employee learning for the long range future in relation to explicit corporate and business strategies. Garavan (1991, as cited by Rieger, 1997) concurred with Hall (1984, as cited by Rieger, 1997) that strategic human resource development is concerned with the management of employee learning in the long term, keeping in mind the explicit corporate and business strategies. Rieger (1997) asserted that human resources strategies can never be developed in isolation of other organisational strategies. Manzini (1988:86, as cited by Rieger, 1997) stated that human resource development strategies ensure a link between human resource development objectives and organisational strategies.

Strategic human resource development poses a challenge to human resource development practitioners as they are expected to know and understand the organisation and the organisation's long-term business planning (Rieger, 1997). Nakanish (1991, as cited by Rieger, 1997) also emphasised that the human resource development practitioner must have a thorough knowledge of the organisation and its business. This is one of the key competencies assessed in this study. Rieger (1997) stated that human resource development practitioners must proactively identify strategic human resource needs from the organisation's strategic

planning. Rieger (1997) strongly believed that strategic human resource development planning must remain in synchronisation with the overall strategic planning of the organisation.

The training and development process assumes a systems theory philosophy, viz. input-throughput–output. According to Meier (1985) a system is a set of interrelated and interdependent elements (subsystems) functionally integrated into a working whole (system) to achieve some purpose. Meier (1985) furthermore stated that training and development is a set of interrelated and interdependent phases of activities functionally integrated into a process to change specified learner behaviour. Training and development is a subsystem of a business organisation. Swanson (1995) argued that HRD strategically contributes directly to the external customers, serves the internal customers and runs a parallel process to achieve the core performance outputs of the organisation. Swanson (1995:211) described an HRD system as consisting of the following elements, i.e., inputs – analyse training and development needs; process – design, develop, and implement; and output – evaluate the effectiveness of HRD interventions.

Buckley and Caple (2004) also developed a model of systematic approach to training but argued that it is not intended to be definitive for all practitioners, but serves as a "practical guide to complexities of training". They also asserted that a systematic approach to training illustrates the process followed to achieve effective training. The model is similar to that of Swanson, identifying training needs, design and development of training, implementation, and evaluation of the effectiveness of training. So, it can be concluded that training and development is a systematic process with various distinct phases that, when systematically put together, form the whole.

Bosman's model adopted a strategic systems approach in defining training and development (Bosman, 2001). Training and development is described as a sub-component of a human resource development system, which in turn is a subsystem of a human resource management system. Bosman (2001) defined training and development as a strategy used to provide human resources with the necessary skills so that employees develop their full potential in the interest of both the organisation and themselves, and to ensure pliable and adaptive employees to technological changes affecting their work. The objectives of training and development are to make available competency levels that match the current and

future needs of an organisation; in turn competency levels allow flexible deployment and, subsequently, the training objectives match the national standards requirements (Bosman, 2001). Wachira (2010) is of the opinion that in order for HRD practitioners to make an impact through HRD and assist to drive business, they must understand the business organisation better and deliver learning programmes that facilitate the achievement of goals. Harrison (1997, as cited by Wachira, 2010) defined strategic HRD as the development that arises from a clear vision of people's ability and potential in providing competitive advantage to an organisation. Harrison furthermore stated that strategic HRD is driven by the organisation's goals and operates within these goals to develop human capital, which is a purposeful way of matching people to an organisation (Wachira 2010:14).

Robinson and Robinson (1990) and House (cited in Camp *et al.,* 1986) defined training as any attempt to improve current or future employee performance by increasing through learning, an employee's ability to perform, usually by changing the employee's attitudes or increasing skills and knowledge. House maintained that the HRD field emerged with the concept of training for impact (cited in Camp *et al.,* 1986). This approach highlights a paradigm shift from training for the sake of training to training for impact. HRD practitioners have a professional role to play; a consultative role, co-ordinating and making training a success by matching training needs with broader organisational goals and objectives.

According to House (cited in Camp *et al.*, 1986), the use of an impact-directed training approach in pursuing human resource development optimises business results. HRD practitioners gain credibility from all stakeholders, particularly from senior management and line management when the results from training are visible and measurable and training programmes result in developing the necessary skills and imparting relevant knowledge to change behaviour and attitudes; hence the current study. Swanson and Torraco, cited by Swanson (1995), claimed the training and development process model as the historic root of the HRD profession. It is the cornerstone of this study because it provides a summary/abstract of the training and development cycle. O'Connor (2002) proposed a similar systematic model for procedural training and development. O'Connor (2002) identified the establishment of training needs, task analysis, the development of objectives, instructional design and implementation of skills training, as well as programme evaluation as the cornerstones of a systematic approach to training and development.

In this study, the abovementioned outputs are the basis for the role played by HRD practitioners in the training and development process; and are what HRD practitioners as professionals are expected to bring to the workplace (O'Connor, 2002; Bosman, 2001; Buckley & Caple, 1990).

The roles are as follows:

(a) Marketing of training interventions

(b) Establishing training needs

(c) Designing and developing training programmes

(d) Implementation of training, training strategies and methods

(e) Evaluation of training interventions.

2.5.2   South African HRD legislative framework and background to HRD in the public service

As the objective of this study was to determine the developmental needs of practitioners, the training and development process model was adopted because it provides a framework in which the training and development function takes place. Training and development legislation in South Africa (Skills Development Act No 97 of 1998, South African Qualifications Act No 58 of 1997, Employment Equity Act No 55 of 1998, Skills Development Levies Act No 9 of1999, Human Resource Development Strategy in South Africa, Public Service Human Resource Development Strategy Framework: Vision 2015) mandates the implementation of training and development and provides the context in which an HRD practitioner functions. The National Qualifications Framework (NQF), coupled with skills development strategy, is set to revolutionise training and development in South Africa in order to redress past imbalances in the South African democratic society. The NQF implies partnerships between various sectors of economic and social life and integration of education and training, irrespective of whether it is acquired in the formal education dispensation, through vocational training, or on community based learning or non-governmental organisation level. The approach in the South African public service is strategic and outcome based. The background provides the context in which HRD is practised in the South African public service.

The International Labour Organisation's (ILO's) report on public service (1998) stated that the challenges of a globalised economy, structural adjustment and

transition to market economies has led the states to compete with each other with a view to expanding their economic capacity. Therefore, the appropriate HRD policies of public service have to be considered an important element in the process. The South African Government has introduced various national human resource development initiatives to address the shortage of skills critical for economic growth and social transformation in the country. For instance, there are national programmes such as Accelerated Skills Growth Initiatives in South Africa (AsgiSA), Joint Initiative Partnership in South Africa (JIPSA), Youth Employment in Mining (YEM), Black Economic Empowerment (BEE), etc., which aim at addressing socio-economic development. However, the success of the initiatives is dependent on the skills capacity of South Africans, hence the importance of HRD competences. The ILO report on public service (1998) advocated that training has to be continuous over the duration of an employee's career and address a number of issues including worker's empowerment for greater responsibility and flexibility. The report on training also embraces ethics, including equal opportunities, responsibility, and rendering public employees "stewards" of a certain culture.

The New National HRD Strategy South Africa, the National Skills Development Strategy II and III, and the Public Service Human Resource Development Strategy: Vision 2015 are initiatives aimed at supporting the implementation of the abovementioned national initiatives. The HRD Strategy South Africa aims to address the development and supply of human capital to meet the societal and economic needs of the South African economy. The new HRD Strategy in the Public Service: Vision 2015 focuses on capacity development, organisational support initiatives, governance and institutional development initiative, economic growth and development initiatives. However, Neethling (2009) argued that there is unevenness in depth understanding of HRD in the public service and that it is unlikely that HRD initiatives will succeed without professionalisation and capacity building of HRD practitioners, hence this study.

The following HRD Strategic Framework for the Public Service: Vision 2015 provides the framework for HRD systems and processes in the public service. In terms of this framework, the HRD practitioners have to implement the four pillars of the framework, which are Capacity Development Initiatives, Organisational Support Initiatives, Governance and Institutional Development Initiatives and Economic Growth and Development Initiatives.

A VISION FOR HRD

A dedicated, responsive and productive Public Service

BUILDING HUMAN CAPITAL FOR HIGH PERFORMANCE AND ENHANCED SERVICE DELIVERY

Fostering HEI & FETC Partnerships	Mobilization of management support	Utilization of the strategic role of SETAs	Responsiveness to Millennium Development Goals
E-Learning Programmes for the Public Service	Career Planning & Talent Management	Values, Ethics & Professional Code of Practice	Promoting integrated & inter-sectoral approaches to developmental priorities
A National/Provincial Public Service Academy	Managing Employee Health & Wellness	Promoting HR Learning Networks	Capacity Development to promote success of Industrial & Economic Plans
Promoting Learnerships, Internships & Traineeships	Ensuring adequacy of Physical & Human resources & facilities	Managing Effectiveness of Communication	Awareness promotion of growth & development initiatives
Development programmes of professional bodies	Promoting appropriate Org. Structure for HRD	Fostering Effective Monitoring, Evaluation & Impact Analysis	Integrating NEPAD, AU, Regional & Global Programmes
Leadership Development Management Strategies	Performance Management & Development Systems	Managing HRD Policy & Planning Frameworks & Guidelines	ASGISA, JIPSA, EPWP, PGDP, IDPs
Integrated ABET Framework	Knowledge & Information Management	Strengthening & aligning governance roles in HRD	
Workplace Learning Programmes	HR Planning - Supply & Demand Management		
CAPACITY DEVELOPMENT INITIATIVES 1	**ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT INITIATIVES** 2	**GOVERNANCE & INSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT INITIATIVES** 3	**ECONOMIC GROWTH & DEVELOPMENT INITIATIVES** 4

4 KEY PILLARS FOR HIGH PERFORMANCE IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE THROUGH HRD

Focus on all Performa levels of employment | Responding to needs of designated groups (women & disabilities | Cohesiveness & Integration | Flexibility and adaptability | Recognizing contextual differences | Maintaining a performance focus | Responding to sectoral differences | Building learning communities & organizations | Promoting the agenda of development | Continuity through all spheres of government

10 CORE PRINCIPLES INFORMING IMPLEMENTATION OF HRD STRATEGY

LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK AS A FOUNDATION

Figure 2.6: A vision for HRD (Adapted from Human Resource Development Strategy for the Public Service: Vision 2015 (2008))

The lack of skills capacity across all spheres of the economy, particularly in the public service, demands that the public service begins to realise its skills challenges and builds its capacity both as policy maker and implementer. Statistics show a serous shortfall of skills in South Africa across various economic sectors. The skills shortage puts enormous pressure on the human resource development field and profession as critical support for skills development. A review report on the implementation of the strategy for public service (2007), coupled with the skills shortage dilemma, indicated that the public service is experiencing a serious challenge to implement HRD strategic interventions. Neethling (2009) argued that the challenge, among other things, is caused by a lack of capacity and the perceived incompetence of HRD practitioners.

53

Since 1994, public service has to a large extent outsourced the training and development, career development as well as organisational development programmes to external consultants (Pillay, 2009). The Public Administration Leadership and Management Academy (PALAMA), as a custodian of training and development in public service, introduced a concept of Public Private Partnership (PPP). The Academy has signed a 23 years' lease agreement with external private service providers who will provide training and development to public service institutions. Internal HRD practitioners will conduct monitoring and evaluation of programmes (Mollo, 2011). The practice has in a way reduced the role of an HRD practitioner in the public service from that of a professional to a role of co-ordinator and, subsequently, the practitioners have become deskilled and perceived incompetent. The public service HRD practitioners cannot play a meaningful role in quality assuring the successful implementation of HRD programmes as they seem to lack the skill. Neethling (2009) said the review of the implementation of HRD strategy for the public service (2007) revealed that HRD struggled to anchor itself and find meaning and stability in the public service. HRD competence in South Africa has increasingly become a scarce skill, particularly in the public service. Neethling (2009) was of the opinion that this phenomenon is caused by unevenness in depth understanding of HRD in the public service.

With the persistent global economic recession, which also affects South Africa's economy, it becomes imperative that the public service cuts costs on the use of external consultants and utilises its internal capacity. Neethling (2009) proposed compulsory capacity building in the public service to enable HRD practitioners to support interventions to improve HRD in the public service; to provide a set of competency standards for HRD function, and to enhance effectiveness of HRD practitioners in the public service. Hence the need to conduct this study to determine the skills baseline and, where necessary, to put interventions in place to build the necessary competence among public service HRD practitioners. Neethling (2009) also supported the view of developing HRD competences so that HRD practitioners are capacitated to implement HRD plans. The lack of HRD competence hampers service delivery, economic growth and social transformation.

As indicated by the Human Resource Development Strategy for the Public Service: Vision 2015, HRD practitioners are catalysts of skills supply and demand management and their competence must be such that they are able to play the

role professionally. Skills supply management refers to the manner in which the organisation ensures the constant availability of the desired skills. When the skills supply is effectively managed, the organisation has, on an ongoing basis, the range and quality of skills it needs in order to ensure that its skills profile is maintained. In terms of the Human Resource Development Strategy for Public Service: Vision 2015, skills demand management refers to the extent to which the organisation remains constantly aware of its gaps in skills, talent and operational capabilities. The organisation must have measures in place that allow it to be aware of skills gaps even before they arise.

In terms of the Human Resource Development Strategy for Public Service: Vision 2015, HRD practitioners are responsible to plan efficiency and effectiveness. HRD practitioners have to ensure that training resources are expended in a manner that maximally contributes to the strategic priorities of the organisation. Planning efficiency and effectiveness refers to plan development, implementation, scheduling and programming of training as well as ensuring equity in the distribution of training opportunities. In terms of the abovementioned strategy, planning efficiency and effectiveness is the engine that drives an investment approach to training. HRD practitioners are also responsible for performance orientation, that is, aligning training initiatives with the strategic objectives of the organisation.

Performance orientation in the training culture seeks to ensure that training is not undertaken for its own sake, but that it is provided to enhance the performance of the organisation and improve service delivery to the organisation's clients. It means attaining high levels of training impact and is an investment oriented approach to training. HRD practitioners are also responsible for the quality of training initiatives such as course materials, training facilities, the capacity of trainers as well as training management, monitoring and evaluation. The key features of quality training in the public service are the availability of workplace content course materials and the adoption of training processes that utilise the skills, knowledge and experience of practitioners who can add value to performance.

At present, there is a perception that HRD practitioners in the public service lack competence to execute their role meaningfully in order to support a skills revolution in the country, hence this study. The HRM and Development Steering

Committee in the Public Service is responsible for policy implementation issues on Human Resource Planning (HRP) and HRD. The committee co-ordinates seven strategic frameworks and aims to invent an integrated approach to HRP and HRD.

This study determined the developmental needs of HRD practitioners with the view to recommend interventions that could be implemented to promote the effectiveness of strategic HRD legislative frameworks. The role of HRD practitioners in the training and development process can be conceptualised as follows: a Training and Development Cycle consisting of the components discussed below, which basically are the main roles of HRD practitioners.

2.5.3   Marketing training and development (HRD) interventions

One of the challenges of practitioners in public service is the inability to market HRD interventions (National Staff Development and Training Association/American Public Human Services Association, 2004; Zigon, 1987). Zigon (1987) argued that HRD practitioners may be competent enough and understand what has to be done to improve performance, but "they struggle to sell their recommendations to principals of the organisation". Zigon (1987) furthermore argued that the consequences of this failure are that practitioners get frustrated, which often does not yield good results for the organisation. Success in the marketing of HRD interventions results in practitioners playing a larger role in governance and organisation leadership (Zigon, 1987).

Marketing of HRD interventions is very important in a business organisation as it enhances the impact (credibility, visibility and results) of HRD on the business organisation. Wachira (2010) emphasised the need to clarify HRD's position and context in learning and development and demonstrated the importance of HRD positioning by citing the results of a survey involving 635 learning, training and development managers. The survey was conducted by CIPD in the United Kingdom in 2006. The results of the survey showed that there is a tendency in organisations not to involve HRD professionals in business organisation decisions. Wachira (2010:11) therefore argued that HRD practitioners must conduct marketing in order to convince the business organisations of the contributions their function can make. Wachira maintained that "through relationship marketing and other internal marketing techniques focusing on activities aimed at improving internal communication and increasing networking between people in the

organisation, HRD practitioners can clarify their role in the achievement of the organisation's goals'. For HRD to have greater influence within the organisation, the practitioners need to work harder at providing evidence of the relationship between people, policy and productivity and the role they can play in cementing that relationship (Wachira, 2010:12).

Zigon (1987) held the same viewpoint and argued that HRD function exists only to support line management. Therefore, in order to be effective, practitioners need to identify HRD needs, undertake marketing and promote training interventions. Zigon (1987) proposed the "marketing plan matrix", which consists of four dimensions, namely, marketing, promotion, price and product. According to Zigon(1987) and Murphy (1987) marketing of HRD interventions could be done through identifying the need of a client, conducting market research, designing the product (intervention), promoting the intervention, and charging a reasonable price; and then the HRD function and its team should be promoted. Murphy (1987) furthermore asserted that in order for practitioners to be effective in marketing interventions and avoiding resistance, they need to develop analytical skills, understand clients, demonstrate empathy, be sensitive to clients' opinions and questions, recognise clients viewpoints and experience, demonstrate the benefits of the programmes, show business understanding, work collaboratively with management by showing confidence in the programmes, involve management in decision making, build rapport, be patient, discuss benefits and show benefits and results, and tell them how much the programme has cost them. Marketing of HRD interventions is one of the dimensions that this study assessed, albeit at elementary level.

Wachira (2010) held the same viewpoint and cautioned that HRD practitioners must firstly ensure that HRD function is fully aligned with business, make an effort to understand and be conversant with business operations, be on the ground, mixing with the people they serve, gain credibility and respect, and make a valuable contribution. Wachira (2010:12) advocated the importance of strategically positioning HRD function and argued that by doing so, practitioners will be included in the decision making. Wachira concurred with Robinson and Robinson (1990), who maintained that the marketing of HRD programmes can be improved through training for impact, i.e., showing results, visibility, and credibility of the HRD work. Chalofsky and Reinhart (1988) also maintained that one of the ways to

enhance marketing is to have "an HRD function that has a strong marketing and public relations capability".

2.5.4 Conducting a training needs analysis

HRD practitioners in the public service play a critical role in conducting training needs analyses, hence the theoretical review of the construct in this study. Dahiya and Jha (2011) asserted that training need assessment is the first step in any human resource development cycle and/or intervention. Rouda and Kusy (1995) and Desimone *et al.* (2002), as cited by Dahiya and Jha (2011), mentioned four levels of need analysis, namely assessing the needs of the organisation, the needs of a specific department, individual employee's skills, and their knowledge, attitude and functional responsibilities. Dahiya and Jha (2001) drew a distinction between need assessment and need analysis. They defined training need assessment as an investigation undertaken to determine the nature of performance problems in order to establish the underlying causes and the way in which training can be addressed, while training need analysis is the first in a cyclical process of planning, implementation and evaluation of training intervention. Gould *et al.* (2004) and Van Dyk *et al.* (1997), as cited by Dahiya and Jha (2011), identified three levels of training need analysis, namely macro-level (need of national or international interest), meso-level (organisation's specific requirements), and micro-level (only one person or a small population's needs).

According to Bosman (2001) training need assessment and training need analysis follow a sequential process. Training need analysis is one of the key steps in the planning of HRD interventions, where the HRD practitioner first obtains organisational focus and training and development needs (performance analysis) and, secondly, conducts training needs analysis and makes recommendations on the appropriate interventions to be implemented (Bosman, 2001).

Rossett (1999), as cited by Hu and Liu (2005), also highlighted the importance of conducting a performance analysis as a first step, preceding the training analysis process. A performance analysis helps to identify performance gaps by comparing the optimal performance with the current employee performance (Hu & Liu 2005:4). Hu and Liu (2005:4) asserted that there are three levels of performance within the organisation, namely individual, process and organisational levels. Rummler and Brache (1995) and Swanson (1994), as cited by Hu and Liu

2005:4), claimed that causes of performance gaps may exist at any of the three levels. In the South African public service, the performance management system and development aims to synchronise the organisational performance effectiveness and training and development initiative so as to ensure training of impact rather than training for the sake of training. The approach is aimed at ensuring return on investment. However, HRD practitioners seem to have a challenge in ensuring that the synchronisation is effective, hence the present study.

However, Rothwell (1996), as cited by Hu and Liu (2005), warned that "not all performance issues are caused by lack of knowledge and skills that can be solved by training". Rummler and Brache (1995), as cited by Hu and Liu (2005), claimed that about 80% of performance improvement gaps are caused by the working environment or management rather than lack of skills and knowledge. Broad and Newstrom (1992) and Rothwell (1996), as cited by Hu and Liu (2005), recommended that training should be implemented as the last resort in a drive to improve performance. Training need analysis is conducted based on performance analysis results. According to Hu and Liu (2005), training need analysis is conducted to identify the gap between pre-existing and targeted knowledge and skills.

2.5.5   Designing and developing HRD interventions

The National Staff Development and Training Association/American Public Human Services Association (2004) asserted that the role of curriculum design is an integral part of the training and development process.

Kessels and Plomp (1999) advocated the need for integrated design procedures that combine a systematic and relational approach. The relational approach to curriculum is a process where HRD as a specialist department facilitates collaborated effort between line management and learners in the design and development of HRD curriculum. The process begins with performance analysis followed by training need analysis, design and development of programmes, implementation, and evaluation of HRD interventions. Throughout the process, line management and learners work together with the assistance of HRD specialists. In this process line management has to motivate and give support to learners, provide resources (time, money), prepare the work environment to be

conducive to the implementation of acquired skills and knowledge, and evaluate the impact of HRD interventions (Kessels & Plomp, 1999). The approach ensures the possibility of return on investment. Lack of relational curriculum design is one of the major obstacles in ensuring training for impact instead of training for activity in the South African public service. Kessels and Plompt (1999) asserted that relational curriculum design predicts HRD programme effectiveness accurately. They furthermore mentioned that the acquisition of skills and competencies are sustained by the work environment of training and development participants. The complex mechanisms in organisational training and development, where cognitive functioning of individual learning intertwines with the social processes of an organisational context, seek an extended theory of curriculum design that explains reasons for successes and failures of training systems and predicts the results of new actions (Kessels & Plomp, 1999:2).

Kessels and Plomp (1999) argued that training and development programmes aim at providing intentionally designed learning situations. These situations focus on the mutual benefit of individual and organisation in terms of change of behaviour. The training programme design theory must therefore not only focus on design and development of learning materials as in a traditional approach, but include approaches such as relational curriculum design, which addresses strategic issues of an organisation, structural feedback mechanisms, design and dynamics of work environment to ensure training for impact and positive return on investment (systems theory approach) (Kessel & Smit, 1999).

Caffarella (2002), Newman (1995), Gagne *et al.* (1992) and Brookfield (1987), as cited by Gallo (2005), mentioned the five step programme design model that was adopted in this study. Caffarella (2002) defined a programme design model as ideas of one or more persons about how programmes should be put together and what ingredients are necessary to ensure successful outcomes. The model adopted in this study consists of the following stages: deciding on educational purposes (identifying needs), designing (creating instructional plans), developing or organising the learning experiences for effective instruction (scope and sequence of instruction), implementation (the training is finalised and made available to learners), and evaluation (the course's effectiveness is assessed) (Gallo, 2005:4). Sork and Caffarella (1990), as cited by Gallo (2005), went further to consider "identifying internal and external factors or forces that have impact on design, development and effectiveness of HRD interventions".

The design and development of HRD intervention form a holistic, interlinked and intertwined process of training and development steps. Kessels and Plomp (1999) concurred with Dahiya and Jha (2001) and emphasised that the designing and developing of HRD interventions is a process that follows after a performance and need analysis has been conducted. Dahiya and Jha (2001) asserted that the ultimate aim of a need analysis is the identification of criteria whereby the results of a proposed programme can be assessed. Once a need analysis is conducted and the criteria for effectiveness are set, measurable objectives that state clearly "what a learner has to do to demonstrate that he or she has in fact learnt" are used to guide the process (Dahiya & Jha, 2011). According to Dahiya and Jha (2011:264) the "behavioural training objectives state what the person will be able to do, under what conditions and how well he or she will be able to do it". They also maintained that, in the design stage, the HRD practitioner must first establish what information the analysis has provided and link the kind of intervention and planning with the broad theoretical issues. The second step is to determine the predominant nature of the intervention. The nature of the interventions is usually a problem solving and or solution implementation. The third step is setting the criteria of effectiveness. The fourth step is determining and describing the outcomes of the kind of intervention. The fifth step is structuring the events, activities, processes and units of the HRD intervention.

Gallo's (2005) instructional design model that was based on Carliner's model was also adopted in this study. Gallo argued that there must be a holistic approach in instructional design, which does not only cover analysis, design development, implementation, and evaluation, but also design philosophies and theories, including the philosophy of learning, science of learning, and theories of learning (Gallo, 2005:8). Furthermore, the instructional design should consider context, politics, schedules, organisation, ideas and experience of recipients. (Gallo, 2005:9). Gallo (2005) shared the views of Dahiya and Jha (2011) and emphasised the importance of design philosophies and theories to establish what information the analysis has provided that links the kind of intervention and planning with broad theoretical issues.

Hu and Liu (2005) argued that in the design phase, training objectives are developed in alignment with identified training needs and expected training outcomes.

Bosman (2001) accented this approach and cited that the third step in the HRD cycle is the design and development or sourcing of programmes and interventions (through determining programme objectives, researching subject matter, developing modules, performing a pilot run, specifying instructional resources, applying for accreditation or sourcing programme interventions and obtaining instructional resources). Broad and Newstrom (1992) described the importance of transfer of training or training for impact as crucial in ensuring effectiveness of training programmes. Wikipedia further stressed the importance of this approach in the design and development of HRD programmes. Transfer of training is defined by Wikipedia as the extent to which trainees apply the knowledge, skills, behaviours and attitudes they acquire in their training for their jobs. In the public service, design and development of HRD interventions lack this curriculum design approach, as the resultant transfer of learning to the job is minimal. Wikipedia stated that only 10% of learning is transferred to job performance and as a result, return on investment in HRD is poor (http://www.trainingtransfersolutionskb.com/).

It is important that the impact of the training and development is determined even during the design and development of training and development, so that whatever is monitored and evaluated is pre-determined.

2.5.6   Implementing training and development interventions

Implementation of the training and development interventions phase is the third important stage in the role played by HRD practitioners in the workplace. During the implementation and development of HRD interventions, the HRD practitioner identifies resources and takes samples to be used in planning development and implementation of HRD interventions. Analoui (2008:169) defined the implementation stage as the "intervention stage", and described it as a conscious and deliberate attempt or set of activities aimed at bringing about changes in behaviour, attitudes, value systems and beliefs, and the way things are done in an organisation. According to Analoui (2008:186) this phase involves the identification of a suitable location, training methods, choice of trainers and learners, and deciding on the duration of training and administrative activities. This is the phase that HRD practitioners in the public service are often engaged in due to the outsourcing of training; they often merely play the role of coordinator in terms of venues, procurement process, and organising learners.

Bosman (2001) asserted that during this phase an HRD practitioner arranges for courses, obtains attendees, pre-evaluates attendees, confirms attendees, prepares resources, arranges travel and accommodation, recovers training cost, training and facilitate, establishes mentor involvement, and does the after care.

During this phase, the practitioner is expected to facilitate learning through media-based learning events; identify and address learning difficulties of individuals; enhance awareness of group processes, self, and others; resolve conflicts within learning groups; facilitate group decision making, encourage teamwork, and create committed followers.

2.5.7 Evaluation and assessment of the impact of HRD interventions

The National Staff Development and Training Association/American Public Human Services Association (2004) cited this stage as critical for the assessment and transfer of learning and learner performance in relation to training objectives. Altarawneh (2009) and Kessels and Plomp (1999) asserted that the evaluation and assessment of HRD interventions refer to the evaluation of training and development interventions, appraisal of delivery methods, sequences and learning materials, and the improvement of them where necessary. They also argued that the process of evaluation and assessment includes assessing results, performance improvement, and the impact on the organisation. Kessels and Plomp (1999) asserted that "the criteria for success or failure of any training programme are found in the changes in the overall working environment of those who have been trained". Altarawneh (2009) defined performance criteria as "profit, quality, customer satisfaction and return on investment (ROI), and market share". Altarawneh also argued that achieving performance criteria is not easy. Altarawneh (2009) strongly believed that determining value–add to organisational effectiveness through the evaluation of training is the "most difficult and problematic task of all the training stages". Foxon (1986), as cited by Altarawneh (2009), described evaluation of training as the "art of the impossible". Altarawneh (2009) also mentioned that it not easy to measure the relationship between training and organisational performance because cause and effect is not clear-cut and is ambiguously defined. Altarawneh suggested that to overcome the challenge, line management should be involved. Top and line management should support, commit and show leadership. Altarawneh (2009) furthermore said that proper quality in evaluation of training programmes is achieved

when clear criteria and procedures are defined; and evaluation occurs throughout the whole period and keeps focus on training needs identified, design and implementation, and evaluation of training and development. Clark (1991) in his ADDIE (Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation and Evaluation) model mentioned a need for evaluation of training through all the steps to be a continuous process. Clark (1991) described this approach as front end analysis.

Altarawneh (2009:2) defined training evaluation as a systematic process of collecting data and information to determine whether the training was effective. Altarawneh (2009) described training and development as an important subsystem or element of human resource development. Altarawneh claimed that training and development increases, improves, and modifies employee and management skills, abilities, capability and knowledge to enable current and future jobs to be more effectively performed (Altarawneh (2009: 2). Altarawneh also argued that training and development is essential to the growth and development of the business but that it is an expensive investment for a business organisation unless an evaluation instrument is used to demonstrate marked improvement in acquisition of knowledge, skills, attitude and application acquired competence at work. Altarawneh (2009) argued that a quasi-experimental design is an effective tool to measure changes that have taken place with regard to knowledge, skill, and behaviour to specific training intervention. The changes could be seen as evidence to organisations with regard to the impact or value of training and development. Stolovich and Keeps (2002) mentioned the importance of pre- and post-training and development evaluation and the impact on organisational effectiveness. They argued that effective training and development must be "learner-centred and performance based" (Stolovich & Keeps, 2002).

Cheng and Ho (2001) stated that training and development is an expensive investment, and usually most of the organisations are not sure of the contributions of training and development towards the organisation's overall performance due to a lack of evaluation. The evaluation of training and development in public service is currently an enormous challenge, hence this study. Rae (1991) said organisations only focus on the quantity of training provided rather than on the quality of training. This is a challenge faced by the South African public service currently. Phillips (1991) mentioned that a majority of HRD practitioners are reluctant to evaluate the effectiveness of training programmes conducted due to the unavailability of a measurement tool that is accurate and results oriented. Broad and Newstrom (1992)

and Salas *et al.* (2001) mentioned that for training and development to be effective, skills and knowledge acquired during training must be transferred to the job.

Transference of acquired competence to the workplace is a big challenge in the public service. Clark (1991) and Tennant *et al.* (2002) mentioned that immediate superior support, self efficacy, individual learning style, training methodology, and trainee's characteristics such as age, gender, work experience and educational background are all factors that contribute to the effectiveness of training programmes. Tennant *et al.* (2002:17) mentioned that immediate superior support, availability of resources and necessary technologies provided to learners encourage trainees to learn and transfer what they have learnt in the class to their jobs.

An HRD practitioner generally has to monitor and evaluate the impact of training. At the moment this task is a huge challenge for practitioners in the public service, hence this study. Kirkpatrick (1999), as cited by Altarawneh (2009), asserted that monitoring and evaluation take place at four levels of the implementation of training programmes, i.e., reaction level, criterion level, component level, as well as at organisational level. At reaction level, course participants comment on the general impact of the programme on their learning expectations, training venue arrangement, training materials, and the expertise of facilitators/instructors. At the criterion level, the focus is on successful attainment of leaning objectives, and this evaluation is conducted through criterion tests, assignments, examinations, etc. At the component level evaluation is conducted in terms of percentage growth in sales, reduction in accidents, increase in profit margins, etc. At organisational level the monitoring and evaluation is conducted in terms of achievement of the overall strategic objectives of the organisation, effectiveness and efficiency levels. In the public service, evaluation is mostly limited to reaction and criterion levels. It hardly takes place beyond these levels. This shortcoming is one of the reasons for conducting this study.

Eseryel (2002) stated that there are various approaches to evaluation of training and development. Eseryel proposed an eclectic approach to evaluation of training, and argued that integration of the various evaluation models, approaches and methods assists in determining the effectiveness of the training and development interventions (Eseryel, 2002:1). Eseryel (2002) also mentioned that there are different goals of evaluation of training and development. These goals pertain to organisational and training goals, trainees, training situations and instructional

technologies. Eseryel (2002) asserted that these goals aim at evaluation of learning, evaluation of learning materials, transfer of training, and return on investment. Therefore, the complexity of evaluation indicates a need to use different approaches to evaluation of training. Eseryel (2002) identified six different approaches to evaluation. They are goal-based evaluation, goal-free evaluation, responsive evaluation, systems evaluations, professional evaluation, and quasi–legal evaluation (Eseryel, 2002:2).

Eseryel (2002) believed that "goal-based and systems evaluations are predominantly for evaluation of training and development". Gaol-based and systems evaluation approaches were used in the present study. Eseryel (2002) pinpointed that Kirkpatrick's model follows a goal-based approach, which is based on four levels of evaluation known as reaction, learning, behaviour, and results. Eseryel (2002:3) mentioned that most organisations do not use the entire model. Most of the time evaluation ends at reaction or learning levels at the most. This is a particular problem existing in the public service. Evaluation is rarely conducted at behaviour level and none at all at results level. At reaction level, evaluation gathers data on participants at the end of the programme. At learning level, evaluation assesses whether the learning objectives of the programme are met at behaviour level and whether job performance has changed as a result of training intervention. At results level, evaluation assesses the cost-benefit of training programmes. Eseryel (2002) defined this level as organisational impact in terms of reduced costs, improved quality of work, and increased quantity of work.

Altarawneh (2009) stated that at this stage training effectiveness no longer focuses on "trainee's perceptions", but on whether "employee's performance improve as a result of training", whether "training contributed to achieving organisation's critical goals" (Altarawneh, 2009:5). Altarawneh (2009) concluded by saying that this stage is characterised by job performance improvement achieved through changing trainees' behaviour and work patterns, which is often called transfer of training. In the South African public service, it is a challenge to evaluate the effectiveness of training at behaviour and results levels. This is due mainly to lack of expertise among HRD practitioners. Eseryel (2002) argued that the inconsistence in evaluation of the effectiveness of training and development of interventions is caused, among other things, by HRD practitioners' lack of experience in evaluation.

The second approach in the evaluation of training interventions is a systems-based approach. Eseryel (2002) defined a systems-based evaluation as determining the effectiveness of training in terms of the context in which training takes place; the inputs (i.e. identifying the strategies most likely to achieve the desired results); the process (i.e. assessing the implementation of training and development programmes); and the product (i.e. gathering information regarding the results of training and development or return on investment).

This approach is also used in the South African training and development environment in terms of the Workplace Skills Plan (WSP). Likewise, this approach is used in the South African public service even though it does not demonstrate effectiveness of training in terms of Kirkpatrick's four levels of evaluation. The systems evaluation model is designed to manage planning and implementation and evaluation of training and development programmes in South Africa in terms of the skills development legislative framework. This framework aims at redressing socio-economic transformation challenges such as the constitutional right to education and training, employment equity, past imbalances in terms of skills development, and promotion of future active economic participation by all South Africans.

Although the systems-based evaluation model could be effective as evaluation implementation of training and development at macro-level, it may not be effective when used alone, especially in evaluating effectiveness in terms of change in behaviour and return on investment; hence this study adopted the systems-based model used in collaboration with Kirkpatrick's four levels of evaluation. Hall (2003), as cited by Altarawneh (2002), stated that Kirkpatrick's model of training evaluation is the most commonly used model by organisations. Bramley and Kitson (1994), as cited by Altarawneh (2009), also recommended Kirkpatrick's model as appropriate for evaluation of training because it is the only model that facilitates the evaluation of third and fourth levels of impact of training (i.e. change of behaviour and results). Altarawneh (2009) agreed with Bramley and Kitson and furthermore argued that in Kirkpatrick's model, training needs and objectives are defined in terms of improved change in behaviour and increased organisational impact rather than mere improvement in knowledge, skills and attitudes. In this approach executive and line managers are involved in the whole training process and are able to evaluate the change in behaviour and organisational effectiveness which occurs subsequent to training implementation (Altarawneh, 2009). This

model is appropriate for evaluation of training effectiveness in the South African public service.

Altarawneh (2009) mentioned that training evaluation should focus on all organisational stakeholders' needs and demonstrate effectiveness of training both in the short and long term.Altarawneh agreed with Robinson and Robinson (1990) model on training for impact rather than training for activity. Robinson and Robinson (1990) asserted that HRD practitioners should ensure collaboration with all stakeholders in planning, design and development of training interventions, implementation, and evaluation of training. This approach will enhance the effectiveness of training and bring about the possibility of training for impact instead of training for activity. In terms of this model, evaluation is done in three dimensions, viz., credibility, visibility and results. First, training implementation must be credible to all stakeholders in order for it to be seen to have impact or effect. Secondly, evaluation of training is done in terms of visibility of implementation of training among all stakeholders. Thirdly, the impact of training is evaluated in terms of the results with regard to the achievement of organisational strategic goals. Brinkerhoff (1998), as cited by Altarawneh (2009), also asserted that the best evaluation of a training programme always provides convincing evidence that the programme is aimed at overall organisational effectiveness. Kirkpatrick's model was chosen in this study as the most effective, widely accepted, and generally used tool in evaluation of the effectiveness of training and development programmes.

Table 2.2: Kirk Patrick's model - Levels of training and evaluation

Kirkpatrick's Model: Levels of Training & Development Evaluation			
Reaction	How participants felt and their personal reactions to the training or learning experience?	Each trainee formulates opinions and attitudes about the overall effectiveness of the programme. The trainees' responses are then captured in a questionnaire or survey. After the questionnaires are tabulated and reviewed, the programme's quality is judged on the basis of the overall responses.	The trainee will complete a post-training survey regarding the: • Adequacy of the facilities • Skill of the trainer • Quality of the programme content • Relevancy of the T & D technique
Learning	What did participants learn? Was there an increase in knowledge from before to after the learning experience?	Learning will be assessed by testing the trainees during and after the training programme. This is usually done by the training institution. The trainee would be expected to pass assignments, tests and exams. Final results will be obtained from the training institution or employees to assess the level of learning acquired.	Trainees will be assessed (by the training institution) by means of the following: • Portfolios • Assignments • Tests • Exams
Behavioural change	How did participants' behaviour change? It measures the extent to which the trainees have applied the learning and changed their behaviour.	Participants are expected to learn a skill or body of knowledge that results in a positive change in job behaviour. This level assesses whether learning was transferred from training to the job.	• Interviews will be conducted with line managers to enquire whether improvements in employee performance are noticeable and have a positive impact on their current job. • A list of interview questions is devised, which will serve as a guideline when interviewing line managers. • Managers may be required to complete a survey on employees' performance. • A performance appraisal can also be used to give an indication of the employee's performance after training has taken place.
Impact on organisational effectiveness	Which organisational goals were affected?	This level examines the impact of T & D on organisational goals of productivity, quality and job satisfaction, as well as decreased turnover, accidents and grievances.	Not always possible to do seeing that acquired skills should be linked directly to organisational goals. However, interviews can be conducted with managers to enquire about the Directorate's level of productivity, turnover, job satisfaction, etc. after implementing the training intervention.

2.6   Summary

The research discussed the importance of this study to determine the developmental needs of HRD practitioners in the public service. The concept of the HRD field has been explored extensively. Different theories on HRD in relation to the research objectives were discussed, including McLagan's (1989) models; Buckley and Caple (1990), Swanson (1995), and Bosman's (2001) training and development process model; O'Connor (2002); Anderson (2006); National Staff Development and Training Association (NSDTA), and American Public Human Services Association (APHSA); Training and Curriculum Designer Competency; the South African HRD Practitioner models; Duka's (1995) model on organisational development; Coetzee's (2009) career development framework; American Society for Training and Development (ASTD); South African models on career development and progression for HRD practitioners; as well as the HRD Strategy in Public Service: Vision 2015.

All the abovementioned theories provided a framework for discussing the development of dimensions measured in the study, namely, marketing HRD interventions, conducting HRD need analysis, designing and developing HRD interventions, implementing HRD interventions, monitoring and evaluating HRD, and HRD generic skills.

(1) The first literature review objective was to critically analyse the HRD field as profession and its dimensions, which are organisational development, training and development, and career development. A comprehensive literature review on HRD literature confirmed the views of Anderson (2006), Greenhouse *et al*. (2000), Burke and Litwin (1991), McLagan (1989), Bosman (2001), Duka (1995), Otte and Kahnweiller (1995), Swanson (1995), Rouda and Kusy (1995), Robinson and Robinson (1996), National Training Strategy Initiative (1994), National Staff Development and Training Association/American Public Services Association (2004) and HRD Strategy: Vision 2005. It was found that HRD could play a vital role in improving individual, group, and organisational effectiveness, as well as talent management. The literature adequately covered a range of models, theoretical frameworks, approaches, methodologies and methods on HRD.

The aim of the literature review was to identify models and developmental needs dimensions that would be used to develop measurement instruments and to collect data to measure the developmental needs of HRD practitioners as a dependent variable.

(2) The second objective of the literature review was to critically discuss training and development process models to explore their similarity, and whether they complement or differ from organisational development and career development. The literature review was also conducted with the objective to identify constructs that could be used to measure these variables.

The literature review provided the researcher with various competency/developmental needs dimensions that were used to develop the questionnaires to collect data for analysis and the determination of possible developmental needs. A direct relationship was identified between the components of the training and development process model and HRD roles and competences. The HRD roles and competence matrix and components of the training and development process model were used to draw constructs measured in the study. As a result, it can be concluded that there is a relationship between all scales and constructs measured. All items highly correlate with their respective total scale. All items are measuring the same underlying construct as their respective total scale.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1   Introduction

With regard to the empirical research objectives stated in the Chapter 1, this chapter deals with the design of the study.

3.2   Research approach

In this study, a survey research approach was used as strategy of inquiry. The approach is quantitative exploratory in nature.Babbie and Mouton (2006:152) described surveys as studies that are usually quantitative in nature, and aim to provide a broad overview of a representative sample of a large population. Creswell (1998:145) argued that a survey research approach provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population, which in this study is the assessment of the developmental needs of HRD practitioners in the public service.

The study employed an exploratory quantitative research approach where a structured questionnaire was used to collect data. The data were then analysed and a final report was written thereafter to make the findings and recommendations available. The rationale for choosing a quantitative approach is that the study is empirical in nature, assessing the correlational causative effect of HRD practitioners' developmental needs (competence) on the implementation of HRD roles/outputs and programmes. A structured and standardised HRD practitioner developmental needs questionnaire was used to assess HRD practitioners' developmental needs (competences) on implementing HRD roles/outputs in the public service.

The research was conducted by distributing questionnaires to randomly selected individuals (units of analysis) currently employed in the public service. This was a one-off exercise, without the intent of following up. The rationale for distributing the questionnaires via email (electronically) was that it is convenient and expedient with a strong possibility of an appropriate response rate. The data obtained were then to be analysed, interpreted, and findings and recommendations made.

3.3 Research design

Cooper and Schindler (2003) asserted that research design is the blueprint for fulfilling objectives and answering research questions. According to Kerlinger (1986) and Ghauri, Gronhaug and Kristianslund (1995) a research design is selected to enable the researcher to answer a research question. In this study the research design was selected to enable the researcher to answer the following research questions: (i) Do HRD practitioners have developmental needs on marketing HRD programmes, conducting training needs analysis, designing and developing HRD interventions, implementing HRD interventions, evaluating and giving feedback on HRD interventions? The research question had to be answered as validly, objectively, accurately and economically as possible. Kerlinger (1986) furthermore stated that the central purpose of a research design is to maximise the informativeness of results by minimising the number of plausible explanations for them.

A cross-sectional or correlational and causal-comparative research design also referred to as *ex post facto*, was selected for this study. Ghauri *et al.* (1995) defined a cross-sectional research design as a design where the "cause and effect" variables are measured at the same time. A cross-sectional and causal-comparative research design is used when investigators are not in a position to test a hypothesis by assigning subjects to different conditions in which they directly manipulate the independent variable. Kerlinger (1986:279) defined the causal-comparative research design as:

"a systematic empirical inquiry in which the scientist does not have direct control of the variables because they are inherently not manipulable. Inferences about relationships among the variables are made, without direct intervention from concomitant variations among them".

In a cross-sectional and causal-comparative research design, the changes in the independent variables have already taken place and therefore the researcher has no control over them. They must be studied retrospectively for their possible effects on an observed dependent variable. That is, the researcher starts from an effect and works backwards in time in order to identify causal elements. The choice of this design was justified on the grounds that this study was not just for collecting and describing data, but it was also investigating and attempting to establish the existence of certain relationships among variables.

The design was considered appropriate because its use in research of this type has been strongly supported. Kerlinger (1986) argued that much causal-comparative research must be done in the social sciences, for example, psychology, sociology and education, simply because many research problems in the social sciences do not lend themselves to experimental inquiry. Ghauri *et al.* (1995:35) said that in real life it may be difficult or impossible to conduct a true experiment due to the fact that it may be impossible to manipulate the treatment. They (Ghauri *et al.,* 1995:35) gave an example of research similar to this study, where a researcher studied a relationship between independent variables and dependent variables (gender, race, location, career paths, developmental needs, etc.). Ghauri *et al.* (1995) asserted that although such research designs "often deviates from the 'true' experiment, it does not mean that the logic underlying the experiment is useless". Ghauri *et al.* (1995) argued that in fact the ideas underlying the experiment to make causal inferences can be applied even when the experimental design cannot be applied. Ghauri *et al.* (1995:37) stated that in a cross-sectional research design, like in the current study, data on independent and dependent variables are gathered at the same time. Furthermore, the researcher often uses prior knowledge to assume time and order of variables (Ghauri *et al.,* 1995:35).

According to Borg and Gall (1989:537) and Ghauri *et al.* (1995) the major advantage of cross-sectional and causal-comparative research designs is that "they allow us to study relationships among variables in a single research project". The major weaknesses of this design are the inability to manipulate the independent variables and lack of control of the extraneous variables.

3.3.1 Population and sampling

A "population" means a group with one or more similar characteristics as defined by the researcher. In this study the population is all HRD practitioners in the public service. Sample refers to "a part of a whole". Robert (2002) defined sampling as a process of selecting a group of units ("a part") from the target population ("the whole") and the required information is obtained from this "part" with the aim of drawing inferences about the "whole". Furthermore, Robert (2002) claimed that a good sample should preferably be representative of the target population. In other words, each unit in the target population should have a known positive chance (or probability) of being included in the sample.

Cooper and Schindler (2003:82) defined sample as part of a target population, carefully selected to represent that population. Cooper and Schindler (2003) furthermore stated that in sampling, the researchers are interested in estimating one or more population values and testing one or more statistical hypothesis.

In this study, stratified random sampling was used. Robert (2002) defined stratified random sampling as a probability sampling where the population units are, prior to sampling, divided into distinct groups called strata. According to Robert (2002) the advantages of stratified random sampling are that it is more representative of the target population than simple random sampling; it provides estimates of higher precision than simple random sampling. Research participants were randomly selected in a selection of seven (7) public service departments. The participants were HRD practitioners and were randomly selected by race, gender, rank and location. The researcher distributed a self-administered questionnaire to participants in seven (7) public service departments to complete and return to the researcher on scheduled dates.

The questionnaire on independent variables such as developmental needs and demographics (age, qualification, race, gender, location, salary level, and merit award) was administered to the participants. The questionnaire on dependent variables (marketing HRD interventions, conducting training needs analysis, design and development of HRD interventions, implementation of HRD interventions, evaluation and giving feedback on HRD intervention) was also administered to the same participants.

The sample frame was the current population of HRD practitioners from salary levels 6-13 in the seven public service departments. It was a stratified random sampling of the HRD practitioners in terms of race, gender, location, age, salary level. The size of the population was ±200 HRD practitioners in the selected public service departments. The sample size of the research participants was 70 HRD practitioners (±35%). Robert (2002) argued that the size of the sample has an effect on the precision of the estimators and to decide on an appropriate (or optimal) sample size for a specific research study both practical and theoretical considerations need to be considered. The practical considerations refer to time and budget and theoretical considerations refer to the size of the population, hypothesis to be tested, and the size and number of strata. In this study, a sample of 35% was considered adequate to have an effect on the required precision. Table 3.1 below depicts the sample characteristics in terms of demographics.

Table 3.1:   Sample characteristics in terms of demographics

		Frequency	Per cent
RACE	black	47	67.1
	white	12	17.1
	Coloured	6	8.6
	Indian	5	7.1
	Total	70	100.0
GENDER	male	31	44.3
	female	39	55.7
	Total	70	100.0
DISABILITY	disabled	8	11.4
	not disabled	62	88.6
	Total	70	100.0
MARITAL STATUS	married	30	42.9
	divorced	3	4.3
	single	34	48.6
	widower/widow	2	2.9
	Total	69	98.6
DEPARTMENT	sports/recreation	10	14.3
	agric/forestry/fisheries	10	14.3
	transport	10	14.3
	health	10	14.3
	premier office WC	10	14.3
	public enterprise	10	14.3
	defence	10	14.3
	Total	70	100.0
INCOME LEVEL	level 5	1	1.4
	level 6	1	1.4
	level 7	4	5.7
	level 8	5	7.1
	level 9	19	27.1
	level 10	8	11.4
	level 11	7	10.0
	level 12	9	12.9
	level 13	8	11.4
	other	6	8.6
	12	1	1.4
	Total	69	98.6
EDUCATION LEVEL	matric	1	1.4
	national diploma	14	20.0
	degree	27	38.6
	honours degree	15	21.4
	masters degree	13	18.6
	Total	70	100.0
AGE GROUP			
	23-33yrs	14	20.0
	34-44yrs	36	51.4
	45+yrs	20	28.6
	Total	70	100.0

3.3.2   Data collection/administration of instrument

Cooper and Schindler (2003:87) defined data collection as the gathering of data ranging from simple observation to conducting a survey. The data on developmental needs of HRD practitioners in marketing of HRD interventions, conducting training needs analysis, designing and developing HRD interventions, implementing HRD interventions, and

evaluating and giving feedback on HRD interventions were collected by the structured questionnaire method of data collection. It was a research participant self-administered questionnaire.

The questionnaire was circulated to all assigned participants. The participants were all HRD practitioners from salary levels 6-13. The questionnaire was electronically distributed to the participants, determining developmental needs of HRD practitioners in the public service. A single response scale was used. The respondent rated himself or herself on the extent to which he or she has a developmental need on a specific competence. The scaled questions were used in conjunction with statements to obtain scoring on the developmental needs of HRD practitioners. As Robert (2002) recommended the Likert scale as one of the best-known scales used in this regard, it was used in this study. Closed-ended questions where respondents were asked to choose one among a set of response alternatives was adopted. The respondent was instructed to read a statement and rate him- or herself on a four-point Likert scale. Consent was obtained from all participants. Furthermore, ethical issues were explained to the candidates prior to their answering the questionnaire and an information sheet accompanied the questionnaire.

The questionnaire was emailed to each participant. A specific time frame for response was given to participants who were requested to email their completed questionnaires to the researcher in question; thereafter the researcher personally followed up with participants regarding the submission of their responses. Participants were not requested to provide any identifying details about themselves (names; contact details, etc.). This was to ensure that anonymity is maintained and anxiety on the part of participants minimised.

Biographical data were obtained by means of a categorical response format, with participants being able to choose only one answer for variables pertaining to gender, age, location, race, salary level, qualification, experience, and merit awards. The other sections of the questionnaire consisted of items that participants were to respond to on a numerical five-point scale. This was to allow for better statistical analysis. The rating scale provided for a standardised response set, which was useful for analysis and comparisons between groups of participants.

The advantages of this data collection procedure include:

- Decreased time taken for data collection;
- Acceptable response rate;
- Anonymity that ensured more honest responses;
- Reduced bias due to personal characteristics of the interviewer, and
- Enhanced quality of answers.

The questionnaire was administered to participants in the participating departments in a self-administrating manner. The administration of the questionnaire was executed in accordance with the principles mentioned in terms of ethical testing practices. All participants were given the same instructions and the same time in which to complete the questionnaire.

Due to the busy work schedules of the participants, a maximum of one month was given for participants to complete the questionnaire, after which the completed response sheets were emailed to the researcher. The answer/response sheets and consent forms were separated from each other and the answer sheets were numbered for identification purposes.

3.3.2.1   Data collection instrument - HRD self-assessment questionnaire

Cooper and Schindler (2003:87) stated that different instruments such as questionnaires, standardised tests, and observational forms can be used to collect data. Data were gathered by means of a questionnaire that was developed specifically for this study. The rationale for choosing this method of investigation was to allow participants to remain anonymous, thereby ensuring more open and honest responses as well as ensuring higher response rates (Cooper and Schindler, 2003).

3.3.2.1.1   Reason for choice of instrument

The self-administered questionnaire as an instrument was chosen for the study. Cooper and Schindler (2003) asserted that the self-administered questionnaire has become ubiquitous in modern living. Cooper and Schindler (2003) argued that the advantage of self-administered questionnaires is that they can be emailed to participants. Cooper and Schindler (2003) also maintained that self-administered surveys of all types cost less than

personal interviews. Electronic surveys have quick turnaround, can easily reach inaccessible executives, and are perceived as more impersonal and therefore more anonymous compared to other methods.

Due to the fact that no questionnaires suitable for this study were readily available, a new questionnaire was designed. The questionnaire consisted of numerous sections namely: biographical information (gender, age group, race, salary level, location, qualification, experience, and merit awards obtained) and quantitative items (in order to conduct statistical analysis on the results).

3.3.2.1.2 Description of instrument

In order to ensure accuracy of responses, the researcher included a description of the final problem statement. This research questionnaire was customised in line with the available research on the topic. Various competences were decided upon in order to fully explore the topic of HRD practitioners' developmental needs (competences) required to perform the following roles:

- Marketing HRD interventions,
- Conducting training need analysis,
- Designing and developing HRD interventions,
- Implementing HRD interventions,
- Evaluating and giving feedback on HRD interventions.

The researcher obtained sufficient information regarding how participants rate their developmental needs/competence (knowledge, skills and attitudes). The instrument comprises numerous sections, namely a biographical section; and sections that require quantitative responses using the Likert scale.

3.3.2.1.3　Development of instrument

3.3.2.1.3.1　Item construction

Cooper and Schindler (2003:356) argued that the procedure followed to develop the instrument vary from study to study, but emphasised three phases.The first phase is to formulate the research question, where exploratory investigation helps the researcher understand all dimensions of the subject. In this study, a substantial literature review was conducted and a questionnaire on HRD practitioner developmental needs was developed. With this theory in mind, research was conducted on the theory behind the development of such a questionnaire. This information was most helpful in constructing the items and developing the format of the questionnaire. Theron (2009) mentioned that the process of identifying the competencies to be measured is of utmost importance because the content of the questionnaire should accurately describe high performance behaviour. The second phase in the development of the instrument, according to Cooper and Schindler (2003:364), is characterised by a situation where the researcher drafts specific measurement questions considering subject content, wording of each question and response strategy. The third phase addresses topic and questioning sequencing. When developing a questionnaire, one of the most important things to consider is the purpose of that questionnaire (Cooper and Schindler, 2003). Theron (2009) concurred with this assertion and stated that a questionnaire on competency assessment is a developmental tool that can aid in identifying competency developmental areas. The purpose of the questionnaire in this study was to determine developmental needs of HRD practitioners. These competences/developmental needs are knowledge, skill, and behavioural attitude in marketing HRD interventions; conducting training and development needs analysis; implementing training and development interventions; evaluation and giving feedback on HRD interventions. Theron (2009) conducted a similar study on assessment of competencies and asserted that each statement (item) on the competency based questionnaire should state a behavioural output that specifies high performance behaviour related to the dimension (competency developmental needs), level of importance of a competency, and the level of performance rate in terms of a specified output (outcome). These purposes were kept in mind when constructing the items of the questionnaire. In order to construct the items for the questionnaire a very detailed summary of the literature review was made and from this summary an item pool was generated.

This item pool was narrowed down to form the questionnaire, named the developmental needs of HRD practitioner self-assessment questionnaire. Caution was taken that the questionnaire was user-friendly, although bit long. Similar comments were made by subject matter experts during the validation process. Bracken (1994), as cited by Theron (2009), mentioned that the questionnaire must be user-friendly. He also cautioned that if the questionnaire is too long and difficult to complete, the data obtained could be of little or no value.

3.3.2.1.3.2   Scale

The response strategy was a structured response (or closed-ended responses with specified alternatives provided). According to Cooper and Schindler (2003:373), closed-ended responses are typically categorised as dichotomous, multiple choice, checklist, ratings or ranking response strategies. The strategy used in the present study is the ranking response strategy. A single-rating response strategy was adopted. The response scale for the various constructs assessed was a four-point scale, with respondents having to respond according to the extent that they rate themselves on the statement made in each item.

The single response numerical four-point scale was as follows:

Scale = Current development level

1 = Strongly Needs Development
2 = Needs Development
3 = Partial Needs Development
4 = Does Not Need Development

Items were worded in a negative direction (high scores indicate low and no development need were reversed, so that high scores indicate high development need). All scales were constructed by adding the scores of items that speak to that scale (correlate highly with the scale) and then dividing them by the number of items. All scales ranged between 1 and 4, and are interpreted as follows:

Table 3 2: Scales

VALUE	MEANING
1.00 to 1.50	Does not need development
1.51 to 2.50	Partially needs development
2.51 to 3.50	Needs development
3.51 to 4.00	Strongly needs development

3.3.3 Psychometric properties of instrument (reliability and validity of the instrument)

The reliability of a measure refers to the consistency with which it measures whatever it measures (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2001:41), whereas the validity of a measure refers to whether or not the instrument measures what it is supposed to measure (Pallant, 2005:6). The content validity of the questionnaire was determined through the Lawshe method. This study's self-rating questionnaire has potential limitations in terms of reliability and validity due to the fact that self-raters could rate themselves favourably. Van de Mortel (2008) conducted a study on social desirability response bias in self-report, and discovered that a limitation with self-rating questionnaire is the tendency of people to present a favourable image of themselves, commonly known as socially desirable responding (SDR). Van de Mortel (2008) said that the participants may report information to conform to socially acceptable values, to avoid criticism, or to gain social approval. In another study conducted by Van Acker and Theron (2009) regarding the possibilities and limitations of using self-rating scales, it was found that when compared to a regular rating scale, a larger proportion of respondents drop out. However, subjective preferences for one or the other scale do not seem to differ. De Lange *et al.* (2003) conducted a study wherein it was also found that self-rating is often inflated.

In this study a self-rating scale has been chosen for three reasons: (i) a time constraint, (ii) because more resources would have been required if a competency based assessment was chosen, and (iii) a mandate aught to be granted by public service authorities to conduct a comprehensive research (which would create expectations in terms of promotion and salary benefits). The study was exploratory in nature and the results were to be used for preliminary purposes leading to further research and/or verification, using additional measures and techniques such as interviews, observations, and portfolio of evidence.

Vorster and Roodt (2003) asserted that there are different approaches towards assessing competencies, and furthermore stated that standard based competency assessment can be a very long and tedious procedure due to its nature of seeking proof or evidence. Vorster and Roodt (2003) also stated that it is highly likely that the process will be biased when performed by an individual. They mentioned different sources of bias, particularly ego-centric bias. Vorster and Roodt (2003) and De Lange *et al.* (2003) argued that in order to enhance the reliability, validity and usefulness of an assessment instrument, a 360 degree competency assessment approach should be used. Vorster and Roodt (2003) argued that this approach may enhance reliability and validity as it generates quantitative psychometric information on reliability and validity, which generates a quantitative validity coefficient. Jones and Bearly (1996), as cited by Vorster and Roodt (2003), asserted that the benefits of this approach are individual feedback from a multi-rater assessment process and a more objective and holistic view of individuals. Both De Lange *et al.* (2003) and Vorster and Roodt (2003) concluded that, first, 360 degree competency assessments are more accurate, credible, fair and motivational than single score assessments. However, in this study, use of a 360 degree assessment approach was not possible due to time constraint and other limitations already alluded to. A single individual self-assessment approach was adopted. According to Gregory (2004:99), the Lawshe method is a statistical method for determining the overall content validity of the instrument, and therefore the validity of the questionnaire used in this study was enhanced through the participation of subject matter experts in testing its validity through the Lawshe method.

Secondly, the competency based approach measures people's competencies against set standards, is fair and non-biased against any person in terms of language, race, gender, religion, etc. The competency based approach is in line with legislative frameworks such as the Constitution and Employment Equity Act No 55 of 1998. Theron (2009) stated that the Employment Equity Act No 55 of 1998 requires that all psychological tests and similar assessments be valid and reliable, fair, as well as unbiased towards any employee or any specific group of employees. The competency based assessment complies with this requirement in that it measures an employee's competence against set standards, and factors such as cultural orientation, race, etc., does not interfere and is controlled.

Theron (2009) argued that reliability and validity of a competency based questionnaire also include the validity of items (assessing content and face validity), the process followed in data collection (procedural reliability), and the way in which data have been analysed (appropriate, valid and reliable analysis procedures).

In this study, competences contained in the unit standards for Education Training and Development Practitioner Occupation, which are SAQA registered and accredited, have been used to develop self-rating questionnaire statements. Vorster and Roodt (2003) argued that "competencies as standards and national unit standards should be seen as same". Vorster and Roodt (2003) furthermore said that the competency based approach offers an organisation access to a framework (National Qualification Framework) of assessing and developing staff that is formal, structured, reliable and recognised at national and industry level. In this study the competences/developmental needs that were assessed have been defined in the National Occupational Pathway Framework (NOPF) (2005). Vorster and Roodt (2003) argued that in order for competency based assessment to be useful in any assessment context, competency standards have to be defined, described and assessed in terms of the behaviour they consist of. Vorster and Roodt (2003) asserted that this constitutes the content validity of the instrument.

Using Lawshe Method to determine the content validity of the questionnaire, the Content Validity Ratio (CVR) of 62 was obtained. Although this not high, it confirmed an acceptable content validity .

In this study, the competency dimensions assessed were clearly defined, articulated and comprehensively covered in the questionnaire. Vorster and Roodt. (2003) asserted that a self-assessment instrument should be compiled in such a way that it accommodates most or all of the uses of competency standards. Vorster and Roodt (2003) referred to competency standards "as competency titles or outcomes large enough to be recognised and accredited, specific outcomes (which are smaller outcomes of the unit standard title), and assessment criteria (which explain how well the specific outcomes should be performed), and range statements used to describe the context or environment". Vorster and Roodt. (2003) asserted that these components underpin an approach of providing evidence as proof of competence during the standard based assessment process. Vorster and Roodt (2003) concluded that the outcome-based competency assessment process must be objective to overcome reliability, content validity and fairness issues. The key dimensions of the questionnaire were validated and accepted as competence unit standards in South Africa in terms of the National Occupational Pathways Framework.

This study has adopted the same approach with the view to enhance the reliability and validity of the assessment instrument. Vorster and Roodt (2003) highlighted the importance of the process of identifying the competences to be measured, because the content of the questionnaire should accurately describe performance behaviour. Vorster

and Roodt (2003) stated that there were many methods used to identify competencies, such as repertory grid, behavioural events (critical incidents) and interviews. To develop the instrument, this study used the competence unit standards of ASTD (American Society for Training and Development) and South African ETD (Education, Training and Development) models, NOPF, National Staff Development and Training Association and American Public Human Services Association (APHSA), as well as Education Training and Development Practitioners Sectoral Education and Training Authority (ETDPSETA). The instrument was further validated by subject matter experts in the HRD/ETD field in South Africa.

Vorster and Roodt (2003) conducted a similar study, although they focused on assessing management and supervisory competencies. In their study, a measuring instrument was developed from acceptable unit standards for management and supervisory roles. The instrument was further validated by subject matter experts such as line management and individuals drafting standards for the Standard Generating Body for management and supervision. Through this process, nine supervisory competency dimensions were extracted from the unit standards. Statements were developed from these nine competency dimensions. This study followed more or less the same approach.

3.3.4 Pilot study

Christensen (1997:424-425) stated that a pilot study is conducted to indicate whether the independent variables manipulation yielded the intended effect. Robert (2002) also asserted that good questionnaires must be valid, meaning that they should measure the concepts they are intended to measure. A pilot study was conducted to determine whether the instructions were clear, the time taken to complete the questionnaire, and whether questions in the questionnaire elicited the required responses and therefore yielded the intended effect. The questionnaire was administered to fifteen HRD practitioners who were not to participate in the main study. Their responses indicated that the questions in the questionnaire elicited the required responses and therefore yielded the intended effect. The time taken for completing the questionnaire, though long, was appropriate.

3.4   Implications of the research design for validity and reliability

Cooper and Schindler (2003:231) defined validity as the extent to which an instrument measures what the researcher wishes to measure; and reliability as the accuracy and precision of a measuring procedure. Validity and reliability is critically important in determining the suitability of this study's research design, which is discussed in the sections to follow.

The internal validity of this study had to be considered. Welman and Kruger (2001:106) said internal validity is construct validity, which refers to the "degree to which procedures intended to produce the independent variable of interest indeed succeed in generating this variable rather than something else". Cooper and Schindler (2003) asserted that in attempting to evaluate construct validity, both the theory and the measuring instrument being used have to be considered. In this study, although the construct was not measured as it relates to attributes such as cognitive behaviour and personality trait, but instead developmental needs to acquire competences were measured, the internal validity was considered meaningful in the theoretical sense and the instrument was seen to be adequate. The various competences assessed in this study, as already mentioned, include developmental needs (knowledge, skill and attitude) on marketing of the HRD interventions, conducting training needs analysis, design and development of HRD interventions, implementation of HRD interventions, evaluation and giving feedback on HRD interventions. These developmental needs (knowledge, skills and attitudes) are also contained in the National Occupational Pathways Framework. Threats to internal validity of this study were mitigated by ensuring that the following were all taken into consideration in all activities leading up to and during the collection of responses in the study:

- *The subject effect.* The study measured developmental needs of HRD practitioners. It did not measure competences of HRD practitioners. This mitigated the subject effect in that, if competences were measured, participants would have been aware of the fact that their competencies were being assessed, and then they might have answered questions in such a way that they appeared in a favourable light. This could also be seen as a threat of measurement reactivity, as participants would have been aware that they were being assessed by the questionnaire and as such might have recorded their responses in the light of this fact.

- *The experimenter effect*. This was not a threat in that the researcher analysed and interpreted data and statistics objectively in line with null and alternative hypotheses, i.e., based on the findings the researcher would accept or reject the null hypothesis.

- *Pre-test sensitisation*. Pre-test sensitisation may occur if the individuals who participated in the construction of a questionnaire take part in the final administration of the questionnaire. Such participants would have some experience with regard to answering the questionnaire and thus may answer differently than they would have should they not have been exposed to it. In addition to this, they would have had more time to think about their responses than those who had not been exposed to the questionnaire before. This ties in with measurement reactivity as these participants may remember their answers and could intentionally or unintentionally alter them. The threat of pre-test sensitisation was minimised through the use of a pilot study and ensuring that the individuals who participated in the pilot study were not included in the final sample.

3.4.1 Internal validity of the instrument

The following tables depict the internal validity of the instrument.

Table 3.3:   Training needs scale

Scale items	Corrected item-Total correlation
Knowing people development and people training methods	.693
Skills demand analysis	.729
Skills supply analysis	.764
Providing inputs for skills development planning	.783
Analysing job descriptions and duty sheets	.571
Storing data in an easily retrievable form	.671

Table 3.4:   Designing and developing HRD interventions scale

Scale items	Corrected item-Total correlation
Conducting development and training needs analysis	.711
Deciding the best intervention/s based on costs and benefits analysis	.827
Setting effectiveness standards	.736
Setting objectives and outcomes	.816
Structuring and sequencing of events	.782
Selecting, developing and using research methodologies	.775
Knowing the content of HRD as a subject matter expert	.825
Conceptualising and developing practical frameworks that describe interventions	.752
Designing material and delivery of interventions according to standards	.703
Applying innovative approaches to reach objectives and outcomes	.670

Table 3.5:   Implementing HRD interventions scale

Scale items	Corrected item-Total correlation
Applying knowledge and skills of training and development practices	.811
Mentoring individuals	.747
Facilitating learning	.767
Conducting assessment, moderation and verification of learning	.724
Knowing career development theories and techniques	.680
Knowing knowledge and competency job requirements	.738
Creating career development plans	.698
Applying organisational development principles	.716
Coordinating organisational structuring and design	.608
Applying innovative solutions for organisational change	.755

Table 3.6:   Evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions scale

Scale items	Corrected item-Total correlation
Performing quality control over HRD intervention output and input	.719
Monitoring and evaluating project outcomes	.812
Communicating conclusions	.767
Influencing groups	.733

Table 3.7:   Marketing HRD interventions scale

Scale items	Corrected item-Total correlation
Knowing and updating HRD role players and stakeholders	.827
Understanding customer needs	.810
Liaising personally with customers	.873
Using networking events	.882
Presenting at seminars	.730
Using the internet	.773
Using traditional media	.861
Advising the customer using future perspective	.804

Table 3.8:   Generic skills scale

Scale items	Corrected item-Total correlation
Knowing how the functions of HRD relate to each other	.807
Understanding gender equity and transformation	.769
Knowing the impact of human rights on HRD practices	.823
Supervising project teams	.812
Deligating tasks, responsibilities and authority	.886
Interpreting and implementing delegated responsibility	.824
Gathering information through interviews, questionnaires, etc.	.876
Presenting information verbally	.856
Preparing written information according to standards	.804
Understanding and using computer applications	.708
Projecting trends and visualising future scenarios	.732
Negotiating and securing win-win situations	.772
Planning and coordinating logistics and financial expenditure	.794
Working in a team with diverse backgrounds	.817
Knowing your personality and how it affects others	.791
Applying effective personal stress management	.832

All items are highly correlated with their respective total scale. All items are measuring the same underlying construct as their respective total scale, so construct validity was satisfied.

3.4.2   Content validity

Cooper and Schindler (2003:232) mentioned two ways of determining content validity. First, a designer may determine content validity through a careful definition of the topic of

concern, the item to be scaled, and the scale to be used. Vorster and Roodt (2003) mentioned that in a competency based assessment approach, competencies are measured against key HRD practitioner roles that are integrated into business strategy, through the HRD component, as a strategic unit. The roles played by HRD practitioners are in the form of a circle with great interdependence on one another, and without interplay among the roles with the support of appropriate competencies; practitioners cannot contribute meaningfully to the strategic objectives of the business. In this study, unit standards, which specify outputs/outcomes and required competencies to achieve those outputs/outcomes, were used to develop questionnaire statements, and therefore content validity was enhanced. Vorster and Roodt (2003) also stated that in the competency based assessment approach, content validity is based on the content of the unit standards and supports the face validity of the instrument. Secondly, a panel of persons to judge how well the instrument meets the standard can be used. For purposes of this study, content validity of the measurement instrument utilised, namely, the developmental needs of HRD practitioner self-assessment questionnaire, was inferred by the nature of the items comprising the questionnaire and the extent to which review by HRD subject matter experts concluded it to be so.

The Lawshe method of content validation was used. This method requires that a panel of experts indicate if a variable is essential for measuring, or not. Based on this judgement of experts a questionnaire can be declared valid or invalid. A simple statistical method is then applied to determine the overall validity of the instrument based on all responses. Pennington (2003) and Gregory (2004) maintained that the Lawshe method is used in psychometrics to test content validity.

Pennington (2003) asserted that content validity (also known as logical validity) refers to the extent to which a measure represents all facts of a given social construct. Content validity determines whether test items reflect the knowledge actually required for a given topic, such as job skills, which in this study are HRD practitioner developmental needs (competencies). Pennington (2003) argued that the Lawshe method is useful in gaining agreement among raters or judges on how essential a particular item is. Lawshe (1975) and Martuza (1977), as cited by Gregory (2004), argued that to test content validity of a questionnaire, a panel of subject matter experts rate each item on the questionnaire. The subject matter experts respond to the following question for each item: "Is the skill or knowledge measured by this item essential, useful but not essential or necessary to the performance of the construct"? Lawshe (1995), as cited by Pennington (2003), said if more that half the panellists indicate that an item is essential, that item has at least some content validity. The formula that was

developed by Lawshe was used to determine the magnitude of content validity. The formula yields values ranging from +1 to -1. Positive values indicate that at least half the subject matter experts rated the item as essential. Lawshe (1995), cited by Pennington (2003), also stated that levels of content validity exist as larger numbers of panellists agree that a particular item is essential.

The variables in the questionnaire were validated by a panel of ten subject matter experts (SMEs) from different HRD constituencies. The experts had to respond to the question, "is the skill or knowledge measured by this proficiency item **essential** or **not essential?**" In terms of Lawshe method the mean content validity ration (CVR) across items is used as an indicator of overall instrument validity. In the present questionnaire, the content validity ratio of 62 was set as minimum criterion for acceptability. Although the CVR is not substantially high, it is an acceptable indicator of overall questionnaire content validity.

Table 3.9:   Lawshe CVR formula

Lawshe developed a formula termed the content validity ratio: $CVR = (n_e - N/2)/(N/2)$, where CVR = content validity ratio, n_e = number of SME panellists indicating "essential", N = total number of SME panellists. This formula yields values that range from +1 to -1. Positive values indicate that at least half the SMEs rated the item as essential. The mean CVR across items may be used as an indicator of overall test content validity. For a panel of 10 SMEs the minimum ratio is 62.

The votes of the ten panellists are displayed in the following table with ✓ indicating "essential" and ✗ indicating a vote of "not essential".

Table 3.10: Votes of ten panellists (Lawshe method)

CONDUCTING EDUCATION, TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT NEEDS ANALYSIS	SME1	SME2	SME 3	SME 4	SME 5	SME 6	SME 7	SME 8	SME 9	SME 10	Ratio	Valid/not valid
1. Knowing and using the methods used in people development and training	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	
2. Analysing the skills demands in your department	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	
3. Analysing the availability ("supply") of skills in your department	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	
4. Providing inputs for skills development planning	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.8	
5. Analysing job descriptions and duty sheets	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	
6. Storing data in an easily retrievable form	✓	✓	x	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.6	

DESIGNING AND DEVELOPING HRD INTERVENTIONS	SME1	SME2	SME3	SME4	SME5	SME6	SME7	SME8	SME9	SME10	Ratio	Valid/not valid
7. Conducting and presenting a training and development needs analysis	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	
8. Deciding on the most appropriate intervention/s based on costs and benefits analysis	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.8	
9. Setting criteria/standards for effectiveness	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.8	
10. Setting objectives and outcomes	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	
11. Structuring and sequencing of events, including contact learning, assessment and workplace learning	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	X	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.8	
12. Selecting, developing and using research methodologies	✓	x	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.6	

	SME1	SME2	SME3	SME4	SME5	SME6	SME7	SME8	SME9	SME10	Ratio	Valid/not valid
13. Knowing the content of HRD as a subject matter expert	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.8	
14. Conceptualising and developing practical frameworks that describe the intervention	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	
15. Designing material and delivery of interventions according to national standards and formats	✓	x	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.6	
16. Applying innovative approaches to reach objectives and outcomes	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.8	
IMPLEMENTING HRD INTERVENTIONS	SME1	SME2	SME3	SME4	SME5	SME6	SME7	SME8	SME9	SME10	Ratio	Valid/not valid
17. Applying the appropriate knowledge and skills of training and development practices	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	
18. Coaching or mentoring individuals	✓	x	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.6	
19. Facilitate learning using various methodologies	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	

20. Conduct assessment, moderation and verification of learning	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.8
21. Knowing career development theories and techniques	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.8
22. Knowing the knowledge and competency requirements for jobs	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.8
23. Creating career development plans	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.8
24. Applying organisational development principles and techniques	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1
25. Coordinating organisation structuring and design	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.8
26. Applying and recommending innovative solutions for organisational change.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1

EVALUATING AND MONITORING HRD INTERVENTIONS	SME1	SME2	SME3	SME4	SME5	SME6	SME7	SME8	SME9	SME10	Ratio	Valid/not valid
27. Performing quality control over HRD intervention inputs and outputs	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	
28. Monitoring and evaluating project outcomes	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	
29. Communicating conclusions so that it is understood and can be acted upon	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	
30. Influencing groups so that tasks are completed	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	0.8	
MARKETING HRD INTERVENTIONS	SME1	SME2	SME3	SME4	SME5	SME6	SME7	SME8	SME9	SME10	Ratio	Valid/not valid
31. Knowing and updating the network of HRD role players and stakeholders	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	
32. Understanding the needs of your customers	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	
33. Do personal liaison with customers as means of communicating HRD services	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	

	SME1	SME2	SME3	SME4	SME5	SME6	SME7	SME8	SME9	SME10	Ratio	Valid/not valid
34. Using networking events as means of communicating HRD services	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.8	
35. Do presentations at seminars as means of communicating HRD services	✓	x	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.6	
36. Using the internet as means of communicating HRD services	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	0.6	
37. Using the traditional media (written and electronic) communicating HRD services	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.8	
38. Advise the customer utilising a medium- to long-term perspective	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.8	
GENERIC SKILLS APPLICABLE TO ALL DIMENSIONS	SME1	SME2	SME3	SME4	SME5	SME6	SME7	SME8	SME9	SME10	Ratio	Valid/not valid
39. Knowing how the functions of HRD relate to each other	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	
40. Understanding gender equity and transformation	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.8	

41. Knowing the impact of human rights on HRD practices	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.8	
42. Supervising project teams	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	
43. Delegating tasks, responsibilities and authority to subordinates	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.6	
44. Interpreting and implementing delegated responsibilities	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.8	
45. Gathering information through the use of interviews, questionnaires, probing and recorded sources	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	
46. Presenting information verbally so that the intended aim is achieved	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	
47. Preparing written material according to generally accepted rules of style and form, appropriate for the audience	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	0.8	
48. Understanding and using computer applications	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	0.8	

49. Projecting trends and visualising possible and probable future scenarios and their implications	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.8	
50. Negotiating and securing win-win agreements	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.8	
51. Planning and coordinating logistics and financial expenditure in an efficient and cost-effective manner	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	
52. Working in a team of people with diverse cultural backgrounds	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	
53. Knowing your own personality and how it affects other people	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	
54. Applying effective personal stress management	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	0.8	
55. Knowing the requirements for ethical behaviour	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	

3.4.3   External validity

3.4.3.1   Ecological validity

Christensen (1997:483) defined ecological validity as the ability to generalise the results of the study across settings or from one set of environmental conditions to another. Subsequently, ecological validity was ascertained because of the chosen research design. Thus, the threats to internal validity already discussed, namely subject and experimenter effects, affected the extent to which the results may be generalised to the target population, with an adverse effect on ecological validity. However, the sampling strategy discussed in proceeding sections alleviated this to some extent.

3.4.3.2   Population validity

Christensen (1997) defined population validity as the ability to generalise from the sample on which the study was conducted to the larger population in which the researcher was interested. In this study another important aspect of external validity to consider was *population validity* wherein the findings obtained from the sample of this study could be generalised to the total population applicable in terms of the research questions (Christensen, 1997). Furthermore, as only HRD practitioners participated in this study, the population validity results might not have been affected. This is due to the fact that the characteristics of individuals who participated in the research project were the same as for the target population (Christensen, 1997). Due to the fact that individuals participating in this study were randomly selected, the results were generalised to the rest of the target population. External validity may thus be fairly high.

3.4.4   Reliability

Cooper and Schindler (2003:236) said a measure is reliable to the degree that it supplies consistent results. The reliability of the instrument (and therefore of the findings obtained by this study) was determined once all the data were collected and analysed by means of the SPSS programme. Reliability for the purposes of this study refers to the internal consistency of the instrument and therefore the degree of generalisability across the items within the instrument (Christensen, 1997). Table 3.11 depicts reliability of the scale.

Table 3.11: Reliability of scales

Scales	Cronbach's Alpha
Training needs analysis	0.886
Designing and developing HRD interventions	0.941
Implementing HRD interventions	0.929
Evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions	0.889
Marketing HRD interventions	0.951
Generic skills	0.970

All scales have Cronbach's Alpha coefficients greater than 0.80. All scales have good internal consistency.

3.5 Data analysis

Cooper and Schindler (2003:87) defined data analysis as reducing accumulated data to manageable size, looking for patterns and applying statistical techniques. Robert (2002) said data analysis is a task that logically follows the gathering of data conducted as a "field research" element of the research process. Hypothesis testing is a decision-making process. To conduct a study a researcher formulates a scientific hypothesis or makes a prediction of the relationship among the variables being investigated. The researcher designs a study and collects data to test the validity of the stated hypothesis. After data have been collected a researcher must examine the data to determine whether there is support for the scientific hypothesis. The above-mentioned data analysis procedure was adopted.

3.5.1 Descriptive statistics (exploring patterns in the sample data)

Frequency distribution, correlation, mean, standard deviation, and other statistical instruments such as skewness and kurtosis of the normal distribution curve were employed. Tables were used to present the data. Robert (2002) argued that relational analysis is conducted using frequency distribution tables (where there are two categorical variables to compare) and scatter plots (to establish linear or non–linear relationships where there are two continuous variables). Magnitudinal analysis is conducted using

measures of central location (mean, median, and mode), measures of dispersion (standard deviation, quartile deviation), and graphical interpretation (bar charts, histograms, pie charts). Skewness and kurtosis statistics were used to determine the extent to which data meet normality assumptions. According to Huysamen (1994), it is generally assumed that the distribution of the measurements of certain attributes or characteristics for very large groups of people (such as developmental needs levels of HRD practitioners) conforms to normal distribution. Huysamen (1994) described the graph of the distribution as a smooth curve with a bell-shaped form, indicating a concentration of high frequencies in the centre of the distribution and increasingly lower frequencies towards either tail.

Skewness statistic and its standard error: Severe skewness is more serious than kurtosis with regard to testing for the normality assumption. One reason is that the mean becomes a poor measure of central tendency. In this study, skewness statistic close to zero and less than twice its standard error implies that normality was satisfied. Huysamen (1994) stated that skewness distribution (degree of symmetry or asymmetry of distribution) is due to a concentration of high frequencies at the lower end of the horizontal axis and/or low frequencies at the upper end and it results in positive or negative skewed distribution. Huysamen (1994) argued that if the frequencies pile up at the lower end of the curve it is said to be positively skewed or skewed to the right; if the frequencies pile up at the upper end of the horizontal axis with curve trailing off to the lower end, the curve is said to be negatively skewed or skewed to the left. Kurtosis of a curve as described by Huysamen (1994) refers to its relative peakedness at the centre. The kurtosis of a curve was used to indicate peakedness or flatness of distribution compared to the normal distribution curve.

3.5.2 Inferential statistics (inferring the sample patterns on the population)

Robert (2002) mentioned that significance testing is conducted to establish the extent to which the sample characteristics and trends may be inferred upon the population from which the sample was drawn.

The statistical tests used to test the hypothesis are one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). ANOVA is statistical test for analysing the data obtained from within the participants' groups to determine whether the group mean difference score is so large that it could not reasonably be attributed to chance. ANOVA was used to determine if there exists statistically significant mean score difference among factors.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) - was used to test for the equality of means or equality of groups/equality of populations with regard to some construct of interest. Groups are usually defined by demographic variables like race and location. Certain assumptions have to be met before using ANOVA. The groups must be normal and their variances must be equal.

Welch and Brown-Forsythe tests – were used to test the equality of means. They are substitutes for ANOVA when equality of variance cannot be assumed.

Kruskal-Wallis test – was used to test for equality of means, to substitute ANOVA when normality of all groups cannot be assumed and sample sizes were small.

Eta-squared – is the same as the R-squared in regression. It indicates the proportion of variance of a particular construct that is explained by a given factor. It was calculated using information from the ANOVA table, i.e., factor sum of squares divided by total sum of squares.

Levenes test – was used to test the equality of variance assumptions in ANOVA.

Confidence interval for the mean - was used. It gives two values between which you can be 95% sure that the population means lies. This method assumes that the data come from the normal population. This assumption can be dropped for samples larger than 30.

One key issue for investigation was whether the respondents' location, gender, age, and race had any effect on the dependent variables and the scales related to HRD competence, i.e., marketing of HRD interventions, conducting training need analysis, designing and developing HRD interventions, implementing HRD interventions, and evaluating and giving feedback on HRD interventions. Chi-square statistical test (χ^2) was used to determine if there were any statistically significant differences in the proportion of respondents from various locations when compared to the other demographic variables. Robert (2002) said Chi–square is used to investigate the relationship between two categorical variables.

3.6   Ethical considerations

Cooper and Schindler (2003:120) defined ethics as norms or standards of behaviour that guide moral choices about people's behaviour and relationships with others. Cooper and

Schindler (2003:120) asserted that ethics in research means to ensure that no one is harmed or suffers adverse consequences arising from research activities. Ethical behaviour is crucial when conducting a research study. A researcher is expected to conduct research in an ethical and professional manner, in a way that protects the interests of research participants and abides to good ethics when obtaining information and utilising such information. Cooper and Schindler (2003:121) highlighted the importance of ethical treatment of participants.

Plagiarism was avoided at all costs during the literature review and report writing. All references included are in line with the academic reference writing requirements. The researcher abides to the "Ethical Code of Professional Standards" as stipulated by the relevant bodies (Cooper & Schindler, 2003:133).

The following important ethical issues were adhered to in this study:

- *Privacy and Voluntary Participation*: Cooper and Schindler (2003:126) asserted that a right to privacy means that a participant has the right to refuse to be interviewed or answer any question. Voluntary participation was central to conducting this study. Participants could refuse to reveal certain information about them and withdraw from the research study at any time, and were informed of the right to withdraw.

- *Informed consent*. Participants were made aware of the consequences of participation, informed of their rights and responsibilities, as well as the nature and purpose of the research. Cooper and Schindler (2003:123) argued that researchers should uphold the right of research participants to be fully informed about all aspects of a research project that might influence their decision to participate.

  The consent form was written in such a manner that participants with different qualifications and education levels as well as differing home languages would be able to understand it (Cooper and Schindler (2003:134). Thus, complex language was avoided as far as possible by eliminating terminology that the participants might be unfamiliar with. Within the realm of informed consent, information is highly important. Therefore the researcher ensured that all participants were given full information on all aspects of the research and the processes that would occur. In addition to this, they were also informed of the ultimate aim of this study and the relationship of the researcher with them.

Information that might have influenced the decision of participants to participate in this study could have included the following:

- They would not be given individual feedback.
- The developmental needs of HRD practitioners were assessed.
- No previous research has been conducted in the field.
- Complete anonymity would be maintained throughout this study; no records of personal details or identifying factors would be used in the analysis. In addition, neither individual results nor profiles would be examined in isolation and therefore no individual would be identified in the final report.
- The final report and research findings of the sample group would be available to any of the participants who wish to see the final conclusions.
- In order to gain access to the report, participants would have to contact the researcher personally or make a request through their relevant supervisor.

- *Confidentiality:* Researchers conducting survey research should ensure that data collected would only be used for the stated purpose of the research and that no personal information about the participant would be discussed or shared with anyone without consent (Cooper & Schindler, 2003:128).

- *Anonymity:* Cooper nd Schindler (2003) emphasised the importance of anonymity of participants. Neither the names nor any identifiable background information of participants may be disclosed.

- *Accountability:* Cooper and Schindler (2003:135) said researchers must ensure that the sponsor receives ethically conducted and reported research. Researchers may be held accountable for the way in which survey data are used and interpreted, as well as for protecting the security and confidentiality of obtained information.

The following were also considered important:

- *Ensure that the research study does not entail harm to participants* (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). The aim of this research study was fully explained to participants before distribution of the questionnaire. The exact role of the participants in this study was explained, with participants being afforded the opportunity to communicate any concerns or questions directly to the researcher (Cooper & Schindler, 2003).

Cooper and Schindler (2003) said harm to participants could also be inferred by test anxiety, which was a possibility with this study. Attempts to minimise this were made and included but were not limited to explaining that:

> it was not a test and as such there were no right or wrong answers;
> the questionnaire was not designed to "trick" them;
> the study was exploratory, thus no judgements would be made about them as individuals;
> the results were in no way going to be linked to them;
> only the researcher would have access to their results and that their supervisors and colleagues would in no way have access to their responses; and
> the results in no way reflect on their intelligence, morality or conscience.

- *Conduct research in a socially responsive and responsible manner*: Cooper and Schindler (2003:121) asserted that deception should be avoided by the researcher at all costs. Participants should be treated with respect and consideration, acknowledging them as persons in specific contexts with specific needs, protecting them from possible negative consequences of the research, and demanding only of them to produce relevant and reasonable information (Cooper & Schindler, 2003).

- *Minimise invasiveness*: When conducting research, interference with participants should only take place in a manner that is warranted by an appropriate research design and that is consistent with the researcher's role as a scientific investigator (Babbie & Mouton, 2007).

- *Ethical reporting:* Issues pertaining to ethical reporting were not relevant for this study because the study was competence based, culture free and non-biased. Issues which were in conflict with predominant literature and research were also reported and linked or compared to the body of literature.

3.6.1 Information letter

It was important to ensure that an information letter was available to participants in this study so that they could make an informed decision as to whether or not they wished to participate in the study. Thus, an information letter was constructed with the intention of

providing the desired parties with sufficient background information on this study and the purposes thereof. A copy of this letter is provided in Appendix A.

3.6.2 Letter of consent

Together with the information letter, it was essential that a letter of consent be signed by each participant in this study. A copy of this letter is provided in Appendix B.

3.7 Summary

In this chapter, the research approach and design, target population, and sample frames were discussed. Measuring instruments used to collect pertinent information in order to answer research questions were discussed in terms of their main dimensions, design and development, validity and reliability. Ethical issue considerations were made and also discussed.

To ensure that the study meets scientific research standards, an appropriate research approach and design were selected, the target population and sample frame were defined, and the psychometric properties of the measuring instruments were determined. The determination of the validity and reliability of the data collection instruments enabled the researcher to conduct a data analysis. The results answered all the research questions and enabled the researcher to accept or reject the null hypothesis and draw conclusions.

Ethical issues were also taken into consideration to ensure that the research participants' rights were not violated and the data were not obtained in an unethical manner.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

4.1   Introduction

This chapter provides and discusses the results of statistical analyses of data.

4.2   Do HRD practitioners in the public sector need development in conducting training needs analysis?

The following table presents the results of the statistical analysis of data collected to determine HRD practitioners' need for development on conducting a training need analysis.

Table 4.1: Do HRD practitioners in the public sector need development in conducting a training needs analysis?

			Statistic	Std. Error
Conducting training needs analysis	Mean		2.54	.097
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.35	
		Upper Bound	2.74	
	5% Trimmed Mean		2.52	
	Median		2.42	
	Variance		.652	
	Std. Deviation		.807	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		4	
	Range		3	
	Interquartile Range		2	
	Skewness		.213	.287
	Kurtosis		-1.375	.566

The sample mean of the Conducting training needs analysis scale was 2.54, meaning that the sampled HRD practitioners needed development on how to conduct a training needs analysis. The 95% confidence interval for the unknown population mean was [2.35, 2.74], meaning that HRD practitioners in the public sector are somewhere between partially needing and needing development on how to conduct a training needs analysis. Therefore HRD practitioners do need development in conducting needs analysis.

The following table shows the statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether HRD practitioners differ by gender with regard to the need of being trained on conducting a training need analysis.

Table 4.2: Do public sector HRD practitioners differ by gender with regard to the need of being trained on conducting a training needs analysis?

Conducting training needs analysis

Male	N	Valid	31
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.19
	Std. Deviation		.643
	Skewness		1.084
	Std. Error of Skewness		.421
Female	N	Valid	39
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.82
	Std. Deviation		.824
	Skewness		-.425
	Std. Error of Skewness		.378

The sample mean of female HRD practitioners (2.82) was larger than that of males (2.19). The T test assuming unequal population variance was significant (T = -3.576, df = 68, p-value = 0.001). There is a significant difference between males and females with regard to their developmental needs in conducting a training needs analysis. Public sector female HRD practitioners needed development while males partially needed development. The amount of variance of the conducting training needs analysis scale due to gender alone was 15.09%.

The following table presents the statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether HRD practitioners differ by race with regard to the need of being trained on conducting a training need analysis.

Table 4.3: Do public sector HRD practitioners differ by race with regard to the need of being trained on conducting a training needs analysis?

Race		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	
		Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Black	conducting training needs analysis	47	2.49	.782	.303	.347
	Valid N (listwise)	47				
White	conducting training needs analysis	12	2.21	.823	1.038	.637
	Valid N (listwise)	12				
Coloured/Indian	conducting training needs analysis	11	3.14	.636	-.582	.661
	Valid N (listwise)	11				

The Coloured/Indian group with the sample mean of 3.14 seemed to need more development on analysing training needs compared to Blacks and Whites who partially needed development with sample means of 2.49 and 2.21 respectively. The Analysis of Variance test was significant at 5% level of significance (F-value = 4.524, p-value = 0.014). At least two race groups differed on their developmental needs in conducting a training needs analysis. *Post hoc* tests were conducted to discover where the differences lie. Tukey's HSD test showed that the Coloured/Indian group differed significantly at the 5% level of significance from the White and Black groups. The Coloured/Indian group needed more development on conducting a training needs analysis when compared to Blacks and Whites who partially needed development in this regard. Race explained 11.90% variation of the conducting training needs analysis scale.

The following table shows the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether HRD practitioners differ by location with regard to the need of being trained on conducting a training need analysis.

Table 4.4: Do public sector HRD practitioners differ by location with regard to the need of being trained on conducting a training needs analysis?

Conducting training needs analysis

Sports/recreation	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.52
	Median		2.42
	Std. Deviation		.760
	Skewness		.738
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Agric/forestry/ fisheries	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		1.95
	Median		1.67
	Std. Deviation		.667
	Skewness		1.589
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Transport	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		3.57
	Median		3.50
	Std. Deviation		.344
	Skewness		-.200
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Health	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		3.12
	Median		3.33
	Std. Deviation		.550
	Skewness		-1.754
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Premier office WC	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.13
	Median		2.00
	Std. Deviation		.520
	Skewness		1.027
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Public enterprise	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.52
	Median		2.42
	Std. Deviation		.780
	Skewness		.214
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Defence	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.00
	Median		1.83
	Std. Deviation		.491
	Skewness		.523

112

Conducting training needs analysis

Sports/recreation	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.52
	Median		2.42
	Std. Deviation		.760
	Skewness		.738
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Agric/forestry/ fisheries	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		1.95
	Median		1.67
	Std. Deviation		.667
	Skewness		1.589
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Transport	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		3.57
	Median		3.50
	Std. Deviation		.344
	Skewness		-.200
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Health	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		3.12
	Median		3.33
	Std. Deviation		.550
	Skewness		-1.754
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Premier office WC	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.13
	Median		2.00
	Std. Deviation		.520
	Skewness		1.027
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Public enterprise	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.52
	Median		2.42
	Std. Deviation		.780
	Skewness		.214
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Defence	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.00
	Median		1.83
	Std. Deviation		.491
	Skewness		.523
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687

The Health and Transport medians are bigger than the other medians. It seems that Health and Transport HRD practitioners need more development in conducting a training needs analysis compared to all other departments who partially need development. Due to small sample sizes within groups and the fact that agricultural and health data did not satisfy normality, the Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric test for differences between groups was used. There was a significant difference between departments at 5% level (chi-square = 32.911, df= 6). The Transport and Health departments need more development in conducting training needs analysis compared to all the other departments who need partial development.

4.3   Do HRD practitioners in the public sector need development in designing and developing HRD interventions?

The following table shows the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether HRD practitioners need development in designing and developing HRD interventions.

Table 4.5: Do HRD practitioners in the public sector need development in designing and developing HRD interventions?

			Statistic	Std. Error
Designing and developing HRD interventions	Mean		2.57	.095
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.38	
		Upper Bound	2.76	
	5% Trimmed Mean		2.58	
	Median		2.70	
	Variance		.637	
	Std. Deviation		.798	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		4	
	Range		3	
	Interquartile Range		1	
	Skewness		-.185	.287
	Kurtosis		-1.104	.566

The sample mean of 2.57 indicates that the sampled HRD practitioners needed development on designing and implementing HRD interventions. The 95% confidence interval for the scales population mean was [2.38, 2.76], thus we can conclude at the 5% level of significance that public sector HRD practitioners need development on designing and developing HRD interventions.

The following table presents the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether HRD practitioners' developmental needs in designing and developing HRD interventions differ by race.

Table 4.6: Do developmental needs in designing and developing HRD interventions differ by gender?

Designing and developing HRD interventions

Male	N	Valid	31
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.29
	Std. Deviation		.732
	Skewness		.394
	Std. Error of Skewness		.421
Female	N	Valid	39
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.79
	Std. Deviation		.787
	Skewness		-.716
	Std. Error of Skewness		.378

The samples showed that females need more development (sample mean = 2.79) than males (sample mean = 2.29) with regard to designing and implementing HRD interventions.
The T test assuming equal population variance was significant (T = -2.733, df = 68, p-value = 0.008). Females need more development than males in designing and developing HRD interventions. Gender explains 9.89% variation in designing and developing HRD interventions.

The following tables show the results of statistical analyses of data collected to determine whether HRD practitioners differ by race with regard to designing and developing HRD interventions.

Table 4.7: Do public sector HRD practitioners differ by race with regard to designing and developing HRD interventions?

Designing and developing HRD interventions

Black	N	Valid	47
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.49
	Std. Deviation		.782
	Skewness		.303
	Std. Error of Skewness		.347
White	N	Valid	12
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.21
	Std. Deviation		.823
	Skewness		1.038
	Std. Error of Skewness		.637
Coloured/Indian	N	Valid	11
		Missing	0
	Mean		3.14
	Std. Deviation		.636
	Skewness		-.582
	Std. Error of Skewness		.661

The sample mean for the Coloured/Indian group (3.14) was greater than that of Whites and Blacks (2.21 and 2.49 respectively). The Coloured/Indian group seems to need more development on designing and developing HRD interventions than the other two groups.

Table 4.8: Robust tests of equality of means

Designing and developing HRD interventions

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	27.329	2	26.227	.000
Brown-Forsythe	14.928	2	28.745	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

The Welch and Brown-Forsythe robust tests were used to test the null hypothesis that the race groups are the same regarding their developmental needs in designing and developing HRD interventions against the alternative that some race groups are different. The tests were significant (see table above). It can be concluded that the Coloured/Indian group need more

development on designing and developing HRD interventions than Blacks and Whites. Race explains about 22.64% variation in designing and developing HRD interventions.

The following table presents the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether the developmental needs in designing and developing HRD interventions differ by location.

Table 4.9: Do developmental needs in designing and developing HRD interventions differ by location?

Designing and developing HRD interventions

Sports/recreation	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.49
	Median		2.50
	Std. Deviation		.843
	Skewness		.235
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Agric/forestry/ fisheries	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.21
	Median		1.95
	Std. Deviation		.590
	Skewness		1.559
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Transport	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		3.38
	Median		3.50
	Std. Deviation		.426
	Skewness		-.430
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Health	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		3.31
	Median		3.35
	Std. Deviation		.223
	Skewness		-.754
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Premier office WC	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.12
	Median		2.15

	Std. Deviation		.802
	Skewness		-.004
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Public enterprise	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.37
	Median		2.35
	Std. Deviation		.645
	Skewness		-.116
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Defence	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.11
	Median		2.05
	Std. Deviation		.737
	Skewness		.264
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687

The Transport and Health sample medians are larger than the medians of other groups, suggesting a possible difference. The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to test the null hypothesis that all locations are the same against the alternative that some locations are different. The test was significant (chi-square = 30.143, df = 6, p-value < 0.001) at the 5% significance level. HRD practitioners in the departments of Health and Transport need more development on designing and developing HRD interventions compared to other departments.

The following table depicts the results of a stastistical analysis of data collected to determine whether HRD practitioners differ by age on their developmental needs in designing and developing HRD interventions.

Table 4.10: Do public sector HRD practitioners differ by age on their developmental needs in designing and developing HRD interventions?

Designing and developing HRD interventions

23-33yrs	N	Valid	14
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.37
	Std. Deviation		.713
	Skewness		.053
	Std. Error of Skewness		.597
34-44yrs	N	Valid	36
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.79
	Std. Deviation		.761
	Skewness		-.542
	Std. Error of Skewness		.393
45+yrs	N	Valid	20
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.32
	Std. Deviation		.846
	Skewness		.235
	Std. Error of Skewness		.512

The sample means suggest that the 34-44 years age group needed more development on designing and developing HRD interventions than the other age groups. The ANOVA test was used to test the null hypothesis that the age groups are similar on their developmental needs in designing and developing HRD interventions. The test was not significant (F-value = 2.882, p-value = 0.063). It was concluded that developmental needs in designing and developing HRD interventions are the same for all age groups.

4.4 Do HRD practitioners in the public sector need development in implementing HRD interventions?

The following table shows the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether HRD practitioners need development in implementing HRD interventions.

Table 4.11: Do HRD practitioners in the public sector need development in implementing HRD interventions?

			Statistic	Std. Error
Implementing HRD interventions	Mean		2.62	.094
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.43	
		Upper Bound	2.81	
	5% Trimmed Mean		2.63	
	Median		2.70	
	Variance		.613	
	Std. Deviation		.783	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		4	
	Range		3	
	Interquartile Range		1	
	Skewness		-.185	.287
	Kurtosis		-.925	.566

The sample mean was 2.62, therefore HRD practitioners in this sample needed development in implementing HRD interventions. The 95% confidence interval for the scales population mean was [2.43, 2.81], thus we can conclude at the 5% level of significance that public sector HRD practitioners need development in implementing HRD interventions.

The following table discusses the results of a stastistical analysis of data collected to determine whether HRD practitioners' developmental needs in implementing HRD interventions differ by gender.

Table 4.12: Do development needs in implementing HRD interventions differ by gender?

Implementing HRD interventions

Male	N	Valid	31
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.38
	Median		2.30
	Std. Deviation		.799
	Skewness		.169
	Std. Error of Skewness		.421
Female	N	Valid	39
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.81
	Median		3.00
	Std. Deviation		.724
	Skewness		-.426
	Std. Error of Skewness		.378

The samples revealed that females need more development (sample mean = 2.81) than males (sample mean = 2.38) in implementing HRD interventions. The T test assuming equal population variance was significant (T = -2.373, df = 68, p-value = 0.021). Females need more development than males in implementing HRD interventions. Gender explains 7.64% variation in implementing HRD interventions.

The following table shows the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether the developmental needs in implementing HRD interventions differ by race.

Table 4.13: Do development needs in implementing HRD interventions differ by race?

Implementing HRD interventions

Black	N	Valid	47
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.56
	Median		2.60
	Std. Deviation		.783
	Skewness		-.179
	Std. Error of Skewness		.347
White	N	Valid	12
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.23
	Median		2.00
	Std. Deviation		.741
	Skewness		1.323
	Std. Error of Skewness		.637
Coloured/Indian	N	Valid	11
		Missing	0
	Mean		3.29
	Median		3.30
	Std. Deviation		.336
	Skewness		-.194
	Std. Error of Skewness		.661

Sample medians showed that the Coloured/Indian group needed more development in implementing HRD interventions than the White and Black groups. The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to test the null hypothesis that race groups' development needs are the same against the alternative that they are different. The test was significant (chi-square = 12.418, df = 2, p-value = 0.002) at the 5% significance level. It was concluded that the Coloured/Indian group needed more development in implementing HRD interventions than the Black and White group.

The following table presents the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether the developmental needs in implementing HRD interventions differ by location.

Table 4.14: Do development needs in implementing HRD interventions differ by location?

Implementing HRD interventions

Sports/recreation	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.59
	Median		2.65
	Std. Deviation		.828
	Skewness		.290
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Agric/forestry/ fisheries	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.34
	Median		2.25
	Std. Deviation		.648
	Skewness		.892
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Transport	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		3.27
	Median		3.30
	Std. Deviation		.462
	Skewness		-.884
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Health	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		3.39
	Median		3.40
	Std. Deviation		.325
	Skewness		.331
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Premier office WC	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.21
	Median		2.25
	Std. Deviation		.940
	Skewness		-.002
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Public enterprise	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.39
	Median		2.45
	Std. Deviation		.559
	Skewness		-.349
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Defence	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.14
	Median		1.90
	Std. Deviation		.604
	Skewness		.612
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687

Sample means revealed that the transport and health groups needed more development in implementing HRD interventions.

The Welch and Brown-Forsythe robust tests were used to test the null hypothesis that developmental needs in implementing interventions are the same between race groups against the alternative that they are different between some groups. The tests were all significant at 5% level. It was concluded that the transport and health groups needed more development on implementing HRD interventions than all the other groups. The amount of variation in implementing HRD interventions that was explained by location alone was 36.53%.

The following table shows the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether developmental needs in implementing HRD interventions differ by age.

Table 4.15: Do developmental needs in implementing HRD interventions differ by age?

Implementing HRD interventions

23-33yrs	N	Valid	14
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.41
	Median		2.50
	Std. Deviation		.783
	Skewness		-.142
	Std. Error of Skewness		.597
34-44yrs	N	Valid	36
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.77
	Median		3.00
	Std. Deviation		.738
	Skewness		-.570
	Std. Error of Skewness		.393
45+yrs	N	Valid	20
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.50
	Median		2.30
	Std. Deviation		.846
	Skewness		.370
	Std. Error of Skewness		.512

Sample means showed that the 34-44 years age group needed more development on implementing HRD interventions than the other age groups. The ANOVA test was used to test the null hypothesis that development needs in implementing HRD interventions are the same between age groups against the alternative that they differ. The test was not significant

(F-value = 1.399, df1 = 2, df = 68, p-value = 0.254). It was concluded that the levels of developmental needs in implementing HRD interventions were the same across all ages.

4.5 Do public sector HRD practitioners need development in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions?

The following table shows the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether HRD practitioners need development in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions.

Table 4.16: Do public sector HRD practitioners need development in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions?

			Statistic	Std. Error
Evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions	Mean		2.47	.107
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.25	
		Upper Bound	2.68	
	5% Trimmed Mean		2.47	
	Median		2.50	
	Variance		.802	
	Std. Deviation		.896	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		4	
	Range		3	
	Interquartile Range		2	
	Skewness		-.182	.287
	Kurtosis		-1.135	.566

The sample mean was 2.47, thus HRD practitioners in this sample partially needed development in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions. The 95% confidence interval for the scales population mean was [2.25, 2.68], thus we can conclude at the 5% level of significance that public sector HRD practitioners partially need development in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions.

The following table presents the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether developmental needs in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions differ by gender.

Table 4.17: Do developmental needs in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions differ by gender?

Evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions

Male	N	Valid	31
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.16
	Median		2.00
	Std. Deviation		.896
	Skewness		.226
	Std. Error of Skewness		.421
Female	N	Valid	39
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.71
	Median		3.00
	Std. Deviation		.828
	Skewness		-.485
	Std. Error of Skewness		.378

Sample means show that females have a higher development need for evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions than males. The T test assuming equal population variance was significant (T = -2.663, df = 68, p-value = 0.010). Females need more development than males in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions. Gender explains 9.44% variation in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions.

The following table depicts the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether developmental needs in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions differ by race.

Table 4.18: Do developmental needs in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions differ by race?

Evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions

Black	N	Valid	47
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.36
	Median		2.50
	Std. Deviation		.926
	Skewness		-.068
	Std. Error of Skewness		.347
White	N	Valid	12
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.25
	Median		2.00
	Std. Deviation		.833
	Skewness		.851
	Std. Error of Skewness		.637
Coloured/Indian	N	Valid	11
		Missing	0
	Mean		3.16
	Median		3.25
	Std. Deviation		.437
	Skewness		-1.102
	Std. Error of Skewness		.661

Sample medians showed that the Coloured/Indian group needed more development in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions than the White and Black groups. The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to test the null hypothesis that all race groups' development needs are the same against the alternative that they are different. The test was significant (chi-square = 9.278, df = 2, p-value = 0.010) at the 5% significance level. It was concluded that the Coloured/Indian group needed more development in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions than the Black and White group.

The following table shows the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether developmental needs in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions differ by location.

Table 4.19: Do developmental needs in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions differ by location?

Evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions

Sports/recreation	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.53
	Median		2.38
	Std. Deviation		.870
	Skewness		.252
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Agric/forestry/ fisheries	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		1.93
	Median		1.63
	Std. Deviation		.965
	Skewness		.763
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Transport	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		3.20
	Median		3.25
	Std. Deviation		.483
	Skewness		.005
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Health	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		3.35
	Median		3.25
	Std. Deviation		.337
	Skewness		.772
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Premier office WC	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.15
	Median		2.00
	Std. Deviation		.914
	Skewness		.009
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Public enterprise	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.23
	Median		2.13
	Std. Deviation		.558
	Skewness		.006
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Defence	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		1.90
	Median		1.75
	Std. Deviation		.801
	Skewness		.581
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687

Sample means revealed that the transport and health groups needed more development in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions. The Welch and Brown-Forsythe robust tests

were used to test the null hypothesis that developmental needs in evaluating and monitoring interventions are the same between race groups against the alternative that they are different between some groups. The tests were all significant at 5% level. It was concluded that the transport and health groups needed more development on evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions than all the other groups. The amount of variation in implementing HRD interventions that was explained by location alone was 37.83%.

The following table presents the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether developmental needs in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions differ by age.

Table 4.20: Do developmental needs in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions differ by age?

Evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions

23-33yrs	N	Valid	14
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.13
	Median		2.00
	Std. Deviation		1.008
	Skewness		.181
	Std. Error of Skewness		.597
34-44yrs	N	Valid	36
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.69
	Median		2.88
	Std. Deviation		.800
	Skewness		-.551
	Std. Error of Skewness		.393
45+yrs	N	Valid	20
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.31
	Median		2.13
	Std. Deviation		.914
	Skewness		.381
	Std. Error of Skewness		.512

Sample means showed that the 34-44 years age group needed more development on evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions than the other age groups. The ANOVA test was used to test the null hypothesis that development needs in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions are the same between age groups against the alternative that they differ.The test was not significant at 5% level (F-value = 2.514, p-value = 0.089). It was

concluded that the levels of developmental needs in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions were the same across age.

4.6 Do public sector HRD practitioners need development in marketing HRD interventions?

The following table shows the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether HRD practitioners need development in marketing HRD interventions.

Table 4.21: Do public sector HRD practitioners need development in marketing HRD interventions?

			Statistic	Std. Error
Marketing HRD interventions	Mean		2.35	.116
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.12	
		Upper Bound	2.58	
	5% Trimmed Mean		2.33	
	Median		2.38	
	Variance		.936	
	Std. Deviation		.967	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		4	
	Range		3	
	Interquartile Range		2	
	Skewness		.113	.287
	Kurtosis		-1.373	.566

The sample mean was 2.35, indicating a partial developmental need in marketing HRD interventions. The 95% confidence interval for the scales population mean was [2.12, 2.58], thus we can conclude at the 5% level of significance that public sector HRD practitioners partially need development in marketing HRD interventions.

The following table presents the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether developmental needs in marketing HRD interventions differ by gender.

Table 4.22: Do developmental needs in marketing HRD interventions differ by gender?

Marketing HRD interventions

Male	N	Valid	31
		Missing	0
	Mean		1.92
	Median		1.50
	Std. Deviation		.860
	Skewness		.807
	Std. Error of Skewness		.421
Female	N	Valid	39
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.69
	Median		3.00
	Std. Deviation		.922
	Skewness		-.393
	Std. Error of Skewness		.378

The sample mean for females was higher than that of males (2.69 and 1.92 respectively), indicating that males have a partial developmental need and females have a developmental need for marketing HRD interventions. The T test assuming equal population variance was significant (T = -3.556, df = 68, p-value = 0.001). Females need more development than males in marketing HRD interventions. Gender explains 15.68% variation in marketing HRD interventions.

The following table shows the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether developmental needs in marketing HRD interventions differ by race.

Table 4.23: Do developmental needs in marketing HRD interventions differ by race?

Marketing HRD interventions

Black	N	Valid	47
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.20
	Median		2.00
	Std. Deviation		.962
	Skewness		.394
	Std. Error of Skewness		.347
White	N	Valid	12
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.06
	Median		1.88
	Std. Deviation		.913
	Skewness		.836
	Std. Error of Skewness		.637
Coloured/Indian	N	Valid	11
		Missing	0
	Mean		3.28
	Median		3.25
	Std. Deviation		.358
	Skewness		-.272
	Std. Error of Skewness		.661

The sample mean for the Coloured/Indian group (3.28) was greater than that of Whites and Blacks (2.06 and 2.20 respectively). The Coloured/Indian group seems to need more development on Marketing HRD interventions than the other two groups.

Table 4.24: Robust tests of equality of means

Marketing HRD interventions

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	22.378	2	25.982	.000
Brown-Forsythe	10.499	2	26.124	.000

a. Asymmetrically F distributed.

The Welch and Brown-Forsythe robust tests were used to test the null hypothesis that the race groups are the same on their developmental needs in marketing HRD interventions against the alternative that some race groups are different. The tests were significant (see table above). It can be concluded that the Coloured/Indian group needs more development on marketing HRD interventions than both Blacks and Whites. Race explains about 17.93% variation in marketing HRD interventions.

The following table shows the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether developmental needs in marketing HRD interventions differ by location.

Table 4.25: Do developmental needs in marketing HRD interventions differ by location?

Marketing HRD interventions

Sports/recreation	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.10
	Median		1.88
	Std. Deviation		1.088
	Skewness		.540
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Agric/forestry/ fisheries	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		1.88
	Median		1.56
	Std. Deviation		.837
	Skewness		1.690
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Transport	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		3.36
	Median		3.44
	Std. Deviation		.519
	Skewness		-.320
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Health	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		3.39
	Median		3.31
	Std. Deviation		.285
	Skewness		.968
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Premier office WC	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.01
	Median		2.06
	Std. Deviation		.873
	Skewness		.240
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Public enterprise	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.03
	Median		2.00
	Std. Deviation		.756
	Skewness		-.093
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Defence	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		1.69
	Median		1.56
	Std. Deviation		.469
	Skewness		.759
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687

The sample sizes are small, less than 30. Transport and health sample medians are larger than medians of other groups, suggesting a possible difference. The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to test the null hypothesis that all locations are the same against the alternative that some locations are different. The test was significant (chi-square = 31.049, df = 6, p-value < 0.001) at the 5% significance level. HRD practitioners in the departments of Health and Transport need more development on marketing HRD interventions compared to other departments.

The following table shows the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether developmental needs in marketing HRD interventions differ by age.

Table 4.26: Do developmental needs in marketing HRD interventions differ by age?

Marketing HRD interventions

23-33yrs	N	Valid	14
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.07
	Median		1.75
	Std. Deviation		.921
	Skewness		.586
	Std. Error of Skewness		.597
34-44yrs	N	Valid	36
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.52
	Median		2.63
	Std. Deviation		.957
	Skewness		-.230
	Std. Error of Skewness		.393
45+yrs	N	Valid	20
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.23
	Median		2.13
	Std. Deviation		1.002
	Skewness		.454
	Std. Error of Skewness		.512

The sample means suggest that the 34-44 years age group needs more development on marketing HRD interventions than the other age groups. The ANOVA test was used to test the null hypothesis that the age groups are similar on their developmental needs in marketing HRD interventions. The test was not significant (F-value = 1.328, p-value = 0.272). It was

concluded that developmental needs in marketing HRD interventions are the same for all age groups.

4.7   Do public sector HRD practitioners need development in generic skills?

The following table presents the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether HRD practitioners need development in generic skills.

Table 4.27: Do public sector HRD practitioners need development in generic skills?

			Statistic	Std. Error
Generic skills applicable to all dimensions	Mean		2.47	.107
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.26	
		Upper Bound	2.69	
	5% Trimmed Mean		2.47	
	Median		2.63	
	Variance		.800	
	Std. Deviation		.894	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		4	
	Range		3	
	Interquartile Range		2	
	Skewness		-.120	.287
	Kurtosis		-1.265	.566

The sample mean was 2.47, indicating a partial developmental need in generic skills. The 95% confidence interval for the scales population mean was [2.26, 2.69], thus we can conclude at the 5% level of significance that public sector HRD practitioners partially need development in generic skills.

The following table depicts the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether developmental needs in generic skills differ by gender.

Table 4.28: Do developmental needs in generic skills differ by gender?

Generic skills applicable to all dimensions

Male	N	Valid	31
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.12
	Median		2.00
	Std. Deviation		.865
	Skewness		.328
	Std. Error of Skewness		.421
Female	N	Valid	39
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.75
	Median		3.00
	Std. Deviation		.825
	Skewness		-.456
	Std. Error of Skewness		.378

The sample mean for females was higher than that of males (2.75 and 2.12 respectively), indicating that males have a partial developmental need and females have a developmental need for generic skills. The T test assuming equal population variance was significant (T = -3.107, df = 68, p-value = 0.003). Females need more development of generic skills than males. Gender explains 12.43% variation in generic skills.

The following table presents the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether developmental needs in generic skills differ by race.

Table 4.29: Do developmental needs in generic skills differ by race?

Generic skills applicable to all dimensions

Black	N	Valid	47
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.37
	Median		2.31
	Std. Deviation		.887
	Skewness		.008
	Std. Error of Skewness		.347
White	N	Valid	12
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.20
	Median		2.31
	Std. Deviation		.887
	Skewness		.500
	Std. Error of Skewness		.637
Coloured/Indian	N	Valid	11
		Missing	0
	Mean		3.22
	Median		3.38
	Std. Deviation		.530
	Skewness		-1.069
	Std. Error of Skewness		.661

The sample mean for the Coloured/Indian group (3.22) was greater than that of Whites and Blacks (2.20 and 2.37 respectively). The Coloured/Indian group seems to need more development on generic skills than the other two groups.

Table 4.30: Robust tests of equality of means

Generic skills applicable to all dimensions

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	9.996	2	22.921	.001
Brown-Forsythe	6.584	2	28.788	.004

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

The Welch and Brown-Forsythe robust tests were used to test the null hypothesis that the race groups are the same on their developmental needs in generic skills against the alternative that some race groups are different. The tests were significant (see table above). It can be concluded that the Coloured/Indian group needs more development in generic skills than both Blacks and Whites. Race explains about 13.69% variation in generic skills.

The following table shows the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether developmental needs in generic skills differ by location.

Table 4.31: Do developmental needs in generic skills differ by location?

Generic skills applicable to all dimensions

Sports/recreation	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.44
	Median		2.38
	Std. Deviation		.930
	Skewness		.234
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Agric/forestry/ fisheries	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		1.92
	Median		1.50
	Std. Deviation		.868
	Skewness		1.175
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Transport	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		3.38
	Median		3.34
	Std. Deviation		.403
	Skewness		.205
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Health	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		3.22
	Median		3.31
	Std. Deviation		.521
	Skewness		-1.323
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Premier office WC	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.20
	Median		2.38
	Std. Deviation		.773
	Skewness		-.365
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Public enterprise	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.26
	Median		2.19
	Std. Deviation		.755
	Skewness		-.206
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687
Defence	N	Valid	10
		Missing	0
	Mean		1.91
	Median		1.53
	Std. Deviation		.746
	Skewness		.593
	Std. Error of Skewness		.687

Transport and health sample medians are larger than medians of other groups, suggesting a possible difference.

Table 4.32: Inferential test statistics[a,b]

	Generic skills applicable to all dimensions
Chi-Square	26.941
Df	6
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. Kruskal-Wallis test
b. Grouping variable: Department

The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to test the null hypothesis that all locations are the same against the alternative that some locations are different. The test was significant (chi-square= 26.941, df = 6, p-value < 0.0001) at the 5% significance level. HRD practitioners in the departments of Health and Transport need more generic skills development compared to other departments.

The following table presents the results of a statistical analysis of data collected to determine whether developmental needs in generic skills differ by age.

Table 4.33: Do developmental needs in generic skills differ by age?

Generic skills applicable to all dimensions

23-33yrs	N	Valid	14
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.08
	Median		2.06
	Std. Deviation		.868
	Skewness		.432
	Std. Error of Skewness		.597
34-44yrs	N	Valid	36
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.69
	Median		2.94
	Std. Deviation		.835
	Skewness		-.608
	Std. Error of Skewness		.393
45+yrs	N	Valid	20
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.35
	Median		2.28
	Std. Deviation		.942
	Skewness		.337
	Std. Error of Skewness		.512

139

The sample means suggest that the 34-44 yrs age group needed more generic skills development than the other age groups. The ANOVA test was used to test the null hypothesis that the developmental needs in generic skills are similar for all age groups. The test was not significant (F-value = 2.713, p-value = 0.074). It was concluded that developmental needs in generic skills are all the same over all age groups.

4.8   Summary

This chapter presented the results of the statistical analysis of data. Descriptive statistics of demographic variables in key developmental areas of the study were discussed.

Statistical analysis tools were used, such as chi-square for the comparison of a proportion of the respondents by demographic variables, one-way ANOVA of key constructs with demographic variables, and the Kruskal-Wallis test to test the null hypothesis that all locations are the same against the alternative that some locations are different. The Welch and Brown Forsythe robust tests were used to test the null hypothesis that race groups were the same on constructs against the alternative hypothesis that some race group are different.

The results indicated that HRD practitioners in public service do have developmental needs in marketing HRD interventions, conducting a training needs analysis, designing and developing HRD interventions, implementing HRD interventions, and monitoring, evaluating and giving feedback on HRD interventions. The results also indicated that HRD practitioners differ by gender, race, location, and age in terms of developmental needs regarding the above-mentioned functional areas. Based on the results, the alternative hypothesis is accepted and the null hypothesis is rejected.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1.   Introduction

With reference to the research methodology as discussed in Chapter 1 (Section 1.6), the aim of this chapter was to formulate conclusions with regard to the objectives of the research as stated in Chapter 1 (Section 1.5) and to discuss the limitations of the research. Finally, recommendations are made with reference to the empirical study, as well as further study regarding the development needs of HRD practitioners in the South African Public Service.

5.2   Discussion and conclusions

The discussion and conclusions are discussed in terms of the specific research hypothesis (Section 1.4) and empirical objectives (see Chapter 1, Section 1.5).

The null hypothesis was that HRD practitioners do not have developmental needs in marketing HRD programmes; conducting training need analysis; designing and developing HRD interventions; implementing HRD programmes; and evaluating and giving feedback on HRD interventions.

The alternative hypothesis was that HRD practitioners do have developmental needs in marketing HRD programmes; conducting training need analysis; designing and developing HRD interventions; implementing HRD programmes; and evaluating and giving feedback on HRD interventions.

The null hypothesis was rejected and an alternative hypothesis was accepted based on the following findings:

With reference to the research results discussed in Chapter 4, HRD practitioners do have development needs in marketing HRD programmes; conducting training need analysis; designing and developing HRD interventions; implementing HRD programmes; and evaluating and giving feedback on HRD interventions.

5.2.1   Discussion and conclusion pertaining to empirical study objectives

With reference to the empirical objectives of the research, Chapter 1 (Section 1.5), the following conclusions are drawn:

(1) The first empirical objective was to determine whether HRD practitioners do have developmental needs in conducting training needs analysis. The research results indicate that HRD practitioners in the public sector are somewhere between partially needing and needing development on how to conduct a training needs analysis. Therefore HRD practitioners do need development in conducting needs analysis.

(2) The second empirical objective was to determine whether HRD practitioners do have development needs in designing and developing HRD interventions. The research results show a sample mean of 2.57, which indicates that the sampled HRD practitioners need development in designing and developing HRD interventions.

(3) The third objective of the empirical study was to determine whether HRD practitioners do have developmental needs in implementing HRD interventions. The research results indicate a sample mean of 2.62; therefore HRD practitioners need development in implementing HRD interventions.

(4) The fourth objective of the empirical study was to determine whether HRD practitioners have developmental need in evaluating and monitoring the effectiveness of HRD interventions. The research results indicate a sample mean of 2.47; therefore HRD practitioners partially need development in evaluating and monitoring the effectiveness of HRD interventions.

(5) The fifth objective of the empirical study was to determine whether HRD practitioners do need development on marketing HRD interventions. The results indicate a sample mean of 2.35; therefore, HRD practitioners partially need development in marketing of HRD interventions.

5.2.2 Discussion and conclusion pertaining to a demographics comparison on the developmental needs of HRD practitioners

5.2.2.1 Comparison of proportion of respondents by demographic variables

One key issue for investigation was whether the respondent's gender, race, location and age had any effect on the demographic variables and the scales related to developmental needs of HRD practitioners.

5.2.2.1.1 Developmental needs in conducting a training needs analysis in terms of gender, race, location and age

The T test assuming unequal population variance was conducted and found to be significant. There is a significant difference between males and females with regard to their developmental needs in conducting a training needs analysis. Females need development while males partially need development. The Analysis of Variance test was conducted and found to be significant. The Coloured/Indian group need more development on conducting a training needs analysis when compared to Blacks and Whites who partially need development in this regard. The Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric test for differences between groups was used and there was a significant difference between departments. The Transport and Health departments need more development in conducting training needs analysis compared to all the other departments who need partial development.

5.2.2.1.2 Development needs in designing and developing HRD interventions in terms of gender, race, location and age

The T test assuming equal population variance was conducted and found significant. Females need more development than males in designing and developing HRD interventions. The Welch and Brown-Forsythe robust tests were conducted to test the null hypothesis that the race groups are the same or different in their developmental needs The Coloured/Indian group seems to need more development on designing and developing HRD interventions than the other two groups. The Kruskal-Wallis Test was used to test the null hypothesis that all locations are the same against the alternative that some locations are different. The test was significant. HRD practitioners in the departments of Health and Transport need more development on designing and developing HRD interventions compared to other departments. The ANOVA test was used to test the null hypothesis that the age groups are similar on their developmental needs in designing and developing HRD interventions. The test was not significant. Developmental needs in designing and developing HRD interventions are the same for all age groups.

5.2.2.1.3 Development needs in implementing HRD interventions in terms of gender, race, location and age

The T test assuming equal population variance was conducted and found to be significant. Females need more development than males in implementing HRD interventions. The Kruskal-Wallis Test was used to test the null hypothesis that race groups' development

needs are the same against the alternative that they are different. The Coloured/Indian group needs more development in implementing HRD interventions than the Black and White groups. The Welch and Brown-Forsythe robust tests were used to test the null hypothesis that developmental needs in implementing interventions are the same between race groups against the alternative that they are different between some groups. The Transport and Health groups need more development on implementing HRD interventions than all the other groups. The ANOVA test was used to test the null hypothesis that development needs in implementing HRD interventions are the same between age groups against the alternative that they differ. The levels of developmental needs in implementing HRD interventions are the same across all ages.

5.2.2.1.4 Development needs in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions in terms of gender, race, location, and age

The T test assuming equal population variance was conducted and found to be significant. Females need more development than males in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions. The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to test the null hypothesis that race groups' development needs are the same against the alternative that they are different. The Coloured/Indian group needs more development in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions than the Black and White groups. The Welch and Brown-Forsythe robust tests were conducted to test the null hypothesis that developmental needs in evaluating and monitoring interventions are the same between race groups against the alternative that they are different between some groups. The tests were all significant. The Transport and Health departments need more development on evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions than all the other groups. The ANOVA test was conducted to test the null hypothesis that development needs in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions are the same between age groups against the alternative that they differ. The levels of developmental needs in evaluating and monitoring HRD interventions are the same across all ages.

5.2.2.1.5 Development needs in marketing HRD interventions in terms of gender, race, location, and age

The T test assuming equal population variance was conducted and found to be significant. Females need more development than males in marketing HRD interventions. The Welch and Brown-Forsythe robust tests were used to test the null hypothesis that the race groups are the same on their developmental needs in marketing HRD interventions against the alternative that some race groups are different. The Coloured/Indian group seems to need

more development on marketing HRD interventions than the other two groups. The Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to test the null hypothesis that all locations are the same against the alternative that some locations are different. The test was significant. HRD practitioners in the departments of Health and Transport need more development on marketing HRD interventions compared to other departments. Developmental needs in marketing HRD interventions are the same for all age groups.

5.2.2.1.6   Development needs in generic skills in terms of gender, race, location and age

The T test assuming equal population variance was conducted and found to be significant. Females need more development of generic skills than males. The Welch and Brown-Forsythe robust tests were conducted to test the null hypothesis that the race groups are the same on their developmental needs in generic skills against the alternative that some race groups are different. The tests were significant. The Coloured/Indian group needs more development in generic skills than both Blacks and Whites.

The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to test the null hypothesis that all locations are the same against the alternative that some locations are different. HRD practitioners in the departments of Health and Transport need more generic skills development compared to other departments.

The ANOVA test was conducted to test the null hypothesis that the age groups are similar on their developmental needs in generic skills. The test was not significant. Developmental needs in generic skills are the same for all age groups.

5.3   Discussion and conclusion pertaining to the findings

The results of the study, in terms of the working hypothesis as postulated in Chapter 1, as well as theoretical expositions by different experts in the field of Human Resource Development in Chapter 2, confirm that, overall, HRD practitioners in the selected public service departments do need development in all dimensions of the training process/cycle. The results also confirm theoretical expositions on the importance of building capacity of HRD practitioners in the public service, as asserted by various training and development experts. Meier (1985), McLagan (1989), Bosman (2001), Buckley and Caple (1991), Pace *et al.* (1991), Swanson and Toronto (1995), Rouda and Kusy (1995), Robinson and Robinson (1990), Rieger (1997), O'Connor (2002), Anderson (2006), Pillay (2009), Kuye (2009),

Neethling (2009), Wachira (2010) and Plaatjies (2011) all emphasised the importance of a strategic systems approach to training and development as well as building capacity of HRD practitioners.

The literature review broadly demonstrated the importance of studying HRD as a field and the need for its professionalisation in the South African public service. Neethling (2009) recommended professionalisation of HRD work in the public service as of high priority. The National Staff Development and Training/American Public Human Service Association (NSDT/APHSA) (2004) held the same view on professionalisation. Rouda and Kusy (1995) also asserted the importance of professionalising HRD work as a rapidly growing profession. The study was undertaken to determine the developmental needs of HRD practitioners and, where necessary, recommend development and implementation of capacity and competence building interventions. The implication of incapacitated and incompetent HRD practitioners could have far reaching negative consequences on service delivery and transformation in the public service.

Chalofsky and Reinhart (1988), as cited by Wright and Snell (1991), argued that "an effective HRD function as a subsystem of the organisation should have a highly trained professional staff". McLagan (1989) outlined key outputs of HRD practitioner competencies, knowledge, skills, values and attitudes. MacLagan (1989) asserted that the practitioners use these competencies to perform a variety of tasks, behaviours and activities, and these activities and behaviours produce products and services. In the public service context, outputs of HRD practitioners improve service delivery, redress past imbalances through affirmative action, promote employment equity, fast-track the development of vulnerable groups through diversity management programmes, etc.

The development of HRD practitioners could add value to public service by enhancing service delivery and facilitating transformation, which are critical aspects of the national political agenda. McLagan (1989) and Swanson, as cited by Anderson (2006), argued that the role of HRD practitioners helps the organisation maintain a motivated workforce, capable of growing employee competence. At present, Human Resource Development (i.e., education, training and development, organisational development, and career development) faces a serious challenge at the dawning of a South African democratic society, particularly in the public service, as the masses and the poorest of the poor essentially rely on delivery of basic essential services for a better life for all (Baloyi, 2009).

Overall the results indicate that HRD practitioners need development to be able to do their work effectively. There are models in the market that public service could use to develop HRD skills and expertise. HRD models, such as the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) and the South African Organised Framework for Occupations (OFO), can guide the HRD field successfully through the turbulent future, for a competitive advantage through people (McLagan, 1989). Anderson (2006), Swanson (1995) and the National Staff Development and Training Association/American Human Services Association (2004) emphasised the importance of connecting sound theory and practice within a theoretically sound and ethical framework in HRD practice. Professionalisation of HRD practice in the public service is critically important. Swanson (1995:209) added that, as professionals, HRD practitioners must have a passion for learning; the personal sense of self that results in being efficient and effective; and a passion for performance, because learning and expertise alone are not sufficient for improved business and industry performance.

According to Neethling (2009) there is unevenness in depth understanding of HRD in the South African public service, and Anderson (2006:279) asserted that HRD work in South Africa is performed in an unstructured way with no uniform approach to HRD practice. Thus both emphasised the importance of development of HRD practitioner expertise. From this perspective, it can be concluded that the development of HRD practitioners in the public service is critical for them to efficiently and effectively improve service delivery and implement transformation through training.

Wachira (2010) suggested continuing professional development of HRD practitioners as a mechanism to help them maintain, improve and broaden their knowledge and skills and develop the personal qualities required in their professional lives.

Moleko (2009) and Rouda and Kusy (1995:3) referred to professional development as the systematic maintenance, improvement, and broadening of knowledge and skills. Moleko (2009) argued that professional development also includes development of personal qualities necessary for professional and technical duties throughout life.

Rouda and Kusy (1995:1) and Pace *et al*. (1991:212) stated that the field of human resource development has all the characteristics of a profession and it is being recognised as a career field for professionals. Pace *et al*. (1991:216) distinguished six categories of HRD employment opportunities. These categories are organisational effectiveness,

management development, consulting and training services, sales training, career development and technical training.

Since 1994, public service has to a large extent outsourced the training and development, career development as well as organisational development programmes to external consultants. This practice has in a way reduced the role of an HRD practitioner in the public service from that of a professional to that of a co-ordinator and, subsequently, the practitioners have become deskilled and perceived as incompetent. Neethling (2009) said that the review report on the implementation of HRD strategy for the public service (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2007) revealed that HRD struggles to anchor itself and find meaning and stability in the public service.

With the persistent global economic recession which also affects the South Africa economy, it becomes imperative that the public service cuts costs on the use of external consultants and utilises its internal capacity. Neethling (2009) proposed compulsory capacity building in the public service to enable HRD practitioners to support interventions for improving HRD in the public service; to provide a set of competency standards for the HRD function; and to enhance effectiveness of HRD practitioners in the public service. Again, in terms of the Human Resource Development Strategy for the Public Service: Vision 2015, HRD practitioners are catalysts of skills supply and demand management and their competence must be such that they are able to play the role professionally; hence the recommendation to capacitate HRD practitioners and professionalise the field.

The results of the study confirm that one of the challenges of practitioners in public service is the inability to market HRD interventions. The study revealed that HRD practitioners across all race groups need development in marketing interventions. These results coincide with a finding by Zigon (1987), who argued that HRD practitioners may be competent enough and understand what has to be done to improve performance but "they struggle to sell their recommendations to principals of the organisation". Coloureds and Indians seem to need more development on marketing HRD interventions. The situation could be a drawback to the implementation of employment equity in the HRD profession in the South African public service. Zigon (1987) furthermore argued that the consequences of failure to market HRD interventions are that practitioners become frustrated, and this often does not yield good results for the organisation. The marketing of HRD interventions is very important in a business organisation as it enhances the impact (credibility, visibility and results) of HRD on the business organisation. Wachira (2010) emphasised the need for clarifying the HRD position and context in learning and development.

148

The results of the study indicate that all HRD practitioners need development in conducting training needs analysis, and that there is a significant difference between male and females with regard to their developmental needs in conducting training needs analysis. Also, Coloureds and Indians seem to have more developmental need compared to Blacks and Whites. Again this could be a hindrance regarding the transformational agenda to promote employment equity in the South African public service. Hence a recommendation is made to put in place interventions to train HRD practitioners and also put emphasis on addressing gender and race equity.

HRD practitioners in the public service play a critical role in conducting training need analysis. Dahiya and Jha (2011) asserted that training need assessment is the first step in any human resource development cycle and/or intervention. Bosman (2001) asserted that training need analysis is one of the key steps in the planning of HRD interventions, where, firstly, the HRD practitioners obtain organisational focus and training and development needs (performance analysis); and, secondly, make recommendations on the appropriate interventions to be implemented.

The results of the study indicate that HRD practitioners in general need development in design and development of interventions, but females need more development than males, and Coloureds and Indians need more development compared to Blacks and Whites. The results demonstrate unevenness of capability and skills across race groups and departments in the public service; hence it is recommended that capacity building interventions be put in place to address the situation, as it poses a threat to service delivery, as well as gender and race equity in the public service.

The National Staff Development and Training Association (2004) asserted that the role of curriculum design is an integral part of the training and development process. HRD practitioners need an extended theory of curriculum design that explains reasons for successes and failures of training systems, and predicts the results of new actions taken by them. (Kessels & Plomp, 1999:2).

The results of the study indicate that overall HRD practitioners need development on implementation of HRD interventions. In terms of gender, females need more development than males and, in terms of race, Coloureds and Indians need more development compared to both Blacks and Whites. Practitioners working for the departments of Transport and Health need more development compared to practitioners working in other departments. The lack of

skill in this area could hinder public service implementing training and development interventions, which subsequently may have a negative impact on service delivery. The phase of implementing training and development interventions is the third most important stage in the role played by HRD practitioners in the workplace. Analoui (2008:169) described the implementation stage as the "intervention stage" and defined it as a conscious and deliberate attempt or a set of activities aimed at bringing about changes in behaviour. The National Staff Development and Training Association/American Public Human Services Association (2004) cited this stage as critical for assessment, the transfer of learning, and learner performance in relation to training objectives. It is crucial that an intervention be put in place to address the training need in implementation of HRD programmes in the public service. Lack of skill to execute this task could result in wasteful and fruitless expenditure in public service departments.

An HRD practitioner generally has to monitor and evaluate the impact of training. This task is a huge challenge for practitioners in the public service at the moment, hence this study. Cheng and Ho (2001) also stated that training and development is an expensive investment and usually most organisations are not sure of the contributions of training and development towards the organisation's overall performance due to a lack of evaluation. Kirkpatrick (1999), cited by Altarawneh (2009), asserted that monitoring and evaluation take place at four levels of implementation of the training programmes. These levels are reaction, criterion achievement, behaviour change, and productivity improvement. HRD practitioners must be trained and enabled to monitor and evaluate implemented training programmes. The implications of untrained practitioners could be that the public service departments would not be able to measure return on investment and, therefore, the impact of training on overall business strategy.

The results of the study indicate that developmental needs in generic skills in terms of age are the same for all participants, irrespective of age. Females need more development on generic skills compared to males. Practitioners in the departments of Health and Transport need more development than those in other departments. The implication of not training practitioners to acquire generic skills is that they will not be able to play a role in the facilitation of skills development fruitfully; hence it is recommended that they be trained.

5.4   Limitations

5.4.1   Limitations in terms of literature

There was not a major limitation on the availability of literature, except that most literature on useful and effective HRD models, methodologies, methods and approaches is not recent.

5.4.2   Limitations in terms of the empirical study

With reference to the research methodology described in Chapter 3, Section 3, the limitations of the research are as follows:

Major weaknesses of this design are that the independent variables cannot be manipulated and extraneous variables cannot be controlled. The sample size drawn from the seven public service departments participating in the study limited the generalisation of the results to the whole public service. The study could not assess the competences acquired by HRD practitioners for various reasons: a competency based assessment approach requires more timeand resources, and is practically impossible due to red tape, the expectations it would create and fears it would cause to those who might have been declared incompetent. The study was exploratory in nature and results were to be used for preliminary purposes leading to further research and/or verification where additional measures and techniques such as interviews, observations, and portfolio of evidence can be employed.

5.5   The contribution of the study

The study has contributed by making a recommendation that HRD interventions must be put in place to capacitate practitioners to perform their roles effectively and efficiently. The outcomes of the study may provide guidance to departments and officials who participated in this study to use the self-assessment tool developed from the ASTD and South African Occupational Pathways Framework models to establish a training curriculum and career paths for practitioners in the public service. The results of the study could assist public service gaining deeper understanding of the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and challenges it faces in its drive to achieve transformation and enhanced service delivery through capacity building. Kuye (2009) emphasised the importance of identifying skills gaps

with the purpose to build skills capacity in the public service. The results of the study could provide the business community and the public insight into critical issues that public service faces with respect to human resource development. The results of the study could also make a valuable contribution to the fields of Industrial Psychology/Human Resources Development and Human Resources with respect to HRD as both a profession and specialisation field. The findings of this study could assist in benchmarking the dynamics of HRD practice between the public and private sector.

5.6 Recommendations for further study

With reference to the empirical objectives set out in Chapter 1 (Section 1.3) the following recommendations are made:

(1) The main objective of the study was to determine the developmental needs of HRD practitioners in selected public service departments, with the possibility that the results of the study could indicate the need to develop practitioners, where necessary, which would contribute substantially to excellent service delivery in the public service and the HRD profession in general, with specific reference to the South African public service.

The results of the study, as discussed in paragraph 5.1 and 5.2 of Chapter 5, indicate that HRD practitioners, particularly those from the departments of Health and Transport, need development. Therefore, it is recommended that an intervention/curriculum in line with the National Occupational Pathways Framework (2005) be designed and developed and practitioners be trained and developed in the areas that were identified as gaps. This could be a good start towards professionalising HRD practice in the public service.

(2) It is recommended that the sample size be bigger, i.e. more public service departments participate in such a study.

(3) Areas of future research should include conducting HRD practitioner competency assessment in the whole public service; with a strong and an in-depth focus on assessment of organisational development and career development competences.

(4) A further area of future study, again, includes assessing the impact of HRD practitioner competence on service delivery.

5.7   Summary

In this chapter, the empirical study as depicted in Chapter 1 (Section 1.4) was completed. The conclusions were formulated and the limitations of the research discussed. The chapter concludes with recommendations with reference to the empirical study and further study to be conducted on the developmental needs of HRD practitioners in the public service.

The planning of the research as discussed in the research methodology in Chapter 3 (Section 3) was completed. The specific objectives of this research as depicted in Chapter 1 (Section 1.3) were addressed.

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THE SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Background

The purpose of this questionnaire is to determine developmental needs of HRD Practitioners in the Public Service. It is also designed in such a way that it can assist the practitioner to assess personal strengths and to identify personal development opportunities. However, it should not be confused with a skills audit (which is used to assess your personal skills development needs in details) or a personal performance assessment.

This is an anonymous questionnaire. Therefore, it cannot be used for any form of personal performance assessment. It will therefore only serve a purpose if the response is as true as possible.

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Mark with an X as applicable:

1. AGE   (Please write in the block provided below)

2. **RACE:**

BLACK	WHITE	COLOURED	INDIAN
1	2	3	4

3. **GENDER**

MALE	FEMALE
1	2

4. DISABILITY:

DISABLED	NOT DISABLED
1	2

5. MARITAL STATUS:

MARRIED	1
DIVORCED	2
SINGLE	3
WIDOWER – WIDOW	4

6. DEPARTMENT

7. SALARY LEVEL

Salary Level 5	1
Salary Level 6	2
Salary Level 7	3
Salary Level 8	4
Salary Level 9	5
Salary Level 10	6
Salary Level 11	7
Salary Level 12	8
Salary Level 13	9
Other	10

QUALIFICATIONS Matric (Grade 12)	1
Post Matric Certificate	2
National Diploma	3
Degree	4
Honours Degree	5
Masters Degree	6

8. HRD RELEVANT TRAINING CERTIFICATE

YES, I do have a HRD relevant training certificate	1
NO, I do not have a HRD relevant training certificate	2

If YES please indicate the name of qualification
_____

9. NUMBER OF YEARS OF HRD EXPERIENCE

Less than 2 years	1
Between 2 – 5 years	2
More than 5 years	3

10. YOUR LAST PERFORMANCE RATING OBTAINED

A - Merit Award (90-100%)	1
B - Merit Award (80-90%)	2
C - Merit Award (70-80%)	3
D - Merit Award (60-70%)	4
E - Merit Award (50-60%)	5

	Please indicate whether you need development on all the competencies in the left hand column according to the following scale			
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**
CONDUCTING EDUCATION TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT NEEDS ANALYSIS	Strongly needs development	Needs development	Partially needs development	Does not need development.
1. Knowing and using the methods used in people development and training.				
2. Analysing the skills demands in your department.				

CONDUCTING EDUCATION TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT NEEDS ANALYSIS	Strongly needs development	Needs development	Partially needs development	Does not need development.
3. Analysing the availability ("supply") of skills in your department.				
4. Providing inputs for skills-development planning.				
5. Analysing job descriptions and duty sheets.				
6. Storing data in an easily retrievable form.				

DESIGNING AND DEVELOPING HRD INTERVENTIONS	Strongly needs development	Needs development	Partially needs development	Does not need development.
7. Conducting and presenting a training and development needs analysis.				
8. Deciding on the most appropriate intervention/s based on costs and benefits analysis.				
9. Setting criteria/standards for effectiveness.				

DESIGNING AND DEVELOPING HRD INTERVENTIONS	Strongly needs development	Needs development	Partially needs development	Does not need development.
10. Setting objectives and outcomes.				
11. Structuring and sequencing of events, including contact learning, assessment and workplace learning.				
12. Selecting, developing and using research methodologies.				
13. Knowing the content of HRD as a subject-matter expert.				
14. Conceptualizing and developing practical frameworks that describe the intervention.				

15. Designing material and delivery of interventions according to national standards and formats.				
DESIGNING AND DEVELOPING HRD INTERVENTIONS	Strongly needs development	Needs development	Partially needs development	Does not need development.
16. Applying innovative approaches to reach objectives and outcomes.				

IMPLEMENTING HRD INTERVENTIONS	Strongly needs development	Needs development	Partially needs development	Does not need development.
17. Applying the appropriate knowledge and skills of training and development practices.				
18. Coaching or mentoring individuals.				
19. Facilitate learning using various methodologies.				
20. Conduct assessment, moderation and verification of learning.				
21. Knowing career development theories and techniques.				

IMPLEMENTING HRD INTERVENTIONS	Strongly needs development	Needs development	Partially needs development	Does not need development.
IMPLEMENTING HRD INTERVENTIONS	Strongly needs development	Needs development	Partially needs development	Does not need development.
22. Knowing the knowledge and competency requirements for jobs.				
23. Creating career development plans.				
24. Applying organizational development principles and techniques.				
25. Coordinating organisation structuring and design.				

26. Applying and recommending innovative solutions for organizational change.				
EVALUATING AND MONITORING HRD INTERVENTIONS	Strongly needs development	Needs development	Partially needs development	Does not need development.
27. Performing quality control over HRD intervention inputs and outputs.				
28. Monitoring and evaluating project outcomes.				
29. Communicating conclusions so that are understood and can be acted upon.				

30. Influencing groups so that tasks are completed.				
MARKETING HRD INTERVENTIONS	Strongly needs development	Needs development	Partially needs development	Does not need development.
31. Knowing and updating the network of HRD role players and stakeholders.				
32. Understanding the needs of your customers.				
33. Do personal liaison with customers as means of communicating HRD services.				

34. Using networking events as means of communicating HRD services.				
35. Do presentations at seminars as means of communicating HRD services.				
MARKETING HRD INTERVENTIONS	Strongly needs development	Needs development	Partially needs development	Does not need development.
36. Using the internet as means of communicating HRD services.				
37. Using the traditional media (written and electronic) communicating HRD services.				

	Strongly needs development	Needs development	Partially needs development	Does not need development.
38. Advise the customer utilising a medium to long term perspective.				
GENERIC SKILLS APPLICABLE TO ALL DIMENSIONS	Strongly needs development	Needs development	Partially needs development	Does not need development.
39. Knowing how the functions of HRD relate to each other.				
GENERIC SKILLS APPLICABLE TO ALL DIMENSIONS	Strongly needs development	Needs development	Partially needs development	Does not need development.
40. Understanding gender equity and transformation.				

41. Knowing the impact of human rights on HRD practices.				
42. Supervising project teams.				
43. Delegating tasks, responsibilities and authority to subordinates.				
44. Interpreting and implementing delegated responsibilities.				
GENERIC SKILLS APPLICABLE TO ALL DIMENSIONS	Strongly needs development	Needs development	Partially needs development	Does not need development.
45. Gathering information through the use of interviews, questionnaires, probing and recorded sources.				

46. Presenting information verbally so that the intended aim is achieved.			
47. Preparing written material according to generally accepted rules of style and form, appropriate for the audience.			
48. Understanding and using computer applications.			
49. Projecting trends and visualizing possible and probable future scenarios and their implications.			

50. Negotiating and securing win-win agreements.				
51. Planning and coordinating logistics and financial expenditure in an efficient and cost-effective manner.				
52. Working in a team of people with diverse cultural backgrounds.				
GENERIC SKILLS APPLICABLE TO ALL DIMENSIONS	Strongly needs development	Needs development	Partially needs development	Does not need development.
53. Knowing your own personality and how it affects other people.				

54. Applying effective personal stress management.				
55. Knowing the requirements for ethical behaviour				

APPENDIX B

UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences

**Informed consent for participation in an academic
research study**

Faculty of Economic & Management Sciences

**DEVELOPMENTAL NEEDS OF HRD PRACTITIONERS IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLIC
SERVICE:**

<u>Research conducted by</u>:

Mr. H. N Mbiko
Cell: 0824652525

Dear Respondent

You are invited to participate in an academic research study conducted by Mr Headman Mbiko
a Masters student from the faculty of Economic & Management Sciences, Department of
Human Resource Management, at the University of Pretoria.

The purpose of the study is to assess developmental needs of HRD practitioners in the South
African Public Service

Please note the following:

▪ This study involves an <u>anonymous</u> survey. Your name will not appear on the questionnaire
and the answers you give will be treated as strictly <u>confidential</u>. You cannot be identified in
person based on the answers you give. Your identity will however be revealed if your
response will be sent via e-mail. The researcher undertakes to keep this information
confidential and will not be linked to your answers whatsoever.

▪ Your participation in this study is very important to us. You may, however, choose not to
participate and you may also stop participating at any time without any negative
consequences.

▪ Please answer the questions in the attached questionnaire as completely and honestly as
possible. This should not take more than ten minutes of your time.

▪ The results of the study will be used for academic purposes only and may be published in
an academic journal. We will provide you with a summary of our findings on request.

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.

Respondent's signature   Date