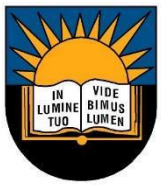


University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ASSESSING THE PERCEPTIONS OF ACADEMIC STAFF TOWARDS AN ACADEMIC STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME IN A SELECTED UNIVERSITY IN EASTERN CAPE PROVINCE

A dissertation submitted to the Faculty of Education in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Education

By

Mandisa Mankayi

Student number: 200509278

Supervisor: Prof E.O Adu

ABSTRACT

Institutions of higher education offer diverse staff development programmes to all staff members as a means of improving their educational quality and standards. The current study investigated using interviews, if whether the academic staff perceived staff development as a means of skills development; what factors motivated academic staff to attend the skills development programmes offered by their organisation; and which staff development programmes are perceived to be contributing much to academic skills development in a selected university in the Eastern Cape Province in South Africa. Utilising a purposive sampling technique, the number of academic staff interviewed was 15 from five faculties. A structured interview guide was used to solicit responses from the selected participants. Questions in the interview schedule ranged from issues pertaining to their registration on the skills development programme and how their personal skills have improved due to the programme. Upon completing the interview with an audio recorder, it was then transcribed and a thematic analysis method was used. It was found that participants were not satisfied with the academic skills development programmes offered by the university. While most respondents seemed to be aware of the skills programme, many were adamant to provide conclusive evidence on the impact of the programmes. The major disjoint among the participants rested on the performance tools used by the university to promote staff, which was mainly based on research output. This view meant that teaching and learning were not recognized as a tool that can be used to improve staff skills development, and as such, the perception was that there was bias in the education system in terms of rewarding employees who participate in certain programmes. The majority of the participants stated that they do apply what they learn to their teaching approaches, although they felt they were not rewarded by the education system as a whole. The major implication coming from this study is that the duality of the education system in South Africa makes it harder to achieve an equilibrium were both academic staffs practicing teaching and learning, and researchers are seen as equals.

Keywords: Higher Education Institutions, Perceptions, Staff Development, Teaching and Learning, Teachers

DECLARATION ON COPYRIGHT

I, the undersigned Mandisa Mankayi, hereby declare that the dissertation is my own original work and that it has not been submitted, and will not be presented, at any other University for similar or any other degree award.

SIGNATURE……MMANKAYI……..

DECLARATION ON PLAGIARISM

I the undersigned, Mandisa Mankayi, student number 200509278, hereby declare that I am aware of the University of Fort Hare's policy on plagiarism and I have taken every precaution to comply with the regulations

Signature……MMankayi……

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wish to express my sincere gratitude to the following people for the guidance, encouragements and inspiration while completing my dissertation:

- Prof E.O Adu, my supervisor, for assistance, guidance and trust in my abilities throughout my studies
- The University of Fort Hare, specifically, through their fee waiver scheme which funded my fees. Also, the Faculty of Education for their support throughout this project
- All the interview respondents who provided me with the opportunity to delve deeper into the problem and their responses
- Lastly, I would like to thank Sandile Mankayi, Lutho Mankayi and Sakhiwe Njobe who always see me as their role model and propel me to greater heights through words and a strong belief in me. I thank you very much.

DEDICATION

This is dedicated to my late loving parents who shaped me to be the strong woman I have become, my dad- a persuader and great thinker, Lulamile Nelson Mankayi and umama - a strong woman indeed, Tabita Biziwe Mankayi.

This has likewise set forth a credible path for my family in its extension, Mankayi and Radasi generations for their pursuit of a worthy life odyssey.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

ABBREVIATIONS

CHE	Council for Higher Education
ETP SETA	Education Training and Development Practices Sector Education and Training Authority
HEI	Higher Education Institutions
HESA	Higher Education South Africa
NCHE	National Commission on Higher Education
NQF	National Qualifications Framework
NSDS	National Skills Development Strategy
NSFAS	National Student Financial Aid Scheme
PGDHE	Postgraduate Diploma in Higher Education
RAE	Research Assessment Exercise
SDA	Skills Development Act
SJTU	World University Rankings and the Shanghai Jiao Tong University
THE	Times Higher Education
UK	United Kingdom
ZIMCHE	Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education Promotion Criteria

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an introduction and background to the study and an overview of academic staff development in both the global and national context.

Since the democratization of South Africa during the apartheid era, higher education has transformed throughout the years. These changes are documented in various government legislation, policies and documents focused on providing quality education for all. The diversity that emerged from the democratization of the country is embedded in various institutions of higher learning. This historical feature continues to be reflected in current dispensation and it continues to influence the availability of opportunities for professional learning of academics.

In the last decade, calls for a radical transformation in the South Africa higher education are ever increasing. The objective is to reverse the inequalities, which were created by the apartheid system. A plethora of policies as pointed before is meant to position the education sector in terms of challenges imposed by global and international markets. Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) need to respond to the dynamic global market and offer the quality education to ensure their survival within a competitive environment. Mapesela and Strydom (2005) once pointed that '*brain drain'* was a major challenge in the South African higher education. However, throughout the years, the South African government has made strides in curbing this problem with various incentives to support research such as the National Research Foundation grants to name a few.

Given such a response from the government, the academic staff is under intense pressure to deliver quality education and satisfy every stakeholder. Thus, the academic staff is obliged to continuously upgrade their teaching and learning capacity to achieve the organizational goal. As pointed out by Kahn and Welsh (2006), professional development is a necessity for academic staff to upgrade and improve their motivation in teaching and research in their profession.

Competing expectations of academics are widely discussed in the contemporary higher education environment and in the literature (Houston, Meyer & Paewai, 2006). Teichler (2007) is of the opinion that the dynamic environment of higher education in South Africa and international poses new challenges for the academics. Competing expectations in form of pressures to generate income through research, technological innovations and competency, varied student bodies, accountability and accountability (Deaker, Stein & Spiller, 2016). In particular, academics require updating in research, subject content, teaching, and learning skills.

Sizeable changes have occurred in the higher education sector, which has led to the gradual transformation of the academic environment (Teichler, 2007). Increasing competition, over-reliance of private funding, the pressure to publishing in peer-reviewed and accredited journals has led to drastic changes on how academics work, and this has contributed to the wellbeing of HEIs (Lindholm, 2004; Makondo, 2010; Roebken, 2011). Uniqueness and contextual needs due to common challenges faced by HEIs around the world has resulted in numerous responses that focus on pedagogy and academic development (Cameron & Woods, 2016:177). Institutions of higher learning in Africa are faced with various challenges some of which include the expanding of tertiary education without deteriorating the quality and standard of courses offered (Mpulanga, 2014:63). As pointed out by Steyn (2010:539) academic staff development is seen as a valid response in addressing those challenges in line to changes taking place in higher education. To this end, HEIs support for academics highlights that they are seen as a core component in providing business activities which teaching, learning and research.

While there has been a growing number of black academics at senior levels in universities around South Africa, the numbers are still unconvincing with 17753 black academic staff members compared to 26847 whites (CHE, 2016). The staff ratio has worsened from 24 in 1994 figures to 27 as of 2014 (CHE, 2016). This increase has been met with an increase in student funding, as pointed by NSFAS (2015) the average student grant was at R30000 (2012) and R34000 (2013). As a result, this increase has led to a high number of students' enrolment, although academic staff has not grown. This undoubtedly has exerted much pressure on higher education in South Africa with a number of institutions struggling to keep up with the rest of the world in

terms of delivering quality education. However, this pressure has not affected the research output of higher education institutions in South Africa. With some reports dubbing the South African higher education as the leading in research output in Africa.

This study looks at the university offering of academic staff development programmes. It acknowledges that HEIs have a huge role to play in the development of academic staff. Therefore, the main purpose of this study is to gain an understanding of how professional staff development programmes help universities maximize its organizational performance.

1.2 Background of the study

Academic staff development is increasingly important to a number of institutions as they seek to maintain a competitive advantage and productivity over their rivals. In-service academic staff development aims to improve individual capacities to play their role and improve the quality of service delivery in HEIs. The development programmes may include lesson organization, classroom management, teaching skills, teacher administration and material management (Atta, Ali, Balochi and Ayaz, 2011). Academic staff improvement is, therefore, a necessity in trying to attain quality education in institutions of higher learning.

1.3 Global Staff development

In a broad sense, globalization has created multifaceted challenges for institutions of higher learning. These challenges range from over top-notch academic programmes, to having a robust staff support unit. All this is done to remain competitive in face of intense competition, and at the same time keep the institutions viable for the foreseeable future. In Europe, in line with initiatives meant to stimulate research and development in higher institutions, the 2017 Annual Work Programme was implemented.

The framework targets to improve cooperation in education and training in higher institutions and other areas. The European cooperation in education and training (ET2020) pursued an open method of coordination in ensuring skills for employability and innovation to active citizenship. Accordingly, the ET2020 identified areas that

were to be reinforced to improve the performance of education and training systems to respond to social needs. The following are the some of the targeted priorities by the 2017 Annual Work Programme:

- Open and innovation practices, with priorities for learning materials and tools, as well as innovative methods and pedagogies;
- Achievement of high-quality skills and competencies, and support individuals to develop key competencies in order to improve professional development and socio education. This involves the support of actions that improve approaches in carrying out education;
- Strengthening the recruitment, induction, and selection of educators for the teaching profession, as well as activities that promote high-quality training and youth work. Thus, the programme supports the professional development of educators such as teachers, tutors, professors to name a few;
- Priority actions that facilitate employability and labour mobility in different levels and types of education and training;
- Lastly, supporting actions that improve investment and funding in education, training and youth policies.

The programme aims to promote cooperation in terms of mobility for Europeans and Non-European partner countries in higher education institutions, with the aim of modernizing higher education to less developed parts of the world. This includes structured courses, training events and teaching assignments in partner institutions abroad.

In Ecuador, staff development led to changes in three levels namely: personal competence development, the transformation of performance routine teaching, and influence organizational development of universities beyond teachings approach alone (Barth & Rieckmann, 2012). Four aspects were also found to be of relevance namely, the importance of interdisciplinary, linking theory and practice, informal learning and leadership approach.

In the Philippines, universities seek to be recognized internationally for their research; as a result, the government developed policies to improve existing research training (Commission of Higher Education, 2007). The government also collaborated with

international universities to build research capacity. However, Bernando (2007) pointed out that students were not equipped with the necessary skills to undertake research. Calma (2014) found that the most pressing challenges for universities was meeting the dual demands of teaching and research, as well as, developing competencies among staff and students.

Meanwhile, in the United Kingdom (UK), the government prioritized the needed to increase the availability of higher-level skills because of its importance to the economy. Crossick (2010) stated that universities were central to the success of rebalancing the economy. In line to this development, universities are increasingly expected to undertake business activities, and this might range from placements, teaching employability skills and teaching learners to work with business knowledge transfer (Helyer, 2012).

1.4 Overview of staff development in Africa

Africa faces a number of development challenges in education or broadening its education base due to a number of problems encountered in higher education. Some of the challenges include policy design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation. These challenges have translated to a decline in staff development in a number of institutions of higher learning. Therefore, a number of countries have developed initiatives meant to address the issue of skill development in HEIs. For instance, since Namibia attained independence in 1990, two universities were established. According to Naris and Ukpere (2010), the country introduced staff development programmes to address issues of quality. The programmes such as junior mentoring and staff training led to an improvement in their learning systems. Likewise, Botswana developed a Centre of Academic development whose mandate was to facilitate and promote the development of academic staff, as well as, students in order to improve the efficiency and quality of the institutions. While this initiative was meant for academic staff and students, it emerged that academic staff development was marginalised in university structures (University of Botswana, 2007). Meanwhile, in Kenya, the Ministry of

Education Strategic Plan 2006-2011 focused on affirmative action, improved infrastructure, and expanded access to education, while staff development was

overlooked (the Republic of Kenya, 2005). This led to an exodus of academic staff leaving for other countries, where they were promised better working conditions.

In other African countries, war, famine, and political instability have undermined university growth. Mushemeza (2016) citing Teferra and Altbach (2004) pointed out universities in Somalia, Angola and the Democratic Republic of Congo have collapsed due to the aforementioned problems.

1.5 Academic Staff Development in Africa

In Africa, academic staff development has also been viewed as an institutional strategy, which builds the capacity of university lecturers to cope with changes in higher education (Abeli, 2010; Association of African Universities and World Bank, 1997). Africa faces a number of development challenges in education or broadening its education base due to a number of problems encountered in higher education. Some of the challenges include policy design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation. These challenges have translated to a decline in staff development in a number of institutions of higher learning. Therefore, a number of countries have developed initiatives meant to address the issue of skill development in HEIs.

For instance, since Namibia attained independence in 1990, two universities were established. According to Naris and Ukpere (2010), the country introduced staff development programmes to address issues of quality. The programmes such as junior mentoring and staff training led to an improvement in their learning systems. Likewise, Botswana developed a Centre of Academic development whose mandate was to facilitate and promote the development of academic staff, as well as, students in order to improve the efficiency and quality of the institutions. While this initiative was meant for academic staff and students, it emerged that academic staff development was marginalised in university structures (University of Botswana, 2007).

Meanwhile, in Kenya, the Ministry of Education Strategic Plan 2006-2011 focused on affirmative action, improved infrastructure, and expanded access to education, while staff development was overlooked (the Republic of Kenya, 2005). This led to an exodus of academic staff leaving for other countries, where they were promised better

working conditions. Another research by Makawiti (2011) on perceptions of academic staff in Kenyan public universities on the application of performance appraisal results in training and promotion decisions revealed that 47.4% of academic staff believed that there was a training policy in place but probably could not have been related to performance appraisal results. Makawiti (2011) suggested that if well designed, staff development programmes in public universities could help foster employee commitment. In Zimbabwe, the Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education Promotion Criteria makes research the only criterion to be satisfied to the exclusion of teaching for an academic to be promoted (ZMCHE, 2006).

In other African countries, war, famine, and political instability have undermined university growth. Mushemeza (2016) citing Teferra and Altbach (2004) pointed out universities in Somalia, Angola and the Democratic Republic of Congo have collapsed due to the aforementioned problems. Djibouti is an example of a country that has been affected by civil unrest and has an interest in the development of higher education due to the high demand for service professionals. In Djibouti, the new institution has experienced student enrolment growth rates of over 400% in the last ten years (Djibouti Ministry of Education, 2010). This has led to increased demand for academic staff development. Similarly, in Ethiopia where the number of public universities has grown from 2 to over 30 and student numbers ballooned from some 50 thousand to more than 400 thousand in a decade (Jones, 2014). Furthermore, Jones (2014) states that Somaliland is a good example of a growing higher education sector in which trained staffing resources have not kept pace with increasing access to higher education.

1.6 Overview of Academic Development in South Africa's Higher Education

Higher education in the apartheid era in South Africa was marred by discrimination as such that there was the poor development of staff skills, especially in black institutes. The apartheid regime channelled resources towards the development of formerly white-dominated institutes. Academic development in South Africa is intertwined with the history of Higher Education. Boughey (2010) posits that in South Africa, academic

development was introduced into the higher education system in the early 1980s in response to the perceived needs of the, then, small numbers of black students entering historically white, liberal universities. In an overview of the history of academic development in South Africa, Volbrecht and Boughey (2004) identified three essential components that have shaped academic development in South Africa, which are 'academic support', 'academic development' and 'institutional development'.

Academic support is traced to the years before independence in South Africa. According to Quinn (2012), academic support originated in the 1980s, when historically 'white' universities first started admitting 'black' students. Acknowledging this assertion, Boughey (2010) adds by stating that in 1983, the apartheid government passed the University Amendment Act (Act 83 of 1983), also known as the 'Quota Act', in an attempt to control the number of black students these universities could admit. It arose from a belief that the black students entering Higher Education were 'underprepared' for the demands of tertiary study (Quinn, 2012).

Boughey (2010) argued that universities resisted the Act vociferously maintaining their right to admit whomever they chose based on academic merit and not any other criteria. As a consequence, academic support, usually in the form of ad hoc or adjunct tutorials or workshops, was offered to students to help them acquire the 'skills' which would fill conceptual gaps they arrived at university with and to improve their competence in English (Quinn, 2012). Given this context, it is hardly surprising that these early academic development initiatives were aimed at equity and equality rather than efficiency although, as will be seen, the extent to which they sometimes marginalised and 'marked' students as different raises questions about the achievement of these aims (Boughey, 2010).

Quinn (2012) however pointed out that although informed by noble ideals of social justice and equity, in time some Academic Development practitioners began to realise that this model was underpinned by deficit assumptions regarding students.

The negative premise on which the academic support model was about deficit assumptions regarding students meant that it was continually challenged and this paved way for the second phase of academic development. Quinn (2012) mentions

that academic development was instituted in institutions of higher learning in the second phase due to critics of the support model. The seeds of the second phase of the development of the AD movement can be discerned in the mid-1980s in critiques, which began to emerge of the universities themselves (Boughey, 2010). The phase was marked by a shift from what was upheld that students needed to be developed.

Vilakazi and Tema (1985) highlighted that it was not students who were in need of development, but the universities themselves. Quinn (2012) also mentions that this phase resulted in the movement of AD work from the margins to the mainstream – a move away from seeing students as deficient to a critical examination of teaching and learning in the mainstream. The phase continued when the political sphere was transforming. This saw a call for redistribution of resources especially focusing on supporting formerly disadvantaged black universities. In higher education, this involved the provision of increased access for black students to institutions, which still remained unequal in terms of resources and capacity (Boughey, 2010).

The author further comments that in the face of this overwhelming demand and need for equity, the relatively small and focused efforts of earlier academic support initiatives and the idea that academic support should cater to a ‘disadvantaged’ or ‘underprepared’ minority rather than a majority came in for a major challenge. In some institutions, this resulted in integrated projects and/or a focus on academic staff development (Quinn, 2012). The way to student development was seen to be through curriculum, staff and institutional development (Quinn, 2012).

The third phase of institutional development was largely shaped by the imbalances that were created by the inequality and the need for equity. As alluded by Boughey (2010) by the early 1990s, the academic development movement had engaged with a narrative focusing on the idea that institutions needed to be ‘transformed’. It is important to note that, at this point, discourses constructed AD work were still derived mostly from a concern with equity although the construct of equity arguably was not the same that had driven early student support initiatives which had drawn mostly on liberalism (Boughey, 2010). The institutional development phase according to Quinn (2012) reflects the way AD practice was influenced by ideas regarding the need for systemic change in South African HE; the need for curricula to be responsive to the

social and economic needs of the country and for HE to be accountable to stakeholders for the quality of graduates produced. As noted by Boughey (2007) the Academic Development movement has responded to policy and other developments at a national level by constructing its work as a form of institutional development.

In South Africa, the arrival of democracy and increased access to higher education shifted understandings of the role of university teachers from student development (the 'underprepared' student) to teacher development (the 'underprepared' teacher and, by implication, the 'underserved' student) (Volbrecht 2003; Boughey 2007). Since then academic development has become increasingly important in the country's higher education sector. The national call for improved teaching and learning quality and better throughput has focused the lens on academic staff development; simultaneously academic staff themselves are seeking ways to improve their practice and understand their contexts in more pedagogically informed ways (Quinn, 2012).

Arguing on the importance of academic staff development in some of the higher education institutions. Cosser *et al.,* (2011) mentioned that nationally, the audit revealed that, on average, 1.4% of colleges' total expenditure went on academic staff development over the 2009/10 period. Even though there are frantic efforts to improve academic development in South Africa, Baijnath (2010) describes professional development available to staff as woefully inadequate and marginal.

In South Africa, it is acknowledged that academics in the higher education sector are constrained (ill-equipped) to implement the curriculum in order to meet national needs (Boughey 2010). Despite the staff development inadequacies, the Council of Higher Education (2016) states that higher education remains, as it was then, central to the projects of modernisation, transformation and renewal in the country, just as it too is subject to those same forces. Global trends have influenced academic staff development in South Africa, although the local context has played a critical role in shaping its meaning and scope; there are thus important differences between South African understandings of professional learning and dominant international versions (Gosling, 2009).

Boughey (2005) asserts that there is a need to develop policies, which not only guide staff development practice but also build capacity for academic development practitioners in order to enhance APD programmes. There are different policies that are helping to shape academic development in South Africa. The most significant shifts at the level of policy were heralded by the passing of the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act 85 of 1995, which brought into existence the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) with SAQA as a 'guardian' of the framework (CHE, 2016).

The National Commission on Higher Education (NCHE) is one of the policy frameworks that recommends that there be quality assurance system that is central to a single higher education system in South Africa (Reddy, 1996). Moreover, a new Funding Model for Higher Education introduced in 2003 allocated state funding to public universities based on academic activities in the form of teaching and research outputs (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2003). Additionally, the National Plan and A New Academic Policy for Programmes and Qualifications also help shape academic staff development. Chabaya (2015) posits that in these documents, academic development is characteristically defined as student development with emphasis on extended foundation programs for previously disadvantaged students. The author further comments that the Council for Higher Education (CHE) also articulates the same perception of academic development as covering foundation courses for disadvantaged students.

According to CHE (2016), much of social and economic transformation is bestowed to the roles and works of academic staff. Desperately, academic staff development is needed in South Africa HEIs and staff developers need to help universities to create enabling conditions and promote capacity building. Cooper (2015) pointed out the university (research-intensive, teaching-intensive); the institutional context; departmental culture (Trowler, 2008); nature of the professional programme (Maton, Hood & Shay, 2016); and the availability of the resources for teaching and learning have an impact on what teachers are able to achieve. On the other hand, universities in rural areas have deficit understanding in terms of low education levels of the population and geographic difficulties (White & Corbett, 2014).

As pointed out by Mgqwashu (2016), the higher education encourages students to shun rural life. Thus, in the South African context, history and geography intersect whether a physical location affects the institution ability to attract staff; and if whether the university was 'previously disadvantaged' and is under-resourced. This impact on the teaching quality. Leibowitz *et al.,* (2015) explored the issue of cultural and structural Features and how rurality is linked with previously disadvantaged institutions. Le Roux and Breier (2012) found huge disparities in staff-student ratios, and access to resources in disadvantaged universities and this serve to perpetuate historical inequality in terms of teaching and learning practices in rural institutions.

For instance, teaching in poorly resourced institutions makes a different demand on an academic staff member than teaching in a well-resourced institution with more postgraduates and research-intensive. In the former case, academic staff primarily focus on teaching putting pressure on academic staff to improve their qualifications; in the process, this will limit resources away from teaching and learning. The contextual differences cannot be ignored in an unequal society like in South Africa. Thus, a deeper understanding of context across higher institutions is a necessity in the design of policies that address academic development. CHE (2016) argued that theoretical consistency is required to address staff development in South Africa.

1.7 Staff development in South Africa

Staff development in HEIs is one of the initiatives supported by the South African government. The reason being that HEIs play a huge role in the development of the country in terms of economic growth, poverty reduction and supply of scarce skills (HESA, 2011). Apart from this role, HEIs are expected to foster the professional development of their staff. The Skill Development Act, 97 of 1998; supports any initiatives meant to enhance employee skills and development. Some of the general aims of the Act are to provide an institutional structure in which training of employees in South Africa can be met. Redress discrimination in education, training and development to ensure equal access to education and training for all citizens. The major anchor of the Skill Development Act 97 of 1998 is to develop skills of the South Africa workforce, so as to improve the quality of life for workers, improve productivity and promote self-employment.

Consequently, employers are encouraged to provide opportunities for their workforce in terms of professional development. In terms of section 15(2) (a) of the Act, if an employer identifies an employment barrier, the employer must formulate affirmative action to counter that barrier (Pretorius, Klinch and Ngwena, 2002). In line with these proposals, numerous HEIs have made it mandatory to development employees' skills. However, the major challenge has been to translate that training to benefit the masses, especially in academia where training can improve the learning system.

Likewise, there is a tendency for academic staff to view training as something outside their normal work activities. This is general perception, were academic staff would rather attend such training if they away from work or on leave. While this view may be accurate in certain instances, this may point an omission on how skills development are initiated especially in HEI. Thus, one major weakness of the staff development programme may be on the lack of clear objectives, for instance, does attending a Reference Training, or conference help in improving their productivity or quality of learning.

1.8 Discourses in the higher education in South African

The ushering of the new dispensation in 1994 changed the transformation discourse in higher education. More black students were enrolled in higher education institutions and the demographic profile of staff has changed drastically in these past few years. While more black students have been absorbed in the education system, they account for 16 per cent of the 18-24 year cohort (CHE, 2016). As pointed out by Vorster and Quinn (2017) the transformation agenda took a drastic turn when racial tensions in historical universities erupted in 2015/16. This exposed the racial diffusion in terms of cultural beliefs and values held by different population groups. As Case (2015) state, 'one of the tragedies in higher education is the inheriting of structural conditions of the colonial and apartheid era'. Academic staff in historically white institutions is still white.

Given this discourse, South Africa has not engaged significantly to address the structural and cultural changes beyond student and staff demographics (Vorster and Quinn, 2017). This slow pace of transformation is indicative of the current pressure of transformation in various government sectors. The protest that has been delving into

higher institutions since 2015 is reflective of the slow pace in the transformation agenda, where students feel something needs to be done now. As suggested by Vorster and Quinn (2017) the discourse calls for the decolonisation of higher education. In this case, change is the major reason why the structural and cultural fibre needs to be disrupted. This is evident from historically white institutions were buildings, ceremonies, symbols and rituals continue to be dictated by western ideologies. Mbembe (2015) pointed out that the institutional features are a symbol of a lack of transformation in higher institutions.

Therefore, this means that the project of academic development in South Africa needs to consider such disparities. Historically the goal of academic development in South Africa has been about achieving social justice by developing teaching and learning practices that could be of success to the majority of students (Quinn, 2012). The postgraduate diploma in higher education has been the architect of this drive. As Vorster and Quinn (2012) point, the design and teaching of the course are meant to enable lecturers' epistemological access for the diverse student body. Epistemological access allows the existence of colonial culture and structures. This contradiction between lecturers' identities and traditional disciplines means that the decolonisation discourse is furthered by strong constraints that seem to be adjacent to each other.

1.9 Acquisition Skills

Marriss (2010) remarks that AD staff development is an on-going process of education, training, learning and support activities and is concerned with helping people to grow within the organisations in which they are employed. Skills acquisition is a vital component of this process of AD staff development. To promote skills acquisition aimed at academic staff development, formal programmes leading to qualifications such as the Postgraduate Diploma in Higher Education (PGDHE) and Master's in Higher Education have been developed (Boughey, 2010). According to the Boughey (2010), there has been a focus on developing the capacity of academic staff as assessors of student learning and the public universities and private providers in this area offer a number of short courses. Shim & Roth (2009) mention that there five levels of skills acquisition: novice, advanced beginner, competent, proficient, and an expert. Eraut (1994) describes experts as those who no longer rely on rules,

guidelines, or maxims; intuitively grasp situations based on deep tacit understanding; use analytic approaches only in a novel situation or when problems occur, and have a vision of what is possible.

Eraut (1994) also argued that professional knowledge is constructed through experience and its nature depends on the cumulative acquisition, selection and interpretation of that experience. The author further asserts that contexts are important for continuing, professional education and a practice context are more problematic than an academic or organizational context because it integrates complex understandings and skills into a partly routinized performance. Eraut (1994) also argued that continuing professional education needs to give strong emphasis to process knowledge that is related to practice contexts. Nevertheless, according to Eraut, it needs to create general professional knowledge from context-specific knowledge by providing time to reflect on the significance of the context (Shim & Roth, 2009). Daley (2000) views the perspective of Eraut as more of an intuitive approach to professional development, which encompasses the ideas of artistry, reflection, and alternative ways of knowing in professional development.

Daley (2000) notes that an intuitive approach differs from professional development that is characterized by rational processes of information processing, problem-solving, decision making, and clinical reasoning and judgment. The author also states the need for a new continuing professional education model that incorporates the professional, the work environment, and the practice itself into education endeavours. Thus, skills acquisition in academic staff development, according to Shim & Rom (2009) should be regarded within the distinctive trend that the Eraut and Daley emphasis, which based on knowledge and expertise in continuing professional education moves from propositional knowledge to practical knowledge or context-related knowledge.

Discussing how skills acquisition happens in Australia, the report of Foster and Roe (1979) based on the findings of a national Australian survey of HEIs, and made the following points:

- Staff development activities include formal courses leading to a qualification. These are, however, not common in Australian universities.

- Staff development activities include short informal courses. These take a variety of forms, ranging from scheduled programmes to impromptu events arranged to suit the needs of a particular group or department.

- Staff development activities include other forms of development, such as seminars, workshops, guidance from a colleague, finding out what other people are doing, the secondment of staff (ranging from a few months to a year) and/or joint inter-institutional research projects.
- Staff development activities are provided in-house or external to the institution on a classroom or self-instruction basis. With regard to the provision of in-house programmes, Forster *et al.,* (1979) note that the research and development units in most Australian universities provide or coordinate staff development activities. In some Australian HEIs where there are no research and development units, advisory committees (known by various names) provide consultations or various development activities.
- Participation in staff development is voluntary.

The challenges for the academic staff include the need to keep abreast of a range of curricular and policy imperatives, as well as acquiring the skills to respond to the needs of students (Marriss, 2010). According to Botha (2009), the lack of support and guidance from government vis-à-vis the Education Training, Development Practices Sector Education, and Training Authority (ETDP SETA), the statutory body to which HEIs are allocated, are hampering staff development in HEIs. Greyling (2001) contends that many institutions of higher education battle with reforming and transforming staff development towards national imperatives since conflicts of interest are imminent between the focus of staff development in HEIs and that of national imperatives.

1.10 Skills Policies and Statutes Implementation in South Africa

The post-independence era has seen the government making varied efforts to ensure they improve the academic staff's skills in higher institutes. Some of the efforts towards skills development and transforming South Africa's education system was the introduction of the Skills Development Act (SDA) in 1998 as well as the implementation

of the first National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS) in February 2001 and the establishment of an integrated National Qualifications Framework (NQF). These policies and statutes (NSDS, NQF and SDA) are aimed at ensuring training and skills development in all public institution including higher institutions. Coetzee (2000) mentions that the Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) established in 2001 are mainly, in collaboration with the Department of Labour, responsible for the implementation of the NSDS.

The Skills Development Act, Act No. 97 of 1998 (Republic of South Africa, 1998) was introduced to help with skills development in public institutes. Botha (2009) mentions that the SDA (Chapters 4 and 5) sets out the development and provision of Learnerships and Skills Programmes that lead towards a qualification and that is directed towards particular workplaces, for example, a Learnership or Skills Programme for Educators in Schooling (teachers) or Higher Education Practitioners (lecturers). The Skills Development Act has had various challenging effects since its implementation in the workplace of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in 1999 (Botha, 2009). According to Botha (2009) scholars like Reiner and Botha (2000), Greyling (2001), Botha (2003) and Van der Westhuizen and Maharasoa (2004) note the challenges pertaining to the integration of AD staff development practices with the requirements of the SDA. Furthermore, Kraak (2004) and Barry (2000) mention that South African public entities are reluctant to integrate their development initiatives with the broader aims of the SDA and that they prefer to focus on narrow company-specific needs for human resources development. Given that South African universities have different contexts influenced by varied histories and missions, lack of clear academic staff development policies has contributed to a lack of enabling model structures for a coherent model of academic development (Quinn, 2006).

1.11 Statement of the problem

Staff development is an on-going process; this involves training and a system that ensures that skills are constantly moulded to improve efficiency in HEIs. Niven (2012) point out that academic development plays an important role in South African universities, and is a critical and intellectual presence in universities in the longer term. Only a few notable studies (Cilliers & Herman, 2010) on professional development in

HEIs have been done in South Africa. Yet, personal development should be ensured so that staff develops in a way that would enhance their ability to perform and realise the organisation goals (Bradley *et al.,* 2008). The University like any institutions has staff development programmes, this takes in form of workshops, training and development seminars and public lectures. While the support structure in terms of development skills look stable, anecdotal evidence pointed out they may be disjoint between what students want and what the academic staff does.

Such instances are evident in a number of departments where student sometimes struggle to write a proposal or progress in their studies, yet they are expected to complete their degree on time (Student Representative Committee, 2016). Considering that this is a localised problem, it is hard to find proof of the problem unless one asks students. Therefore, it is prudent that we investigate the likely cause of this problem (expectations vs. reality) among academic staff. Such an investigation may provide a lasting solution to staff development problems if they do exist. Subsequently, this study seeks to investigate the perceptions of academic staff in staff development programmes at the University.

1.12 Research Questions

The main research is:

What are the academic staff perceptions of the current development programme at the university?

This study's sub-research questions are:

1) Which approaches to academic skills development are used by the university?
2) What are the academic staff perceptions relating to their training and development at the University?
3) What are the approaches towards the improvement of academic skills development at the University?
4) Which challenges face academic staff in their training and development at the University?

1.13 Research objectives

1) To investigate the approaches to Academic Skills Development used by the University.

2) To understand academic staff perceptions relating to training and development at the University.

3) To determine ways of improving academic skills development at the University.

4) To identify the challenges faced by academic staff in their training and development at the University.

1.14 Significance of the study

Following suggestions by Fouché and Deport (2014:107), the researcher would make an effort to demonstrate the usefulness of the study in three broad aspects namely; contribution in the field, relevancy to policy or practice and lastly, the intended target groups. Researchers should pick a topic that is relevant to their profession or field of research, and the study should contribute to the existing knowledge or bridge knowledge gaps in the field (Kumar, 2005:43) advises that researchers should choose a topic which is relevant to their field of study or profession and that the study should add to the existing knowledge or bridge the current gaps in the researcher's field of study. For this reason, the researcher chose a topic related to her discipline in the training and development environment.

This study is significant in that the answers to the three research questions will directly talk to the research objectives and will determine the usefulness of the academic staff development programme. Retna (2007:127) shows how higher education has transformed over time and calls for HEIs to up their standards in response to challenges facing the sector. Globalisation, inadequate resources, increased competition, accountability and demand for quality assurance have contributed towards changing the traditional role of academics and making it easy for them to operate in a complex world (Mostert & Quinn, 2009:1).

1.15 Methodology

The research methodology of this study is grounded upon the qualitative-interpretive approach which allows the investigation of things in their natural settings, attempt to make sense and interpret (Denzim and Lincoln, 2005).

1.15.1 Research paradigm

This study is mainly qualitative; as a result, the focus is on two paradigms that form the basis for conducting a qualitative approach namely the interpretive and realism paradigms. An interpretive paradigm is an approach that aims to understand people (Babbie & Mouton, 2008). It focuses on exploring a social phenomenon to gain an understanding. In other words, Rubin and Babbie (2010) state that interpretivism is about understanding and interpreting everyday events, experiences and social structure. On the other hand, realism is a philosophy that accepts the existence of a reality independent of human behaviour.

Therefore, this study is grounded on the interpretivism paradigm because it wants to understand people perceptions about professional development programmes. Bhaskar (1978) cited in Cruickshank (2007) states that the philosophical position is that reality exists independently of the researcher's mind and that there is the external reality. The external realist consists of abstracts things born in peoples, minds, although existing independently to any person (Magee, 1985). For instance, person perceptions are an external reality. Sobh and Perry (2005) note that social phenomena by nature are fragile, and the causal impacts are not fixed.

1.15.2 Research approach

The researcher chose the interview approach on the basis that the study aims to find perceptions of academic staff about academic staff development programmes. This approach would help the researcher to probe further in order to understand those perceptions in detail. Having closed-ended questionnaires would have limited the interview in understanding why the participants chose a certain option of the other.

1.15.3 Research design

For the purposes of this study, the researcher used a qualitative phenomenology. Leedy and Omrod (2010) point out that a phenomenological study attempts to understand people perceptions, perspectives and views of a particular situation. The phenomenological approach, therefore, aims to understand and interpret the meaning that participants give to their everyday life. Consequently, a qualitative research design

was chosen to conduct this study because the researcher aims to understand people perceptions.

1.15.4 Sampling

This study involves five faculties of the selected University. A purposive sampling technique was used to select the respondents. Cheteni (2017) pointed out that a purposive sampling technique is whereby the researcher selects participants based on their expertise to a subject matter. This helps in fulfilling the trustworthiness of the information that received since the respondents are part of the programme under investigation. The sample target for the interview was 15 staff members. This number was chosen arbitrarily on the basis that interviews are time-consuming and in certain instances, staff were busy. While this number is not representative, Denscombe (2014) pointed out interviews do not need a big sample because it is practically hard to survey a big population, and besides they are meant to draw insight to a problem.

1.15.5 Data collection instruments

The interview approach was selected on the basis that the study was measuring perceptions of academic staff about staff development programmes. According to Neuman (2014), an interview involves a one-on-one verbal interaction between the respondents and the researcher. The interview guide consists of the following topics: current perceptions of staff development, knowledge gained from such programmes and the impact of those programme on their teaching capabilities. Consequently, the study will be composed of open-ended questions.

1.15.6 Data analysis

A thematic analysis method was used to analyse the data gathered during interviews. The method allows determining the patterns or themes within the interviews to explain the perceptions of academic staff on the staff development programme.

1.15.7 Data trustworthiness

Every effort was made to maintain the trustworthiness of the study. Every participant will be allowed to verify or review his/her statements for completeness or accuracy. In turn, this will improve the credibility of the study.

Table 1.1: The criteria for assessing the trustworthiness

Question asked	Issue	Qualitative
1. Have we really measured what we set out to measure?	Truth value	Credibility
2. How applicable are our results to other subjects and other context?	Applicability	Transferability
3. Would our findings be replicated if our research were replicated in the same context with the same subject?	Consistency	Dependability
4. To what extend are our findings affected by person bias and interest?	Neutrality	conformability

1.16 Delimitation of the study

This study is limited to the targeted university and academic staff because of its reasonable proximity which allows data collection to be flexible and manageable. Consequently, it should not be generalised to other universities**.**

1.17 Definition of terms

Academic Staff - refers the full-time academic employee appointed to facilitate learning (teach), do research community development and any other related work at

the institution and any other employee designated as such by the council. The study adopts the aforementioned definition of an academic staff.

Programme – are efforts meant to develop the knowledge and skills needed for the provision of information in global and communication environment. This involves the delivery of seminars, conferences and workshops (Kaur, 2012). In this study, academic staff programme is anything that leads to the improvement of one's individual teaching and learning competencies using various tools.

Staff development - According to Bubb and Earley (2007) staff development encompasses experiences that enable individual and with others, to think about what they are doing, enhance their skills and knowledge, encourage a commitment to professional and personal growth.

Skill development - the ability to and capacity acquired through systematic and sustained effort to smoothly and adaptively carryout complex activities or job functions involving ideas, things and people (Business Dictionary, 2017). In this study skills development is the ability and capacity of an individual to add value to their organisation and for their career development.

1.18 Chapter outline

- Chapter one provides the introduction and the background of the study, problem statement, significance and limitations of the study.
- Chapter two provides a review of the relevant literature with regards to the problem under study.
- Chapter three then offers a methodology and procedures that will be used to gather data, and how the data will be analysed.
- Chapter four contains the discussion and findings of the study.
- Lastly, chapter five concludes the study and provides recommendations on the way forward.

CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of academic development literature in the South African context, then it progresses to the general view in the African context. In addition, different opinions and views pertaining to the topic under study are considered. Lastly, a summary is provided to conclude the chapter.

2.2 Overview of the university

In over 900 years of existence, universities have always transformed in response to global pressures such as politics, cultural and economic needs (Chabaya, 2015). Long ago the university served the purpose of enlightenment, and the grand narrative focuses on the production of liberal and reason subjects (McNeely, 2009, Readings, 1999). However, lately things have changed, the university is more focused on developing human resources for the labour markets. As argued by Readings (1999), increasingly, the university has evolved as a site of human resource development for the marketplace rather than of national culture. Consumerist ideology has forced the university to abandon its traditional function (Chabaya, 2015). Furthermore, Immenda (2006) underscores that contemporary university is challenged to produce knowledge through research and consultancy which can have an impact on the world (government, industry and people) because of its value.

Additionally, the university no longer is a site that seeks to develop a unified theory but rather it is a conduit for diverse conversations about the nature of a particular problem (Tierney, 2001). Ulrich (2010) it is also noted that academic driftǁ and initiative, competition for being ranked among world-class universities prevail. Arguably the purposes of a university have become multifaceted including the traditional one that is the development of reason, production of knowledge (research) and production of skilled graduates to serve commerce and the promotion of equality among citizens through social democracy (Chabaya, 2015). The author further mentions that academic staff development is part of the strategy meant to make the

university achieve its purpose. As such, the change in the nature of universities is interlinked with the transformation of academic development in universities.

According to Grant *et al.,* (2009), the 1960s was a period of the ushering of education development in higher education, coinciding with rapid technology changes, changing the role of higher education, and the massification of higher education. In the larger context, higher education internationally has undergone significant shifts in form and identity over its lifetime (Council of Higher Education (CHE), 2016). Hassan (2011) asserts that the modern world is ‘supercomplex' and as noted by Barnett (2000) it has given rise to new images, new discourses, innovative technology and super complexity in higher education.

Commenting on the growing changes in higher education as well as revealing the need for academic staff development, Quinn (2012) raised a pertinent issue. The author poses a question on what is needed to ensure that there is "epistemological access" for a variety of student in the contemporary HEIs, the student does not enter the system with social, cultural and educational resources. In order for universities to ensure that, the different students that are coming from different systems from different geographical locations with different backgrounds are accommodated to the extent that they adequately have epistemological access, professional development and proper structures are essential.

As raised by Altbach (2004) the concept of internationalization is not new in Higher Education, however pertinent to this study is the shape and purpose of the internationalization, which has undergone many changes. The role and impact of internationalization on academic staff development have been growing. According to Leask and Beelen (2009) internationalisation became a key issue in higher education when it was primarily focussed on issues related to "physical mobility, academic cooperation and academic knowledge transfer”.

The authors note that the intercultural and international context has led to the preparation of staff, faculty and students to function in a dynamic environment and globalisation has made it easier for institutions of higher education to respond to challenges in the economy and labour markets. For instance, universities in Australia,

the US and the UK face insurmountable pressure from business, government, information and communication technology (ITC), quality of ideology and internationalisation of higher education, and the desire to be competitive and attract students for admission (Lazecky and Badger, 2008; Scott and Scott, 2005). Conclusively, Makondo and Makondo (2014) claim that contemporary pressure in higher education, massification are a product of globalisation which has massive structural effects.

Due to massification and competitive nature that has escalated in the higher education domain, universities are now underperformance scrutiny. Shattock (2003) posit that organisational performance is achieved through teaching and research. Performance indicators in the university global rankings and national league tables have an impact on how the university management responds or make decisions (Dill and Soo, 2005; Hazelkorn, 2007). The highest profile and well-established university ranking systems comprise of the Times Higher Education (THE) World University Rankings and the Shanghai Jiao Tong University's (SJTU) Academic Ranking of World Universities (HEA 2013). Murphy (2014) mentions that with respect to the research performance of universities the indicators used by these two ranking systems include:

- Reputational survey on research;
- Research income;
- Papers per academic;
- Citation impact;
- Papers published in the Journals Nature and Science;
- Staff winning Nobel Prizes and Fields Medals.

This monitoring of performance has a two-way effect. It can better the performance of academic staff but it can also be detrimental. For example, as mentioned by Broadhead and Howard (1998), the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) in the UK

was criticised by academics who feel that it is an overly intrusive accountability mechanism that has impaired their academic freedom and that it is discouraging complex or radical research which does not fit into the four-year assessment cycle.

Moreover, the additional pressure it puts on academic staff to increase their publication output can have negative consequences for the quality of teaching (Broadhead and Howard 1998; Elton 2000). This is viewed in some way as impeding academic staff development. Dill and Soo (2005) have voiced their concern that the university management decisions that are made to better the institutions position in the rankings could jeopardise activities like teaching and engagement as they are not measured, and hence are undervalued in ranking methodologies.

2.3 The problem with university teaching

According to Mundy *et al.,* (2012), most academics have never taken a course in pedagogy and andragogy. As a result, most academic are disciple experts without any formal teaching qualifications. They tend to teach the way they were taught regardless of their institutional affiliating, and student diversity. Therefore, they tend to rely on pedagogies created through observations (Blanton and Stylianon, 2009). Scott and Scott (2005) point out that out teaching approaches are outdated and inappropriate leading to poor quality learning. University teaching is usually characterised by poor alignment between course and outcomes, as well as learning activities. Darling–Harmmond (2010) state that the teaching mode is mainly focused on lecturing with limited student engagement into the interactive dialogue.

Knaper (2010) claims that the increase in lecturing is mainly due to high student-instructor ratios. Nonetheless, literature pointed out that the weakness in teaching is that teaching weakness are not subjected to inspection by other academics. This, in turn, perpetuates the status quo. At the same time, Badger (2007) notes that universities lack managers who supervise departments. The rotation or election of potential managers affects university teaching, something not found in the corporate world.

2.4 Effective Academic Staff Development Programme

Merriam (2001) states that for professional development to be a success, it must include a level of autonomy and control in the choice of topic and process of engagement. This means that professional development programmes must take into account adult professional and personal experiences. Thus, academic practitioners should make the participants appreciate the value of the content and learning experiences within the programmes they offer. Because AD can be an intrinsic way of motivating participants.

Howson (2012) pointed out that AD staff development programmes should be structured according to different professional needs among academics if the programme is to be successful. For instance, Brancto (2008) claim that faculty development initiatives should be focused on helping academics to reflect on their teaching and making links with their skills. Faculty development programmes are strategically aligned and development, and sustainable over time, therefore, they are likely to encourage a teaching perspective and promote continuous learning. Unplanned development is seen as high reactive, ad poor targeted (Tynan & Lee, 2009). Therefore, the implication is that faculty members should be treated as adult learners who can contribute to the programme. In this regard, experience from adult learners can be used as part of the programme.

An effective programme is expected to cover enough content and have an active engagement that will assist participants to experience learning that assists them to conceptualise teaching. However, it is very important that initiatives that support faculty learning should be in harmony with student learning. Dixon and Scott (2008) found that negative student feedback acted as a motivator for academics who engage in learning and teaching development programmes. Negative feedback is very detrimental to academics because it reduces their levels of self-esteem and efficacy. Consequently, an effective AD programme should focus on positive feedback due to its motivation effect on staff (Scott, Issa & Issa, 2008). Lastly, the programme should integrate theory and practice in many ways.

Although academic development programmes have existed over 40 years, the impact of their effectiveness has somewhat ambiguous. Devlin (2008) point out that the interventions on teacher development influence have not been answered in higher education. We need to know what really works and how it works to channel the limited resources to what works. Nonetheless, they are a huge debate on the impact of academic development programmes in terms of what is measured, how it is to measure and how to assess the impacts. Southwell and Morgan (2010) found that short training courses, which present skill-based topics, have little impact on teaching due to the limited opportunity to change teacher's conceptions of teaching and their failure to apply new techniques with a specific context. Meanwhile, intensive and comprehensive programmes are said to influence teacher beliefs and behaviours and may lead to a student-focused approach to teaching.

Spronken-Smith and Harland (2009) point out that the effects of the academic development programmes are more significant in communities of practice, mentoring and action learning. Peseta and Manathunga (2007) state that, when academic development, which focuses on curriculum design and practice, is presented within communities of practice which shared common goals, academic staff value the programme. Wahr (2008) highlights the importance of context by alluding to the fact that AD designed specifically to meet the needs of staff within their disciple reduces barriers to learning.

Numerous studies (Bennet & Barp, 2008; Toth & McKey, 2010) focus on peer review or observation as a strategy for professional development. Byrne *et al.,* (2010) call for a diversity in teaching and in-depth approaches, which encompass teaching settings today, including one-off teaching session dominating the programme. Peer review was said to be successful because of ownership is taken by the academics involved. Failure to take ownership, a top-down approach encourages compliance rather than engagement with teaching and learning matters (Byrne *et al.,* 2010).

In another study, Allen (2010) focused on peer review, the scholarship of teaching and teaching portfolios as a means of academic development and found that by using theoretical understandings to review the portfolios, participants were able to move beyond an interest in learning to a deeper analysis of their teaching. Yet, Blaisdell *et*

al., (2004) point out that only new academic benefit in peer interacting forms part of academic development.

2.5 Academic Staff Development Globally

In recent years, most countries in the world have undergone or are undergoing transformational processes strongly influenced by global trends and pressures, and these, in turn, have influenced and are influencing higher education systems all over the world (Quinn, 2012). In a broad sense, globalisation has created multifaceted challenges for institutions of higher learning. These challenges range from over top-notch academic programmes, to having a robust staff support unit. All this is done to remain competitive in face of intense competition, and at the same time keep the institutions viable for the near future. In Europe, in line to initiatives meant to stimulate research and development in higher institutions, the 2017 Annual Work Programme was implemented.

The framework targets to improve cooperation in education and training in higher institutions and other areas. The European cooperation in education and training (ET2020) pursued an open method of coordination in ensuring skills for employability and innovation to active citizenship. Accordingly, the ET2020 identified areas that were to be reinforced to improve the performance of education and training systems to respond to social needs. The following are the some of the targeted priorities by the 2017 Annual Work Programme:

- Open and innovation practices, with priorities for learning materials and tools, as well as innovative methods and pedagogies;

- Achievement of high-quality skills and competencies, and support individuals to develop key competencies in order to improve professional development and socio education. This involves the support of actions that improve approaches in carrying out education;

- Strengthening the recruitment, induction and selection of educators for the teaching profession, as well as activities that promote high-quality training and

youth work. Thus, the programme supports the professional development of educators such as teachers, tutors, professors to name a few;

- Priority actions that facilitate employability and labour mobility in different levels and types of education and training;

- Lastly, supporting actions that improve investment and funding in education, training and youth policies.

The programme aims to promote cooperation in terms of mobility for Europeans and Non-European partner countries in higher education institutions, with the aim of modernising higher education to less developed parts of the world. This includes structured courses, training events and teaching assignments in partner institutions abroad.

In Ecuador, staff development led to changes in three levels namely: personal competence development, the transformation of performance routine teaching, and influenced the organisational development of universities beyond teachings approaches alone (Barth & Rieckmann, 2012). Four aspects were also found to be of relevance namely, the importance of interdisciplinary, linking theory and practice, informal learning and leadership approach.

In the Philippines, universities seek to be recognised internationally for their research; as a result, the government developed policies to improve existing research training (Commission of Higher Education, 2007). The government also collaborated with international universities to build research capacity. However, Bernando (2007) pointed out that students were not equipped with the necessary skills to undertake research. Calma (2014) found that the most pressing challenges for universities was meeting the dual demands of teaching and research, as well as, developing competencies among staff and students.

Meanwhile, in the United Kingdom (UK), the government prioritised the needed to increase the availability of higher-level skills because of its importance to the economy. Crossick (2010) stated that universities were central to the success of

rebalancing the economy. In line to this development, universities are increasingly expected to undertake business activities, and this might range from placements, teaching employability skills and teaching learners to work with business knowledge transfer (Helyer, 2012).

Even though there are some challenges, works by scholars such as Deborah & Gilding (2007) and Goody & Ingram (2001) depict that Australia appears to have made significant progress in the area of academic staff development. An Australian Learning and Teaching Council project are known as embedding the development of intercultural competence in Business education provided some insights into strategies of academic development and what is the need to effect improvement.

According to Leask and Beelen (2009) to encourage the adoption and long-term survival of change, including changes associated with internationalisation of the curriculum, through staff engagement, the project found that such things as the creation of resources for academic staff and opportunities for their professional development, while important, were in themselves insufficient to ensure long-term engagement of academic staff and thus the survival of innovations. Therefore, according to Freeman *et al.,* (2009), it is also necessary to win the hearts and minds of leaders at various levels distributed across the organisation. These leaders are then able to be instrumental in introducing and sustaining innovations into their communities of practice (Leask and Beelen, 2009).

2.6 Why academic development?

UNESCO report (1994) pointed out that a major feature in African universities was the transformation agenda that was born out of democracy and opened access to higher education. As pointed out by Bermingham (2011), academic development is no longer for the elite but for the disfranchised as well. Therefore, the new dispensation demand that education and training should be of higher quality and standard. Quinn (2012) point out those traditional teaching approaches have many shortcomings in terms of providing quality learning.

A good AD programme is considering in the end as a strategy that plays a role in developing the pedagogical skills required to promote quality. Higher investment in higher education means that graduates are expected to hold high skills of problem-solving, communication and creativity (Holmer *et al.,* 2010). A new paradigm shift means that new skills are demand from graduates' students entering their working life. As a result, higher education institutions are expected to provide needs for the learner.

Ramsden (2013) pointed out that an emerging trend in teaching academics challenge them to expand their range of skills and strategies, which enable institutions to meet their competitiveness. Thus, professional development is then seen as a driving force of change in students learning experiences. This means that professional development is seen as an ethical and moral obligating that promotes an open and equal access to knowledge by students. This quest is further affirmed by the government agenda in terms of providing quality and value of moved education my supporting academic development. Brady and Bates (2015) identify issues of institutional accountability and financial constraints as some of the education development that has raised the profile of academic staff development in universities. This has led to institutions competing for international high achieving students to give much consideration to teaching and learning.

2.7 Importance of academic development

Transformation, change and reforms define the educational landscape, with nations globally striving to improve the performance and competencies of professional development (Jita & Mokhele, 2014). Dixon, Yssel, McConeell and Hardin (2014) point out that the rapid change is brought about when there are curriculum changes or if there is a change in assessment practices. Literature both local and international highlights that academic professional development is a need for many institutions (Abdelaziz, 2013). Therefore, senior managers should prioritise ongoing staff training and development to provide adequate resources for effective teaching and learning (King, 2011). Greenwood (2010) pointed out that academic teachers are exposed to traditional methods of development such workshops and seminars, instead of foundational knowledge and multicultural education.

Foundational knowledge is defined as both pedagogical and subject content knowledge that a lecturer obtains through a formal academic qualification from a university. Greenwood (2010) adds that there must be academic professional autonomy and freedom when academic professional courses are designed. In most cases, the management decides on the type of programmes that would be targeted at the lecturing staff, something which has proved to be a fruitless exercise considering that academic staff face different challenges in the classroom and need a different type of training. Luneta (2012) pointed out that the social and educational environment is ever-changing, as a result, professional development is a necessity. In South Africa, HEIs have been under tremendous pressure due to instability caused by the on-going strikes that result in fewer teaching days and overcrowded classrooms (Scherer, 2012). As a result, lecturers are under pressure to perform and must be supported by professional development programmes.

The literature on academic staff development highlights the importance of theoretical knowledge and collaborative learning from experience (Mayer & Lloyd, 2011). This is illustrated in figure 2.1.

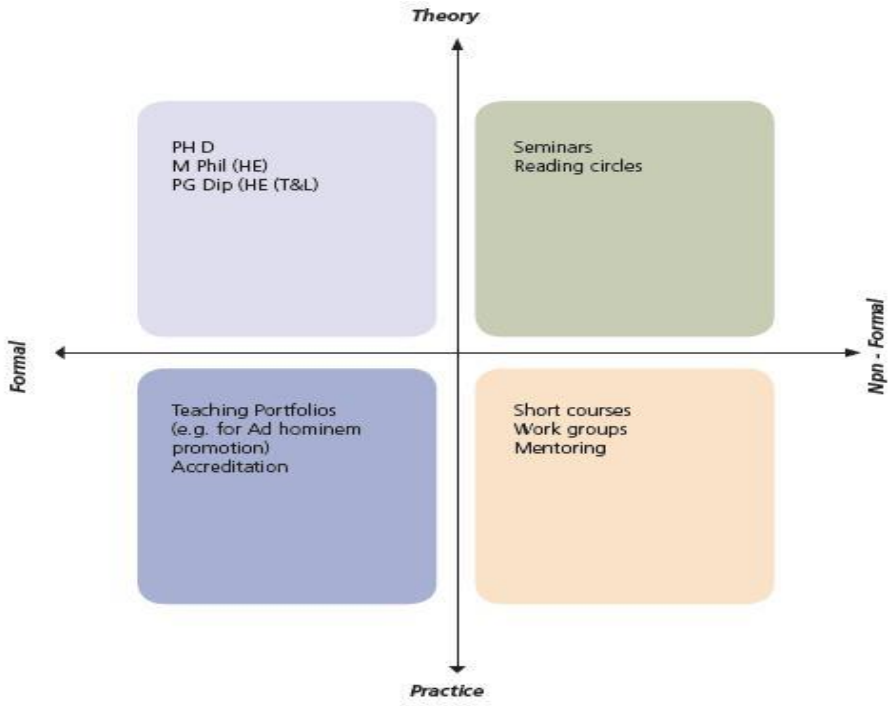


Figure 2.1: Professional development learning activities

2.8 Approaches to Academic Skills Development

A number of HEI have given support to initiatives that improve the quality of teaching and learning. Given the importance of academic development, this section will attempt to provide a summary of relevant literature about the topic at hand.

There is a number of approaches that are used in professional skills development. This section aims to provide a summary of some of the approaches used in skills development.

2.8.1 Student-focus approach

While numerous scholars (Deborah and Gilding 2007; Scott and Scott, 2005) point out that there is no superior approach in staff development, there is an on-going debate on the best approach. The student approach focus on encouraging faculty members to examine their teaching and learning practices through a reflective inquiry. This involves student feedback acting as an input in the development process. However, Richardson (2005) holds reservation on the student making a judgement on teaching practices on the basis that they lack competencies. However, there is a consensus among academics that the best approach takes into consideration the cultural and structural context of HEI. Ignoring the institution historical context, mission and vision may be detrimental in choosing the right approach. Consequently, an approach that ignores the historical context of the institution is bound to produce skewed outcomes.

On the student approach, Makondo (2014) recommends enhanced scholarship of teaching which ensures that, with reference to students, learning facilitation is able to give students that ability to 'crack the code', intellectual power, through access to the concepts, theories and methods of enquiry and analysis generated within particular specialist discourses, and social power, through membership of knowledge communities which may control decision making, professional practice and employment opportunities. Spratt, Weaver, Mashill and Kish (2001) argued for approaches to academic staff development initiatives that are proactive and innovative and are informed by the complexities and educational problems that arise in practice.

2.8.2 Communities approach

According to Knapper (2010), staff development has been tradition centralised to provide support to teaching and learning. However, the impact and success of professional development is partly dependent on enabling cultural and structural conditions that are found in institutions of higher education (Boud, 1999; D'Andrea and Gosling, 2005; Quinn, 2006). Scott and Dixon (2009) point out that the traditional centralised model fails in facilitating continuous learning and teaching across university faculties.

Scott, Issa and Issa (2008) claim that an academic development programme should be characterised by the sharing of ideas and interactivity of participants for it to be effective. In certain instances, it is offered to a limited number of participants who are novice, insecure and poor performing, and it consists of workshops without critical engagement (Dixon and Scott, 2008).

The traditional approach was not a favourable one in meeting HEI demands. Scott and Dixon (2009) point out that the failures of the centralised traditional approach were evidenced across universities faculties. On the contrary Frigo and O'Kelly (2010) point out that it becomes imperative to embrace a coherent approach to improving academic work. Therefore, to transform academics, there is a need to situate programmes of professional development within the teaching sites. Becher and Trowler (2000) mention that academic staff should be conducted in departments which are sites in which academics inhabit and cultivate disciplinary knowledge. Henkel (2005) also notes that: many academic values were embedded in concepts of the discipline and often expressed in a language shared by members of the discipline. Goody & Ingram (2001) assert that it has become imperative for academic staff development to embrace a more holistic and coherent approach to enhancing academic work.

2.8.3 Cross-disciplinary approach

According to Leask *et al.,* (2005), there need to be concentrated efforts were activities should be centralised so as to strengthen the weakness of other approaches used in skills development. This may help participants will share ideas from diverse backgrounds. Deborah and Guilding (2007) highlight that the challenge is for

professional development to seek models that support long-term change in a climate where faculties and departments are reluctant to support centrally based services. Interdisciplinary learning should acknowledge the differences brought about by various approaches to enhance teaching and learning (Grace *et al.,* 2004).

Concurring Chabaya (2015) also mentions that while disciplinary differences are important and should be acknowledged, there is need to note the advantages of interdisciplinary learning. Chabaya (2015) further argued that the argument is that a combined approach can enhance learning since participants will share ideas from the diversity of these groups. However, Hicks (1999) posits that the cross-disciplinary model suffers a major weakness of lack of coordination and has the potential for duplication.

2. 9 Teamwork and mentoring as a model for AD

Teamwork is essential for the improvement of teaching and learning. According to Sparks (2013), four things need to identified to make an effective team namely: 1) purpose of the team; 2) the accountability f each member; 3) the structure of the team, and 4) trust shared amongst team members. However, spark reiterate those simple grouping people to form a team may not be effective. Meanwhile, Kao (2012) advocates for academic collaboration on the basis that a working culture encourages innovation among teachers and creates advanced knowledge whereby each participant partners with each other.

Teamwork does boost the confidence and morale of the staff. Steyn (2010) puts that, teacher's gain valuable experience in the workplace and professional development supported by mentoring, leadership and staff interaction is the preferred model. Templeton and Tremont (2014) point out that professional development and mentoring are options to improve professionalism and moral for teachers and learners. Rodgers and Skelton (2013) suggest that mentoring allows stronger teachers to assist weaker ones by sharing knowledge, skills and resources.

2.10 Collaboration

Kao (2012) argued that collaboration contributes to faculty development and student education by promoting the transfer of knowledge and quality education. This view is held by Ho and Arthuer-Kelly (2013) who suggest that a collaborative approach is needed in professional development were experienced and novice teachers act as consultants. Sparks (2013) point out that it imperative that a framework is discussed by team members so as to understand the purpose of the team and decisions taken. Carlisle (2011) pointed out that collaboration among teachers may lead to connectedness although it does not necessarily lead to school improvement. However, Phelps (2012) opines that collaborative professional development leads to teachers staying current and being able to network with each other. Nevertheless, Baran (2010) pointed out the size of the group plays a huge role in collaborative learning and instead recommends smaller groups.

2.11 Job-embedded development

According to Hansen-Thomas, Casey and Grosso (2013), job-embedded and hands-on training is a preferred model for effective professional development programme. Furthermore, the authors point out that professional development must include learning content and knowledge of the learner. Clercq (2013) states that job-embedded teacher development programmes allow teachers to gain experience and new knowledge by sharing ideas, beliefs and reflective practices to improve their leaner achievements in class. Likewise, Stewart (2014) pointed out that learning in a professional environment is more successful than individual learning. Suggesting that if learning embedded within job it produces more outcomes that are positive. Mukeredzi (2013) notes that teachers develop academically through their roles as educators in a classroom.

2.12 Challenges of Academic Development (AD)

One of the major challenges of the AD in South Africa is the over-reliance on the cultural way of doing things and not improving what already exists. Universities have come to assume that individuals possessing a doctorate degree have the capacity to teach and carry out the other roles encompassed by the academic profession (Pilbeam, 2009). Similarly, when an academic is appointed to a management position,

it is often assumed that management skills will simply emerge as the individual takes on such roles and responsibilities (Brew, 1995).

Boughey (2010) purports that although much has been learned in the 25 or so years since the inception of the AD movement in South Africa, the tendency to rely on common-sense rather than on theory and research is still evident amongst newcomers to the field and, even more significantly, amongst mainstream academic staff. Sharing a similar view, Makondo (2014) remarks that academic developers need to conduct needs analysis at their universities as a way of getting to know of the requisite needs of their institutions. The continued dominance of common sense (and the calls for practice this gives rise to) is partly due to the status of the field of AD itself on the 'margins' of institutional life (Boughey, 2010). Boughey, (2009) argued that it is only where practitioners have managed to acquire status by attaining doctoral level qualifications, researching, and publishing that AD has moved from the margins although, even then, there is evidence that it still is not always central to the academic endeavour as understood by mainstream academics.

A number of academics in universities do not have any formal teaching qualifications. Makondo (2014) alludes that it is a known truism that the majority of university teaching staff members are not trained on pedagogical issues yet they hired to demonstrate effectiveness in facilitating teaching and learning. Mundy *et al.,* (2012) also concur with this assertion pointing out that academics have never taken a course involving pedagogy. In the same vein, Makondo (2010) pointed out that many academics have only a rudimentary grasp of the basic principles of teaching and learning since few have studied the educational aspects of their profession. Therefore, they are bound to teach the way they were taught regardless of institutional differences, students' numbers and diversity. As pointed out by Scott and Scott (2005), most teaching approaches are inappropriate and outdated leading to poor quality of learning.

Even though this is partly contributed by poor alignment of university courses and outcomes. Scott and Scott (2005) further state that there is poor assessment leading to a failure of understanding among students. On the same note, Darling-Harmmond (2010) posit that teaching is greatly biased towards lecturing which has limited engagement with students. This has increased due to a high student to instruction

ratios (Knapper, 2010). Luzeckyi and Badger (2007) view this problem as caused by a lack of permanent managers to supervise departments. The usual norm is that each member (faculty manager) is nominated through rotation or election in a department. Consequently, university teaching is affected by this norm.

Even though there has been a lot of transformation in the higher education domain, there are concerns about the clear-cut policies that help to encourage academic staff development. Quinn (2006) highlights that given the fact that South African universities have different contexts influenced by varied histories and missions; lack of clear academic staff development policies have contributed to a lack of enabling model structures for a coherent model of academic development. Hardy and Smith (2006) call for a balancing of strategy in handling these policies‖ to ensure the positive effect of quality assurance and performance appraisal policies towards the quality of learning and teaching.

The other challenge that is encountered during staff development is lack of awareness about the staff development programmes. For programmes to be successful there is always a need to ensure that there is awareness of the programmes and the need to participate in the programmes. Gosling (2008) a programme, which meets the training, needs of the participants will be associated with high levels of motivation and attendance which are both a measure of success and sustainability of a programme. Raising awareness will ensure that the academics are more willing to participate in the development programmes that might be introduced by higher education institutions.

Chabaya (2015) mentions that academic staff development might satisfy all the conditions for the successful implementation of a programme in terms of supporting policies and structures, appropriate approaches and models as well as credible academic development practitioners but if lecturers do not appreciate the need on their part for training, the activities planned will not have an impact in higher education. Boughey (2005) and Gosling (2007) have championed the academic development movement in HEIs by challenging academics to participate in the professionalization of university teaching to improve the quality of teaching.

2.13 Awareness of staff development programmes

The failure or success of any programme depends on the need for it by participants, and their levels of attendance and motivation (Gosling, 2008). However, Viskovic (2006) state that the conditions of successfully implementing a programme might be satisfied, however, if the academic staff do not appreciate the need for training, the activities of the programme would not have any impact on higher education. Subsequently, the investment poured in such programmes would turn to be ineffective in terms of producing the desired changes in the quality of learning and teaching. One possible reason is that lecturers may lack the desire for further training because of the low value associated with teaching (Chabaya, 2015).

Quinn (2012) point to the idea that teaching is viewed as a common sense activity, hence associated with undervaluing teaching. On the other hand, research is often viewed positively because of its power to attract rewards and recognition (Donnelly, 2006). Therefore, this can contribute to a lack of interest by academics in places where teaching is promoted. Coates, Dobson, Edwards and Friedman (2009) who note that academics see themselves as researchers than teachers also hold this view. Mangematin (2000) pointed out that holding a PhD and having publications is a stronger criterion for recruitment teachers because of its high probability of increasing faculty quality in terms of dissertations produced. This perception suggests that university lecturers may see no motivation in taking an AD programme seriously because teaching is not recognised.

2.14 Misconceptions about AD

Literature is inundated with a view that misconceptualisation of AD is partly the root of the negative attitude of academics towards it. This arises on the assumption that AD is not based on any disciple and lacks legitimacy in terms of standards, practices and literature (Kogan, 2000). Rowland (2002) pointed out that this viewpoint leads to AD programmes views as generic practical and instrumental activity. Therefore, the AD programme has not been integrated into university cultures and traditions because academics lack confidence in the practice of AD. However, Rowland (2002) suggested that AD should not be presented as a discipline but an inquiry.

According to literature, department culture has a huge influence on how teaching is viewed. Luzeckyi and Badger (2007) claim that academic practises and traditions have a huge influence on staff development programmes. Academic earn their identity through disciple they have trained in (Luzeckyi &Badger, 2007). Departmental cultures tend to affect AD negatively. Therefore, it may be worthwhile to appoint a department coordinator to support staff who undergo academic staff development programmes in order to minimise departmental cultures.

2.15 Perceptions linked to disciple

AD perception is said to be influenced by disciplines. Blanton and Stylianon (2009) this turns out to be a challenge since one comes as a participant to the department professional development as an expert than a teaching scholar. As pointed by Weller (2011), lecturers have compelled to retina their identities as scholars in their discipline and resist new identities. In a way, academic construct their identity through disciplinary rather than through teaching (Chabaya, 2015). Due to this, disciplines are a major source of their identity (Mackenna, 2004). Gosling (2009) pointed out that AD is a field that has no boundaries and it might be identified as a non-scientific field that demands research. Therefore, the AD may be a field were most academic staff are not comfortable to venture into because of the identities they hold.

2.16 The nexus between teaching and research

Scholars (Marsh, 2011; Weller, 2011) point out that teaching and learning in AD seem to be affected by competition research and teaching. In other, there is a positive relationship between teaching and research. However, Elton (2009) pointed out that research is considered more prestigious than teaching. The reason being that research is mainly used as a criterion for promotion over teaching. Consequently, research policies in many institutions of higher learning do not motive academics o engage in AD programmes. Martin (2012) content that policies in higher education reward academics based on research output.

Therefore, this has an effect of marginalising teaching since even professorship is linked to research. This takes place despite calls by the government to raise the quality of teaching. Lack of rewards associated with teaching has been accorded a low status

by academics. Hunt (2007) notes that training courses are problematic in institutions where teaching has a lower status. The implication is that AD should be used to promote both teaching and research, instead of furthering the competition between the two.

2.17 Effects of training and development on professionalism

In the previous two decades, there has emerged a growing body of literature on in-service training and professional development and how they impact professionalism (Frelin, 2013). The literature attempts to explain how the enhancement of professionalism through further training and development leads to improved student satisfaction and performance (Strong, Fletcher & Villar, 2004). To clearly understand the relationship between training and development and professionalism, there is a need to explore various definitions of professionalism put forward by different authors.

According to Edmond and Hayler (2013), there is no concise, clear and presently relevant definition of professionalism around which to rally. What has emerged is that almost everyone has his or her own mental picture of particular value and qualities that represent professionalism and some of these are widely accepted across various professions.

Ludwig (2013:1) outlined that, 'professionalism encompasses so much more than what we typically think of as professional conduct. In addition to conduct, three additional themes are highlighted: professionalisation, humanism, and cultural competence. Developing and maintaining a code of conduct, professional identity, commitment to humanism, and understanding of varied cultures and backgrounds takes time and effort not only at the outset of one's career but throughout the entire span of one's professional practice'

The term "professionalism" is a construct of attribution, meaning it consists of various traits, characteristics, behaviours and qualities that are attributed to those that others hold in high esteem, especially colleagues in the same profession (Strong, Fletcher & Villar, 2004). Qualities commonly accepted as attributing to professionalism are respect, altruism, accountability, submission to a professions ethical code, integrity,

lifelong learning, compassion, honesty, excellence and self-regulation(Edmond & Hayler, 2013).

Bates, Swennen and Jones(2011) point out that professional academics focus on the development of their students as their first concern. In addition, they show high levels of competence and excellence, they establish and also maintain cordial relations with colleagues and students, they keep on updating their skills and knowledge to meet new demands in the academic field (Strong, Fletcher & Villar, 2004). Lastly, they act with integrity, honesty and are trustworthy and tolerant.

A research by Jacob and Lefgren (2012) indicate professionalism is intertwined with every single competency required with a profession. Bates, Swennen and Jones (2011) suggest that for one to maintain adequate levels competences require within a particular profession there is a need for the constant updating one's knowledge base and skills through training and professional development programmes. Training and development are important in maintaining professionalism because it is the vehicle through which attributes professionalism is enhanced to meet the new demands of a particular profession (Jakku-Sihvonen, Niemi, 2004).

For, example, one of the attributes of professionalism is excellence. To maintain higher levels of excellence there is a need for continuous training and development to gain new skills necessary for achieving excellence (Davidson, 2008). Davey (2013) posit that in the academic profession even experienced academics are confronted with new challenges which require them to undergo professional development and further training. Identified challenges include new teaching and instructional methods, technological advances, changed procedures and laws and new learning needs for students (Edmond & Hayler, 2013). Research has revealed that academics who do not regularly go through training and development do not improve their skills and as result, they have their level of professionalism negatively affected (Strong, Fletcher & Villar, 2004).

In the academic profession, relevant training and development should three levels of results which are: (a) academics are equipped with new skills and knowledge through their participation; (b) academics use what they would have learnt to improve teaching

and leadership; and (c) student knowledge and achievements increase because academics apply what they would have learnt (Frelin, 2013). Strong, Fletcher and Villar (2004) believe that when administrators become better leaders and academics become more effective and apply what they learn so that students achieve at higher levels, professional development is worth the cost and professionalism are maintained.

2.18 Conclusion

The success of universities in the highly competitive and changing environment that is being experienced in higher education today, lies in the capabilities to develop their academic staff. The chapter discussed the main issues around academic development. The chapter gives definitions of what academic development is. There was a look into Higher Education and the link with academic development.

Furthermore, the chapter discusses academic in South Africa, focusing on how the history shaped academic development in Higher Education institutions. The global trends in academic development are also highlighted in this chapter. The discussion is narrowed done to the regional issues that are pertinent to academic development. The approaches that are used for academic development are also discussed. The last phase of the chapter looks into the challenges that affect academic development. From those challenges, there are issues that are going to be examined by the study with the aim of contributing to the improvement of the academic development.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The chapter presented essential information on the different research designs and the one chosen for this study, the research methodologies, and the research philosophies applied as well as issues on the research site. Further, the chapter presented discussions on the study population, sampling strategies and techniques, selection of a proper sample and the way in which data were collected. In addition, the information on the way in which data were analysed and presented formed part of the previous chapter. Further, the chapter shed light on the ethical considerations observed in the current study as well as how to ensure that the results obtained were valid and reliable enough to be generalised to the entire population of academic staff.

3.2 The research process

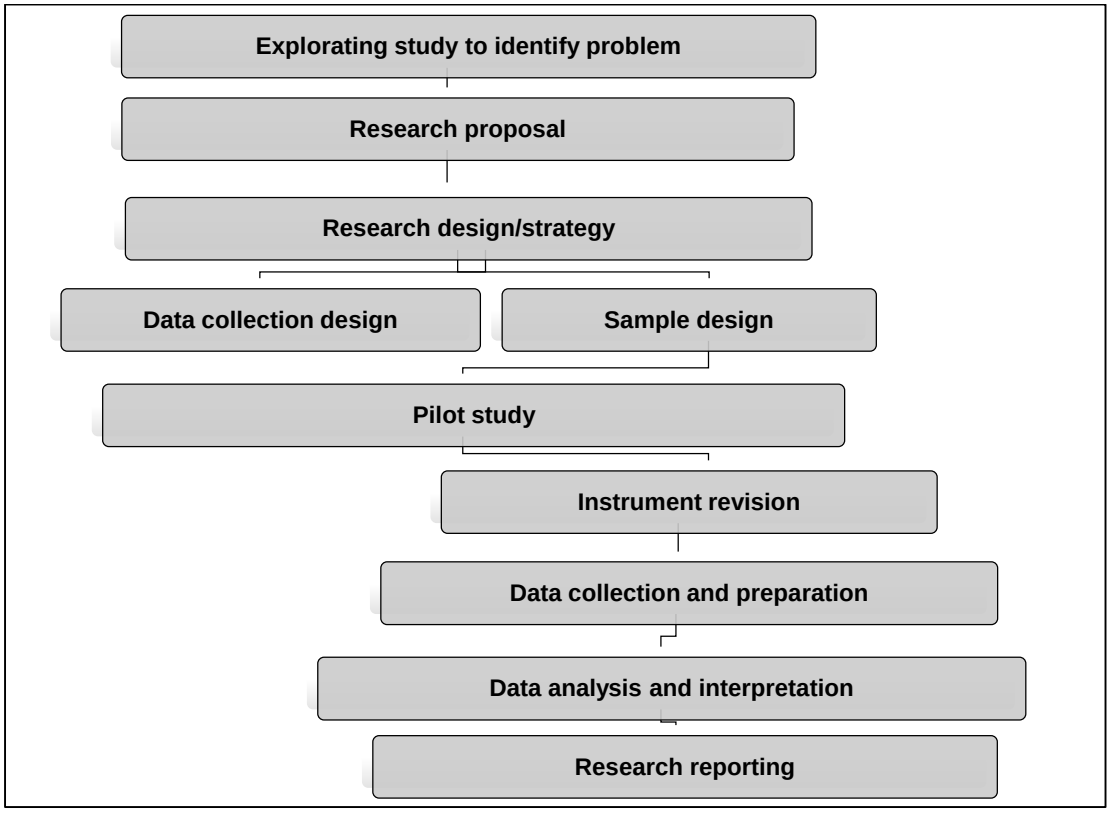


Figure 3.1: Research Process **Source: Cooper and Schindler (2008:82)**

According to Saunders (2016), most research textbooks epitomize research as a multi-stage process that must be followed to complete a research project. This study

was guided by a 9-step approach that was adapted from Babbie and Mouton (2014), Cant (2015), Wild and Diggines (2013). The research process is depicted in Figure 3.1.

3.3 Research paradigm

Neuman (2011) defines a paradigm as a whole system of thinking. In other words, a paradigm refers to established research traditions in a particular disciple or philosophical framework (Collis & Hussey, 2009). Kuhn (1970) described a research paradigm as the knowledge governing specific course associated with the study of certain phenomena within the specific period. In essence, a paradigm is mainly a theoretical framework, which determines the direction that a particular study will take (Neuman, 2011). The research paradigms provide guidelines on structures and type of tools that a researcher can employ to find a solution to a research problem.

A research paradigm also determines the nature of knowledge generated and the means and process of generating that knowledge (Nieuwenhuis, 2007). Research is often about discovering new things with an aim and hope of improving people's lives across the world. Kuhn (1963) indicated that one's paradigmatic view of the world is related to the way one goes about enquiring about the world worlds various phenomenon. This section discusses three research paradigms from which a researcher can choose from and these are namely, positivist paradigm, post-positivist paradigm and interpretivist paradigm.

3.3.1 Positivist research paradigm

The positivist approach of investigating social reality is centred on the philosophical writings of August Comte, who highlighted that importance of reason and observation as a way of understanding people's behaviour (Dash, 2005). Comte stresses that true and accurate knowledge a result of an experience of senses and therefore can be acquired through experiment and observation (Babbie & Morton, 2005).

Creswell (2003) described positivism is an approach of philosophy that exclude all other things from consideration save for their interrelationships and natural phenomena. A major principle of positivist paradigm is the verifiability principle, which

outlines that something significant and meaningful only if it is objectively observable by human senses (Borg & Gall, 1989). The positivist research paradigm enables the researcher to separate variables from him/her influence thus variables are independent of the researchers' control. When following the positivist research paradigm, ideas and opinions are controlled by hypotheses and theories (Creswell, 2014).

This, therefore, means that a researcher does not have any influence or link with the objectives of a study (Gates & McDaniel, 2013). The positivist research paradigm is associated with quantitative data collection methods. Data collected through the quantitative methods can be portrayed as numeric and is analysed by statistical methods in order to identify relationships existing between phenomena. Large samples are often involved and the results obtained are generalisable to the entire population under study.

The positivist is criticised for having a “tendency to preserve the status quo, as the research design has no transformative potential” (Rensburg, 2001:14). Additonally, Guba and Lincoln (1994) pointed that positivist research methods strip contexts from meanings in the process of developing quantified measures of phenomena and the quantitative measures often exclude members' meanings and interpretations from data which are collected. These methods enforce outsiders’ interpretations and meanings on data (Ryan, 2006). Furthermore, the methods followed in this paradigm make use of statistical samples which often ignore specific social groups and understanding of individuals (Gephart 1999).

3.3.2 Post-positivism research paradigm

Post-positivism research paradigm represents a shift away from positivism and rejects the central tenets of positivism (Creswell, 2003). Basically, the post-positivist research paradigm challenges the existence of absolute truth as claimed by the positivist research paradigm and instead recognises that we cannot be absolutely objective when human behaviours and actions because everyone is prone to bias which affects all observations that can be made (Ryan, 2006). The post-positivist paradigm stresses

that the known and the knower cannot be entirely separated as claimed in the positivist research paradigm.

The post-positivistic paradigm appreciates the use of multiple research methods and various data gathering and analysis techniques so as ensure rigour in carrying out the study or process of investigating reality. In essence, the post-positivist stresses the importance of utilising multiple observation methods and measure and the need to employ triangulation in order to get a better of what is obtaining in reality. In that regard, both qualitative and quantitative research methods can be used as a means for data collection in the same research study.

The post-positivist research paradigm is in agreement with a realism which appreciates concerns about multiple perceptions with regards to a single reality (Krauss, 2005). Realism accepts that perceptions have a degree of plasticity and that there exist differences between individual's perceptions of reality and reality (Bisman, 2002). Within critical realism, quantitative and qualitative research approaches are considered as appropriate for investigating underlying motives that drive certain actions or events (Bisman, 2002).

Post-positivism has been identified as a useful paradigm for investigators who have an interest in combining certain aspects of positivism and interpretivism. The advantage of the post-positivist approach is that it allows for the use of different combinations of various research approaches, methods and strategies that complement each other. As a result, the use of combinations of differing approaches neutralise the weaknesses and biases of the respective methods and may result in the generation of data and information that is valid.

3.3.3 Interpretivist research paradigm

The interpretivist paradigm was developed from the philosophical writings of Edmund Husserl's y and Wilhelm Dilthey’s and German philosophers' on the study of interpretive understanding known as hermeneutics (Nieuwenhuis, 2007). Interpretivist approaches to research have the aim of understanding “the world of human

experience” Cohen & Manion, 1994: 36) and stresses that reality is socially constructed.

Furthermore, the interpretivist paradigm is an approach that aims to understand people (Babbie & Mouton, 2008). It focuses on exploring a social phenomenon to gain an understanding. In other words, as stated by Rubin and Babbie (2010) interpretivism is about understanding and interpreting everyday events, experiences and social structure. Unlike positivists, researchers who follow the interpretivist research paradigm don't use underpinning theories as a basis rather they "generate or inductively develop a theory or a pattern of meanings" (Creswell, 2003:9) through research study process.

The interpretivist research paradigm is a research paradigm whose results cannot be generalised to the entire population because of subjectivity involved which make is susceptible to bias (Denscombe, 2007). Interpretivism outlines that, simply by personal clarification of the intermediation in practicality can that actually be presumed (Creswell, 2014). The main objective of the interpretivist research paradigm investigation is to understand and capture an individual people’s social conduct (Salkind, 2010). Interpretivism tends to undermine reliability and representativeness.

Also, the results will be personal and in-depth therefore cannot be generalised (Denzin Lincoln, 2011). The downside of the interpretivist research paradigm is that it tends to be characterised by emotions and resultantly, more bias this can mask the exact picture of what on the existing reality (Creswell, 2014).

The interpretivist inquirer or researchers usually use qualitative data gathering methods or a mixture of qualitative and quantitative methods (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The strength of the interpretivist research paradigm is that the research methods aligned to it allow a researcher to gain deeper understanding and insights into a person, situation, case or community. This strength aligns well with the assumption of interpretivism that if people understand their own situation better, they would be able to take practical actions within it.

3.3.3.1 Methodological position of interpretivism

According to Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.* (2014), interpretivism holds the view that sociality reality is dynamic and dependent on how an individual experiences reality. The aim of interpretivist is to acquire in-depth knowledge regarding multiple realities, hence, they depend on qualitative research, using methods such as interviews, focus groups, narrative inquiry to name a few. Du Plooy Cilliers *et al.,* 2014; Henning *et al.,* 2010). Based on the limitations and shortcomings of positivist, Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al*., (2014) pointed out the interpretivist is a shift from positivism because it aims to capture lives of participants and interpret the meaning. As pointed out by Nieuwenhuis (2014), interprevitism delves much into people's subjective experiences by sharing meaning. Moreover, interprevitists argue that reality cannot be objectively determined, but it is socially constructed (Nieuwenhuis, 2014).

According to Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.* (2014), unlike the positivists, interpretivists try to empathise with their subjects in the process avoiding value-free research. Furthermore, interpretivists are of the view that researchers should always consider their own personal views and feelings as part of studying others (Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.,* 2014).

3.3.3.2 Metatheoretical position of interpretivism

Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.,* 2014) highlights that metatheory focus on understanding the implications or assumptions of a particular so that we are able to describe or explain a phenomenon. A metatheoretical position of interpretivism is characterised by theories and hypothesis that are tested for validity and reliability, which are described in terms of causal relations or correlations. In short, interprevist tell a story, unlike positivists which rely on statistics as evidence to describe relationships between variables.

Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.* (2014) pointed out that reliability is very important to positivist because only through replication and getting the same outcome can a research be considered valid. Meanwhile, interprevisits when evaluating knowledge claim use criteria such as transferability, credibility, conformability and dependability. Thus, theories are supposed to help us understand realities and experiences through thick

descriptions according to the interpretivist. Consequently, interpretivist use inductive approaches in formulating theories.

3.3.3.3 Epistemological position of interpretivism

Epistemology is the view that all research is driven by an underlying pursuit of valid knowledge and the objective is to arrive at results that are close to facts (Brynard *et al.,* 2014). Objective knowledge is challenged by the interprevisits in that facts are viewed as not objective and neutral, especially in social sciences. Factuality depends on the context and people interpretation of information. Consequently, people are able to assign different meaning to an act if they take into consideration the social context to which the act occurs.

3.3.3.4 Ontological position of interpretivism

Collis and Hussey (2009) define ontology as equally to each person have their own realities and the existence of multiple realities. The main understanding is that the social world is an object of reality. The idea to study the reality and understand the phenomenon in this world by generating knowledge regarding the nature of being (Brynard *et al.,* 2014).

3.3.3.5 Anxiological position of interpretivism

Interpretivists aim to understand the complexity of unique realities, they do not try to conduct value-based research. They are open to discussing those value in their research, including their own understanding and experiences of their participants (Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.,* 2014).

3.3.4 Justification for using a paradigm in this study

Paradigms are like the rules of the game and one function is to define the playing field. Nieuwenhuis (2014) claims that paradigms can be seen as lenses by which reality is interpreted. Concepts, symbols and terms are some of the communication tools we use. On the other hand, Guba and Lincoln (1994) state that paradigms are basic beliefs systems which are grounded on epistemological, methodological and ontological assumptions. Meanwhile to Hanekom and Thornnhill (1994), paradigms are composed of some characteristics found in theory, yet, they should not be used

as a synonym for theory, rather it should be utilised as a map or pattern in an attempt to formulate a theory.

Consequently, this study utilised a qualitative approach due to the fact that the qualitative tradition is grounded on a relative understanding of the nature of reality. King and Horrocks (2010) state that relativism is the viewpoint that the reality is not pre-existent with objects and structures, rather it is constructed by experiences and culture (Willis, 2007). People's understanding and experiences are linked to the cultural and social construct and are always open to different interpretations.

As propounded by King and Horrocks (2010), relativism is consistent with social practices and experience of how people see reality. While greatly influenced by content and culture, the aim of relativist research is ideographic. This simply means the research is focused on understanding each individual uniqueness (Ponterotto, 2005). Individuals create their own perceptions of reality in order to generate meanings (Krauss, 2005). For qualitative research, the connection between the research and participant is very integral to the creation of valid knowledge. Thus, the epistemology guiding qualitative research is subjective to the research and subject to social understanding (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998).

The emphasis on qualitative research is on the social construction of reality and the relationship between the researcher and the participant (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). Social context affects the manner in which people interact or construct their world. In qualitative research they are a belief that there is no truth and consensus is never achieved (Johnson & Waterfield, 2004). Given that qualitative research approaches are mainly based on theoretical perspective with an interprevist paradigm grounding, the term usually encompasses a wide range of methodologies which are influence traditions that study social phenomena (King & Horrocks, 2010). Table 3.1 below chronicles the methods and the data collection tools of the interpretivist paradigm.

Table 3.1: Interpretivist paradigm, methods and examples of data collection tools

Paradigm	Components	Method (Primary)	Data Collection Tools (Examples
Constructivism/ Constructivist/ Interpretivist	Interpretivist Multiple participant meanings Theory generation Understanding Naturalistic Social and historical construction Phenomenological Ethnographic Symbolic interaction	Predominantly qualitative	Interviews Observations Document reviews Visual data analysis

Source: Adapted from Lather (1992), Mertens (2005) and Creswell (2009

Neuman (2011) defines a paradigm as a whole system of thinking. In other words, a paradigm refers to established research traditions in a particular disciple or philosophical framework (Collis & Hussey, 2009). This study is mainly qualitative; as a result, the focus is on two paradigms that form the basis for conducting a qualitative approach namely the interpretive and realism paradigms. An interpretive paradigm is an approach that aims to understand people (Babbie & Mouton, 2008). It focuses on exploring a social phenomenon to gain an understanding. In other words, Rubin and Babbie (2010) state that interpretivism is about understanding and interpreting everyday events, experiences and social structure.

On the other hand, realism is a philosophy that accepts the existence of a reality independent of human behaviour. Although, there is a concession that understanding behaviour requires subjectivity. Saunders *et al.,* (2009) view realists as social processes and forces beyond human controls. In other words, people have subjective interpretations because of external forces. Therefore, realism goes beyond the description of relationships and, how such relationships come to being. Livesey (2011) therefore advances the use of in-depth interviews and focus groups to collect reliable and valid data in line with the realism paradigm.

Therefore, this study is grounded on the interpretivism paradigm because it wants to understand people perceptions about professional development programmes.

3.4 Research Approach

A research approach is a blueprint that guides a researcher with regards to methods of data collection and the nature of data to be generated (Redman & Mory, 2009). Goddard and Melville (2004) defined a research approach as a plan that outlines when, where and data is to be collected and subsequently analysed. There are two broad research approaches, which are namely the quantitative and qualitative research approaches**.**

3.4.1 Quantitative Research

Quantitative research is an approach that is closely linked with the positivist paradigm. Denscombe (2002) described it as an approach that aims to utilise natural science models of research to investigate social phenomena and explain social reality. Additionally, a quantitative research aims to test an existing hypothesis or theories and attempts to predict relationships before a research is carried out to establish actual relationships between variables.

Within the quantitative research, the researcher relies on numerical data to determine the nature of relationships between variables (Cresswell, 2014). Neuman (2003:545) states that a quantitative method requires a more analytical approach to data analysis than a qualitative approach, allowing a researcher to measure facts and objects that independent of the context. Similarly, Polonsky and Waller (2004) agree that outputs

of a quantitative research methodology are characterised by objectivity, factuality and reliability. However, Cant (2003) pointed out that the research findings are subject to statistical manipulation to produce broad representative data of the population.

Quantitative research methodologies usually take the form of an experiment or a survey (Ivankova, Creswell & Clark, 2007). Lim and Ting (2012) state that variables in quantities research are outlined in a manner that makes them measurable. The qualitative research approach also stresses that data should be collected from a larger population sample (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). This makes the results of quantitative research generalisable to the broader population.

However, quantitative methods are criticised for their inability to cater for individual cases in a detailed manner. Quantitative research methods are highly structured, this prevents the researcher from probing unexpected information (Ryan, 2006). Lastly, quantitative usually fail to provide specific answers, explanations, reasons or examples. The limitations of the method are shown in table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Advantages and disadvantages

Advantages	Disadvantages
• Suitable for larger sample size and makes conclusions generalizable • Appropriate in situations where there is standardized comparison • Use of statistical methods improves reliability • Data can be easily verified	• Cannot provide more insight into human perceptions or experiences • Sample biasness is usually prominent • The method provides a snapshot of the phenomenon under study and measures variables in a specific moment in time. • Labour intensive data collection process • Limited participation by respondents

3.4.2 Qualitative Approach

A qualitative research approach is an approach which views reality from an interpretivist of constructivist perspective which recognises the value of individual meanings and accepts that there are multiple meanings of reality (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). A qualitative research approach is an orderly and subjective technique that is used by the researcher to investigate human experiences and give them meaning (Malhotra, 2010). Creswell (2005) states that the main objective of a qualitative research approach is to understand and explore the central phenomenon driving specific behaviour or actions.

Hatch (2010) outlines that a qualitative research approach stresses the individual's familiarities and understandings as well as identifying exceptionalities an individual. Carson (2001) posits that the qualitative research approach is a technique of social inquiry for information that focuses on the way individuals take to meaning and understanding of their surrounding environments. Researchers use qualitative research methods to investigate such phenomenon as people's perceptions, conduct understandings and individual's states of mind (Tracy, 2013).

The sample size from which data is collected form is usually purposeful and people who have experience with the studied phenomenon are selected to be participants in the research study (Patton, 2002). Furthermore, a qualitative research plays the role of an instrument of data collection and asks participants broad and open-ended questions that enable participants to share their experiences and views with regards to the studied phenomenon (Creswell, 2007). Due to the small sample size involved in the qualitative research approach, results are not generalizable to the broader population. Another disadvantage of the qualitative research approach is results generated are prone to bias due to researcher influence.

The strength of this approach is that it provides an in-depth picture of reality and can generate new ideas about a particular phenomenon. It also values participants' perspectives on their worlds and often relies on people's words as its primary data. Basically, the qualitative research approach captures the views of individual participants (Cresswell, 2007). The qualitative and quantitative approaches are summarised below in table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Research approaches summary

Quantitative	Qualitative
✓ Tends to produce quantitative data ✓ Uses large samples ✓ Concerned with hypothesis testing ✓ Data is specific and precise ✓ Location is artificial ✓ Reliability is high ✓ Validity is low ✓ Generalises from a sample Population	✓ Tends to produce qualitative data ✓ Uses small samples ✓ Concerned with generating theories ✓ Data is rich and subjective ✓ The location is neutral ✓ Reliability is low ✓ Validity is high ✓ Generalises from one set to another

Source: Saunders (2007:145)

3.4.3 Research approach used in this study

For the purposes of this study, the researcher used a qualitative approach The approach focuses on the need to understand people`s perception, perspectives and understanding (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). The method tries to understand an individual`s experience of an event or tries to describe what is common to those experiences (Creswell, 2007). Data is collected using narratives, in-depth interviews and personal experiences with the idea of finding a meaning for certain behaviours (McNabb, 2008).

This approach helps the researcher to probe further in order to understand those perceptions in detail. Having closed-ended questionnaires would have limited the interview in understanding why the participants chose a certain option of the other. Above that, this research approach is also in line with the paradigm (interpretivist) informing this research.

3.5 Research Design

De Vos *et al.,* (2014) pointed out that a research designs definitions are rather ambiguous, and several terms are used to define research design. In this study, a research design is defined as the procedure of inquiring and specific research methods used to collect, analyse and interpret data (Creswell, 2014). A research design provides a framework that can be used to complete a research project. Betram and Christainsen (2015) point out that the research design is a flexible plan that proceeds in an unstructured way. Five basic questions were asked in order to begin the process of research, namely: 1) How will the design connect to the paradigm of the study? 2) Do the materials allow the researcher to answer the objectives? 3) Who will be studied? 4) Which strategies of inquiry will be used; lastly, 5) what research tools for data collection and analysis will be utilised. Therefore, to answer these questions, the research design utilised. There various research designs that a researcher can utilise in carrying out a research study. These include exploratory, causal research design, descriptive, longitudinal and cross-sectional research designs.

Therefore, to answer these questions, the research study utilised by Saunders *et al.,* (2016) research onion as shown in figure 3.2.

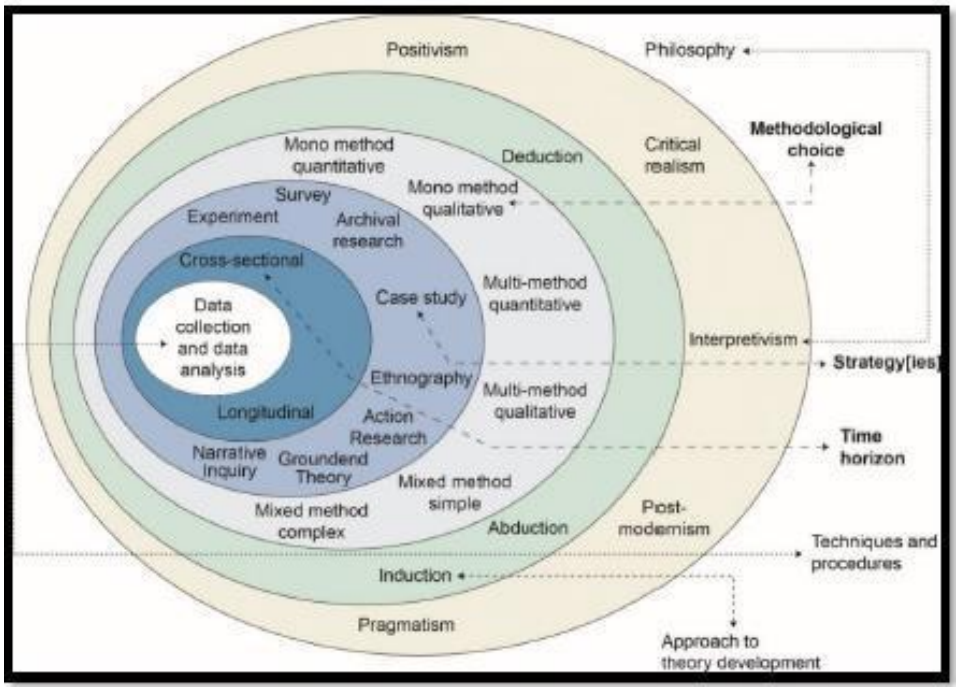


Figure 3.2: The research onion **Source: Saunders et al (2016)**

3.5.1 Causality Research design

The causality research design is a design whose main purpose is to show what causes the other between two or more variable. Causal research is carried out to highlight the cause and then the effects between independent and dependent variables (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Causality research design allows researchers to gain an understanding of why the way by proving and establishing a causal link between variables. In addition, there is greater confidence the study has internal validity due to the systematic subject selection and equity of groups being compared (Benrdt & Petzer, 2011).

The disadvantage of causality research design is that conclusions and results regarding causal relationships are difficult to ascertain due to a variety of confounding and extraneous variables that exist in a social environment. This means causality can only be inferred, never proven (Feinberg, Kinear, & Tailor, 2013).

3.5.2 Descriptive research design

Descriptive research studies use statistical techniques to discover patterns. This research design is essential when information about a particular aspect is vague (Feinberg, Kinear, & Tailor, 2013). It describes opportunities and threats the main

emphasis of this research design is on the exhaustive description of specific situations, group, tribe, subculture and interaction (Sigmund, Babin, & Carr, 2010). Descriptive research designs are credited for yielding rich information which can lead to essential recommendations in practical application (Feinberg, Kinear, & Tailor, 2013). Since this approach involves collection from large samples, results tend to be generalizable to the broader population. The downside of the descriptive research design it is that it is heavily reliant on instrumentation for observation and measurement (Sigmund, Babin, & Carr, 2010). Further to this, results from descriptive studies cannot be relied on in discovering definitive answers or to disproving a hypothesis.

3.5.3 Longitudinal study

A longitudinal study is when data is collected for the same study repeatedly over a certain period to compare trends (Malhotra & Birks, 2007. A longitudinal study follows that the same population sample is repeatedly observed over a certain period of time. For instance, in the longitudinal surveys, the same participants or respondents are surveyed at regular intervals, thus allowing the researcher to track and monitor changes over time and to relate them with variables which may explain why changes could have occurred (Sigmund, Babin, & Carr, 2010). Longitudinal studies describe patterns of change and assist in determining the direction and extent of causal relationships. Additionally, each variable is measured at more than two or more different periods (Wild & Diggines, 2013). This enables the researcher to establish the number of changes that could have occurred on each variable over time.

Advantages of this design are that it allows for measurement of changes or differences in variables from one period to the other. Furthermore, longitudinal studies allow for the prediction of future outcomes and ending based on prior factors. Longitudinal research design has the following disadvantages:

(a) It is not easy to show more than one variables more than once at a time.
(b) Maintaining the original sample may be difficult over a different period of times which may result in biased outcomes.
(c) Because the research is conducted over a long period of time, it can take much longer to gather the results.

3.5.4 Cross-sectional design

A cross-sectional study refers to a study which involves gathering data from a sample just once and is generally performed by way of surveys (Creswell, 2014). In addition, this design has got three distinct features which are: (a) there have no time dimensions, (b) groups are identified and selected based on current differences as opposed to random allocation and (c) there is reliance on present differences rather than change caused by interventions. The cross-sectional research design measures differences among a variety of people, phenomena and subjects rather than a process of change.

As a result, this design can only follow a passive approach in inferring causal relationships based on findings. Disadvantages are that the results are static they, therefore, give no suggestion of a sequence of events or reveal historical contexts (Carson, Gilmore, Perry & Kjell, 2001). Cross-sectional studies cannot be used to determine the effect and cause of relationships (Creswell, 2014). Cross-sectional studies provide a snapshot of the analysis yet there is usually a possibility that research stud might have different results if the same study had been conducted in a different time frame (Zikmund, Babin & Carr, 2010).

However, there are a number of advantages of cross-sectional studies which include that; a sample of elements in a cross-sectional study are representative of the target population and a snapshot of the variables concerned is provided at a given point in time (Wild & Diggines, 2013).

3.5.5 Exploratory Design

Exploratory research is used when a researcher intends to gain insights into the general nature of a problem and variables that need to be considered. The research is usually carried out without strong preconceived expectations of what will be found (Bradley, 2013). The exploratory research design is often criticised for utilising small samples hence making the finding unsuitable to generalise to the larger population being investigated.

Exploratory research is useful and appropriate when a researcher wants to gain insights on a problem that has little or no information that is known about it (Churchill & Brown, 2004). This research is used to create formal research hypotheses as well as to formulate precise research problems (Carson, Gilmore, Perry & Kjell (2001). From a policy formulation perspective, exploratory studies help ascertain research priorities help with making decisions about how resources should be allocated (Tracy, 2013). This study followed an exploratory research design because it would enable the researcher to gain more insights into staff perceptions of in-service training and how they impact on professionalism. This research design fits well within the qualitative research used in this study as a guide on data collection methods employed in the study.

3.6 Research Strategy

As pointed out by Nieuwenhuis (2012:70) the researcher should opt for a strategy that provides the most suitable way of gathering the type of data that will address the research questions. Saunders *et al*., (2003) identify the following research strategies to use, experiment, surveys, grounded theory, action research and many more. This study opted to use a structured interview survey to collect data. Shajahan (2010:132) states that a survey is a fact-finding mission where the data is collected through interviews, questionnaire and observation. The main advantage is that data can be collected from a large population. However, in an interview setting only a few participants are interviewed.

3.7 Population of the Study

The population refers to the total number of units that have a researcher's desired characteristics. In other words, it refers to as the total number of members of a selected class of people, places, objects or events which are relevant to the research question (LabSpace, 2014). As pointed out by Brink *et al.* (2014), it is important that the researcher carefully defines and describes the population and specific criteria for inclusion in it. This demands carefully defining the population and the sampling frame. Brink *et al.* (2014), stated that a representative sample must be similar to the population in as many ways as possible.

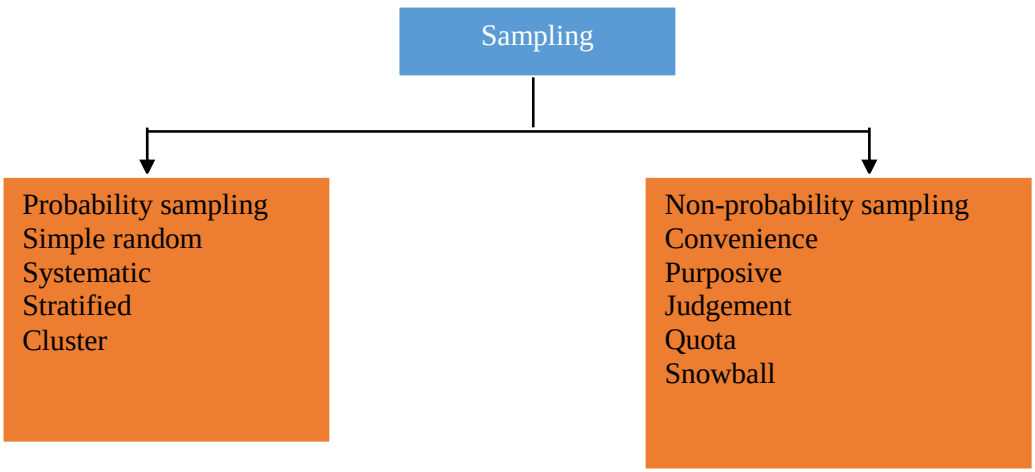
While location refers to the place where the study is done, the population refers to the total elements to be researched in that particular place. This research was conducted in two Eastern Cape Universities. The administrative and academic staff of these universities represented the population of this study. The respondents needed to be an employee of the university under study. Three positions were targeted and they were namely a Professor, Senior Lecturer and a Lecturer from each faculty to participate in this study. The fifteen respondents selected were part of any development program in the selected University.

3.8 Sample size

The sample target for the interviews was 15 staff members in five faculties. This number was chosen arbitrarily on the basis that interviews are time-consuming and in certain instances staff was busy. While this number is not representative, Denscombe (2014) pointed out interviews do not need a big sample because it is practically hard to survey a big population, and besides they are meant to draw insight to a problem.

3.9 Sampling Method

Sampling is a procedure by which some elements of the given population are selected as representatives of the entire population (Cooper and Schindler, 2003: 179). The main purpose of sampling a population is to draw conclusions about the entire population based on sample (Cooper and Schindler, 2003:179). There are two methods of sampling which are namely; probability and non-probability. Sampling involves the selection of a portion of members from the target population. The composition of each sampling methods is illustrated in below.



3.10 Probability

Probability sampling is a process whereby some form of random selection is used, and each unit drawn has a known probability or a non-zero chance of being selected in a sample (Raj, 1972). Probability sampling involves the selection of units under study randomly. In this sampling of each unit of the population has a non-zero chance of being included in the sample. Hence, sampling is not done based on the researcher judgment capabilities, as the case would have been if it was non-random. Roberts-Lombard (2002:107) is of the view that in non-probability sampling the probability of the respondents is unknown, thus, the researcher cannot be sure that the sample is a representative of the total population. Disadvantages of probability sampling are that they are expensive and may take a longer time to collect data using probability sampling techniques. These techniques are discussed in detail below.

3.10.1 Random sampling

The random sampling method is a method in which, theoretically, every member of the universe has an equal chance of being selected for sampling. It is usually used when it is not possible to pre-identify every member of a population (Zikmund & Babin, 2010). An advantage of using this method is that is easy to analyse data collected using this sampling method (Salkind, 2010).

3.10. 2 Systematic sampling

Unlike the random sampling method, where every unit has a likelihood of being selected in a random way, systematic sampling entails selecting units at a predetermined interval from a chosen starting point, for example, every fourth house or every third person on a given list (Lacobucci & Churchill, 2010). One advantage of this sampling technique is it's easy to implement and its demerit is that it can negatively impact on the outcome of results due to its use of intervals.

3.10.3. Stratified sampling

Stratified sampling is whereby a population is segmented into strata and random samples are then drawn from each stratum by either random sampling or systematic

sampling (Boone & Kurtz, 2013). The stratified sampling method is useful when a researcher intends to describe and investigate certain phenomenon based on subsections. A demerit of this sampling method is that the processing of dividing the population into segments or subsections and then do the actual sampling is time-consuming (Zikmund & Babin, 2010).

3.10.4. Cluster sampling

Cluster sampling also known as area sampling is used when an area or country is broken down into subareas or clusters. A sample is then drawn from the clusters using either systematic sampling, random sampling of stratified sampling (Churchil & Brown, 2004). An advantage of using cluster sampling is that it is relatively cheap and expensive (Krauss & Putra, 2005).

3.11 Non-probability

Non-probability sampling is a process whereby all units cannot be assigned probabilities (Yamane, 1972). There are various methods in non-probability sampling.Nieuwenhuis, (2012:79-80) identify the methods as following, quota sampling, convenience sampling, snowball sampling and purposive sampling. Snowball sampling is whereby respondents of the study act as referencing in locating potential participants. Quota sampling involves dividing the population into predetermined groups and the subjects of each group are deliberately selected from the population until a particular quota has been met for each group. Purposive sampling also known as judgemental sampling occurs when the researcher selects a sample based on his/her criteria. Due to the nature of purposive sampling, the researcher should have known about the target population in order to come up with a proper sample.

3.11.1 Quota Sampling

Quota sampling is an amalgamation of continence and judgement sampling. Under this probability sampling method, the researcher uses census data to categorize the target population according to relevant characteristics also known as control variables (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). It can be less costly if the control variables applied to the population are fewer and costly when there are many control variables. There is also a greater of selection bias (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Mahotra, 2005).

3.11.2 Judgement Sampling

Judgement sampling is when sample units are selected deliberately by the researcher to be a representative of the research population. It is useful when large samples are not necessary (Tustin, Lightelm, & Martins, 2005). A shortcoming of this method is that experts have diverse knowledge on the topic under study, therefore, bias is a rifle.

3.11.3 Snowball sampling

Snowball sampling method is used when samples of special populations are needed. In the case of this study, the researcher intentionally selects respondents with characteristics that are specifically required (Shuttleworth, 2001). The selected respondents are then used as informants to locate other persons with similar characteristics (Krauss & Putra, 2005).

3.11.4 Convenience Sampling

In convenience sampling, the sample is taken from a segment of the population that is readily available to the researcher and has a probability to be chosen to answer a questionnaire (Bradley, 2013). The researcher used this method because it is easy and cheaper to implement. It is also faster to carry out the sampling process using this method (Roberts-Lombard, 2002).

3.11.5 Purposive Sampling

A purposive sampling technique was used to select the respondents. According to Brink *et al.*, 2014; De Vos *et al.,* 2013 purposive sampling, refers to the type of non-probability sampling and a technique where people are chosen for a particular purpose. McMillan and Schumacher (2006) point out that the selected respondents are sampled based on their purpose of the study and their elements. This helps to focus in depth on issues of importance to the study (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). Cheteni (2017) pointed out that a purposive sampling technique is whereby the researcher selects participants based on their expertise to a subject matter. This helps in fulfilling the trustworthiness of the information that was received since the respondents are part of the programme under investigation. Based on the merits of the purposive sampling technique mentioned above, the researcher used a purposive

sampling technique to collect data from the research sample. This technique was favoured because the researcher wanted to extract information from academic staff who were participating in academic development programmes. As pointed out by Cheteni (2017), this technique is based on selecting participants by their expertise in the process yielding accurate information about the phenomenon under study.

3.12 Research setting

Siverman (2010) defines a research site as the physical location in which data collection takes place. According to Greeff (2005), a research setting plays an important role in relation to the collection of data from participants, as they should not feel threatened or intimidated, to allow them to express their views openly.

The researcher was typically involved in a sustained and intensive experience with respondents (Creswell, 2013:187). This introduces a range of strategic, ethical and personal issues in the qualitative research process (Locke, Spirduso & Silverman, 2013, in Creswell, 2014:187). The role of the researcher, therefore, was not only to protect the rights of participants and to gain entry into the research site but also to seek approval of gatekeepers (Creswell, 2014:188). Appearance, demeanour, familiarity with the Interview Protocol, recording responses exactly and probing responses were the responsibilities of the researcher in interviews (Babbie, 2013:251-55).

Accordingly, although the researcher had to negotiate access with gatekeepers because gatekeepers usually have positions of authority within the group or institution and can grant or withhold permission to conduct research in their particular sphere of authority (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006:64). Therefore, to gain access to the field of study, the researcher, using the ethical clearance certificate from the GMRDC, let people on the ground know what the project sought to accomplish (Mertens & Ginsberg, 2009:283).

3.13 The Research Instrument

The interview approach was selected on the basis that the study was measuring perceptions of academic staff with regards to staff development programmes.

According to Neuman (2014), an interview involves a one-on-one verbal interaction between the respondents and the researcher. The interview guide consisted of the following topics: current perceptions of staff development, knowledge gained from such programmes and the impact of those programme on their teaching capabilities.

Consequently, the study was composed of open-ended questions. A pilot study was done with three academic staff in the department of education to assess the validity of the questions and issues of clarity of the questions. The pilot study participants were excluded from the actual study. The interviews were projected to take at least 15 minutes or more, although the timescale can vary based on how the responses are received. The interview was structured and face to face, whereby same questions were probed to respondents. Face to face interviews allow a researcher to obtain largely a chunk of data, ask more complex or sensitive questions and probe issues deeply compared to the distribution of questionnaires.

3.14 Questionnaire Construction

The study made use of an eight-stage process as proposed by Pallant (2011) in drafting the interview schedule as shown in table 3.4.

Table 3.4: Interview Protocol

Stage	Action
Stage 1	Determine the aims of the interview
Stage 2	Select appropriate questions
Stage 3	Designs questions
Stage 4	Pilot test questions
Stage 5	Revise questions
Stage 6	Administer interview protocol
Stage 7	Analyse data
Stage 8	Report the findings

Stage 1: In order to determine the aim of the interview protocol in stage 1, the main aim of the study was written and the research questions were identified**.**

Stage 2: The type of information the researcher intends to collect determines the chosen style of questions (Pallant, 2011). The researcher intent was to explore perceptions; therefore, open-ended questions were chosen for the interview protocol.

Stage 3: Questions were then developed taking into considering their reliability.

Stage 4: The questions were then piloted with three experts in the field to identify any issues of ambiguity and vagueness. Pallant (2011) pints that it is essential that the researcher pilots the questions on a small sample of the population that will participate and seek feedback.

Stage 5: Based on the recommendations provided by the experts, the questions were then revised and edited to capture what the researcher intended to achieve. This stage involved crosschecking the layout of the questions to finalise the interview protocol.

Stage 6: As proposed by Pallant (2011), in stage 6 the researcher must decide the appropriate method of the interview protocol administration, and consider various facts such as how respondents would be obtained, how they would be sampled. Given that the aim was to interview the staff of a certain university, the researcher kept in mind that the response rate was going to be affected by the availability of the respondents. However, interview schedules were sealed through making appointments with the selected respondents. De Vos *et al.,* (2014) point out that the researcher should apply various techniques in interviewing in order to have an effect interview. The researcher used various techniques such as paraphrasing, clarification and probing to extract data.

Stage 7: In this stage, Pallant (2011) state that the researcher should consider how the interview responses would be analysed and reported. Data analysis for the interviews was done using a thematic analysis method. The steps of the methodology are explained in section 3.2.

Stage 8: In the final stage the results were reported. Pallant (2011) point out that the reporting of the result depends on the purpose of the study. Consequently, themes were used to report the findings. This is explained in detail in Chapter 4.

3.15 Questions sequence

The questions sequence is crucial. Leech (2002) recommended that the beginning of an interview in order for an interview to extract a lot of data from the participants. General questions open the interview, then it moves to detailed or specific questions. This is done to ensure that the interviewee is settled through the interview process, thus, helping to solicit more information. Robson (2002) provides an interview guide as follows: an introduction-were the interviewer states the purpose of the interview and introduces him/herself. Secondly, general questions are asked to warm the environment. Thirdly, the interviewer asks detailed questions. Fourthly, the interviewer asks straightforward questions to clarify things already mentioned in the interview the process “cool off period”. Lastly, the interview is closed and the interviewer shows appreciation and gratitude. The researcher followed advice from Robson (2002) n conduct the interviews.

3.16 Transcription, Note Taking and Recording

During the interview process, the researcher did some note taking and recording. Arksey and Knight (1999) are in support of using a tape recorder due to the advantage of allowing a researcher to concentrate on what is said. Moreover, it improves the accuracy of the data collection since the tape can be replayed for better understanding. However, note-taking helps to note the behaviour of the participant and even their body language. Something that cannot be done by a tape recorder. In certain instances, "probers" were used to extract data. Easterby- Smith *et al.,* (2002) note that ‘probes' can be used as a technique to sharpen responses. This was achieved by repeating questions where it was necessary and building on incomplete states to get a clear response. It should be pointed that ‘probes' should not lead biases. In summary, the techniques mentioned were used throughout the interview process where it was necessary. The recordings were transcribed into an Excel document for analysis.

3.17 Data analysis

Malhotra (1999:434) states that data analysis is not an end in itself, its purpose is to produce information that helps address the problem at hand. The data that was

gathered was coded in short phrases to make analysis easy. McNabb (2002:240) pointed out that data analysis involves analysing and interpreting data obtained from respondents. In realism research the first process is data reduction, we are not interested with every detail of perceptions of respondents. Therefore, only those perceptions that are relevant to the external reality are the ones investigated. Consequently, codes used to reduce data in realism research are from the conceptual framework rather than the data itself. Thus, codes (themes) generated are for comparison and interpretations. The second stage involves data display. In this stage, the display should concentrate on interpretations, and have an explanation on why the observation occurred. Last, to analyse data, a thematic analysis method was used. The method allows me to determine the patterns or themes within the interviews to explain the perceptions of academic staff on the staff development programme.

3.18 Thematic Analysis

An inductive thematic analysis method was adopted by the study. Thomas (2009) describes the inductive approach as a method used to condense extensive raw data into brief data formats that create understandable links between the objectives of the research and the outcomes. The thematic analysis follows six step as follows:1) familiarisation of data, this includes transcription, reading and rereading material, 2) generating of codes or systematic coding features to the research questions, and looking for connections, 3) searching for themes and gathering codes relevant to the text, 4) reviewing of the themes to crosscheck suitability and creating a thematic map, 5)naming and defining themes by generating clear definitions,6) lastly, producing a report by selecting relevant extracts of chosen themes and relating them to research questions (Braun and Clarke, 2006). As suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006), the researcher should relate themes to research questions as opposed to their importance to quantifiable measures.

3.18.1 Steps in analysing qualitative data in semi-structured interviews

According to Miller and Crabtree (1992, cited in Terre Blanche *et al.*, 2014), grounded theory and thematic content analysis are some of the several qualitative approaches under the interpretative analysis. However, interpretative analysis approaches differ from quasi-statistic styles of crystallisation styles (Miller and Crabtree (1992, cited in

Terre Blanche *et al.*, 2014) in quasi-setting, predetermined categories and codes are applied to the data in a quantified way to yield quantifiable indices. Yet, in crystallisation styles, one needs to be familiar with a phenomenon, reflect on it and write up relying on intuition rather than using analytic techniques.

In consultation with text on analysing semi-structured interviews, the researcher modified various steps from different authors. An 11-step process was then generated to analyse the interview data as shown in table 3.5

Table 3.5: The 11 steps of analysing semi-structured interviews data

Step
Step 1: Organising and preparing data for analysis
Step 2: Choosing of script
Step 3: Reading of scripts
Step 4: Identification of topic
Step 5: Step 3: Coding the data
Step 6: Grouping descriptive words into themes
Step 7: Abbreviation of categories
Step 8: Advancing how the description of themes will be represented in the qualitative narrative
Step 9: Performing preliminary analysis
Step 10: Recording existing data
Step 11: Interpreting qualitative data

Sources: Creswell (2014:197-200); Tesch (1990, in Creswell, 2009:186)

11 steps are as follows:

(1) Step 1: Organising and preparing data for analysis: The researcher organised and prepared the data for analysis. This involved transcribing the interview, optical scanning material, typing up field notes, cataloguing all of the visual material, sorting, and arranging the data into different types, depending on the information.

(2) Step 2: Choosing of the script: The researcher chose the transcripts from on top of the pile to read and try to find an underlying meaning in what he was reading and then wrote thoughts in the margin as they came to mind.

(3) Step 3: Reading of scripts: This step provided a general sense of the information and an opportunity to reflect on its overall meaning. The researcher looked at what the general ideas the participants were saying, what the tone of the ideas was, what the impression of the overall depth, credibility and use of information was. According to Creswell (2014:197), sometimes-qualitative researchers write notes in margins of transcripts or observational field notes or start recording general ideas about the data at this stage. Accordingly, the researcher read all transcripts carefully in order to get a sense of the whole, while jotting down some ideas that may come to mind.

(4) Step 4: Identification of topic: After several transcripts had been read, the researcher made a list of all topics identified. The topics were clustered according to similarities and were marked as major topics, unique topics, and leftovers.

(5) Step 5: Step 3: Coding the data: The researcher used the eight steps in the coding process suggested by Tesch (1990:142-149, cited in Creswell, 2014:198) namely, making sense, picking of document, clustering, abbreviation of topics and writing codes, categorising, making a final decision, assembling data and recording existing data.

In this study, the researcher took the list of marked topics and reverted to the data. The topics were abbreviated as codes, and the codes were written next to the appropriate segments of the text. While using this preliminary organising scheme, the researcher looked for new categories and codes that emerged.

(6) Step 6: Grouping descriptive words into themes: In this study, the researcher found the most descriptive wording for the topics and turned them into themes or categories. Topics that were related to each other were grouped in order to reduce the total list of categories. Lines showed interrelationships between categories.

(7) Step 7: Abbreviation of categories: The researcher made a final decision on the abbreviation for each category and gave these categories alphabetical codes.

(8) Step 8: Advancing how the description of themes will be represented in the qualitative narrative: The most popular approach is to use a narrative passage to convey the findings of the analysis (Creswell, 2014:200). In this study, this was done through a discussion of several themes (complete with multiple perspectives from individuals and quotations).

(9) Step 9: Performing preliminary analysis: Data material that belonged to each category was assembled in one place and a preliminary analysis was then performed.

(10) Step 10: Recording existing data: The researcher recorded the existing data.

(11) Step 11: Interpreting qualitative data: A final step in data analysis involved making an interpretation in qualitative research of the findings or results (Creswell, 2014:200; Denscombe, 2014:247).

Trustworthiness: In addressing validity and reliability of qualitative research, Lincoln and Guba's (2005:69) model proposes four criteria for developing trustworthiness of a qualitative study, namely (1) Credibility (Babbie and Mouton, 2014:273; Polit & Beck, 2008:539; Polit & Hungler, 1999) or truth-value (Krefting, 1991:216), (2) Dependability (Babbie and Mouton, 2014) (3) Confirmability (Babbie and Mouton, 2014:) and (4) Transferability (Babbie and Mouton, 2014). Each of these criteria is based on epistemological standards and is discussed in the next section.

Credibility: 'Credibility' alludes to confidence in the truth of the data and the Interpretation thereof (Brink et al., 2014:172). Put differently, credibility refers to the accuracy with which the researcher interprets data that is provided by respondents (DuPlooy-Cilliers et.al.,2014:258). According to Brink et. al. (2014:171),the investigation must be done in such a way that the findings demonstrate credibility, inother words, that the reader will believe them. Brink et al. (2014:171) maintain that confidence in the truth can be established through the (a) Prolonged engagement (Brink et al., 2014:172; Du Plooy-Cilliers et al., 2014:258; Creswell, 2014:202) (b) Peer debriefing (Brink et al., 2014:172; Creswell, 2014:202; Graneheim & Lundman, 2004; Holloway & Wheeler, 2002) (c) Member checks (Brink et al., 2014:172;

Creswell,2014:201; Du Plooy-Cilliers et al., 2014:258) (d) Referral adequacy (Brink et al.,2014:172) and (e) Triangulation (Bless et al., 2014:238; Creswell, 2014).

Social researchers employ triangulation by observing from multiple perspectives than by looking from only a single perspective (Neuman, 2014:166). Leedy and Ormond (2014:104) over that in triangulation, multiple sources of data, for example from mixed methods designs in which quantitative and qualitative data, are collected to converge to support a particular theory or hypo-dissertation and to answer a single research question. Therefore, triangulation is the idea of looking at something from multiple points of view to improve accuracy (Neuman, 2014:166).

Out of the nine types of triangulation, this study used the triangulation of mixed methods (Brink *et al.,* 2014:99; Neuman, 2014:167). This is when researchers mix the qualitative and quantitative research approaches and data to get rich and comprehensive data. Mixing the two approaches occurred sequentially by using the quantitative method first, followed by the qualitative approach (Brink *et al.,* 2014:99; Neuman, 2014:167). The researcher administered an Interview Protocol using semi-structured interviews to gather the respondent's experiences.

According to Flick (2002, cited in Denzin & Lincoln, 2013), triangulation is not a tool or a strategy of validation but an alternative to validation. The combination of multiple methodological practices, empirical materials, perspectives, and observers in a single study is best understood, then, as a strategy that adds rigour, breath complexity, richness, and depth to any inquiry (Flick, 2002, cited in Denzin & Lincoln, 2013). Last, triangulation was used because it was considered one of the best ways to enhance validity and reliability in qualitative research (Babbie, 2007).

Dependability: Dependability is defined as the likelihood of getting the same outcome of an action using similar participants (Brink *et al.,* 2014). The researcher while conducting the study was in consultation with the supervisor to adhere on principles of qualitative research. A throughout research strategy as followed and methods of data collection were explained. Dependability of the study was achieved through the evaluation of the quality of the process of data collection, theory generation and data analysis.

Confirmability: Bless *et al.,* (2014) defines conformability' as the harmonisation of data in terms of relevance, accuracy and meaning. In a way, qualitative research the researcher adopt measures of documenting the procedures of rechecking data and identify inconsistencies with previous research. The researcher digitally recorded the interviews, thereafter transcribing was done. Given that the information of the study was primary-sourced, themes generated were referred to earlier studies on the same topic. A qualified transcriber was used to verify the themes and categories. Direct quotations from the participants were used were necessary. Bless *et al.,* (2014) pointed out that by including direct quotes from the participants from the original data, the researchers allow the reader to hear what participants said and how it was interpreted. De Vos *et al.,* (2014) argued that few authors have anything to add or say on the use of direct quotations in a qualitative study. This study opted to use short, eye-catching quotations which are easy to understand and read without losing the meaning of what the participants said. De Vos *et al.,* (2014) posit that such quotes are of significance and used to verify something in the text or a different perspective.

Transferability: Transferability is defined as the degree to which the study findings can be transferred or generalised to other contexts or settings (Brink *et al.,* 2014). The primary objective of the researcher was not to generalise the study findings, rather explain observations within a specific context in which they occur. Qualitative research does not necessarily require external validity because of the uniqueness of each researcher but on transferability. Therefore, since the study had more descriptive research context it was more transferable than a study with a less descriptive research context.

Reliability: Reliability is the extent to which the results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the population under study (Babbie and Mouton, 2002:81). If the results can be produced under a similar method consistently, then the research is said to be reliable. Following Babbie and Mouton (2002:81) the following steps were done to maintain the reliability of the instrument.

- The same instrument was administered in the whole sample and the arrangement
  of questions was consistent.

A number of precautions were applied during the research process to boost reliability and a validity of the gathered data. Cooper and Schindler (2008:289) define validity as the extent to which a test measures what one actually wishes to measure. Joppe (2002:234) defines reliability as the extent to which results are consistent over time; hence reliability is the degree to which the instrument can be depended upon to yield consistent results if used repeatedly over time involving the same person. A pilot study was conducted in order to ensure the reliability of the data collection instrument.

Validity: Furthermore, Cooper and Schindler (2008:289) mentioned four types of validity in research. These are as follows:

- Face validity requires the research instrument to be relevant to participants in the study.
- The research instrument was valid for the respondents in that it managed to capture the data that was needed.
- Content validity is the extent to which the research provides adequate coverage of the investigative questions guiding the study (Cooper and Schindler, 2008:290). The design of the questionnaire covered the relevant issues that were sort by the study.
- Criterion validity is concerned with the ability of the measures (questions) to make accurate predictions (Saunders *et al.,* 2007:366). The validity criteria were satisfied because the questions managed to make accurate predictions based on what was provided.
- Concurrent validity is a description of the present. The research instrument was measuring the present because the structure of the question was centred on the present situation.

3.19 Elimination of Bias

To remain objectively as possible, the researcher designed the research instrument noting that stereotyping terms are excluded. During the data gathering process, respondents were not asked for personal or private information. Hence, respondents were asked a same set of questions. Moreover, the researcher avoided leading questions, but, tried to clarify certain questions that were asked by respondents who

could not properly interpret. This was done to avoid directing respondents to certain answers that would only suit the study. To sum, all diligent steps were taken to avoid biases in the whole study.

3.20 Ethical issues

Ethical consideration is a matter of sensitivity to other people's rights (Cohen *et al.*, 2000). The following ethical aspects were adhered to in this study.

3.20.1 Informed Consent

In conducting the study, the researcher made sure that participants take part without being forced. A formal request was sent to the participants before partaking in the study. The purpose of the research was clearly explained to the participants and information relevant to the study was also provided.

3.20.2 Voluntary Participation

At the initial stages of each interview session, the purpose of this study was explained to each respondent before the interview proceeds. They were informed that their participation is completely voluntary and that they have the right to withdraw from participating at any time during the course of the interview session if they feel the need to do so, and that there would be no negative consequences for them should they make such a choice

3.20.3 Confidentiality

The principles of confidentiality with regard to information that was provided to participants was maintained. The names of the participants were not divulged in the research report which would be produced at the end of the study. The study focuses on only the ideas and not the identities of the participants, and it will not be possible to associate any ideas or thoughts which were expressed with any particular individual participant.

3.20.4 Beneficence and respect for persons

Beneficence requires a commitment to minimising the risks associated with the research, including both psychological and social risks. The researcher undertakes

that no participant was harmed through their participation in the study. Likewise, participants were protected from exploitation and their dignity respected.

Summary of steps followed:

- A detailed application was submitted to the Research Ethics Committee of the University for approval to conduct the study;
- Permission, consent and approval were obtained from the participants;
- Participants were not subjected to any risk of unusual stress, embarrassment or loss of self-esteem;
- The researcher ensured that participants would remain anonymous;
- The right to privacy and confidentiality of information was guaranteed by a written statement in the cover letter

The study was conducted in accordance with the ethical requirements to report findings in an honest way.

3.21 Conclusion

The chapter introduced the research methods that were used to conduct the study. This included the research design, population and sampling, data collection methods, data analysis procedures and reliability as well as the validity of data gathered. The study followed a qualitative approach. Issues of validity and reliability concerning the data collection and analysis of data were clearly dealt with. The next chapter will give a discussion and analysis of the results that were received from the respondents.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher presents the results obtained from this study on the perception of the academic staff towards an academic development program implemented in one of the Universities in the Eastern Cape Province. Data were collected from fifteen (15) academic staff from five (5) faculties at the university namely; Faculty of Agriculture, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Faculty of Education, Faculty of Management and Commerce as well as Faculty of Science. Due to the time-consuming nature of the interviews, the researcher randomly selected three (3) respondents from each campus to participate in primary data collection. The respondents were given code names such as R1 for Respondent One (1), R2 for Respondent Two (2) and so on. Interviews were administered by the well trained Masters' students who were familiar with the research at hand and who had previously participated in conducting interviews at University and outside in the corporate world.

Different themes are used in this chapter to provide answers to the predetermined research questions. The main aim of the study was to determine the academic staff perceptions of the current development programme at the university. Further, this study was specifically carried out to fulfil the following objectives:

- To investigate the approaches to Academic Skills Development used by the University;
- To understand academic staff perceptions relating to training and development at the University;
- To determine ways of improving academic skills development at the University; and
- To identify the challenges faced by academic staff in their training and development at the University

Thematic analysis was implemented in this study to analyse data. The results are presented in different themes and where necessary direct quotes are used so as to capture the actual feelings and opinions of the respondents. In order to have a logical

flow of the research findings, the chapter firstly presents the demographic information of the respondents in the first section and then provide the findings pertaining to the different objectives listed above in the following sections.

4.2 Demographic Details of the Respondents

As mentioned in the introductory section, data were collected from fifteen (15) academic staff at one university in the Eastern Cape Province. The respondents were asked to indicate their age group, gender, position in the university, years of experience, faculty as well as their highest level of academic qualification. The information is presented in Table 4.1 presented below.

Table 4.1: Demographic Information of the Respondents

Respondent	Gender	Age Group	Position	Faculty	Years of Experience in the Faculty	Highest Level of Academic Qualification
R1	Male	26-30	Junior Lecturer	Management & Commerce	5 years	Masters
R2	Female	31-35	Junior Lecturer	Management and Commerce	10 years	Doctorate
R3	Female	20-25	Research Administrator	Management and Commerce	2 years	Honours
R4	Male	20-25	Research Administrator	Agriculture	2 years	Honours
R5	Male	36-40	Senior Lecturer	Agriculture	8 years	Doctorate
R6	Male	36-40	Research Supervisor	Agriculture	14 years	Doctorate
R7	Female	41-45	Postgrad Research Manager and Supervisor	Social Sciences and Humanities	18 years	Doctorate
R8	Female	26-30	Junior Lecturer	Social Sciences and Humanities	2 years	Masters

R9	Male	46-50	Research Coordinator	Social Sciences and Humanities	5 years	Masters
R10	Female	21-25	Research Administrator	Education	1 year	General Degree
R11	Male	31-35	Lecturer	Education	5 years	Masters
R12	Female	36-40	Postgraduate Lecturer	Education	8 years	Doctorate
R13	Male	26-30	Course Coordinator	Nursing Sciences	3 years	Honours
R14	Male	31-35	Senior Lecturer	Nursing Sciences	2 years	Masters
R15	Male	26-30	Junior Lecturer	Chemistry	1 year	Masters

Table 4.1 presents the demographic information of the respondents as obtained from primary data collection. The study shows that out of the total of fifteen (15) respondents that participated in this study, nine (9) of them were male while the remaining 6 respondents were female. Expressed as a percentage, 60% of the respondents were male while the remaining 40% were female. This implies that when generalising the research findings to the entire population, the results will be more biased towards male respondents than it is for female respondents.

The table also shows the different age groups of the respondents. The respondents in this study were aged between 20 years to 45 years. The table shows that two out of 15 respondents, i.e. 13% were in the age group 20-25 years. In addition to this, those who were aged between 26-30 years represented 27% of the respondents. In the age group of the 30s was 20% who were aged between 31-35 years during the time data were collected. This was followed by the respondents in the age group 36-40 years who represented 20% of the respondents. Only one respondent was aged between 41-45 years and another one in the age group 46-50 years. These age groups represent the equal distribution of respondents from youngsters to middle-aged to elderly which also imply that the research findings are likely to represent the opinions of different age groups when generalised to a bigger population.

The participants of this study had diverse professionals which ranged from faculty administrators, junior lecturers, senior lecturers, research supervisors as well as

project managers. These findings also imply that the research findings will represent opinions from different people in different stations of work, hence; the findings are more likely to be applicable to different professions.

Table 4.1 also shows that the respondents were drawn from five faculties at the university and the respondents had a tenure which ranged from one year to 18 years. In terms of highest levels of academic qualifications, the results show that there was a high level of academic qualification among the respondents since the least qualified had bachelor's degrees while the highest qualified respondents had doctorate degrees.

4.3 Findings pertaining to Research Question One

Research question one was designed in order to determine the approaches to academic skills development used by the university. The research question was as follows:

Research Question One: Which approaches to academic skills development are used by the university?

An interview guide was designed in order to enable the respondents to provide answers pertaining to the academic development programs they use in their faculty and departments. When the respondents were asked about the approach they use which enhances their development, several approaches were provided which range from the student-focus approach, communities approach and cross-disciplinary approach.

4.3.1 Student-Focus Approach as an Approach to Academic Skills Development

Following the interviews conducted, the research found that some of the respondents make use of the student-focus approach as a method for academic skills development. According to Richardson (2005), student-focus approach focus on encouraging faculty members to examine their teaching and learning practices through a reflective inquiry. This involves student feedback acting as an input in the development process. Some

of the respondents were directly quoted as indicated by one of the respondents quoted below.

> "*In conducting my lectures, my intention is to ensure that every student understands what is expected of them in terms of their curriculum. However, by just merely looking at the students, or talking throughout the entire double periods, it is extremely difficult to come to a conclusion on whether they have understood or not. As a result, the culture I have been using for the past year is that I ask learners to participate as well. By participating, I mean they have to tell me and their classmates what they have understood throughout the week or any given number of lectures. Their feedback reflects back to me all the areas they are lacking, what needs to be improved and the areas that have been well mastered"* (Response from R1).

In addition to the research findings obtained from R1, another participant indicated that he makes use of the student-focus approach as a way of developing his students academically as well as his personal development. The respondent is quoted as follows:

> "*Ever since I started supervising students in their research projects, I have always ensured that I make sure that the students understand the concept of doing research. Research is an easy process but learners tend to complicate it. To uncomplicate the complication, I conduct my consultation with my students. I ask them to read and reveal what we have done and what they understand and what they fail to understand. In doing so, I challenge them to go and read until they understand all the areas they have difficulties to understand. And, of course, I assist them when they need help*". (Response from R7).

Lastly, one of the respondents also indicated that the use of a student-focused approach is one of the best ways to ensure that there is academic development for both the learners and their course coordinators. Respondent R12 has the following to say:

"*I am persuaded that one of the essential ways to ensure that learners understand what they are being taught is by involving them in the process of providing feedback. Feedback is always important and it can be done in different ways. Either by emails or anonymous notes where the students just have to drop into the box all the critical areas they need clarification on*". (Response from R12)

Considering the responses obtained from primary data collection as indicated in the direct quotations above, it is essential to come up with conclusions that student-focused approach plays a significant role in both the academic staff and students' personal and academic development. As supported by Makondo (2014) student-centred approach to personal development enable the students to "crack the code" in all the difficulties, learn essential skills, intellectual power as well as enhanced abilities to deal with diverse situations.

4.3.2 Communities Approach as an Approach to Academic Skills Development

In addition to the student-approach to skills development discussed in the preceding section, this study also found that some academic staff make use of the communities approach in order to enhance their skills development. Communities approach to skills development is described as the idea of sharing of ideas and interactivity of participants for it to be effective. As a technique for skills development, some of the respondents are quoted below.

"*We tend to meet different students throughout the process and at times we even face difficulties as members of the staff to understand what is expected of us. At times you even embarrass yourself when you are presenting your year-end results to your bosses and so as the learners to us. As a result, I saw it essential to use an approach entitled communities approach which enable, especially my students, to share ideas on any teaching staff and the particulars that need to be understood. At times I even share with my work colleagues the skills and ways to better do things and attain our objectives*". (Response from R12).

Similarly, Respondent 14 also indicated that he uses the same approach, but in a different dimension and incorporates different methods simultaneously. This respondent is quoted below:

> "*In order to ensure that both of us (academic staff and students) fully develop in terms of our skills, I ensure that the secrets to success are collectively shared. What is good for one person can also be good for another person. So why can't we share the ideas in order to create a better world for everyone? On top of that, I allow my students to provide feedback on the important steps to better their skills development. In doing so, we can provide one another with important feedback and enable other learners to learn from the perceived successful ones*". (Response from R14).

From the findings obtained from primary data collection as indicated above, it can also be concluded that the communities approach is one of the programmes that are essential for academic staff development. Their development is in turn important for students' development because they are the end products of the staff development. With regard to communities approach, it is important for a selective group of individuals. For instance, this method is particularly effective for a limited number of participants who are novice, insecure and poor performing, and it consisted of workshops without critical engagement (Dixon and Scott, 2008).

4.3.3 Cross-Disciplinary Approach as an Approach to Academic Skills Development

The last approach that has been identified in this study as an approach currently used for academic staff development within the university under study is the cross-disciplinary approach. According to Leask *et al.,* (2005), there is a need to be concentrated efforts were activities should be centralised so as to strengthen the weakness of other approaches used in skills development. In doing so, a collection of approaches are used for skills development. As one of the respondents quoted below cross-disciplinary approach is less costly as it turns to complement the strengths of one approach on the weaknesses of another.

"…the use of interdisciplinary approaches, that is, the incorporation of different learning approaches is essential because it enables combined and diverse ways of personal development. This is basically cheaper since people will concentrate on diversified efforts and put more effort into what is good for their personal development". (Response from R9).

In light of the findings indicated above, Chabaya (2015) notes that a combined approach can enhance learning since participants will share ideas from the diversity of these groups. However, Hicks (1999) posits that the cross-disciplinary model suffers a major weakness of lack of coordination and has the potential for duplication.

4.4 Findings Pertaining to Research Question Two

Research question two was designed in order to determine the perceptions of the academic staff in the training and development at the university. The research question was listed as follows:

What are the academic staff's perceptions of the training and development at the University?

Several questions were asked during the interviews in order to determine the perceptions of the respondents regarding the training and development at the university. One of the questions asked during the interviews was why the respondents registered for the particular program they undertake in their faculty. Several responses were obtained for this question, hence; different themes were used in order to make the presentation of results easier and clearer to the reader.

4.4.1 Reasons for registering to participate in the Academic Staff Development Programme

In order to find the overall perceptions of the respondents based on the entire academic staff development programme, the respondents were asked to indicate the reasons why they registered to participate in the academic staff development programme. The following section shows different motives which include skills development, personal development as well as experience.

4.4.1.1 Skills Development

One of the objectives cited by the majority of the respondents on the reason why they joined a particular academic staff development programme is that of skills development. Skills development is constantly needed in the universities as it determines the quality of students produced and also determines the nature in which lectures are conducted (Tierney, 2001). In this study, the respondents noted different reasons why skills development through the academic staff development programme is essential in their career as indicated in the quotes below.

> *"….skills development is essential as it enables us to conduct our duties efficiently and effectively. I joined this academic development programme in my faculty because it is very important for skills development. We learn skills every day and in different ways. However, through the on-going programme, there are several mentors who ensure that people acquire new skills through several ways and other approaches as I have mentioned earlier on in this interview such as the feedback mechanism and the communities approach where the ideas have to be shared. So, yeah, skills are needed and they are easily acquired through the current development initiative*". (Response from R1).

Similarly, another respondent also noted the impact of the academic development programme on the skills enhancement. Respondent six is quoted below.

> *"….the current academic development programme in our department is very crucial because it enhances the skills of my colleagues and mine as well. In my department, there are many interns who require hands-on for them to become familiar with the necessary skills necessary to conduct jobs. With this programme, my counterparts are encouraged by being involved in the entire programmes, be it from the planning phase to the execution phase. In doing so, the skills are acquired just like on-the-job training from the beginning until the end of the entire process*". (Response from R6).

As mentioned in the literature in the previous chapters, the academic development programmes are essential as they have the ability to develop the required skills (Taylor, 2005). Consequently, the respondents have noted how their skills are

developed through the prevailing academic staff development programme. In South Africa, the development of staff in HEIs is seen as an important aspect particularly in the present day where globalisation and technological development has increased the competitive edge among the educational institutions. As a result, the skills acquired to enable the development of the academic staff and enhanced competitiveness with different HEIs.

4.4.1.2 Personal Development

In addition to the issue of skills development discussed above, some of the respondents indicated that they joined the particular academic staff development programme for their personal development.

> "*I registered to participate in this programme so as to better myself professionally. That is this programme enables me to have professional growth. In doing so, I mean I am getting more skilled in the professional area or in the career that I want to do. As an educator and a research supervisor, I need to better myself and improve my skills set for the job I currently do. Even if I leave this job for another one, I will always go with my developed personality*". (Response from R8).

In addition, one of the respondents also notes that participating in this programme is essential because it tends to improve their confidence levels. The respondent is quoted below.

> "*..the staff development programme that was introduced in my faculty has the ability to improve the confidence level of the academic staff. In our line of work, confidence is required as it explains your worth in from of the learners and the stakeholders who depend on you. The more confidence one develops, the better the personality of that person. As a result, it is important to continuously embark in training and development programmes for the academic staff for the benefit of the students*". (Response from R8)

Review of literature also reveals that attending staff development initiatives, such as seminars, is important because it develops the academic staff in their personal

capacity to practice their duties (Scott and Scott, 2005). As mentioned by the interviewees, there are several ways in which their personalities tend to be developed. It can be either by focussing on the trainees through their feedback or by sharing ideas on the development agendas (Quinn, 2006).

4.4.1.3 Experience

The study also found that some of the respondents joined the prevailing academic staff development programme in order to gain experience. The respondents indicated that experience is gained by continuously participating in the academic staff development programmes as well as taking up prominent roles throughout the sessions. Some of the responses are quoted in the following section.

> *"…the skills development programme also allows me to gain more experience. I mean, the more the skills are developed, the more experience I acquire. Experienced workers normally take little lead time to articulate challenges and it takes more courage to become experienced especially in our field of work as academics. So by participating in the academic skills development facilitated in my department, I was given an opportunity to gain more knowledge and experience in terms of my conduct. Programmes like this have helped me to gain a great deal of knowledge*". (Response from R10).

In addition to this respondent, another interviewee indicated similar reasons for participating in the academic staff development programme. The respondent is quoted as follows:

> *"…education is a continuous process and even if you think that you have reached the apex of the educational system, at times you find out that you still need a little bit of experience in order to be perfect in conducting your daily duties. I registered to participate in this staff development programme because I want to gain as much experience as possible. In these programmes, we tend to focus on different individuals from diverse backgrounds; we do different tasks some are harder while others can be easily got done. The focal point of all these staff development programmes is to make sure that the participants get as much experience as possible*". (Response from R14).

Considering the findings obtained during primary data collection as indicated by some of the responses quoted above, an analysis of the existing literature also shows that participating in various academic staff development programmes has an important implication on their developmental levels. According to Quinn (2012), participating in the training programmes on the job and off the job enable a diversity of the respondents in terms of their skills usage and knowledge. Hence, the findings obtained during primary data collection comply with the existing literature that training and development through several alternatives are important since it improves the confidence levels of the participants, their experience as well as skills acquisitions.

4.4.2 Expected benefits for participating in Academic Staff Development Programme

In order to ascertain the perceptions of the respondents regarding the entire academic staff development programme, they were also asked to indicate the benefits they hope to achieve through their participation. The following question was asked:

What benefits are you hoping to get from it (participating in the academic staff development programme)?

The responses obtained from this study during primary data collection were diverse based on the participants of this study and also the fact that they differed due to different motives. The sections that follow shows four different themes on the reasons for participating in the staff development initiative and these include skills acquisition, networking, knowledge acquisition as well as personal development.

4.4.2.1 Skills Acquisition

As noted in the previous sections, one of the motives for participating in the academic staff development programmes is skills acquisition. The majority of the respondents indicated that they registered to take part in the staff development programme because of its ability to improve their skills set. Some of the respondents are quoted below.

"….this programme is important because of its ability to improve the skills of

academic staff on an intensive scale. Through teamwork that is necessitated through this program, the participants in the academic development programme are able to collectively acquire necessary skills required for their personal development as well as professional enhancement". (Response from R15).

In addition to this respondent, another participant noted the impact of the programme at hand on her personal skills development. The respondent s quoted as follows:

"*I decided to register to participate in this programme because personally, I am not a quite skilled person. Through this program, I hope that my skills will be improved and will enable me to work in the department for a long time if they are satisfied with my skills. I just hope this academic staff development programme is going to be worth it in my career path*". (Response from R13).

Based on these findings, literature also supports the impact of academic staff development programmes on the improvement of the skills of the respondents. In light of this, Murphy (2014) notes that the main purpose of introducing particular skills development programmes is to ensure that there is an improvement in the skills of the participants. Hence, the findings obtained from primary data collection are in line with the existing theoretical and empirical literature.

4.4.2.2 Networking

Networking has also been identified as one of the benefits that the academic staff participating in a development programme wishes to achieve. Networking is a system of linking individuals who have common interests. Some of the respondents indicated that by participating in the academic staff development programme at hand, one of their secondary aims is to increase networks in terms of professional development and other social reasons. One of the respondents is quoted below:

"*Besides skills development, I also think that the development programme at hand helps me to link-up with other people who share the same interests as I do. You know through these networks, one can link up with the potential*

employers or even someone who will become a long-lasting friend if we click" (Response from R8 interviewed on 20 October 2017).

Similarly, one of the respondents linked the training programmes at hand to his passion and hopes that the programmes are the beginning of many other programmes to follow. This respondent is quoted below.

"*I have never participated in academic staff development programmes of this nature anywhere and this is actually the first I have attended. As someone young in this career, I feel it that it is a good start for me and I love the program. I just hope that I get in touch with the facilitators so that I attended a couple of these programmes in different locations so that I get to see how other people do it. This is indeed a networking opportunity for young professionals like me*" (Response from R4 interviewed on 20 October 2017).

Having considered these findings from primary data collection, literature also maintains that through training and development initiatives, different individuals tend to network and establish links that are essential for personal and professional development (Marlow, 2009). Hence, a conclusion can be brought that the respondents perceive the training programme to be beneficial to them either professionally or personally.

4.4.2.3 Knowledge Acquisition

Further, the academic development programme at hand is also perceived to be beneficial in terms of its ability to increase the propensity of the respondents to acquire new knowledge. Some of the respondents indicated that knowledge acquisition is a continuous process and it is up to the participant to continuously absorb it or not. The respondents quoted below participated in primary data collection through the interviews.

"*The whole idea of all these training programmes is to ensure that academic staff becomes knowledgeable because the academic discipline requires people who look for knowledge continuously. I encourage people to participate in such programmes as they are essential in terms of knowledge acquisition and there*

are whole lots of ways in which people gain such important knowledge". (Response from R7).

In addition, one of the junior lecturers in the Faculty of Management and Commerce indicated that the academic development programmes are important because they enable the participants to make themselves better regarding particular skills they focus on. This respondent is quoted in the following section.

> *"I have been attending staff development programmes in this university for a long time. I think this is my fourth one in a period of 4 years. I have been attending just to get to learn everything but I came to the realisation that there is actually more to these academic development initiatives. One can choose to learn everything but these days I am focussing on focusing on something – a niche area. The whole idea of me joining this academic development programme is to enhance my personal and professional development but not through being the jack of all trades, but through the acquisition of knowledge in a particular field or in something that is not known by everyone*". (Response from R2).

Similar to the issue of the impact of training and development on skills acquisition, literature also reveals that individuals participating in staff development programmes have the edge to learn more knowledgeable aspects than those who do not (Makawiti, 2011). This view is supported by Marlow (2009) who notes that through training and development, experienced individuals put all their efforts to ensure that someone learns something, hence; in light of this study and as indicated by the respondents quoted above, the academic staff development programme is perceived to be beneficial in terms of knowledge acquisition.

4.4.3 Expected Skill to be acquired through Participating in Academic Staff Development Program

In addition to the perceptions discussed above regarding the reasons why the respondents joined the particular programme as well as the perceived benefits, the study also found out that there are several skills that the respondents hoped to attain.

The skills range from analytical skills, computer knowledge, programming, problem-solving, decision making, and coordinating as well as project management. Some of the responses obtained from primary data collection are indicated below.

4.4.3.1 Analytical Skills

Some of the respondents noted that they hope to acquire analytical skills in the process of participating in the academic staff development programme. The following quotes were directly obtained from the interviews.

> "*In my line of duty, and as a research manager, and at the same time working with diverse students, I work with different models which require analytical skills. Even though I have been involved as a researcher in the department for quite a long time, I strongly believe that I should constantly learn analytical skills because research is dynamic and continuously changing. I, therefore, participate in such staff development programmes with the hope that my analytical skills will be enhanced*". (Response from R6).

Another respondent also said a similar response in terms of the improvement of analytical skills as quoted below:

> "…*as a result, the participation of academic staff in staff development programmes is essential because it improves the skills required to analyse different situations and to think outside the box. If the training programme leads to the improvement in the analytical skills of the academic staff then it is worth it because at the end the quality of our graduates in terms of their academic skills will also be improved"*. (Response from R11).

An analysis of the prevailing literature also notes that there are several skills that are learned through participating in staff development programmes. For instance, Makondo (2014) notes that the analytical skills as well as the ways in which people articulate problems can be improved through training and development as well as continued participation in such programmes. In addition to this perceived skills development, some respondents also noted that they hope to improve their technology usage as discussed in the section that follows.

4.4.3.2 Computer Knowledge, Software Usage and Elementary Programming

As indicated above, the respondents indicated that they hoped that by participating in the academic staff development project in question, they will be able to improve their technical skills which include their computer knowledge, the use of different computer software as well as computer programming. The quotes below were obtained from primary data collection.

> "*..there is software we use in our department for data analysis and presentation and some of them require strong computer command and programming knowledge. With the on-going training, I hope that I will be able to acquire more computer skills so as to easily command the information for any form of analysis I need*". (Response from R4).

In addition, the researcher also observed that some of the respondents hoped that they will be able to improve their basic computer skills since the computers form the basis of all the forms of work in the contemporary world of work. The respondent is quoted below.

> "*I hope that the current staff development programme will enable me to fully equip myself with elementary programming knowledge and other forms of computer usage because, in the present day work environment, computer skills are needed not only at entry level but at an advanced level. I am almost there and I hope that with my continued participation in the staff development programmes, I will acquire all the necessary computer skills required*" (Response from R15).

4.4.3.3 Problem Solving and Decision Making Skills

Skills development is a broad aspect which is beneficial in several ways. In this study, some of the respondents noted that they are participating in the academic staff development programme because they hope that their decision-making skills, as well as problem-solving, will improve. Similarly, the existing literature also notes that participation in training programmes is essential as it leads to the improvement in skills which are required for problem-solving and for decision making (Luzeckyi and Badger,

2007). The quotes below were obtained from the interviews during primary data collection.

> *"..with the existing curricula on academic staff development, I have noticed that there are decision making and problem-solving particulars. These are some of the skills I hope to achieve in this training because I have always wanted to enhance my decision making and problem-solving skills. Of course, there are some things that are just a repetition to me but as for problem-solving and decision making, I would do it again and again because problems always come in different dimensions*". (Response from R9).

In addition to the quotation above, one of the respondents also noted that in her line of work, she is faced with critical areas in which she has to make vital decisions for the entire department. As a lecturer in one of the vital sectors in South Africa, i.e. the education sector, there are essential decisions which have to be made and they determine the overall performance of the entire department. The respondent is quoted below.

> "*Participating in this academic staff development programme has to definitely improve my decision-making skills because it is very vital in my job in the department. I am pretty convinced that the programme is very reaching in its ability to improve the people's decision-making standings and I would appreciate it very much if I gain knowledge in one or more things*". (Response from R11).

In light of these findings obtained from primary data collection, some scholars also note that participating in training and development initiatives is important in the field of academics because it enables the beneficiaries to acquire decision-making skills which are then passed on the students in the form of lectures and consultations (Makondo, 2010). As a result, while the discussion is continuing, it is essential to note that the whole idea of embarking in training and development such as the one on-going is to improve skills which are diverse in nature as noted in this study up to this far.

4.4.4 Impact of Academic Staff Development Programme on the Individual Performance

While the discussion on the perceptions of the academic staff on the academic staff development programme is continuing, the respondents were also asked to indicate the impact of the programme in question on their individual performance. The following question was posed to the respondents:

Will it (academic development programme) enhance your individual performance at the end of it?

Upon completion of primary data collection, mixed responses were obtained. Some of the respondents were confident that the programme they joined has a positive impact on their individual performance while other respondents were not certain. In the same way, some of the respondents were of the view that the programmes are designed to improve the individual performance of the participants if they (participants) effectively and efficiently implement them. In the end, two different themes namely; confidence and efficiency were obtained.

4.4.4.1 Individual Confidence Levels

One of the implications of the participation in the academic staff development programme is its impact on the individual confidence levels. The respondents indicated that through participation in the programme in question, different mentors, communities approach and learner-centred approaches enable the participants not only to grasp the required concepts in conducting their daily duties but have an overall implication on their confidence levels. Some of the responses quoted from primary data collection are indicated below.

> *"…as I have mentioned earlier, I chose to participate in this programme because of different motivations. Of course skills development is one of my motives but at the end, I want to be confident in myself. I have to learn new ways of doing things and in the end, my confidence level is all that matters in my job. I get to meet a lot of people in my job and trust me, if you are not confident enough, you end up quitting*". (Response from R8).

One of the respondents also mentioned the issues of increased confidence as a motivation for participating in the academic staff development programme but was not certain as to whether the project will enhance their confidence levels or not. The respondent is quoted in the following section.

> "*Well, you know we all train and develop ourselves for different reasons. Some of us, especially me, need to boost our confidence levels. I am young and still new to the field of lecturing and research and you know I meet a lot of staff which is intimidating. Some of them see me as a student because I look like them (students). Because of this, I want the academic development programme to improve my confidence levels. However, I am not really sure if it will lead to the enhancement of my confidence levels. This is not my first time attending such programmes, I have been attending one after the other but I still have this fright when I am doing things*". (Response from R10).

As clearly indicated in the selected responses above, to a certain extent the respondents hoped that the academic staff development programme will enhance their confidence levels while to another extent some of them were uncertain. However, the literature shows that participating in development programmes of any sort have positive implications in the sense that they increase the skills set of participants and so does their confidence levels (Richardson, 2005). Similarly, other scholars such as Makondo (2014) mentioned the issues of the participants being able to "crack the code" after having participated in the academic staff development programme. In his studies, Makondo (2014) maintains that the staff development programmes will enable the impossible to be possible and through participating in such programmes, there will be an improvement in the participants' level of confidence.

4.4.4.2 Individual Efficiency

In addition to the issue of the individual level of confidence discussed in the preceding section, some of the respondents perceived that participating in the academic staff development programme has an impact on the individual's efficiency levels in doing their duties. Similar to the dimension discussed above, some of the respondents were pretty confident that their individual performance will be improved while others were

not certain. The quotes below were obtained from two different individuals from different faculties who participated in primary data collection.

> "*Personally, I am not the fastest person in terms of doing my duties. I believe that there is a need to be efficient in conducting individual task, that is, time must be managed well, resources must be well allocated and put to good use, I must meet my work deadlines, I have to be able to achieve all my work objectives, in fact, I have to be efficient in everything I do. Personally, I am pretty sure that my individual performance will be improved in the sense that I will be able to acquire the necessary skills that have a positive implication on the way I do my job*". (Response from R15).

The response above was obtained from a junior lecturer who was confident that participating in the academic staff development programme had a positive impact in the sense that it improves her level of efficiency. On the other hand, one of the respondents was uncertain about whether the academic development programme had particulars which lead to the improvement in the individual performance levels. The respondent is quoted below.

> "*Individual performance is important because it tends to determine collective performance when all the individual performances are combined. What I am not sure about is whether this staff development programme will have an impact on the way people perform individually because I have noticed that most of the things are done in groups. In terms of group efficiency, I agree, but I doubt very much if there will be a strong impact on the individuals*". (Response from R1).

The responses indicated above also shows different opinions on the impact of the academic staff development programme on the individual performance. Nonetheless, an analysis of the existing literature pointed out that participating in academic staff development programmes have an impact that they develop the individuals in terms of the way they articulate their tasks as well as their levels of efficiency (Steyn, 2010). In light of these findings, Luzeckyi and Badger (2007) maintain that the training and development initiatives have a significant impact on the teaching practices if they are articulated at group levels rather than at individual levels. Hence, the mixed findings

obtained in this study pertaining to the impact of the academic staff development programmes are in line with the existing literature.

4.4.5 Overall Impact of the Academic Staff Development Programme

Finally, the respondents were asked to indicate whether the academic staff development programme will lead to the improvement of anything. The following question was posed during the interview:

Will the programme improve anything? What will that be? Please explain.

The respondents were asked this question in order to determine their perceptions in terms of the impact of the academic staff development programme. This question is similar to the one discussed earlier in this chapter and the purpose of asking this question was to ensure that the research findings are triangulated together since interviews enable the interviewers to manipulate the interviewees to open up and deeply explore into their feelings. The researcher found out that the participants were hoping that their participation in the development programme would have an impact on skills development, personal development, professional development and networking as well as their levels of experience.

4.4.5.1 Improvement in the Skills

Some of the responses concerning the impact of the participation in the academic staff development programme on the improvement of the participants' skills are quoted below.

> "*As I have mentioned before, participating in the academic staff development programme in my faculty is essential because it leads to the improvement in the skills of the individuals as well as throughout the department*". (Response from R13).

Another respondent who seconded the opinion of R13 also mentioned similar sentiments regarding skills development is quoted below.

"*Through this program, I hope that my skills will be improved and will enable me to work in the department for a long time if they are satisfied with my skills. I just hope this academic staff development programme is going to be worth it in my career path*". (Response from R13).

4.4.5.2 Enhancement of Personal Development

In terms of personal development, the majority of the respondents noted that it is one of their objectives for participating in this course. The respondents noted that they will personally develop to the extent that their skills and way in which they do their jobs will be improved. The quotes below were obtained from primary data collection.

> *"This programme enables me to have professional growth. In doing so, I mean I am getting more skilled in the professional area or in the career that I want to do. As an educator and a research supervisor, I need to better myself and improve my skills set for the job I currently do".* (Response from R8).

In addition, one of the respondents is quoted as follows.

> "*With the staff development programme at hand, one develops more confidence. The more confidence one develops, the better the personality of that person"*. (Response from R8).

It is clear from these findings that participating in academic development programmes is beneficial in a variety of ways. Literature also reveals that the academic development programmes are important because of their ability to develop the personalities of the participants. Studies show that attending staff development initiatives, such as seminars, is important because it develops the academic staff in their personal capacity to practice their duties (Scott and Scott, 2005).

4.4.6 Impact of Academic Staff Development on the Current Job

Another question that was asked by the research to determine the perceptions of the stuff in regards to training and development was:

Is this program useful for your current job? In addition, in what way?

A number of responses were received from this question and different themes were used to interpret the results in an easy way.

4.4.6.1 Relevance in required skill

Following the interviews were done by the researcher, the study found out that training and development programs are relevant to the jobs that are done by the respondents and they improve the way that they do their jobs. Richardson (2005) states that training and development are required for all staff as it enhances the skills that the staff have. The following responses were directly quoted from respondents as indicated below.

> *"This program is very important in carrying out my job as it helps me to acquire new skills on how to do my job. For instance how to deliver lectures to a new group of students like first years who are not used to the university type of learning. These programs also allow one to reflect on how they do their jobs and identify what they are doing wrong"*. (Response from R6).

In addition to the research findings obtained from R6, another participant indicated that academic skills development is a useful initiative as it brings relevance to the work they do. The response received was quoted as follows:

> "*Academic skills development is vital in what we do as university teaching staff. There are things that we need to be reminded through training programs that enhance our experience that will contribute to the success of students in their studies. So will encourage all universities to carry out such programs"* (Response from R3).

Looking at the responses received from respondents as indicated in the direct quotations above, it is critical to come up with conclusions that academic skills development is important and relevant to the academic staff and contribute to the students' academic excellence. Makondo (2004) states that skills development and training allows employees to gain knowledge that can be transformed it into skills that be used on daily basis.

4.4.6.2 Time Saving

Adding on to the question that was asked to respondents on whether skills development is useful for your current job and in what way. The study reviewed that skills development and training saves time. A number of responses were received to support this notion as shown in the following direct quotes.

> "*Academic skills development saves time as it allows the teaching staff to be educated on important as aspects of teaching over a short space of time. There is no need for lecturers to take or go and do teaching courses that might take months or even years to complete. Hence this exercise is essential for academic teaching stuff".* (Response from R12).

In addition to this response on time-saving, respondent R15 agrees with the statement mention by R12. This indicated by the direct quote that follows:

> *"Most of the academic teaching staff lacks teaching skills because they didn't come from teaching colleges. With the university carrying out skills development programs it allows staff to gain skills and experiences that will help them to teach their students in a better way. This exercise is time-saving and cost-effective because there is no need to take teaching staff to teach institutions to be trained in how to teach.* (Response from R15).

From the findings obtained from primary data collection as indicated above, it can also be concluded that academic skills development is useful for the academic teaching staff as it saves time. Mundy *et al.,* (2012), most academics have never taken a course in pedagogy and andragogy so as a result most academic are disciple experts without any formal teaching qualifications hence the need to deploy skills development programs that save time to educate academics.

4.4.6.3 Saving Cost

One respondent when asked whether academic skills development is useful in doing their job and in what way, he noted that skills development programs are cost saving initiatives. This can be seen in the response that was given as mentioned below:

"*This program to train academics to improve their teaching skills is a good idea because there is no need to send them to colleges to acquire teaching qualification which can be costly at the end of the day. If academics are educated on how to improve the way they teach their students it can act as a tool to achieve academic excellence without putting a lot of effort into trying to equip academics with a lot of teaching skills"*. (Response from R14).

Considering the response obtained from primary data collection as indicated in the direct quotations above, it is essential to come up with conclusions that skills development is vital in the way that academic staff conduct their jobs as it saves money in trying to educate them in teaching skills. Merriam (2001) states that for professional development to be a success, it must be cost-effective and time-saving to strike a balance between the staff and the students as well as control in the choice of topic and process of engagement.

4.4.7 Implications of the Academic Staff Development Programme on the University

In trying to further understand perceptions of the stuff in regards to training and development another question that was asked by the researcher was does the university support this program in any way, please explain. The researcher received a number of responses from this question and different themes were used to interpret the results in an understandable way.

4.4.7.1 Allocation of Resources

Following the interviews that were done by the researcher, the study found out that training and development programs need support from the university and they are a need for the university to allocate financial resources to support this exercise for the benefit of academic staff as well as students. Quinn (2012) pointed out that for professional training to be a success they need institutions to support these programs in every way especially financially. It is important for the university to make sure that their academic staff receive academic skills developments which will assist them in delivering better lectures to their students (Makondo, 2004).

The following responses were directly quoted from respondents in regards to resources allocation as indicated below.

> *“I think it is of paramount importance to have skills development programs for academic staff. There are main things that can be done to make this possible, one of the things that a university can do is to make sure that every year they allocate resources to support skills development. This, however, can be costly because all academics need to be trained but at the end of the road it will help our students to acquire a better education from their lecturers".* (Response from R10).

Respondent 13 also indicated that the university needs to put attention on skills development by allocating enough resources for such initiatives. This is shown with the direct quote below.

> *“Being an academic doesn’t mean one has good teaching skills. There is a big difference between teaching students and doing research hence the need for academic skills development programs that allows and educate lecturer better ways of teaching their students. Personally, I would be happy if the university gives a lot of attention is skills development as it yields good results from students. The university should have resources that are set aside for these programs. Workshops should be carried out in every department to make sure that their teaching staff is delivering the best to their students.* (Response from R 4)

However, one can conclude that the university is supporting academic skills development but there is need to allocate more resource to these programs to make sure that every academic staff is trained for the benefit of students to receive a good education.

4.4.7.2 Professional Assistance

One respondent when asked whether the university supports skills development, she indicated that she is aware of skills development and the university is doing its best to

train its staff. Respondent 8 indicated that skills development to be a success it always need professional assistance. This is shown in the direct quotes below.

> "*Looking at what the university has done in terms of academic skills development, I think it is phenomenal. This institution is doing its level best to train its staff to be the best educators for their students and I have my colleagues who have benefited from such training. I can also say that for this to work out for the benefit of both the institution and staff members is always important to have professional assistance to conduct these training".* (Response from 8).

In addition to the research findings obtained from R8, another participant indicated that academic skills development needs a lot of support from the university through making use of professional assistance to conduct academic skills development training. The response received was quoted as follows:

> *"Look, I have been at this institution for many years and I value the importance of skills development. Looking at what the university is doing to train their academic staff to be great teachers, they are doing a great job. All year round there are so many training workshops taking place at this university which means there is a lot of support from the institution. To achieve a good result from these training workshops, this program should always be conducted by people with experience who know what they are doing".* (Response from 9).

In light of the findings indicated above, Makondo (2014) alludes that it is a known truism that the majority of university teaching staff members are not trained on pedagogical issues yet they hired to demonstrate effectiveness in facilitating teaching and learning. Hence, need to allocate resources to have Academic skills development through professional assistance (Scott, 2005).

4.5 Findings pertaining to sub research question three

Research question three was designed in order to determine the challenges faced in academic staff training and development programs. The research question was listed as follows:

Which challenges face academic staff in their training and development at the University?

Many questions were asked during the interviews in order to determine the challenges faced by academic staff regarding the training and development at the university. One of the questions asked during the interviews was what challenges do you face in academic staff training and development programs? Several responses were obtained for this question, hence; different themes were used in order to make the presentation of results easy to understand.

4.5.1 Awareness of Staff Development Programmes

Looking at the interviews carried out in this study, the researcher found out that there is a lack of awareness of training and development and many academic do attend these training workshops. This can be viewed with direct quotes below:

> "*I am aware of staff development programs that take place at this university but I do not attend simply because I have a lot of work on my shoulders as a doctor. I have tried to attend some of the workshops some time ago but I always find myself busy when the day of the training workshop comes. I am pretty sure you know how academics are busy with their research, journals, lectures etc"*. (Response from 5).

Respondent 8 in regards to challenges faced by staff in training and development indicated that staff know about academic skills development training but they ignore it and only a few make an effort to attend. The response received was quoted as follows:

> "*In my own understanding, I believe all these intellectuals are aware of skills development and it's important. However, most people choose not to attend*

because they see it as something that is not important since many of these academics are doctors and professors. They feel if they attend such events they will be wasting their time but this opportunity is always valuable because not every academic have the ability to deliver the lecturer in a profound way". (Response from 14).

Looking at the above responses one can safely conclude that academics are aware of skills development at their universities but they are ignorant to attend these events. Gosling (2008) notes that the failure or success of any programme depends on the need for it by participants and their levels of attendance and motivation. However, if the academic staff do not appreciate the need for training, the activities of the programme would not have any impact on higher education (Viskovic, 2006).

4.5.2 Nexus between teaching and research

In addition to challenges faced by academic staff in regards to skills development, two respondents noted that academic development tended to be affected by the competition that is there between research and teaching. The following are the direct quotations that were recorded from the respondents in regards to this.

> "*In my own understanding, I have a belief that research is more important than teaching. This is because most higher learning institutions are not doing enough to engage their academic staff in skills development programs. On the other hand, universities award their academic staff based on what they have done in research rather than what is done in teaching. In the end, academic staff do not value skills development as they put more time and effort into research"* (Response from 6).

> "*As a junior staff member in the department, I see a great difference between research and teaching and its impact on skills development. I have a feeling that most academic staff value research over teaching. Research is seen as a tool that can be used to rise through the ranks at*

a workplace as compared to teaching. As a result, this affects academic skills development programs as staff members don't see its importance since they mainly put their attention on research". (Response from 15).

Making a conclusion based on the responses received from those respondents mentioned above, one could conclude that academic skills development is affected simply because of the gap that is there between research and teaching. Hence, the staff member does not value the importance of one of the two. This notion is supported by scholars such as (Marsh, 2011; Weller, 2011) that notes that teaching and learning in academic development seem to be affected by competition research and teaching: research policies in many institutions of higher learning do not motive academics to engage in skills development programmes. Martin (2012) content that policies in higher education reward academics based on research output hence a setback in trying to impact skills development amongst academic staff.

4.5.3 Misconception

Still, on challenges faced by academic staff in skills development, following the interviews were done by the researcher, the study found out that there is a misconception of academic development and this cause negative attitude towards these programs. This arises on the assumption that academic development is not based on any disciple and lacks legitimacy in terms of standards, practices and literature (Kogan, 2000). Also, Rowland (2002) pointed out that this viewpoint leads to academic development programmes viewed as generic practical and instrumental activity. Some of the respondents were directly quoted as indicated by one of the respondents quoted below.

"*As an academic, I regard academic development as essential for teaching and learning. Looking at this university I have a strong belief that academic staff lack confidence in skills development hence it affects its implementation at any given time. However, I believe that academic development programs need to integrate into university cultures and traditions to boost confidence in academics".* (Response from 1).

In addition to the research findings received from R1, another participant indicated that departmental culture greatly influences how teaching is viewed by academic staff. Departmental cultures tend to affect academic development negatively. The respondent is quoted as follows:

> "*It is important for people in the same department to share the same goals to achieve academic excellence at the end of the day. Most departments do not value academic development and it greatly affects teaching and learning. There is a need for managers in departments to encourage and support skills development for everyone so that those who need it the most can greatly benefit from these programs".* (Response from 13).

Considering the responses obtained from primary data collection as indicated in the direct quotations above, it is essential to come up with conclusions that misconception of academic development and this cause negative attitude towards these programs. According to literature, department culture has a huge influence on how teaching is viewed. Luzeckyi and Badger (2007) claim that academic practices and traditions have a huge influence on staff development programmes.

4.6 Findings pertaining to sub research question four

Research question four was designed in order to determine approaches that can be used towards improving academic skills development at the university. The research question was listed as follows:

Sub research question four: What are the approaches towards the improvement of academic skills development at the University?

Several questions were asked during the interviews in order to determine the approaches that can be used to improve academic skills development at the university. One of the questions asked during the interviews was what should be done to improve academic skills development at the university. Several responses were

obtained for this question, hence; different themes were used in order to make the presentation of results easy for the reader to interpret.

4.6.1 Teamwork and mentoring

One of the solutions cited by many respondents on what can be done to improve academic skills development was teamwork and mentoring. Some of the respondents are quoted below.

> *"For academic skills development to be a success at any institution, people need to work as a team. I believe that teamwork does boost the confidence and morale of the staff which will help in doing their job especially teaching students. If academic staff are able in teams it also helps them to encourage their students to work as a group in doing their assignments". To be where I am today I have managed to work with various groups of people and I have benefited from working as a team. I strongly recommend academic skills development to encourage teamwork".* (Response from 7).

To add on to what respondent 7 said on teamwork, respondent 8 identified mentorship as a strategy that can be used to towards improvement of academic skills development at the university. The following direct quote was capture to support this notion.

> *"I would say mentoring can be very useful towards improving skills development for academic staff. For instance myself I have received mentorship from my master's supervisor and this has greatly improved the way that I articulate certain things when carrying out my duties. I have acquired a lot of skills from him and one day will also what to mentor someone like what my supervisor did"*. (Response from 8).

It clear from the above responses that teamwork and mentorship can be vital if they are used to improve academic skills development. This is also supported by authors such as Sparks (2013) who states that teamwork is essential for the improvement of teaching and learning. Steyn (2010) puts that, teacher's gain valuable experience at

the workplace and professional development supported by mentoring, leadership and staff interaction is the preferred model.

4.7 Conclusion

In this chapter, the researcher presented the results obtained from this study on the perception of the academic staff towards an academic development program implemented in one of the Universities in the Eastern Cape Province. Data were collected from fifteen (15) academic staff from five (5) faculties. Different themes were used in this chapter to provide answers to the predetermined research questions. The chapter presented findings on the following objectives: to investigate the approaches to Academic Skills Development used by the University; to understand academic staff perceptions relating to training and development at the University; to determine ways of improving academic skills development at the University; and to identify the challenges faced by academic staff in their training and development at the University. The next chapter presents conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the study results and discussions. A thematic analysis in conjunction with inferential statistics was used to provide a rich description of the matter that was at hand. Themes were used to provide detailed information pertaining to the study objectives. This chapter, therefore, concludes the study by providing conclusions and recommendations based on the results and findings. Furthermore, the chapter provides recommendations on future areas of research about the study topic.

5.2 Summary of the main findings

The main purpose of this section is to discuss the main findings of the study in relation to the study objectives, which guided this research. This approach is intended to bring a deeper understanding of the objectives, at the same time demonstrating how these findings contribute the body of literature on the same topic. The importance of academic staff development in institutions of higher learning cannot be over-emphasised. It is necessary to understand the conditions in which academic staffing is shaped by the current landscape in South Africa post-apartheid era.

Following interviews that were conducted it was discovered that most academic staff use a student –focus approach, where students feedback act as an input in the staff development process. This approach was said to develop students at the same time the academic staff also achieve personal development. Meanwhile, other academics used a communities approach were ideas are shared with colleagues for input. In this way, personal development is guaranteed. In addition, this approach is said to be effective on novice, insecure and poor performing participants (Dixon and Scott, 2008). Likewise, some participants used a cross-disciplinary approach to offset weakness find in other approaches. However, it suffers from a lack of coordination and duplication.

In terms of academic staff perceptions of staff development programmes, it was highlighted that skills development helped staff to do their jobs effectively and efficiently. Academic skills programmes are beneficiary to both the student and

academics as mentioned by the participants. Some pointed out that they gain personal development through academic skills development programmes. Yet some stated that it improves their confidence level in teaching and presentation.

Meanwhile, some participants stated that they gain experience through the attendance of academic skills development programmes. This was in line with the objectives of skills acquisition, networking and knowledge acquisition benefits. However, the expected skills to be acquired through the participation in academic staff development programme include analytic skills, information technology skills, problem-solving and decision-making skills.

5.3 Conclusions

In the ever-evolving global environment, higher education staff development is a necessity. The calls by the Department of Higher Education on universities to prioritise staff development indicate that universities are supposed to ensure that they have qualified personnel for teaching and learning and support on skills development should be ongoing. This study found important information pertaining to staff development programmes in one selected university. It is important to point that the studied institution had partly fragment and unclear staff development programmes. Participants stated that the units responsible for development do not coordinate effectively. Suggesting that they were a room for improvement in terms of delivering academic staff development programmes. There was a lack of concrete communication of development opportunities, and unclear evaluation method, which made it harder for academic staff to keep track of their development. Therefore, the academic staff suggested that they would welcome more guidance in their professional development and career development.

With respects to the first theme in this study findings, the analysis indicated that substantial changes need to be considered in developing academic staff given the unequal demographic profile of academic staff in HEIs. This means that proper research is needed to allow policy interventions that will make teaching more attractive in a South African context. Diversity in higher institutions needs to be fostered to ensure that resources are best utilised and deployed to achieve a quality education.

The study established that staff development and training programmes in the selected university were important for academic staff development. While they were welcomed, numerous staff members pointed out that there was no follow through in terms of skills development. The programmes were said to enhance their research capabilities, update them in terms of being effective and efficient at work, and enhance their personal skills. These findings are important because they are in agreement with other studies pertaining to the perceptions held by the academic staff.

The results of this study suggest that the staff were satisfied with the academic development programmes, although they were not fully convinced by their effectiveness in their jobs. Therefore, staff development is a necessity for any institutions of higher learning if the goal is to provide quality services to students. According to the interview results, it was indicated that workshops, conferences, seminars and other professional activities were the most used and effective training and development programmes in the university. Research and publications were seen as the only means used for promotion. This, in turn, discouraged a number of staff members.

Furthermore, it was established that in terms of staff performances, training and development did not contribute very much. In other words, staff performance was mainly influenced by the rewards and incentives they received from the university than the staff development programmes. If the university is to contribute to positive staff development and performance, a new dynamic role should be on the horizon. If the academics perceive that the higher education systems are not rewarding enough for those doing teaching and learning, new ways of thinking should be encouraged.

Research needs to be undertaken in order to identify what drives academics in order to have an active research culture and better teaching and learning outcomes. Some staff members identified teaching load as an issue affecting them to participate in staff development programmes. Therefore, to safeguard the future of higher education, increasing the attractiveness of the job may be a catalyst to progress. This may involve findings ways of reducing the teaching overload faced by numerous academics to allow them to attend skills development programmes.

Salaries are also an important feature in making teaching and learning attractive; however, they are not the major issue in retention of staff and their overall performance. Broadly, academics can easily increase their income by doing consultancy and research. However, some of the identified motivational factors include reputation, respect, recognition and excellent conditions to perform the job. Thus, higher learning institutions have a long way in addressing this problem as highlighted in the study.

5.4 Recommendations

In light of these findings, the following recommendations will help improve or strengthen staff training and development programmes in the selected university. The university should enhance the staff training and development unit to coordinate all the activities pertaining to staff development. This unit should be responsible for identifying needs as pointed by the staff members. The unit would gain more input in training needs if it works closely with the human resource department, which could provide guidance on every staff competencies. The results of the interviews indicated that most academic staff do not attend staff development programmes, but, once or twice per year. It is recommended that the proposed units should have adequate resources and make it possible for academics to attend more frequently.

Alternatively, the university should provide performance scales or feedback for its academic staff so that they can identify gaps in their performances. This could be addressed through further training and development programmes that are custom made, as opposed to a blanket approach. Responses from academics showed that performance feedback scales are not adequately developed since in most cases they are biased to research and publications. This, therefore, means that academics involved in teaching are left out, for instance, to be promoted as a professor one's research and publications weigh much than teaching.

Training and development programmes provided to the staff should focus on developing their personal and professional skills. Thus, allowing for cross-function training. They are tension in terms of cross functions in research and teaching. Numerous HEIs suggest that there is teaching only and research only tracks. To bring

a balanced approach to addressing this dualism, it is recommended that for professional development to be effective, teaching and learning should be recognised as research. However, this would need to be done at a higher level or institutionally, although such efforts would face resistance in that most HEIs have research-based performance criteria.

The university can increase staff experience and knowledge through programmes that aim to assess and develop the attitudes and experience. This approach will ensure that the potential of staff members is realised, in the process of harnessing the organisation potential in delivering quality education.

Likewise, they should be objectivity in the selection of staff training and development programmes so that it is mainly based on needs assessment and equal opportunities considering that the higher education in South Africa was greatly affected by the apartheid legacy. Therefore, some races may need more training compared to the others.

The university could introduce a reward system for staff members who participate in training and development programmes. The idea is to enhance knowledge transfer to improve the learning environment. This could involve increasing their salaries or any fringe benefits that contribute positively to the university.

At the same time, the university should provide the adequate facilities and logistics that would make it realisable to achieve the goals of training and staff development programmes. Infrastructure shortages make it hard for academics to engage in teaching and learning effectively as well as professional development. It is recommended that HEIs leadership should make it a priority that infrastructure to support teaching and learning be made available.

A number of higher education institutions do not motivate academics to acquire teaching qualifications. Due to this lack of support, the academic staff is not motivated to invest much in acquiring a teaching qualification. Thus, HEIs should consider having a compulsory basic teaching qualification for academic staff that does not have any teaching qualification.

5.4.1 Academic staff

Given that this study was primarily focused on academic skills development programmes, some recommendations are applicable to individual academic staff. Based on the interviews, it can be deduced that the academic staff are not hands-on in their own development, often relying on few opportunities shared by colleagues. Academics should make more effort to progress in their personal growth and development. The following are some of the recommendations for academic staff:

- Alignment of your own goals with the university, and tactical select professional development programmes that support that goal;

- Conduct a self-evaluation test to identify shortfalls in your career development plan. This includes the scanning of potential shortfalls in professional development programmes and finds alternatives that bridge the identified gap;

- Constantly inform yourself on what is considered relevant in your university promotional schemes;

- Networking with other academic from certain higher institutions is important in self-development.

- The study has provided a basis for further investigation in the academic skills development space.

5.4.2 Professional development providers

Having established that the university management has an important task of providing the required resources and funding, it is necessary that the contribution to professional development is in hands of those designing and delivering those programmes. Thus, professional development providers' should be able to provide the university management with relevant outcomes of their provision and output. In this way, the university management would be able to gauge how far professional development has benefited its staff. The following are some of the recommendations who have a role to provide professional development to staff:

- Facilitate the professional development programme session by engaging academics through the provision of opportunities;

- Keep records of academic staff attending skills development programmes, and use the data to improve the content of those programmes;

- Design evaluations that measure the impact of professional development programmes in order to identify areas for improvement;

- Clarify the goals of academic development sessions and align with university goals, targets and strategies;

- Involve academic staff in designing and delivering programmes targeting them. This would have a buy-in from numerous staff members who would not have attended the programme's initial. Making them, part of the whole initiative might improve their motivation to attend the skills programmes.

5.5 Limitations

The major limitation is that the target sample was 15 active staff members from five departments who participated in the study. The study would have benefited more if numerous staff members availed themselves to be interviewed. Furthermore, had the sample composed of various races and balanced gender number, it would have brought a lot of insight into the topic. It is known that academic development in South Africa is plagued with inequalities in terms of population groups' representation and promotion.

5.6 Implications for future research

The findings of the study have many implications for staff development in institutions of higher learning. They pointed out that staff development is a very complex process and revealed that it does not improve the job performance of staff members if not supplemented with other activities. Universities should consider other motivational factors such as salary increases, bonuses, rewards, promotion, adequate facilities for training and working, conducive environment for working, and many more when

seeking high staff performance. All these factors ensure that staff members attach importance to training and skill development programmes. It is important to investigate how these factors contribute to job performance and what effects do they have in the provision of academic services.

At the same time, the results point out that they are a shortage of standard instruments that could be used for evaluation training and development programmes in the university under study. Therefore, future research should focus on identify instruments that can be used to evaluate training and development programmes in a customised way. This entails developing frameworks and guidance tools that can measure the contribution of staff training and development in institutions of higher learning. External factors such legislation, economic and social factors, environmental do influence staff development and their performance on the job. Therefore, future research can be directed to investigate how external factors influence or affect performances of staff members. CHE (2017) pointed out that staff development is a necessity for more effective teaching and learning in higher institutions of learning. Considering that in South Africa there is no formal requirement for pedagogical training.

They are a discord in understanding the nature of academic works in South Africa. Therefore, future research can investigate the nature of academic work. This, in turn, would help in the shaping of policy interventions by the Department of Higher Education. The complexity and diversity of academic work in a complex system need to be assessed to ensure that enough resources are deployed for the betterment of staff development.

Likewise, salaries are very attractive to academics; however, they are not the main issue in terms of job performance in the teaching profession. More research needs to be undertaken in this area. Public universities struggle to give staff salaries that are big enough to influence their performances. As pointed out the findings, a number of staff members prefer a range of rewards.

5.6.1 Implications for education

South Africa as any country has a traditional academic career structure where some academics have a secure career and some not. Working conditions, in this case, differ, with academic outside a secure path are employed on fixed-term contracts with unclear career opportunities and fewer opportunities compared to the secure academics. While this may be an outcome of the old establishment, the dual system may be the cause of concern in future when insecure academic staff leaves the profession. For example, more than five participants interviewed stated that they were on fixed-term contracts. Policymakers should address this concern.

Institutional autonomy and government oversight are amongst some challenges facing higher institutions of learning. The selected university is a public institution, as a result, the decision making of how much public money should be invested, and what key areas need focus is depending on the DHET goals. Autonomy makes the planning and execution of objectives complex and is constantly a feature of disagreement between the public authorities and HEIs.

Some of the implications are as follows:

- There is a need for academic departments to balance research and teaching workloads of academic staff so that they are across function between experience research staff and the teaching staff at all levels.

- Academic staff need to be active in research so as to make their teaching research-oriented, a necessity for good teaching

- There is a need to consider effective teaching methods which include student focus teaching and critical thinking by providing them with knowledge and training that is research-based.

- Concisely, universities should create a networks were academic departments and disciplines converge in face-to-face dialogues to share research-knowledge to a big community.

- Staff development has to focus on capacity building in undergraduate teaching, assessments of student and curriculum development. Therefore, theoretical tools for gauging students' behaviour are needed in higher education. As a result, formalising pedagogical training may be another way of dealing with challenges faces by academics in their teaching.

REFERENCES

Abeli, W.S. 2010. *Higher Education and Development: A Critical Nexus*. A paper. Presented to SARUA Workshop on Investment in Higher Education for Development: New Directions, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, 5 August.

Altbach, P. 2004. Globalisation and the University: Myths and Realities in an Unequal World. *Tertiary Education and Management*, 10: 3-25.

Association of African Universities and the World Bank. 1997. Revitalizing universities in Africa: Strategy and Guidelines: the partnership for capacity building in Africa. Editorial, *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 12 (1): 5 – 19.

Babbie, E. & Mouton, J. 2003. *The Practice of Social Research*. Cape Town: Oxford University.

Baijnath, W. 2010. *Success and Failure in the Higher Education Under the Spotlight in UNISA Wise*: Transformation: Winter.

Barnes, J., Berendt, B., Csirik, J., El Hares, H., Ter Haar, G., Jones, J., Kashoki, M.E., Kearney, M., Maamouri, M., McDonald, G., Ratanachai, C., Silvio, J., Van Der Donckt, P., Van Rinsum, H. & Vessuri, H. 1994. *Higher education staff development: Directions for the 21st century.* Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

Barnett, R. 2000. Supercomplexity and the Curriculum. *Studies in Higher Education*, 25(3):255-265.

Barry, B. 2000. *A new role for labour*. Mail and Guardian Work of Rule, (September): 22-28.

Bates, T., Swennen, A., & Jones, K. (2011). *The Professional Development of Teacher Educators.* Abingdon, UK: Routledge.

Becher, T.& Trowler, P. 2001. *Academic tribes and territories: intellectual enquiry and the cultures of disciplines.* (2nd edition) Buckingham, Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.

Berndt, A & Petzer, D. 2011. *Marketing Research (6th Ed).* Upper Saddle River: Pearson/Prentice Hall.

Borg. B. L., & Gall, M. D. 1989. *Education Research: An Introduction*. New York: Longman.

Botha, L.S. 2003. *Skills Update Report, No 2 of 2003.* Pretoria: SAUVCA national office.

Botha, L.S. 2009. *Skills Development in Higher Education Institutions in South Africa*. PhD thesis for Organizational Behaviour Degree at the University of Pretoria.

Boud, D. 1995. Meeting the Challenges. In: A. Brew, ed. *Directions in staff development*. Bristol: SRHE & Open University Press, pp.203-213.

Boud, D. 1999. Situating academic development in professional work: using peer learning. *International Journal for Academic Development,* 4(1): 3-10.

Boughey, C. 2005. Epistemological access to the university: an alternative perspective. *South African Journal of Higher Education,* 19(3): 230-242.

Boughey, C. 2007. Educational Development in South Africa: From social reproduction to capitalist expansion? *Higher Education Policy*, 20: 5-18.

Boughey, C. 2009. *A Meta-Analysis of Teaching and Learning at the Five Research Intensive South African Universities Not Affected by Mergers*. Pretoria: Council on Higher Education.

Boughey, C. 2010. *Academic development for improved efficiency in the higher education and training system in South Africa*. DBSA.

Boughey, C. 2010. *Academic development for improved efficiency in the higher education and training system in South Africa*. Development Bank of South Africa.

Brew, A. 1995. *Directions in staff development*. Bristol: SRHE & Open University Press.

Broadhead, L. & Howard, S. 1998. The art of punishing: the research assessment exercise and the ritualization of power in higher education. *Education Policy Analysis*, 6(8):1-14.

Carson, D., Gilmore, A., Perry, C. & Kjell, G. 2001.*Qualitative marketing Research*. Sage: London.

Chabaya, E.R. 2015. *Academic Staff Development in Higher Education Institutions: A Case Study of Zimbabwe State Universities*. Unpublished thesis for Doctoral degree in Education at the University of South Africa.

Cheteni, P. (2017). Youth participation in Agriculture in the Nkonkobe District Municipality, South Africa. *Journal of Human Ecology*, 55(3):207-213.

Coetzee, S.G. 2000. *A guide to the Skills Development Act and Levies*. Durban: Butterworths Publishing.

Cohen, L & Manion, L. 1994. *Research Methods in Education***.** London: Routledge.

Council of Higher Education. 2016. *South African higher education reviewed: Two decades of democracy*. Pretoria: Council of Higher Education.

Crawford, K. 2009. *Continuing Professional Development in Higher Education: Voices from Below*. PhD thesis in Education Leadership and Management Centre for Educational Research and Development, University of Lincoln.

Creswell, W. J. 2014. *Research Design*, Sage Publications: United States of America.

D'andrea, V. & Gosling, D. 2005. *Improving teaching and learning in higher education. A whole institution approach*. Berkshire, Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.

Daley, B. J. 2000. Learning in professional practice. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, 86, 33-42.

Darling-Hammond, L. & McLaughlin M.W. 1995*. Policies that support professional development in an era of reform.* Phi Delta Kappan.

Davey, R. 2013. The professional identity of teacher educators. Career on the cusp? London, UK/New York, NY: Routledge.

Davidson, M. 2008. *Education Reform: Improving Human Capital Formation*. Talk given at a conference on the Country Report by OECD experts at the Hungarian Ministry for Education and Culture, Budapest.

Deborah, I. & Gilding, A. 2007. *Centralized Decentralized Professional Development Models: Supporting the long term use of information and communication Technology (ICT) in Higher Education*. University of Western Australia. Australia.

Denscombe, M. 2007. *Open Up Study Skills: The Good Research Guide*. Open University Press: United States of America.

Denzin, N.K.., & Lincoln, S.Y. 2011. *The SAGEs Handbook of Qualitative Research*. SAGE Publications, Inc.

Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET). 2003. *Funding of Public Higher Education*. Pretoria.

Dill, D. & Soo, M., 2005. Academic quality league tables and public policy: a cross national analysis of university ranking systems. *Higher Education Management*, 49(4):495-533.

Dison, A.1997. *Crossing Boundaries: Facilitating Conceptual Development in Relation to Culture in an English for Academic Purposes Course*. MA Thesis, Unpublished. Grahamstown: Rhodes University.

Djibouti Ministry of Education. 2010. *MOE-Annuaire statistique*. Retrieved from www.education.gov.dj.

Duke, C. 1999. Lifelong learning: implications for the university of the 21st century. *Higher Education Management*, 11(1):19-35.

Edmond, N., & Hayler, M. 2013. On either side of the teacher: Perspectives on professionalism in education. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 39, 209-221.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/02607476.2013.765193.

Elton, L., 2000. The Research Assessment Exercise: unintended consequences. *Higher Education Quarterly.* 54(3): 274-283.

Eraut, M. 1994. *Developing Professional Knowledge and Competence.* Washington, DC: Falmer Press.

Feinberg, Kinear, & Tailor. 2013. *Modern Marketing Research: Concepts, Methods and Cases* (3rd ed.). Cape Town: Cengage Learning.

Fisher, D. 2001. Trust the process: Increasing student achievement via professional development and process accountability. *NASSP Bulletin*, 85 (629), 67-71.

Foster, G. & Roe, E. 1979. Australia – in service, lip service and unobtrusive pragmatism. In: Teather, D.C.B. (ed.) *Staff development in Higher Education. An international review and bibliography,* Edited by Teather, Kogan Page. Printed in Great Britain, London: Brown Knight & Truscott.

Freeman, M., Treleaven, L., Simpson, L., Ridings, S., Ramburuth, P., Leask, B., Caulfield, N. & Sykes, C. 2009. *Embedding the Development of Intercultural Competence in Business Education*. ALTC project report.

Frelin, A. 2013. *Exploring teachers' relational professionalism in schools*. Rotterdam, The

Netherlands: Sense Publishers.

Gates, R. & McDaniel, M. 2013. *Marketing Research Essentials, (7th Ed*). USA.

Giddens, A. 1976. *New Rules of Sociological Method*. London: Hutchinson.

Goddard, W & Melville, S. 2004. *Research Methodology: An Introduction*. Lansdowne: Juta and Company Ltd.

Goody, A. E. & Ingram, D. M. 2001*. Learning partnerships: A comprehensive approach too academic staff development.* Proceedings of the Annual Higher Education Research and Development. Society of Australia (HERDSA) Conference (July 8-11, 2001), Newcastle, New South Wales, Australia.

Gosling, D. 2008. *Educational Development in the UK*. Heads of Educational Development Group. London.

Gosling, D. 2009. *Report on the Survey of Directors of Academic Development in South African Universitie*s. HE Consultant and Visiting Research Fellow at the University of Plymouth.

Grace, S., Smith, B. & Elvidge, B. M. 2004. Maximising the synergy: disciplinary and generic approaches in academic staff development. In L. Elvidge (Ed.) *Exploring Academic Development in higher education: Issues of Engagement*. Jill Rodgers Associates, Cambridge.

Grant, B., Lee, A., Clegg, S., Manathunga, C., Barrow, M., Kandlbinder, P., Brailsford, I., Gosling, D. & Hicks, M. 2009. *Why history? Why now? Multiple accounts of the emergence of academic development.* International Journal for Academic Development, 14(1): 83-86.

Greyling, L. 2001. Skills Development: A Strategic Perspective*. South African Journal of Higher Education*, 15 (2): 37-40.

Guba, E. G. & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N.K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.). *The Sage handbook of qualitative research.* Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Hardy, I., & Smith, E. 2006. Contesting tertiary teaching qualifications: An Australian perspective. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 11 (3): 337-350.

Harrison, R. 2003. Learning for professional development. In L. Kydd, L. Anderson & W. Newton (Eds.), *Leading people and teams in education (pp. 29-42).* London: Paul Chapman.

Hassan, S. 2011. The needs and perceptions of academics regarding their professional development in an era of educational transformation. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 25(3): 476–490.

Hatch, J. A. 2010. *Doing Qualitative Research in Education Settings*. State University of New York Press: United States of America.

Hazelkorn, E. 2007. The impact of league tables and ranking systems on higher education decision-making. *Higher Education Management and Policy*, 19(2): 81–105.

Henkel, M. 2005. Academic Identity and Autonomy. *Changing Policy Environment. Higher Education*, 4(9): 155-176.

Hicks, O. 1999. Integration of central and departmental development – reflections from Australian Universities. *The International Journal for Academic Development*, 4 (1): 43 – 51.

Higher Education Authority (HEA). 2013. *Towards a performance evaluation framework: profiling Irish higher education*. Dublin.

Immenda, S. N. 2006. Knowledge production as a function of the individual institution's idea of a university. *South African Journal of Higher Education,* 20(1): 60 73.

Jacob, B. A. & Lefgren, L. 2012. The impact of teacher training on student achievement: Quasi-experimental evidence from school reform efforts in

Chicago. *National Bureau of Economic Research Working Paper 8916*. Available online at www.nber.org/papers/w8916.

Jakku-Sihvonen, R. Niemi, H. (Eds.) (2004). Research-based Teacher training in Finland. Reflections by Finnish Teacher Educators. Finnish Educational Research Association. *Research in Educational Sciences* 25(7): 33-41.

Jones, T. J. 2014. *Academic Staff Views of Higher Education Quality in Somaliland*. PhD Thesis in University of Minnesota.

Knapper, C. 2010. Changing teaching practice: Barriers and strategies. In J. Christensen Hughes and J. Mighty (Eds*.) Taking stock, Research on Teaching and learning in higher education. pp. 229-242*. Kingston, ON: School of Policy Studies, Queens University.

Kraak, A. 2004. *An Overview Of Human Resources Development*. Cape Town, South Africa: HSRC Publishers.

Krauss, S. E. 2005. Research paradigms and meaning making: A premier. The qualitative report 10(4), 758-770 from http://www.nova.edu/5555/QR/QR10-4/krauss.pdf

Lave, J. & Wenger, E. 1991. *Situated Learning: Legitimate Peripheral Participation*. New York: Cambridge Press.

Lazecky, A. & Badger, L. 2008. *Literature review for preparing Academics to teach in Higher Education (PATHE)*. Australian Learning and Teaching Council.

Leask, B. & Beelen, J. 2009. Enhancing the engagement of academic staff in international education. In: *Engaging Academic Staff in International Education in Europe and Australia*. Background Paper 2. Melbourne.

Leask, B., Hicks, M., Kohler, M., & King, B. 2005. *AVCC Offshore Quality Project Report: A professional Development Framework for Academic Staff Teaching*, Australia Programs Offshore. University of South Australia.

Leathwood, C. & Read, B. 2009. *Gender and the Changing Face of Higher Education: A Feminized Future?* Berkshire: Open University Press.

Lee, H.L. 2005. Developing a professional development programme model based on teachers' needs. The professional educator, 27(1 & 2):39-49.

Litchfield, A. & Spear, P. 1999. *Online professional development: the 1999 status of online resources to support the development of higher education staff*. Cornerstone of Higher Education Conference 1999. Annual Conference of the Higher education research and development Society of Australia.

Luzeckyi, A. & Badger, L. 2007. *Literature Review for Preparing Academics to Teach in Higher Education (PATH*E). Australian Learning and Tertiary Council.

Makawiti, D.W. 2011. *Perception of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities Towards Application of Performance Appraissal Results in Training and Promotion Decisions*. Unpublished MBA Project, University of Nairobi.

Makondo, L. & Makondo, O. 2014. *The Interplay between South African Higher Education Context and Academic Development*.

Makondo, L. 2010. University students are being failed by the 'qualified': Cry from seven African universities. *Practice and Theory in Systems of Education*, 5(3): 263-276.

Makondo, L. 2014. Academic Advising in Universities: Concept Paper. *J Sociology Soc Anth*, 5(2): 179-186.

Malhotra, N, K. 2010. Marketing research: an applied orientation, (6th Ed). Upper Saddle River, Pearson/Prentice Hall.

Marlow, M. 2009. Supporting teacher professional identity through mentoring activities. *Research in Higher Education Journal*, 2: 1-9.

Marriss, D. 2010. *Academic Staff Development*. Mcintosh.

Megginson, D. & Whitaker, V. 2007. *Continuing Professional Development (2nd ed.)* London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development

Mikeska, J.N., Green, K.R., Rozelle, J.J., Galosy, J. & Wilson, S.M. 2011. *Examining Relationships Between Professional Development and Teachers' Preparation, Teaching Context, Knowledge, Confidence, Instructional Practice, and Student Achievement*. Paper Presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA.

Murphy, J. 2014. *Managing Professional Development of Academic Staff to Enhance University Performance*. PhD Thesis in Business Administration (Higher Education Management) University of Bath.

Neuman, W. L. 2000. *Social research methods: qualitative and quantitative approaches. (4th Ed*.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Northedge, 2003. *Rethinking Teaching in the Context of Diversity*. Paris: OECD.

OECD.2005. *Teachers matter. Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers*.

Patton, M.Q.2001. *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods*. London: Sage.

Pilbeam, C. 2009. Institutional structures: where legitimacy and efficiency meet, In: M. Tight, K.H. Mok, J. Huisman, and C.C. Morphew, eds. *The Routledge International Handbook Of Higher Education*, New York: Routledge.

Pritchett, L., Suryhadi, A. & Sumarto,Y.S. 2000. *Quantifying Vulnerability to Poverty: A Proposed Measure with Application to Indonesia.* World Bank Policy Research Working Paper 2437

Quinn, L. 2006. *A socialist realist account of the emergence of a formal academic staff development, programme at a South African University*. Rhodes University.

Quinn, L. 2006. *A socialist realist account of the emergence of a formal academic staff development, programme at a South African University*. Rhodes University.

Quinn, L. 2012. *Re-imagining Academic Staff Development: Spaces for Disruption. 1st Ed*. Stellenbosch: Sun Media, Sun Press.

Readings, B. 1999. *University in Ruins. (4th Edition*). Harvard University Press.

Reardon, T. 1997. Using Evidence of Household Income Diversification to Inform Study of the Rural Nonfarm Labor Market in Africa. *World Development,* 25(5):735-747

Reddy, J. 1996*. Report on Transformation by the National Commission on Higher Education*. Pretoria: HRSC.

Redman, L. V & Mory, A. V. H. 2009. The Romance of Research, Baltimore: The Williams & Wilkins Co.

Reiner, G. & Botha, L.S. 2000. *Skills Update, No 1 of 2000. South African Universities Vice Chancellors Association*. Pretoria:South Africa.

Republic of South Africa. 1998*. Skills Development Act, No. 97 of 1998 (No. 19420). 2 November 1998*. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Richardson, J. T. E. 2005. Instruments for obtaining student feedback: A review of the literature. Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education, 30(4), 387-415.

Salkind, J. N. 2010. *Encyclopaedia of Research Design (Vol 3).* Sage Publications, United States of America.

Scott, D. & Scott, S. 2005. *Future trends in academic Professional Development*. Curtin University of Technology, Perth Western Australia.

Scott, G. 2006. Assessing the student Voice. Final Report 2005. Available at http://www.destgov.au/sectors/highereducation/publication.

Scott, S. & Dixon, K. C. 2009. Partners in a learning organization: A student focused model of professional development. *Educational Forum*, 73 (3): 240-255.

Scott, S., Issa, T., & Issa, T. 2008. Closing the loop. The relationship between instructor – reflective practice and students' satisfaction and quality outcomes. *International Journal of Learning*, 15(3): 61-68.

Seyoum, Y. 2011. Invigorating Quality through Professional Development. Programmes in Ethiopian Higher Education Institutions: Implications for Curriculum Enhancement at Haramoya University: International Journal of Social Sciences and Education, 1(4), 380-404.

Sharma, M., Burton, I., vanAalst, M., Dilley, M., & Acharya, G. 2000. *"Reducing Vulnerability to Environmental Variability*. Background Paper for the Bank's Environmental Strategy," The World Bank: Washington, D.C.

Shattock, M., 2003. Managing successful universities. Berkshire: SRHE & Open University Press.

Shim, H. S. and Roth, G. 2009. Expert Teaching Professors: Sharing Their Expertise. *International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 3(2):13. Available at: https://doi.org/10.20429/ijsotl.200930213

Spratt, C., Weaver, D., Maskill, L. & Kish, K. 2001. *Online Pedagogy and the challenges for Academic Staff Development*. Mornash University Australia.

Strong, M., Fletcher, S., & Villar, A. 2014. *An investigation of the effects of teacher experience and teacher preparedness on the performance of Latino students in California*. Santa Cruz, CA: New Teacher Center.

Taylor, K.L. 2005. Academic development as institutional Leadership: An interplay of person, role, strategy, and institution. *International Journal for Academic Development*. 10(1): 31–46.

Tierney, W. G. 2001. The autonomy of knowledge and the decline of the subject: Postmodernism and the reformulation of the university. *Higher Education*, 4(1),353-372.

Tracy, J. S. 2013. *Qualitative Research Methods.* Blackwell: United Kingdom.

Ulrich, T. 2010. The Diversifying Academic Profession. International Centre for Higher Education Research. *European Review*, 18(1), 157-179.

University of Botswana. 2007. *WebCT Report*. Botswana: Centre for Academic Development, University of Botswana.

Van der Westhuizen, L.J. & Maharasoa, M. 2004. Policies guiding performance management in South African Higher Education Institutions. In: Wilkinson, A.C. Fourie, M., Srydom, A.H., Van der Westhuizen, L.J. & Van Tonder. S.P. (eds.) *Performance management of academic staff in South African higher education. A developmental research project*. Centre for Higher Education Studies and Development. Bloemfontein, SA: Hansida Printers.

Vilakazi, H. & Tema, B. 1985. *White universities and the black revolution*. ASPects: Journal of the Academic Support Programmes at the University of Cape Town, the University of Natal, Rhodes University and the University of the Witwatersrand, 6, 18-40.

Volbrecht, T. & Boughey, C. 2004.Curriculum responsiveness from the margins? A reappraisal of academic development in South Africa. In H. Griesel (Ed.), *Curriculum Responsiveness: Case Studies in Higher Education*. Pretoria: SAUVCA.

Volbrecht, T. 2003. The Story of South African academic development on international perspectives: have we lost the plot? *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 12(2): 110-117.

Wenger, E. 1998. *Communities of practice: learning, meaning, and identity*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.

Wenger, E. 1999. Learning as social participation. *Knowledge Management Review*, 6:30-33.

Wenger, E. 2012. *Communities of practice and social learning systems: the career of a concept.*

Wenger, E. C. & Synder, W. M. 2000. Communities of practice: The organisational frontier. *Harvard Business Review*, Jan – Feb, 139-145.

Whitcomb, J., Borko, H. and Daniel, L. 2009. Wicked Problems and other Thoughts on Issues of Technology and Teacher Learning. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 60: 3.

Wiid, J., & Diggines, C. 2013. *Marketing research*. (W. Prillaid, Ed.) (2nd ed.). Cape Town: Juta and Company Ltd

Zikmund, G, W., Babin, J, B., & Carr, C, J. 2010. *Business Research Methods*. (M. Roche, Ed.) (8th ed.). Texas, USA: Cenage Learning.

ZIMCHE. 2006. *Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education Promotion Criteria for Academics in Zimbabwean Universities*. Harare, ZIMCHE.

APPENDIX A: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Assessing the Perceptions of Academic Staff towards an Academic Staff Development Programme in One Selected University in Eastern Cape Province

- Why did you register for this particular program?
- What benefits are you hoping to get from it?
- What skills if there are any do you hope to be trained on through this program?
- Will it enhance your individual performance at the end of it?
- Will the program improve anything , what will that be , please explain
- Would you recruit other academics to do the program? If so , why
- Is this program useful for your current job? In what way
- How do you feel in general about the approach used in this program?
- Does the University support this program in any way , please explain
- Would you prefer any other program instead of the current one , if so why

Thank you

APPENDIX B: EDITING CERTIFICATE

23 Elfin Glen Road, Nahoon Valley Heights, East London, 5200

Professional EDITORS Group

To whom it may concern:

This document certifies that the dissertation whose title appears below has been edited for proper English language, grammar, punctuation, spelling, and overall style by Rose Masha, a member of the Professional Editors' Group whose qualifications are listed in the footer of this certificate.

Title:

ASSESSING THE PERCEPTIONS OF ACADEMIC STAFF TOWARDS AN ACADEMIC STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME IN ONE SELECTED UNIVERSITY IN EASTERN CAPE PROVINCE

Author:

By Mandisa Mankayi

Date Edited:

02/04/2018

Signed:

Rose Khanyisile Masha

082 770 8891

Bachelor of Library and Information Science, Hons (English Language Teaching), HDE, MA (Hypermedia in Lang. Learning), PhD (Education)

APPENDIX C: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE
REC-270710-028-RA Level 01

Certificate Reference Number:	ADU221SMAN01
Project title:	**Assessing the perceptions of Academic Staff towards an Academic Staff Development Program at the University of Fort Hare in East London.**
Nature of Project	Masters in Education
Principal Researcher:	Mandisa Mankayi
Supervisor:	Prof E.O Adu
Co-supervisor:	N/A

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby give ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorization. The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this certificate, using the reference number indicated above.

Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research

The Principal Researcher must report to the UREC in the prescribed format, where applicable, annually, and at the end of the project, in respect of ethical compliance.

Special conditions: Research that includes children as per the official regulations of the act must take the following into account:

Note: The UREC is aware of the provisions of s71 of the National Health Act 61 of 2003 and that matters pertaining to obtaining the Minister's consent are under discussion and remain unresolved. Nonetheless, as was decided at a meeting between the National Health Research Ethics Committee and stakeholders on 6 June 2013, university ethics committees may continue to grant ethical clearance for research involving children without the Minister's consent, provided that the prescripts of the previous rules have been met. This certificate is granted in terms of this agreement.

The UREC retains the right to

- Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance Certificate if
  - Any unethical principal or practices are revealed or suspected
  - Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented
  - Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require
  - The conditions contained in the Certificate have not been adhered to
- Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project.
- In addition to the need to comply with the highest level of ethical conduct principle investigators must report back annually as an evaluation and monitoring mechanism on the progress being made by the research. Such a report must be sent to the Dean of Research's office

The Ethics Committee wished you well in your research.

Yours sincerely

Professor Lindelwa Majova-Songca
Acting Dean of Research

10 November 2017

APPENDIX D: ACCESS LETTER REQUESTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

129 12th Avenue

129 12th Avenue
Gonubie

East London
Gonubie

5257

East London

5257

16 /05 / 2018

To: The Registrar

Fort Hare University

East London Campus

Eastern Cape

Dear Ms/Mr

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

I am a registered student at the University of Fort Hare , East London campus , doing a Masters Degree in Education . My supervisor is Professor E.O. Adu and my student No. is 200509278

The proposed topic of my research is: ASSESSING THE PERCEPTIONS OF ACADEMIC STAFF TOWARDS AN ACADEMIC STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME IN ONE SELECTED UNIVERSITY IN THE EASTERN CAPE .

I am hereby seeking your consent to conduct structured interviews to Lectures , Senior Lectures and Professors at the University of Fort Hare . To assist you in reaching a decision, I have attached to this letter:

(a) A copy of an ethical clearance certificate issued by the University of Fort Hare

- **Researcher:** Mandisa Mankayi, **Cellular phone:** 079 5524623 ,**E-Mail : me@sainet.co.za**
- **Supervisor**: Prof. E.O Adu , **Cellular phone**: 084 925 1948 , **Email** : EAdu@ufh.ac.za

Your permission to conduct this study will be greatly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Mandisa Mankayi (Student)

APPENDIX E: ETHICS RESEARCH CONFIDENTIALITY AND INFORMED CONSENT FORM

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Please note:

This form is to be completed by the researcher(s) as well as by the interviewee before the commencement of the research. Copies of the signed form must be filed and kept on record

(To be adapted for individual circumstances/needs)

I, Mandisa Mankayi, Faculty of Education, University of Fort Hare, is asking for academic staff to share academic staff perceptions towards academic staff development program in one selected university in the Eastern Cape.

Mandisa Mankayi of Faculty of Education, University of Fort Hare, is conducting research regarding the perceptions of academic staff towards staff development program at the University of Fort Hare in East London .

Please understand that you are not being forced to take part in this study and the choice **whether to participate or not** is yours alone. However, we would really appreciate it if you do share your thoughts with us. If you choose not take part in answering these questions, you will not be affected in any way. If you agree to participate, you may stop me at any time and tell me that you don't want to go on with

the interview. If you do this there will also be no penalties and you will NOT **be prejudiced in ANY way. Confidentiality will be observed professionally.**

I will not be recording your name anywhere on the interview schedule and no one will be able to link you to the answers you give. **Only the researchers will have access to the unlinked**

information. The information will remain confidential and there will be no "come-backs" from the answers you give.

The administration of the interview questions will last for 3 weeks I beseech you to be open and honest as possible in answering these questions. Some questions may be of a personal and/or sensitive nature. I plead with you to think deeply before answering the questions.

INFORMED CONSENT

I hereby agree to participate in research regarding Assessing the perceptions of academic staff towards academic staff development program…….... I understand that I am participating freely and without being forced in any way to do so. I also understand that I can stop this interview at any point should I not want to continue **and that this decision will not in any way affect me negatively.**

I understand that this is a research project whose purpose is not necessarily to benefit me personally.

I have received the telephone number of a person to contact should I need to speak about any issues which may arise in this interview.

I understand that this consent form will not be linked to the questionnaire, and that my answers will remain confidential.

I understand that if at all possible, feedback will be given to my community on the results of the completed research.

……..

Signature of participant **Date**:……..

I hereby agree to the tape recording of my participation in the study

……..

Signature of participant **Date**:……..

APPENDIX F: REGISTRAR APPROVAL LETTER

University of Fort Hare
OFFICE OF UNIVERSITY REGISTRAR
Alice (main) Campus:
Private Bag X1314, King William's Town Road, Alice, 5700, RSA
Tel: +27 (0) 40 602 - 2501 • Fax: +27 (0) 40 602 - 2577
Email: nmabindisa@ufh.ac.za

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

May 22, 2018

Ms. M Mankayi
Faculty of Education
University of Fort Hare
me@sainet.co.za

Dear Ms. Mankayi

Approval from the Registrar's Office to Conduct Research

Having consulted the Chairperson of the Research Ethics Committee, I hereby grant permission for Ms M Mankayi to conduct research relating to his thesis "Assessing the perceptions of academic staff towards an academic staff development program at the University of Fort Hare in East London".

We look forward to reading the research report.

Kind regards

Prof M Somniso
University Registrar

Bhisho Campus: P. O Box 1153, KWT 5600, Independence Avenue , Bhisho, 5600, RSA
Tel: +27 (0) 40 608 - 3407 • Fax: +27 (0) 40 608 - 3408

East London Campus: Private Bag X9083, EL 5200, 50 Church Street, East London, 5201, RSA
Tel: +27 (0) 43 704 - 7000 • Fax: +27 (0) 43 704 - 7095
V/C Dial Up: +27 (0) 43 704 - 7143/ 7144

www.ufh.ac.za