

**EXPLORING THE TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT OF SPORT-FOR-
DEVELOPMENT AND PEACE PRACTITIONERS IN SOUTH AFRICA: A CASE
STUDY OF FIELD WORKERS' EXPERIENCES FROM TWO CIVIL SOCIETY
ORGANISATIONS**

by

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in the Faculty of Community and Health Sciences
at the University of the Western Cape**

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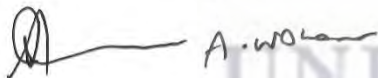
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ABSTRACT

Despite the increasing popularity of sport-for-development and peace programmes in South Africa, to the researcher's knowledge, limited studies have been conducted that examine the capacity of sport-for-development and peace actors to conceptualise, design, deliver and manage quality, contextually relevant and sustainable programmes. The primary beneficiaries of sport-for-development and peace programmes are overwhelmingly vulnerable and at-risk youth and adolescents, so appropriate programming (design, curriculum, approaches, delivery) needs to be led by adequately trained and qualified people. These programmes have the potential to influence the trajectory of a young person's life, as that period in their development offers a unique opportunity to shape their cognitive, social and moral development.

The challenge that exists is that the sport-for-development and peace sector is generally uncoordinated and unregulated, so there is no reason why inadequately trained (or untrained) and unqualified (or underqualified) personnel could not find themselves in positions of influence, programme implementation and/or decision making within the sector. The objectives of this study were therefore to determine the training and development opportunities offered to coaches, facilitators or coordinators as field workers working directly with programme beneficiaries within sport-for-development and peace programmes in South Africa, as well as to explore the experiences and benefits related to these training and development opportunities.

A qualitative research approach was employed for this study, with a purposive sample of eight field workers from two civil society organisations undergoing face-to-face interviews with open-ended questions. The purpose of the study was to ascertain what training field workers are receiving, as well as to explore their personal experiences and the benefits of these training opportunities. These training initiatives are intended to build the capacities of field workers within two civil society organisations implementing sport-for-development and peace programmes in South Africa. Qualitative research was applied using interviews, which were recorded and transcribed for analysis. An inductive approach was used with the aim of identifying patterns in the collected data by means of thematic analysis. To ensure ethical issues were considered, permission from the respective organisations was sought and gatekeepers' letters were secured by the researcher. Further to that, ethical clearance from the University of Western Cape research office was sought. All research participants had to complete informed consent forms prior to their interview and anonymity/confidentiality is maintained by not revealing the names of those interviewed or that of the organisations they are employed by.

The study found that the training and development of field workers is a common practice within the sport-for-development and peace (SDP) sector. Despite the literature emphasising the

importance of providing more than just technical and didactic instruction to foster meaningful change, the study found pedagogical training intended to strengthen programme implementation being dominant for field workers. Findings of the study identified formal, non-formal and informal learning within the SDP sector, with the majority of training and development opportunities being offered to field workers being short-term non-credit bearing non-formal opportunities in the form of workshops, courses and/or in-house training programmes which in the main do not increase employability nor increase field worker's chances of being promoted to a supervisory or leadership position within or outside the SDP sector. The study also found a lack of prioritisation and underuse of informal learning for field workers despite this route offering an cost effective opportunity where much learning can occur .



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DEDICATION

This master's thesis is dedicated to the memory of my late father, uncle, and brother (Malinda Petros Ndlovu, Moufhe Edward Luvhimbi and Mbheki Sakhile Sanele Ndlovu). I miss you all very much and not a day goes by where I don't think about you. Thank you for all the teachings, and for ensuring you provided all the academic support I needed from an early age. I love you very much. I pray that you are all resting in eternal peace.

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GLOSSARY

Term	Definition
Sport	Any physical activity – participative or individual, organized or casual, competitive or not, and either rule- bound or unstructured – that represents a form of active play, active recreation or a game including indigenous games. (UNICEF Office Of Research – Innocenti, 2021)
Sport-for-Development and Peace (SDP)	The use of sport as programmatic tools to help achieve goals in health, education, child protection, gender equality, peace building and HIV/Aids etc. by supporting comprehensive life skills; psychosocial support programmes; building partnerships with parents, learners and communities, civil society and private sector at school level; and improving school environment for health and safety. (UNICEF South Africa, 2017)
SDP practitioners	Any individual directly implementing, supervising implementation, or making strategic or policy decisions about programme design or delivery in the SDP field.
SDP field workers	SDP coaches, coordinators, facilitators etc.
Formal training and development	Opportunities where practitioners are intentionally taught a specific area of knowledge or skill in a timely fashion. These interventions are accredited and credit-bearing. Specific learning objectives are stipulated, a variety of learning methods to reach the objectives are used, and some kind(s) of evaluation activities at the end of the training are applied. (de Vos & Willemse, 2011)
Non-formal training and development	Opportunities that are typically structured and relatively formal in the manner in which they are organised. However, there is no accredited curriculum, and it does not have to be an expert trainer who facilitates learning. These are generally workshops, courses or in-house training programmes that are non-credit bearing and there is no system in place to prove the competence of the learner. (Donitsa-Schmidt & Zuzovsky, 2020)
Informal training and development	Opportunities that are usually casual and/or incidental and take place outside a formal setting or classroom. They don't always have a formal structure or an accredited curriculum (non-credit bearing) and there is no formal system in place to prove the competence of the learner. (Cunningham and Hillier, 2013)

Monitoring and evaluation	<p>Monitoring is the “systematic, collection and analysis of information related to a planned and agreed programme of action”. (Coalter, Theeboom, Taylor, Commers and Derom, 2021:13)</p> <p>Evaluation is the “process of undertaking a systematic and objective examination of monitoring information in order to make judgements based on agreed criteria (e.g., specified outcomes)”. (Coalter, Theeboom, Taylor, Commers and Derom, 2021:13)</p>
Competences	Skills that can be learned, cognitively anchored and are knowledge-based skills and abilities with the sole aim of successfully accomplishing tasks and requirements in everyday and professional situations. (Stangl, 2017)
Employability	The possession of technical and/or job-related skills (hard skills). (Coalter, Theeboom, Taylor, Commers and Derom, 2021)



LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CEDEFOP	European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
CSI	Corporate Social Investment
CGA	Commonwealth Games Association
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
DDR	Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration
FIFA	Fédération Internationale de Football Association
ILO	International Labour Organization
INGO	International Non-Governmental Organisation
IDSDP	International Day of Sport-for-development and Peace
IOC	International Olympic Committee
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
NDP	National Development Plan
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NPO	Non-Profit Organisation
PPI	Peace Players International
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SDP	Sport-for-Development and Peace
S4D	Sport-for-Development
S4P	Sport-for-Peace
SGD	Sport, Gender and Development
SDPIWG	International Working Group on Sport-for-Development and Peace
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNOSDP	UN Office on Sport-for-Development and Peace

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Globally, but particularly in developing countries, adolescents are increasingly faced with challenges of urbanisation, economic recessions and conditions of chronic poverty, which translate into increased levels of unemployment and associated conditions of vulnerability (World Bank, 2017). Despite South Africa's model Bill of Rights, many marginalised young South Africans have limited access to health care, quality education and protection from abuse and exploitation, as they also struggle to survive from day to day (UNICEF, 2011). Addressing these challenges is not the sole responsibility of governments, but rather requires a collective effort by many role players, including, but not limited to, families, communities, civil society organisations (CSOs), non-governmental organisations (NGOs), developmental agencies and the private sector. It is therefore important to identify effective strategies to build the capacity of all actors to enact positive social change. One of the strategies that is gaining in popularity is the use of sport as a vehicle for social change, which is more popularly known as sport-for-development and peace (SDP).

1.2. Background to the study

Sport is a globally accepted construct that is capable of breaking through racial, cultural, religious, gender, generational and economic barriers. The United Nations Inter Agency Group on Sport-for-Development and Peace (IAGSDP) defined sport as "all forms of physical activity that contribute to physical fitness, mental well-being and social interaction, such as play, recreation, organised or competitive sport, and indigenous sports and games" (IAGSDP, 2003). The construct of sport consists of "games played on the playground, Physical Education in school, organised sport leagues, fitness-related programmes, backyard pickup games, play-based therapeutic settings, or even school-based extracurricular activities" (Anderson-Butcher, Riley, Iachini, Wade-Mdivanian, and Davis, 2011). The United Nations (UN) acknowledges sport as being an effective tool that has the potential to tackle societal ills, promote peace, and foster social inclusion and equality. These ideas are reiterated in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, which highlights the essential role of sport in social progress (Casaus, 2016).

South Africa's historical lineage of using sport as a tool can be traced back to the international anti-apartheid movement, when the sport sector was a conduit for international support for the black-led domestic liberation movement (Mbaye, 1995). With the demise of apartheid, the relationship between sport, development and peace gained prominence in numerous ways, with sport becoming regarded as an instrument to strengthen social bonds in a transitional society (Cornelissen, 2011). Deliberate efforts were made by the government to use sport to foster reconciliation, based on the euphoria and (short-lived) sense of nationhood resulting

from South Africa's hosting of, and victory in, the 1995 Rugby World Cup. Further to this, the emergent post-apartheid society and the various socioeconomic challenges characterising that society pronounced class polarities, the rise of the HIV/AIDS pandemic provided a rich context for the growth of social development programmes aimed at addressing some of South Africa's social ills. Thus, within this context, sport-based programmes have tended to flourish; even now there is a growing presence and increased investment in the SDP sector. This sector encompasses a diverse range of interventions, organisations and intended outcomes, and offers many promising contributions to positive youth development across a range of thematic areas, including health, education, child protection and employment.

1.3. Problem statement

The primary beneficiaries of SDP programmes are vulnerable and/or at-risk youth, therefore appropriate programme design and delivery is imperative. These programmes, and the people who deliver them, have the potential to influence the trajectory of a young person's life, as that period in their development offers a unique opportunity for shaping these young people's moral, social and cognitive development. Previous studies have found that human resources are critical to the success of sport and development as a sector, yet very little is known about the experience and expertise of the growing number of SDP actors (Whiteley, Farrell, Wolff and Hillyer, 2019). A recent global survey of 140 SDP actors found that none of the over 40% of respondents with a university degree had a qualification that was related to SDP (Whitely et al., 2019). This is of concern as SDP programming needs to be developed, conceptualised, implemented and led by adequately trained, qualified and competent practitioners. Therefore, The problem that was being investigated in this study was that an insufficient understanding exists of the types of training and development opportunities being offered, as well as the training and development experiences of field workers as programme implementers (coaches, facilitators, or coordinators) in the SDP sector in South Africa.

1.4. Aim of the study

This study aimed to assist the SDP sector improve the understanding of the training and development opportunities (including the types, relevancy and certification) being offered by SDP organisations, as espoused by the Skills Development Act 97 of 1998, and further highlight the experiences of field workers in terms of their organisations' training and development practices.

1.5. Objectives of the study

The research objectives of this study were to:

- determine the training and development opportunities that are offered to coaches, facilitators or coordinators implementing SDP activities;

- explore the personal experiences of field workers in relation to training and development within the SDP sector;
- identify good practices in the training and development of field workers in the SDP sector; and
- contribute to the improvement of the training and development of field workers within the SDP sector in South Africa.

1.6. Research questions

- What are the formal and informal training and development opportunities offered to coaches, facilitators or coordinators as field workers by their organisations?
- In their opinions, are the training programmes offered to field workers generally helpful to them and their organisations?
- What are field workers' personal experiences in relation to training and development within their organisations?
- What training needs and development requirements and interventions do field workers consider important and appropriate in the SDP sector, both offered or not offered by their organisations?

1.7. Significance of the problem

A previous study by Welty, Peachey, Musser, Shin and Cohen (2017) found that several SDP practitioners were unqualified (no formal education) or had no practical training directly related to SDP. These practitioners often stumbled into the field by accident from other occupations or sectors. According to Crabbe, some SDP practitioners possess educational backgrounds, spanning from higher education-based courses in sport/coaching to formal sport federation qualifications associated with a sporting code, while others have been beneficiaries of the very programme they are working in (Crabbe, 2009). Despite this, Coalter (2010) found that many SDP organisations fail, which he argued could be attributed to practitioners' educational backgrounds or training and development practices (or lack thereof) within the SDP sector.

The importance of field workers as an integral part of any SDP organisation has been widely accepted, meaning organisations have the responsibility to expand their capacity and skills through capacity-building interventions. According to Laverack (2012), the responsibility of organisations implementing SDP is not necessarily to “create a new programme called ‘capacity-building’”, but rather to examine how they can support the development of capacity-building as a process by which the end result is achieved through the increase of the knowledge, skills and competencies of those involved in their programme.

Crabbe (2009) previously noted that SDP field workers with diverse academic and experiential backgrounds deliver SDP programmes, with most (if not all) having participated in a training

course, workshop or mentorship to support them to better deliver these programmes. However, what remains a subject for research is the type, quality, quantity and relevance of the training and development opportunities SDP field workers are exposed to and need, so as to be able to fulfil their role whilst concurrently developing as an individual and in their career. The findings of this study therefore highlight if, in the field workers' personal experiences, the training and development opportunities they participated in were adequate and relevant, not only in terms of contributing to their professional and personal development, but also in providing meaningful opportunities to enhance their capacity and further position them for employability and upward mobility in the SDP sector in general, and their respective organisations in particular. Finally, the findings of this study will assist the South African SDP sector at large to determine the training opportunities for, and experiences of, field workers, not only in terms of technical and content programme implementation skills and knowledge, but also other non-technical elements required for successful SDP programming and career development.

1.8. Assumptions

Based on the researcher's experience within the sport-for-development and peace sector in South Africa, the following two assumptions underly this study:

- The training and development of field workers is not a foreign practice in the South African SDP sector, and most, if not all, organisations within the sector have engaged and exposed their field workers to some sort of training and/or development opportunities.
- Training and development initiatives for field workers within the SDP sector in South Africa are more concerned about meeting short-term organisational objectives related to programme delivery and less about long-term professional development that aims to build the capacities of coaches, facilitators or coordinators for future employability or organisational succession planning.

1.9. Limitations

The first limitation of this study was that as the participants in the study were the field workers in question, there is a possibility of modification of information and/or facts by some respondents, so as to create a favourable or unfavourable impression of the training and development opportunities being offered by their organisation.

The second limitation was that some respondents, especially those who had been field workers for a long time within the same organisation, could have highlighted or only remembered the training and development interventions that they enjoyed, personally benefited the most from, or found most useful for their job. Thus, the researcher might possibly not have gotten a true reflection of the training and development opportunities in the local SDP sector.

The third limitation was that all the field workers who were respondents were full-time employees. Setting up the interviews and getting times that were suitable for all the respondents proved a challenge for all parties involved.

The final challenge was that the interviews had to be conducted during a time when the Covid-19 pandemic was rife in South Africa, thus the researcher could not do all the interviews face-to-face due to travel restrictions and the accompanying lockdowns.

To address the first limitation, the researcher informed and assured the respondents that the research study was not an investigation into the individual organisations, but rather an exercise that was intended to assist the SDP sector to identify what training and development interventions are being offered and which of these interventions field workers consider valuable. This would allow the researcher to make recommendations on how to address SDP field workers' training and development needs, as attested to by the field workers themselves.

To address the second limitation, the interviewees were asked open-ended questions, thus providing the researcher with the chance to ask additional supplementary and probing questions. This approach permitted the respondents to move back and forth in time, enabling them to develop a story-sharing conversation whilst still focusing on the topic and answering in their own words, as opposed to them having to choose from fixed responses.

To address the third limitation, the researcher arranged to meet all the respondents individually at a time suitable for them. If a respondent was not available during work hours, the researcher requested a meeting after hours or even over the weekend at a suitable venue or platform where the respondents were most comfortable.

To address the final limitation, the researcher had to resort to doing the face-to-face interviews via online platforms such as Zoom and MS Teams. The researcher provided the respondents with mobile data so they could download an application of their choice so that they could engage in an online/remote interview. The researcher further provided the respondents with mobile data to be able to participate in the interview.

1.10. Structure of the dissertation

The study was undertaken using an approach that enabled a clear understanding of the problem being investigated, the extant literature, the methodology used, the data collected, the findings, an analysis of the data/findings, and the concluding recommendations.

The structure of the study is presented in six chapters as follows:

Chapter One

This chapter gives an explanation of the background of the study with a focus on sport-for-development, as well as how and why sport is used as a developmental tool. The chapter also presents the research problem and the framework of the research methodology that was utilised for the study, and outlines the research's aims, objectives and questions. Finally, the chapter outlines the purpose of the study, its significance, the assumptions guiding the study and its limitations.

Chapter Two

This chapter focuses on the literature review, which is an overview of previously conducted studies related to the research question. The theoretical framework for this study focuses on the concepts of sport-for-development and peace; the difference between sport development, sport-for-development and sport and development; training, development and organisational capacity; and sport-for-development and peace and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

Chapter Three

Chapter Three focuses on the research paradigm and research methodology that were utilised for this study, with a particular focus on the research design and method, inclusive of data collection techniques as well as data analysis.

Chapter Four

In this chapter, the researcher presents the findings in the form of descriptive narratives about the data. Aspects related to the training and development of SDP field workers are explored, including a presentation of what training and development interventions field workers had undergone in their organisations, what their experiences were in relation to these interventions, whether they found the training programmes beneficial, and what training and development interventions they suggested be offered to field workers in the SDP sector in South Africa.

Chapter Five

This chapter provides a discussion on the research findings, which the researcher interprets and explains in relation to existing literature. The researcher also addresses the aims and objectives of the study and shows how the data collected supports the problem statement.

Chapter Six

This chapter's focus is on conclusions and recommendations. The chapter links the objectives of the study with the findings and discusses whether the research questions have been answered. The chapter also gives recommendations to SDP organisations in general, as well as SDP practitioners who make strategic or policy decisions, in particular what training they should consider for SDP field workers employed by their organisation.

1.11. Conclusion

Chapter One presents the study setting in the context of the wider SDP sector, with an emphasis on the South African context. The construct of sport and how it can be used as a tool for development globally is explained, with a deeper explanation of the role sport has played in recent South African history during the transition from the apartheid dispensation to a democratic South Africa, and the relationship between sport and development. The problem statement highlights that SDP as a programming concept is generally designed for vulnerable and/or youth at risk, and field workers are programme implementers who have the potential to influence the trajectory of a beneficiary's development by shaping their cognitive, social and moral development. This therefore calls for the sector programming needs to be developed, conceptualised, implemented and led by adequately trained, qualified and competent practitioners. The research objectives and questions aimed to explore and determine what training and development opportunities are offered to field workers in the SDP sector in South Africa, if field workers find the offered opportunities beneficial for themselves and their organisation, and what training and development they perceived as important for them as field workers. The researcher's assumptions and the limitations underlying this study are also highlighted.

The next chapter reviews the literature relevant to the objectives of this study and the questions that need to be answered. Chapter Two starts off by introducing sport-for-development and peace as a programming concept by highlighting the history of SDP, making known the prominent types of programming delivery methodologies, and the role of SDP field workers in delivering interventions. Chapter Two further goes into detail regarding the fundamental differences between sport and development, sport development, and sport-for-development by highlighting the various concepts that are applied to illustrate the ways sport is being used in development programmes. The researcher, through the literature review, highlights what training, development and organisational capacity entails, including why these are important for programme delivery and positive outcomes. Finally, Chapter Two gives a brief background of sport and the SDGs by highlighting the 2030 UN Agenda for Sustainable Development and the role of sport within it.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review for this study includes an overview of existing research related to the sport, development and peace fields. The theoretical framework focuses on sport, development and peace approaches, concepts and definitions, which provides a theoretical lens for a research study relating to the training and development of sport-for-development and peace actors in South Africa. It further provides a space for exploring the training opportunities and experiences of field workers implementing programmes in SDP organisations.

The literature review is presented in the context where sport has been recognised by the United Nations as having the potential to support important work in the field of conflict resolution and peacebuilding, where communities and nations have been deliberate in using it to promote conflict transformation, foster peace, build tolerance and nurture reconciliation. There are well documented examples that date as far back as the ancient Olympic Games, when the Olympic Truce (Ekecheiria) led to wars temporarily stopping during the Games to allow athletes, spectators and their families to move freely from and to their countries of origin (Ameti, Arifi and Memishi, 2021). Another example is what has become known as the Christmas Truce of 1914, when during the First World War there was an unofficial cease-fire between German and British troops, which temporarily halted hostilities and enabled them to exchange gifts and play football together (Woodhouse, 2009).

These acts have continued into the modern era and the role of sport to promote peace, tolerance, reconciliation and development has not diminished. This was proven true in the early 1990s and beyond in South Africa, where sport programmes were used for reconciliation through national development programmes, with the government making deliberate efforts not only to transform the sport sector, but society at large. This was evidenced as far back as 1994 where the government explicitly linked sport to development and reconciliation in the Reconstruction and Development Programme (Höglund and Sundberg, 2008). In defining reconciliation, Höglund and Sundberg expanded this to focus on more than just forgiveness, truth seeking and justice in the relationship between perpetrators and victims; they looked at reconciliation through sport in South Africa from a perspective where reconciliation was understood not only as a process of forgiveness at the political level, but also as an integration of separate racial, ethnic and socioeconomic groups. Sport in South Africa has thus traditionally been used as a catalyst to foster social cohesion through: 1) the application of sport policies to create fair representation; 2) the breaking down of stereotypes and negative attitudes through inter-communal sport initiatives; 3) the utilisation of symbols and symbolic acts of reconciliation; and 4) individual development (Höglund and Sundberg, 2008).

There is a large body of SDP literature that has highlighted how sport has the potential to be used as a tool to deliver developmental and peacebuilding programmes. According to van der Veken, Harris, Delheye, Lauwerier and Willems (2021), these programmes aim to make sport and its related benefits accessible to those who could benefit mentally, physically and socially. The programmes come in different forms and have different names, depending on whether they are general sport programmes designed to develop sport skills (e.g., typical school or community sport programmes); sport that is used as a vehicle to teach life skills in an intentional and systematic manner (e.g., a sport-based life skills programme); or programmes that are structured to use sport as a vehicle to prevent health-compromising behaviours, for example prevention programmes to keep youth off the street. (Papacharisis, Goudas, Danish and Theodorakis, 2005; Haudenhuyse, Buelens, Debognies, De Bosscher, Derom, Nols, Vertonghen, 2018). These programmes are commonly known as sport for social change, sport-for-development and peace, sport-for-development, or sport and development programmes.

2.1. Sport-for-Development and Peace

Under the backing of global leadership emanating from the United Nations (UN), the International Olympic Committee (IOC), Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) and governments facilitating national sport-for-all, sport (for) development (Burnett, 2015), and sport-and-development initiatives (Keim and de Coning, 2014), a global movement emerged that sought to remobilise sport as a vehicle for broad, sustainable social development, especially in destitute communities, through the concept of sport-for-development and peace (SDP). This emerging field of SDP has flourished since the 1990s (Keim 2003; 2008). The past 25 years have seen a mushrooming of non-profit organisations (NGOs) dedicated to SDP in South Africa (Keim 2008; 2012), as well as new international development initiatives focused on sports as a delivery tool. Svensson and Woods (2017) noted that SDP interventions by organisations can be found in more than 120 countries across the world.

The rapid global growth of the SDP sector has arisen, in part, because sport is considered a low-cost, simple and effective way to contribute to development. Read and Bingham (2008) noted that the upsurge of SDP organisations has translated into an increasing interest and acceptance of sport as a practicable intervention tool recognised not only by international bodies such as the UN, but other actors in development, academia, civil society etc. as well. South Africa, for instance, successfully used sport as a means to fight the injustices of apartheid when the democratically elected government of South Africa used sport in the 1990s as a tool to foster social cohesion and reconciliation. South Africa was the first African host nation for the FIFA World Cup (in 2010), and as Burnett (2010) suggests, is a country that serves as a gateway for international agencies to explore and export their sport development initiatives into other African countries. SDP has derived some of its stature (Pillay, Tomlinson

and Bass, 2009) due to mega events increasing people's interest in sport, with many development initiatives across the country using sport as a vehicle for social change (Sanders, Phillips and Vanreusel, 2014), such as multi-dimensional poverty, crime, HIV and AIDS.

Kidd (2008), however, highlighted that development through sport is nothing new, tracing international social development through sport to the 19th century colonial powers. This was supported by Beutler (2008), who noted that the use of sport in development and peacebuilding efforts has been traced back to as early as the 1920s, when the IOC began collaborating with the International Labour Organisation (ILO) following World War 1. Wilson (2012) further highlighted that sport and development have also been on the UN's global agenda since 1978, when the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) declared sport and physical education "a fundamental right for all".

Despite all these early developments, the UN only first officially included sport as a development tool in the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) in 2003 (Nathan, Kemp, Bunde-Birouste, MacKenzie, Evers and Shwe, 2013). Soon after that, the organisation declared 2005 to be the International Year of Sport and Physical Education, and declared April 6 the International Day of Sport-for-Development and Peace (IDSDP). This gave the SDP sector a stamp of approval and an element of credibility. However, the sector took a step back more recently when the UN Secretary-General announced the sudden closure of the UN Office on Sport-for-development and Peace (UNOSDP), which was established in 2001 (Svensson, Andersson and Faulk, 2018). This has raised concerns about the broader institutional governance and perceived legitimacy of the sector and organisations operating within it (Probst and Hunt, 2017).

Despite this setback, the sector continues to witness an upsurge of international interest in sport as a mechanism for advancing peace and international development. A recent global mapping conducted by Svensson and Woods (2017) confirmed that there is an abundance of CSOs implementing SDP programmes all around the world. This study similarly found that most SDP organisations implement programmes in Africa, even though entities operating across Europe, North America, Asia and Latin America are plentiful.

Svensson and Woods' (2017) mapping study confirmed the findings of previous studies, which ascertained that SDP interventions are not limited to low- and middle-income countries and regions of conflict (Kidd, 2008), as SDP initiatives range in activities, target populations, specific aims and overall intended impact (Meyer and Roche, 2017). According to Meyer and Roche, these interventions are being implemented in developed and developing countries, low income and high-income geographic locations, and in most regions across the globe, as they also extend to the slums of first world countries such as the impoverished aboriginal reserves of Canada and inner cities in the United States of America (Meyer and Roche, 2017:51). This

is in direct contrast to the SDP definition proposed by the Sport-for-Development and Peace International Working Group (SDPIWG), which defined SDP as, “the intentional use of sport and physical activity to attain specific development objectives in low- and middle-income countries and disadvantaged communities in high-income settings” (Lindsey, 2019:70). This suggests that SDP is conceived, explained, understood and practiced in several different ways, as there is an array of frequently vague definitions, which is a conceptual weakness previously acknowledged by Coalter (2007).

Besides the conceptual disparities the sector faces, Coalter (2007) further highlighted that there are also varying approaches to SDP programming. Coalter uses the terms “sport plus” and “plus sport” to describe two contrasting approaches, with ‘sport plus’ referring to initiatives that use the sport context to promote sport along with other community development outcomes. ‘Plus sport’ approaches, on the other hand, use sport to attract participants, but the main programming is not sport-based. In this context, sport is used as an incentive to create engagement with the targeted population to improve recruitment and retention (Hartmann and Kwauk, 2011).

Figure 2.1: Overview of sport plus and plus sport terminology



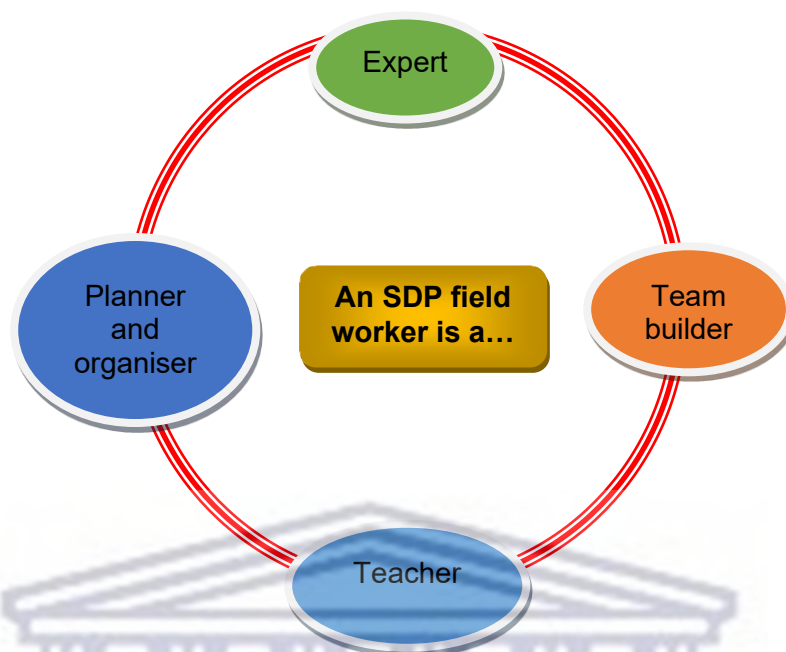
Source: SPIN Sport Innovation (2021)

If not understood and conceptualised correctly by SDP actors, both ‘sport plus’ and ‘plus sport’ can lead to initiatives entering the sport development realm. It is important that SDP be distinguished from sport development (Nixon, Njelesani, Polatajko, Gibson and Cameron, 2014) and mass participation or recreational sport. This is particularly important as sufficient research has highlighted that it is a myth that mere participation in sport (recreational or competitive) automatically results in positive development, or that sport automatically builds

and strengthens only positive characteristics in youth. According to Rechner and Smart (2012), sport and development have the potential for a positive affiliation, as participation in sport and SDP programmes could provide a setting that stimulates positive development. Equally so, however, sport development and SDP may relate to negative outcomes if not appropriately programmed and managed (Rechner and Smart, 2012) by adequately skilled and capacitated individuals. Development through sport will most likely be realised if the SDP organisations taking responsibility for the programmes deliberately create a setting of developmentally intentional learning experiences, as sport offers opportunities for youth to learn vital life lessons if appropriately programmed (Perkins and Noam, 2007).

Based on the fact that coaches, facilitators and/or coordinators generally do not work in a traditional office setting, but are rather based at programme sites, they could be considered the field workers of the SDP sector. Field workers are a critical element for any SDP programme as they directly facilitate the implementation and delivery of programmes in the field. This means that many (if not all) SDP organisations depend upon a vibrant and capacitated field worker workforce (Meier and Stutzer, 2008). In many SDP organisations, the field workers' responsibility is to promote and enable the long-term development, participation and satisfaction of programme beneficiaries. Figure 2.2 below highlights how a coach, facilitator and/or coordinator takes on a crucial role in SDP programming. Whether they are called "(sport) coaches" (Schulenkorf, 2017), "educators" (Spaaij et al., 2016), "practitioners" (Debognies, Schailée, Haudenhuyse and Theeboom, 2019), "instructors" (Lyras and Peachey, 2011), "boundary spanners" (Jeanes et al., 2019) or "peer leaders" (Lindsey and Grattan, 2012), their position is crucial to ensure the effectiveness of practices and projects (Cronin and Armour, 2015).

Figure 2.2: Roles and responsibilities of an SDP field worker



Source: GIZ Sport for Development (S4D) Resource Toolkit (2021)

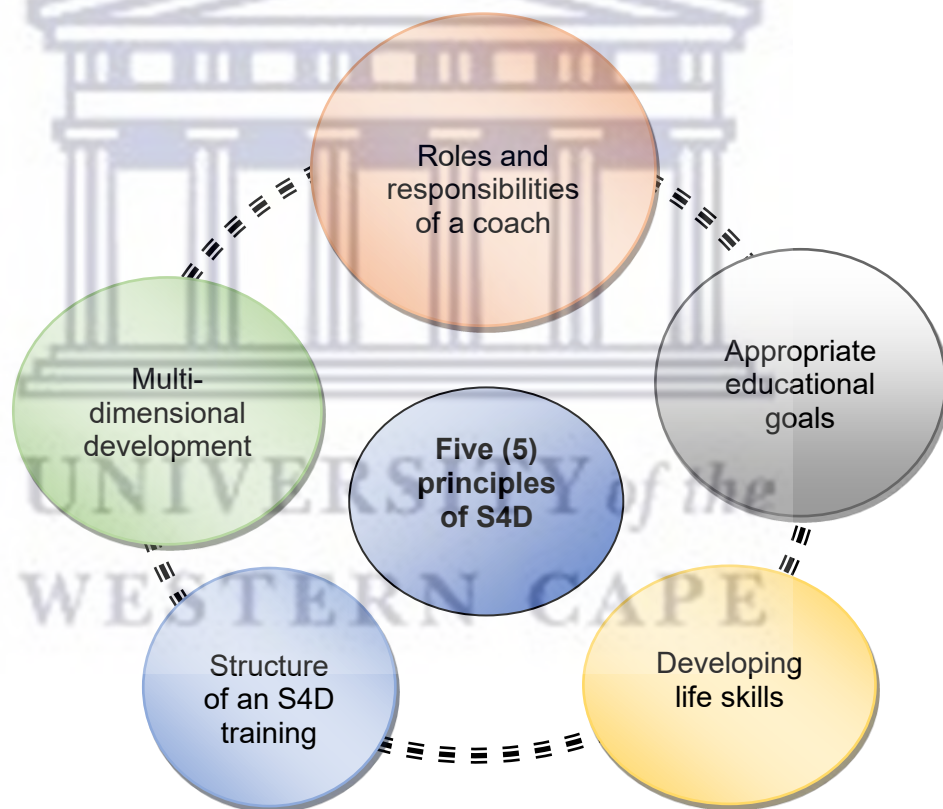
2.2. Sport-for-Development

The International Working Group on Sport-for-Development and Peace referred to sport-for-development (S4D) as the intentional use of sport or physical activity to achieve specific development objectives, including, most notably, the UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). There is evidence that, when conducted in an effective, responsible, culturally appropriate way, with community support, S4D has the potential to enhance the education, health, well-being (Kidd, 2008), livelihoods, peace and social cohesion (Svensson and Woods, 2017) of the intended beneficiaries at the individual and community levels. Research has also shown effective S4D programmes to have the potential to be powerful vehicles for youth empowerment, gender equality and social inclusion, the benefits of which can be documented far beyond sports fields. Generally, S4D programmes aim to service the needs of developing and, at times, marginalised, vulnerable and at-risk youth, by enhancing developmental outcomes such as behaviours, social competence, prosocial social skills, life skills (Anderson-Butcher, Iachini, Riley, Wade-Mdivanian, Davis and Amorose, 2013), cognitive, physical, sport-related and most notably, the Sustainable Development Goals (GIZ, 2020).

In order to achieve this and make a meaningful contribution to an SDG, programming needs to be deliberate and explicit in developing the competences/life skills of programme beneficiaries. According to Stangl (2017), competences are those knowledge-based skills and abilities that can be learned and cognitively anchored with the aim of being able to successfully accomplish tasks and requirements in everyday and professional situations. For S4D programming, GIZ developed a competency framework which identified four categories of

competences, namely self-competences (e.g., self-confidence, goal-oriented); social competences (e.g., respect, fair play, communication); methodological, strategic competences (e.g., problem solving, decision making); and sport-specific competences (e.g., basic tactical and general motor competences). Life skills, in a similar manner, are considered the abilities for adaptive and positive behaviour that enable individuals to deal effectively with the demands of everyday life (WHO, 1994). The aim of S4D programming is to incorporate competences/life skills development into sessions in an innovative and fun way that allows programme beneficiaries to acquire and transfer these to their daily life contexts. In order to achieve this, programme developers and implementers have to take into account the five principles of S4D, which are necessary to achieve its full potential (GIZ, 2020).

Figure 2.3: Preconditions for developing competences/life skills through sport



Creating a safe space:



Source: GIZ Sport for Development (S4D) Resource Toolkit (2020)

Many S4D initiatives are designed to use sport to attract participants for the purposes of promoting positive development outcomes (previously referred to as Coalter's 'sport plus' approach). These interventions look to affect overall development and strengthen communities using the S4D platform. As suggested by Coalter, these 'sport plus' S4D interventions include a broad range of curricula and sport-based activities, however there is little evidence that shows wholesale societal shifts being derived from these programmes. As cautioned by Sanders, de Coning and Keim (2017:515), "while sport can have a positive micro-impact on individuals, this does not necessarily lead to greater outcomes in the community (meso) and society (macro)", nor does it look at the 'other side' of sport and its challenges.

2.3. Sport and development

The concept of sport and development has only in recent literature become prominent, adding to the concepts of SDP and sport development (Keim and de Coning, 2014). Keim and de Coning (2014), followed by Pokpas (2019), defined sport and development as a concept that focuses on the full spectrum of development impacts that sport has on individuals and communities in terms of a broad range of socio-economic and sustainable development benefits. The concept of sport and development emphasises sport being used for development purposes, but is not implicitly embedded in a particular relationship between the two concepts, or the positive or negative outcomes and impacts that may result as a consequence from this (de Coning, 2018).

The United Nations (2019) views development as a means of achieving sustainable growth to address challenges related to inequality, poverty, peace, justice, climate change and environmental degradation. In an effort to achieve these development outcomes, sport has been argued to have a favourable impact in areas such as personal development, gender equality, social integration, social capital, peacebuilding, economic development, social mobilisation, health promotion and disease prevention (Biyawila, 2018). The latter is consistent with Meyer and Roche (2017), who found that much of the community development and strengthening movement towards SDP originated from using sports to impact HIV transmission and education. Despite its unfortunate name, Kicking-Aids-Out! was one of the first civil society organisations that used sport as a means of raising awareness about HIV and AIDS, motivating positive behaviour change in youth and impacting development indicators. (Nathan, et al., 2013). Several other sports programmes followed suit by implementing sports programmes to tackle HIV and AIDS, and funding for HIV and AIDS increased with support of global campaigns like the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria (Szto, 2016). The similarities between the organisations that cropped up were mostly that they focused on small-scale programming and community participation, and offered an added educational component that addressed not only HIV and AIDS, but other localised social issues as well

(Oxford and McLachlan, 2017), thus strengthening the relationship between sport and development.

HIV and AIDS, while still very much impacting people, is no longer the pandemic it was 20 years ago. This means that civil society organisations and sport entities have had to expand, or at times change, their scope of programming to respond to the social ills plaguing the communities they are programming in. Subsequently, many sport and development thematic areas have emerged from a programming perspective. Nowadays organisations tackle a range of areas in their programmes, including education, health, child protection, gender, disability, livelihoods, peace and social cohesion (Svensson and Woods, 2017).

As much as academic studies indicate that quality education is the leading thematic area addressed within sport and development programming, sport and gender has gained traction as organisations have scrambled to ensure equity and inclusion in their programming. This was instigated by Sustainable Development Goal 5: “Achieving gender equality and empowering all women and girls.” A report by Brady and Banu-Khan (2002) on a girl-specific SDP programme implemented in Kenya laid the foundation for exploring the relationship between sport and gender. Programmes that utilise sport to promote gender equality, challenge gender norms and/or empower girls have been coined Sport, Gender and Development (SGD) programmes in some spheres of the sport and development sector. Chawanky (2011) found that girls within sport and development programming generally fall into two categories: organisations either “allow” girls to play in a co-ed environment, or “empower” girls in a single-sex programme. Chawanky and Hayhurst (2015) refer to this as the “girling of SDP”. This suggests that there is an increased presence of female participants, with specific SGD agendas that target how girls’ lives can be improved.

There is also an increasing amount of research being conducted on the complexities of gender relations within sport. A global literature review on S4D (*Getting into the Game*), which was created by UNICEF’s office of research (Innocenti) in 2019, found that sport has the potential to be a positive factor in various key areas of children’s lives, including the social inclusion of young girls by building their self-confidence, developing their teamwork skills, and challenging traditional gender roles and stereotypes. Girl-specific SDP programmes not only aim to empower young girls, but also aim to allow them to participate in an environment that is free from harassment, abuse and exploitation based on their gender.

Additional themes have emerged recently, as seen by the many case studies that have been published around the world where sport and development have supposedly been shown to have a favourable affiliation by yielding positive development outcomes in developing countries such as South Africa. There are, however, many scholars who dispute these assertions as

they argue that the meaningful impact of (especially) SDP interventions remain debatable, just as Sanders (2016) warned that wide-ranging claims made by the SDP movement need to be treated with caution. According to Richards, Kaufman, Schulenkorf, Wolff, Gannett, Siefken and Rodriguez (2013), as cited by Sanders et al. (2017), this argument is rooted in a general lack of rigorous research, monitoring and evaluation (M&E), limited long-term results, unclear theories of change, and few strategies to tackle broader structural problems in the SDP sector. They were supported by Burnett (2015), who suggested that there tends to be a lack of critical reflection when evaluating the impact and extent of development as a consequence of sport-based programmes. This is largely due to a community of researchers and programme evaluators who choose research questions that are manageable and likely to provide the 'proof of effect' for donors, which justify their investments in partnerships and programmes (Burnett, 2015; Kay, 2012).

There are also scholars who go further to criticise the uncritical 'evangelical' accounts and assumed myopic powers of sport. Coakley (2014:6) referred to this as the "Great Sport Myth", where there is an absence of robust evidence to substantiate such claims or a lack of questioning of the unequal power relations and stakeholder power dynamics (Levermore and Beacom, 2012). In fact, critics have suggested that sport represents all the "isms", such as sexism, racism, elitism and homophobia.

Sufficient research has shown that merely participating in a sport does not automatically result in positive development, and sport does not automatically build and strengthen only positive characteristics in youth. It can thus be concluded that sport and development have the potential to have a positive affiliation, as participation in sport programmes could provide a setting that stimulates positive development, but equally so, may result in negative outcomes if not appropriately programmed and managed (Rechner and Smart, 2012). Participation in sport is therefore neither inherently good nor bad, but rather has the potential to be both. Development through sport will most likely be realised if the sport and development organisations and entities taking responsibility for the programmes are deliberate in their activities, creating a setting of developmentally intentional learning experiences, as sport offers opportunities for youth to learn vital life lessons if appropriately programmed (Perkins and Noam, 2007).

2.4. Sport and the Sustainable Development Goals

In 2015, after an exhaustive consultation exercise involving all the UN member states and the broader civil society, the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were replaced by the 17 United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), also known as UN Agenda 2030. The SDGs are globally recognised as a common language to unite a worldwide commitment towards a shift in social, economic and environmental development issues (Spangenberg, 2017).

Although not explicitly cited within the SDGs or their related targets, Morgan, Bush and McGee (2021) indicated that the introduction of the SDGs was welcomed as an opportunity to empower the country-level incorporation of sport into social, economic and health policies. Yet Paragraph 37 of the SDGs recognises sport as an “enabler” of sustainable development, meaning that despite sport being recognised in Agenda 2030, there are no clear goals, targets or indicators related to sport. Despite this, the recognition of the contribution of sport to the realisation of development, empowerment, health, education and social inclusion objectives means that sport has become widely endorsed as an enabler of social change and an instrument and platform through which to strategically map and measure commitments to sustainability (Morgan et al., 2021).

Wilfried Lemke, who served as the United Nations Secretary-General’s Special Adviser on Sport-for-Development and Peace, acknowledged that there was extensive acceptance that sport may act as a cultural vehicle through which the SDGs might be tackled (Lemke, 2016). With this backing and advocacy efforts by influential organisations such as the UN in support of sport as a tool to address the targets contained in the SDGs, a significant number of private and public sector organisations have incorporated sport as a tool to contribute to their attainment (Giulianotti, Darnell, Collison and Howe, 2018).

With sport being recognised as an enabler of sustainable development, sport-for-development and peace has the potential to contribute to specific SDGs, including SDG 3 (Good health and well-being), SDG 4 (Quality education), SDG 5 (Gender equity), SDG 8 (Decent work and economic growth), SDG 16 (Peace, justice and strong institutions) and SDG 17. Giulianotti (2014) noted that Commonwealth countries are at the forefront of sport-based initiatives for development. For this reason, the Commonwealth Secretariat has developed and published several guidance and technical documents, which have increasingly sought to provide support to organisations and practitioners seeking to strengthen their contribution to the SDP movement (Kay and Dudfield, 2013). The Commonwealth Secretariat has also published documents that recommend evidence-based, balanced policy options to: support effective and cost-efficient contributions to SDG attainment (Lindsey and Chapman, 2017); offer policy guidance; assist capacity-building processes; and/or provide technical assistance (Dudfield and Dingwall-Smith, 2015). This body of work has focussed upon the contribution of sport and SDP to five identified SDGs, namely SDG 3, SDG 4, SDG 5, SDG 8 and SDG 16 (United Nations, 2019).

Despite the substantive work done and the high-level political endorsement of sport’s transformative potential, there remains a lack of concrete evidence of uptake and integration at the level of national policy (Svensson and Loat, 2019). Svensson and Loat added that

besides a few small-scale evaluations of local programmes that have championed the role of sport to contribute to the SDGs, there are limited empirical studies and a lack of evidence to measure the progress of sporting organisations towards SDG targets.

Morgan et al. (2021) recently conducted a study where they analysed secondary data collected by the Commonwealth Games Federation from 62 Commonwealth Games Associations (CGAs) in relation to their perspectives and perceptions of the contribution of sport to the SDGs. This study found that the CGAs generally acknowledged that they should play a central role in contributing to commitments related to the SDGs. The study also found evidence indicating that the CGAs have put significant programmes in place to address some SDGs, in particular concerning improving physical and mental health, the advancement of gender equality, and the provision of quality education.

Although the use of sport to contribute to all 17 SDGs would appear unrealistic or seen to be diverting resources away from existing interventions that have demonstrated favourable impact, there is clear potential for sport bodies, and SDP organisations in particular, to re-imagine strategic responses and be deliberate in establishing coherent and better co-ordinated policy approaches to deliver on SDG obligations (Morgan et al., 2021). This is consistent with the Kazan Action Plan of 2017, which recognises the potential of sport to contribute to the achievement of the SDGs. The Plan suggests that the meaningful contribution of sport to the SDGs will only be realised if a broad range of state and non-state stakeholders are mobilised through new partnerships and platforms.

2.5. Training, development and organisational capacity

Today, in civil society, business and even government, training is critical for success, as the development of employees' and organisations' competences and efficiencies is largely achieved via training (Rabie, Cant and Wiid, 2016). As Lang (2009:11) argued, "the performance and productivity of employees rely on many factors, the most important being employee training and development".

Rabie et al. (2016), citing Ongori and Nzonzo (2011:187), defined training as a "systematic approach to learning so as to develop individual, team and organisational effectiveness by means of improving their knowledge, developing skills, and bringing about attitude and behavioural changes, to perform these effectively and efficiently". Adding to this, Aguinis and Kraiger (2009), as cited by Rabie et al. (2016), said that training should be augmented with development, which they referred to as opportunities and activities that lead to the acquisition of new knowledge and skills, leading to the personal growth of an individual. "Training and development are therefore the framework for helping employees to improve their personal and organisational skills, knowledge and abilities" (HRM, 2009:1).

Rabie et al. (2016) and de Vos and Willemse (2011) identified two types of training, namely formal and informal training. “Formal training refers to learning that ensues based on a planned structure that is constructed in terms of objectives, time and resources” (de Vos and Willemse, 2001:27), while informal training refers to learning emanating from day-to-day work-related activities. De Vos and Willemse highlighted that informal training is not structured or constructed in terms of objectives, time or learning support. These definitions are consistent with those of Callanan, Cervantes and Loomis (2011), who found that learning encompasses a range of formal and informal training and development opportunities that may be offered to, and engaged by, employees. As highlighted in the above definitions, structured knowledge acquisition interventions offered in educational settings are considered formal. In contrast, development that transpires through daily institutionalised organisational practices in non-educational settings is referred to as informal learning (Callanan et al., 2011). In addition to formal and informal training and development, Donitsa-Schmidt and Zuzovsky (2020) described non-formal training in organisations. According to these scholars, non-formal training refers to learning that is typically structured, pre-planned and intentional, but is not constructed in terms of objectives, does not have any explicitly defined learning outcomes, and does not lead to any certification.

Rabie et al. (2016) argued that, in the main, the training and development of employees is the difference between the success and failure of an organisation. This was supported by Chandler and McEvoy (2000), who suggested that organisations that capacitate employees through training and development are likely to have greater productivity and less employee turnover. This, in essence, refers to organisational human resources capacity, which Misener and Doherty (2009) referred to as the ability of an organisation to deploy human capital. This includes the competencies, knowledge, behaviours, motivation and attitudes of the individuals in an organisation.

Human capacity is supposedly the key element impacting directly on all other capacities (Hall, Andrukow, Barr, Brock, de Wit, Embuldeniya, Jolin, Lasby, Lévesque, Malinsky and Stowe, 2003), especially organisational capacity. The extent to which an organisation is able to produce change (Christensen and Gazley (2008) and achieve its intended outcomes (Svensson et al., 2018) is known as organisational capacity. Misener and Doherty specifically referred to organisational capacity as, “the ability of an organisation to harness its internal and external resources to achieve its goals” (2013: 136). This is aligned to the UN Development Programme’s (UNDP, 2010: 2) definition of capacity, which it states as, “the ability of individuals and organisations or organisational units to perform functions effectively, efficiently, and sustainably”. Misener and Doherty (2009) went on to suggest that without strong capacity

in the non-profit sector, services that contribute to further individual and societal development will be compromised.

Previous research studies have utilised Hall et al.'s (2003) multi-dimensional framework for non-profit organisational capacity to identify context-specific elements that enable SDP organisations to attain their set goals (Clutterbuck and Doherty, 2019). The conceptualisation of the framework was originally for the non-profit sector and draws from the literature on human, structural and financial assets as key resources in this wide-ranging context. The framework was developed and adapted into a sport and development setting by Wicker and Breuer (2011), with a focus on human resources and partnerships in organisations within the SDP sector.

With human capacity having been identified as one of the key elements of organisational capacity, SDP researchers have studied different aspects of this dimension. Swierzy, Wicker and Breuer (2018) emphasised the importance of field workers and how individual organisational capacity dimensions significantly impact the decision to, in essence, volunteer as a field worker. Svensson and Hambrick (2016) found that the effect of passionate and knowledgeable field workers has the potential to contribute to an NGO's success.

2.6. Volunteerism

Whether SDP, S4D or sport and development, at the core of the realisation of programme objectives are the programme deliverers (Haudenhuyse et al., 2018), with many organisations implementing these sport-based initiatives being heavily reliant on a volunteer "workforce" (Schulenkorf, 2016). Burgham and Downward (2005), citing Davis-Smith (1998: 10), defined volunteerism as "any activity that involves spending time, unpaid, doing something that aims to benefit the environment or someone (individuals and groups) other than, or in addition to, close relatives". In contexts where volunteerism offers no monetary gain, it has been found to provide meaningful leisure, learning and career opportunities (Cantillon and Baker, 2020). Darnell (2011) found this to be especially true for international volunteers, where volunteerism may lead to career-related pathways within the SDP, S4D or sport and development sectors (Wallrodt and Thieme, 2020).

In South Africa, the converse is true. Due to the high levels of youth unemployment of up to 62.1% (Statistics SA, 2023) and the numerous adversities young people face (Donnelly, Darnell, Kidd and Armstrong, 2021), local volunteers in the SDP, S4D and sport and development sectors are desperate to earn some income (Van der Klashorst, 2018). In this context, where many NGOs in South Africa operate on limited budgets, it can be argued that field workers (coaches, facilitators and/or coordinators) in the South African SDP sector are

operating as “volunteers” who receive a modest stipend to cover the costs of their personal needs and, in some cases, their transport costs to implement the programme at local schools or in local communities (Mxekezo-Lallie and Burnett, 2022). These field workers are also looking to improve their curriculum vitae (CV) by acquiring relevant (or some) experience and meaningful social learning, whilst rendering SDP services to their community.

Results from a pilot study survey by Donnelly (2007), which explored several aspects of volunteerism, showed a strong relationship between volunteerism in sport and social capital. This is consistent with what Wilson and Musick (1999) argued, i.e., that one of the most prevalent effects of volunteering on the volunteer is developing increased social capital. Social capital refers to social networks where: (a) socially useful contacts, knowledge and skills are acquired; (b) norms of reciprocity are established; and (c) social trust is created (Theeboom, Schaille and Nols, 2012).

It must, however, be cautioned that to date, most research on SDP volunteers has focused on international volunteers who travel North to South to deliver SDP programmes. Significantly less research has theoretically and empirically examined the positions of local volunteers who undertake SDP work within low- and middle-income countries (Giulianotti, Collison and Darnell, 2021). What these studies have highlighted is that sport as a construct, and programmes that use sport as a programming tool, are widely recognised and well positioned to impact positively on the building of social capital for volunteers (Skinner, Zakus and Cowell, 2008). This may increase ‘social connectedness’, the development of relationships, and motivation to pursue social change (Peachey, Bruening, Lyrus, Cohen and Cunningham, 2015).

According to Coalter (2013), SDP volunteering may also promote social capital among young people by providing opportunities that encourage ambition and help recognise the value of education and learning. Plenty of literature has found that field workers as SDP volunteers are motivated by a range of factors that include strong learning environments, opportunities for career development and self-enhancement (Smith, Cohen and Pickett, 2014). SDP programmes provide an opportunity and platform where field workers as volunteers are placed in an environment where they can be beneficiaries of training and development, potentially contributing to the attainment of skills for employability, development of self, development of citizenship, and strengthened organisational and programme delivery capacity, ultimately benefiting the SDP sector at large.

2.7. Conclusion

The literature review provided an in-depth review of the existing literature on the different models and approaches where sport is being used as to facilitate developmental outcomes.

The literature further provided an outline of the (potential) contribution of sport towards achieving the SDGs, and concluded by discussing training, development and organisational capacity. In reviewing the literature, it is apparent that despite the increased emphasis on the importance of training and development in NGOs, research into training and development in the SDP sector has been relatively neglected. The literature discussion therefore started off by exploring and contextualising the theoretical framework on sport, development and peace approaches, concepts and definitions, after which the potential contribution of sport to the SDGs was emphasised. The literature review concluded with a discussion on the necessity of training and development interventions in organisations and their contribution to SDP organisational capacity. The literature highlighted that strong organisational capacity is dependent on its human capital, with a study by Zbucheá, Ivan, Stan, and Damasarú (2019) finding a close relationship between capacity and performance among both volunteers and organisations.



CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODS

3.1. Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher focuses on the research paradigm that was employed in this research study and describes the research methodology that was used, with a specific emphasis on the research design and research method. Bryman (2008) described the difference between research design and methodology as: “A research design provides a framework for the collection and analysis of data”, whereas “a research method is simply a technique for collecting data” (Bryman, 2008:31). Henning, van Rensburg and Smit (2013), meanwhile, referred to methodology as the understandable collection of methods that complement each other as a means to provide data and findings that will suit the purpose of a study and assist to answer a research question.

3.2. Research design

For the purposes of this research, a qualitative case study design was used to solicit data related to training opportunities and experiences from the respondents. A cross-sectional study involving once-off data collection from the sample ultimately yielded results. The reason for this is that qualitative research is concerned with studying social systems, such as civil society organisations, to fully comprehend how a social system operates and influences the people within it. Qualitative research allows researchers to get close to the subject of enquiry to “penetrate their logic and interpret their subjective understanding of reality” (Shaw, 1999: 60). A qualitative method also assisted in unearthing intangible factors such as social norms.

3.3. Research setting and context

This research carried out two case studies in two settings, namely Johannesburg in Gauteng and Gqeberha in the Eastern Cape. The reason for two case studies was so that the study could collect data from two separate non-governmental organisations (NGOs) implementing SDP programmes in South Africa. Data from these two organisations allowed the researcher to conduct a comparative analysis to make the research findings and recommendations more generic, instead of being applicable to just one organisation.

The interviews were conducted away from the respondents’ programme sites or offices to create an environment where they felt free to openly respond to the questions without intimidation or perceived intimidation from their seniors and/or co-workers.

3.4. Sampling of participants

3.4.1 Sampling method

For the purposes of this study, the researcher used the non-probability sampling strategy, which was based on the researcher's choice of respondents who were accessible and available. This allowed for a deeper understanding of the phenomenon being studied. Purposive sampling was used to select the respondents, which is a "means of selecting participants according to the pre-selected criteria relevant to a particular research question" (Maree, 2010: 79). This sampling method was relevant for this study as the researcher intended to have a sample of respondents that included individuals who could provide the greatest insight into the research question. Purposive sampling strategies are designed to enhance understanding of selected individuals' experiences.

3.4.2 Research sample

The population was comprised of individuals from two SDP organisations that the researcher's employer was not in direct partnership with in terms of programme implementation. A total of eight field workers (4 per organisation), who the researcher considered "information rich", were selected according to set inclusion and exclusion criteria.

3.5. Delimitations of the study

SDP field workers who met the following inclusion and exclusion criteria were eligible to participate in this study.

Inclusion criteria:

- Must be a contracted coach, facilitator or coordinator (field worker).
- Must have been employed as a field worker for two or more years by the same SDP organisation.
- Can be a current team leader who was previously a coach, facilitator or coordinator, who has supervised field workers for two or more years in the same SDP organisation.

Exclusion criteria:

- Currently employed by an SDP organisation which is in partnership with the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) for programme implementation.
- Field workers employed for less than two years in the same SDP organisation.
- Consultants.

3.6. Research procedures

For the purposes of this study, primary data were collected through interviews with the respondents. According to Doody and Norman (2013), an interview is a means of gathering

data in which qualitative questions can be asked. Prior to the interviews, the researcher made telephonic contact with the leaders of the concerned organisations to explain to them the aims and objectives of the study, and further requested their assistance to identify a sample based on the set criteria. The researcher then made telephonic contact with the relevant field workers who were part of the sample to introduce himself and to set up appointments to conduct the interviews.

The researcher conducted face-to-face (including online), one-on-one interviews with each respondent, with a conversational approach being employed. The respondents were asked the research questions related to the study, with audio tapes and online recordings being used with the permission of the participants. This was done in order to facilitate record keeping and to allow the researcher to give the respondents their undivided attention during the interviews, as well as to refer back to the interviews at a later stage. These recorded interviews were later transcribed for analysis.

As a means to ensure the trustworthiness and credibility of this study's findings, the researcher spent 45-60 minutes of quality time with each of the eight respondents when the data were being collected. This was done to build rapport, to enhance the researcher's understanding of the topic under study, and to gain insights into each respondent's environment within their organisation and the SDP sector. This approach also allowed the researcher to get a better understanding of the field workers' personal experiences with regards to training and development within the SDP sector in South Africa.

3.7. Data analysis

Upon completion of each interview, the researcher transferred the audio recordings to a secure device so that the interviews could be transcribed and then inductively analysed. This inductive approach was used with the aim of identifying patterns in the transcribed data by means of thematic analysis. This was achieved by specifically transcribing all the interviews onto paper, while the data analysis consisted of working with the available data by organising them and breaking them down into manageable units without losing their richness. All the data were indexed, categorised and tabulated for analysis based on an inductive approach that was geared at identifying patterns in the collected data by means of thematic codes. The researcher then employed the constant comparative method of analysis to determine what codes fitted the concepts suggested by the data. The analytical process involved the creative, interactive and instinctive examination of data, with continual shared coding and analysis whilst reviewing the data, which ultimately led to the emergence of categories and codes. Each code was continually compared to every other code to find similarities, differences and general patterns.

3.8. Limitations of the study

There were four challenges the researcher encountered whilst conducting the interviews that are limitations to the study. The first one was that the meaningful, relevant and credible training and development of field workers in NGOs seems to be a sensitive issue, thus some of the respondents appeared to not be free to discuss and disclose information related to training and development within their organisation. To address this limitation, the researcher assured the respondents that the discussions would be confidential and whatever was to be discussed in the interview would not be disclosed to any third party. In addition, if they felt that at any point this has not been honoured, they were encouraged to report this breach to UWC. The researcher explained the informed consent form in detail, which further confirmed that the confidentiality and anonymity of all records identifying any respondent as a participant would be maintained by the researcher and the university.

The second limitation was that due to the nature of the study, the information that was being sought and the fact that the participants were also the subjects in question, there was a possibility of modification of information and/or facts by some respondents so as to create a more favourable impression of the training and development practices in their organisations. To address this limitation, the researcher assured the respondents that the research was not an investigation, but rather an exercise that was intended to assist the SDP sector in South Africa to identify the training and development needs and practices based on field workers' experiences.

Another limitation is that the data was collected from respondents who are employed by 2 relatively and comparatively well-resourced SDP organisations that implement programmes in semi-urban areas. This meant that the sample was relatively homogenous. As much as the research techniques were simplified, making it possible for similar studies to be duplicated elsewhere, the findings of this study cannot be considered sector-wide generalisations as there is no evidence or guarantee that the findings of the same study in rural, less resourced, or international well-resourced organisations would be consistent with the findings of this study.

The final challenge was that the participants were field workers, and the researcher was a full-time employee. This meant that setting up interviews and finding times that were suitable for both the researcher and the participants proved to be a challenge at times. To address this final limitation, the researcher called all the respondents individually and made appointments to meet with them in their free time, including after hours and on weekends, at a suitable venue where the respondents were most comfortable.

3.9. Ethics considerations

Since the researcher's unit of analysis was individuals, extreme caution was taken to avoid harming them and to ensure their right to privacy was respected. The researcher informed the respondents that their participation in the study was voluntary and written informed consent was sought from them prior to collecting any data. The respondents were informed that they had the option of declining to partake and/or could withdraw from the study at any time with no adverse consequences. There also was no monetary benefit for the participants who participated in this study. Further to this, permission from the respective organisations was sought and gatekeepers' letters were secured. Ethical clearance from the University of the Western Cape's Research Office was sought and secured. Anonymity/confidentiality has been maintained by not revealing the identity of those interviewed or that of the companies they work for.

All data collected for this study is password protected and will be securely stored with the thesis supervisor in the Faculty of Community and Health Sciences for a period of five years. It will then be disposed of in accordance with the instructions from the Ethical Clearance Committee. Back-up of the collected data is also stored with the researcher on his password-protected personal computer and external hard drive.

3.10. Validity, reliability and trustworthiness

The researcher has ensured that the research findings are authentic by ensuring that careful attention has been paid to the procedures used to address reliability and validity. Cho and Trent (2006) defined validity in qualitative research as an interactive process between the researcher, the participants and the collected data, which aims to achieve a relatively higher level of accuracy by means of analysing the facts, feelings, experiences, values and beliefs collected in the research study and interpreted accordingly. However, researchers such as Du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis and Bezuidenhout (2014) suggested that the terms 'reliability' and 'validity' are more applicable to quantitative studies, and since numbers and stats are more applicable to quantitative studies, qualitative researchers prefer to use the concept of trustworthiness to measure reliability and validity. It is for this reason that for the purposes of this study, the all-embracing term that is used for validity and reliability is trustworthiness, which can further be divided into credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

Firstly, the qualitative research method used for the research study was an appropriate tool as it allowed the research questions to be answered. With the guidance of his supervisor, the researcher ensured that the process of integration that took place between the data collection, data analysis and theory generated from the data was of the highest quality. To achieve this, the research questions were specific to this study and were not confusing for the participants.

There were also no leading questions so as to ensure that the study findings are believable from the respondents' perspectives. What was important was that the data collected supports the findings and interpretation of the researcher, as the findings flow from the data. For all respondents, the option of interacting in a language of their choice was given, to make respondents feel more comfortable in expressing their opinions and responses. The transcripts were later translated by the researcher or another translator. Finally, the trustworthiness and reliability of the data has been ensured through the researcher's understanding and expertise of the SDP industry and of the subject under investigation.

3.11. Conclusion

This chapter explained the reasoning behind the choice of research methodology by highlighting the suitability and utility of the choice of methods used. Details included the population of interest, the research participants, how the respondents were picked for the study, and the units of analysis. The researcher further highlighted the ethical considerations that he had to factor in when collecting data, and what measures were put in place to adhere to them.

The researcher described how the interviews were conducted in naturalistic settings. The research methodology focused on the depth and details of the participants' experiences, with the respondents being encouraged to elaborate upon their answers by telling stories and describing their own experiences, life histories and personal narratives to illustrate their points.

The next chapter will focus on presenting the key findings of the study based on the data collected and the analysis thereof. This chapter will assist in answering the research questions and also confirming or refuting the assumptions made by the researcher.

CHAPTER FOUR: FIELD WORK RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

The previous chapter outlined the research design that was used for this study. In this chapter, the researcher presents the findings in the form of a descriptive narrative. Firstly, the demographic data of the sample is presented, after which aspects relating to the field workers' experiences related to training and development in the SDP sector in South Africa are presented. In addition, the researcher sets out what training and development opportunities have been offered to SDP field workers, regardless of whether they consider them beneficial, and what these field workers' personal experiences are in relation to training and development within their organisations. Finally, the researcher identifies the training and development interventions considered important by field workers for the SDP sector in South Africa.

For the purposes of this study, formal training programmes are considered to be those interventions where SDP field workers are intentionally taught a specific area of knowledge or a skill in a timely fashion. This means that specific learning objectives have been stipulated, a variety of learning methods to reach the objectives have been used, and some kind(s) of evaluation activities at the end of the training have been applied. These are credit bearing (unit standards) skills programmes or courses that are accredited, where the SDP field workers who attended and passed can prove that they have acquired a specific competency. These are offered both face-to-face and online through learning management systems.

Informal training programmes are considered to be training interventions that are casual, incidental and in-house. By design, this sort of training does not have a formal structure or curriculum, and usually there is no "expert/professional" trainer who facilitates learning. These informal training programmes are non-credit bearing and informal, and one cannot credibly prove competence as there is no formal gauge or framework for this. For this study, informal training was divided into structured and unstructured informal training interventions. By structured, the researcher refers to those training workshops/sessions that, despite being classified as informal, still take place within a planned setting, like a classroom or online. The unstructured informal training programmes are those that usually take place outside a formal setting or classroom.

4.2. Response rate

Eight field workers were invited to be participants in this study. Of the eight, four were coaches/facilitators working directly with children and four were programme coordinators supervising programme coaches/facilitators within the SDP sector in South Africa. All eight invited field workers accepted the invitation and consequently formed the sample for this study. This means that the response rate was 100% of the initial targeted sample size for this study.

4.3. Demographic information of the respondents

All the respondents were field workers within their SDP sector. Figures 4.1 to 4.6 highlight the demographic information of the respondents, with Figures 4.1 and 4.2 showing that all of the respondents were black and six were female. Figure 4.3 shows that three of the respondents were between 23 and 25 years old, with the remaining five being between 26 and 37 years old. Figure 4.4 reflects that four of the eight respondents were coaches/facilitators who worked directly with children in programme implementation, with the other four being supervisors/coordinators who were responsible for coordinating programme/s and/or supervising coaches/facilitators. Figures 4.5 and 4.6 highlight the experience of the respondents, with three of the eight having been involved in the SDP sector as a field worker for over eight years, and four having four or less years of SDP experience. All except one of the respondents had been with their current employer as long as they had been in the SDP sector, meaning their current employer was their first and only form of employment in the sector.

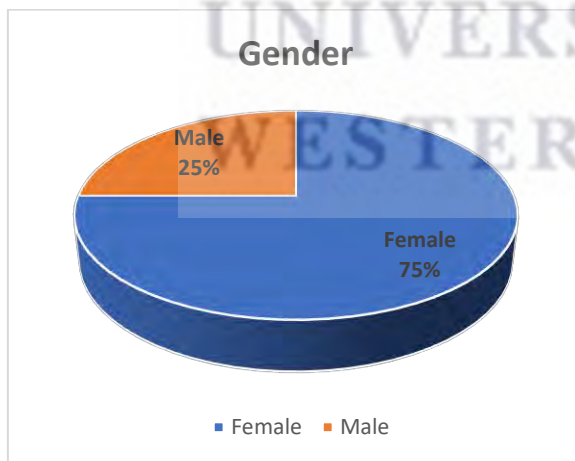


Figure 4.1: Gender composition of respondents

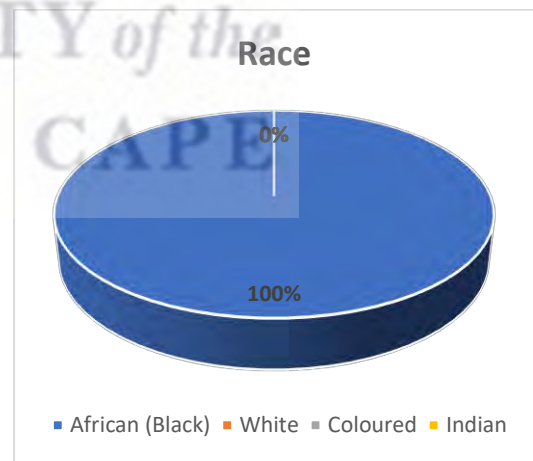


Figure 4.2: Race composition of sample

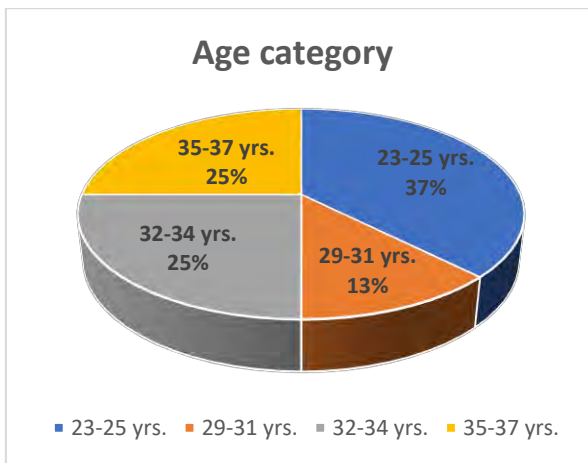


Figure 4.3: Age category of respondents

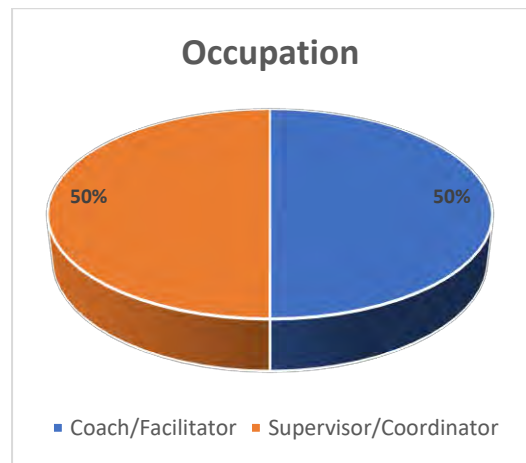


Figure 4.4: Occupation composition of sample

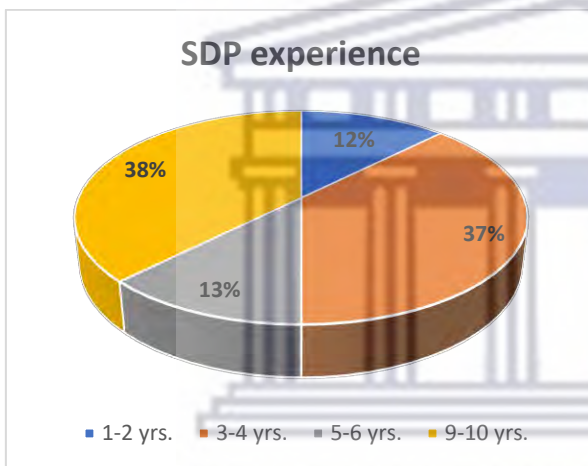


Figure 4.5: No. of years involved working in SDP sector

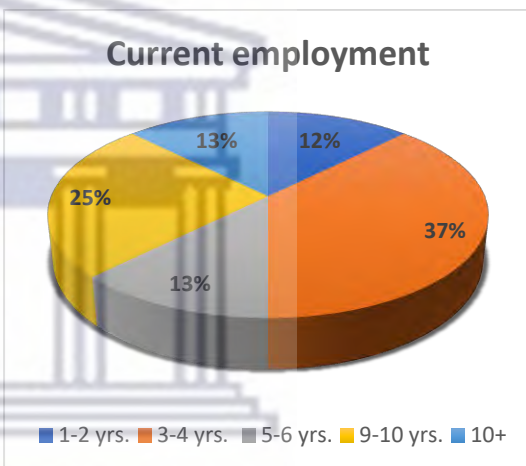


Figure 4.6: No. of years employed by current employer

4.4. Themes and sub-themes

The interviews were conducted individually with each respondent, and were recorded and later transcribed for analytical purposes. In analysing the transcriptions, the researcher thoroughly read through each one and compared it against all the others. During the thematic analysis, the researcher started noting patterns and similarities in the responses, and from these, the various themes started to emerge.

4.5. Formal training and development opportunities

To start the interviews, the respondents were asked what formal and informal training and development opportunities had been offered to them as a field worker by their organisation.

Despite all the respondents confirming that they had benefitted from training and development opportunities of some sort, two of the eight respondents indicated that they had either never participated, or they didn't recall receiving any opportunities to participate in any formal training

and development intervention from the organisation they were employed by. Generally, these two respondents felt that their organisations were leaving the responsibility to engage in formal learning to them as individuals. The implication thereof is that they, as field workers, were expected to not only identify formal training needs and programmes themselves, but were expected to use their personal resources to participate in the identified training interventions so as to develop themselves.

Further to this, one of these respondents suggested that not only had they not received opportunities for personal and professional development through formal training courses, but they had also never received any job-specific formal training in situations when they were promoted or when their jobs required them to undertake additional responsibilities. According to this respondent, the responsibility to learn new and/or additional job-specific skills (and duties) had been left to them as the incumbent, and after being promoted, they had to find their own ways and means of capacitating themselves to execute their duties, with their only reference being a job description and/or other colleagues.

"I don't have a background of how grants work (grant management) so if a donor gives us money and I'm supposed to manage that grant, I don't know what I'm supposed to do, but I have had to figure it out myself without the organisation helping me" (R2).

Six of the respondents did, however, indicate that they had received various formal training and development opportunities through skills and learning programmes offered directly or indirectly by their employer, as described below.

4.5.1 First Aid course

Seven of the respondents indicated that they had enrolled and participated in an accredited first aid skills programme, which had been offered by a certified training service provider. This led to them receiving accredited certificates, provided they completed the course in full. According to the respondents, they only attended the First Aid NQF Level 1 Course, which is basic first aid training.

"We had first aid training because obviously it's a must. When we work with children, we need to know it" (R4).

4.5.2 Facilitator course

Five of the respondents indicated that they had participated in a facilitator course where they were capacitated to facilitate learning, using a variety of methodologies. This course, according to the respondents, was intended to help them improve their facilitation skills and their ability

to share information and deliver programme content in an age-appropriate manner adequately and skilfully. This would assist to equip young people as programme beneficiaries to make informed decisions and manage behavioural change.

“We did a facilitation course which taught us how to facilitate and how to deliver programmes in general, not in a specific field or anything of that sort” (R5).

One of the female respondents indicated that they had also attended a train-the-trainer facilitator course. This respondent highlighted that, through her participation in this course, she was taught methods of facilitation for outcome-based teaching programmes which she is using in her organisation to train new field workers.

“I attended a train-the-trainer facilitation course, so I have the capacity to train coaches or facilitators, on how to facilitate” (R8).

All the respondents who had participated in this skills programme confirmed that the training was facilitated by qualified professional training instructors. They were therefore eligible to receive accredited certification subject to them completing the course in its entirety.

4.5.3 Sport-specific training

Two of the eight respondents indicated that even though they are employed by SDP organisations, by virtue of being field workers they had been provided with opportunities to attend sport-specific training and development courses ordinarily offered by sport federations/bodies for coaches and/or technical officials. According to these respondents, had they not been employed as a field worker in their organisation, they would not have received such an opportunity.

Despite these being introductory courses, they provided the relevant technical and tactical information and accreditation that qualified and certified the field workers as sport coaches and/or technical officials, who are able to work with and develop children and youth in their specific sport code of interest.

4.6. Non-formal training and development opportunities

It was evident that a large majority of the knowledge gained by the field workers was attributed to non-formal training and development opportunities, as all the respondents confirmed that they had benefitted from opportunities provided by their respective employers to engage and participate in a range of non-formal training and development engagements. These opportunities were typically structured and the manner in which they were organised was in

relatively formal settings such as workshops, conferences and seminars. The study found that these non-formal training and development opportunities were not only aimed at capacitating field workers to assist them to improve their programme implementation, but some were also intentional in developing them as individuals.

4.6.1 Training of coaches (SDP programme curriculum)

Six of the respondents indicated that when they were first hired and onboarded as field workers, they had to attend a mandatory training session where they were introduced to and taught their organisation's SDP programme curriculum. According to the respondents, these training programmes were mostly in-house, with the focus being on the curriculum content, the curriculum and the session structure, and how the curriculum is expected to be facilitated to programme beneficiaries. Two of these respondents further mentioned that they had additionally attended other external programme curriculum training workshops, with the intention of exposing and introducing them to other organisations' curricula that they could incorporate into their own programmes.

“What used to happen is that you get trained when you arrive, when it's your first time in the organisation. Proper training, proper thorough training and then we'd have before we go and implement in schools” (R1).

“There are original training workshops when you get hired. We get trained on the curriculum and our organisational culture. In this training, you get to understand the field that you work in and what kind of a field it is. What does it require from you, for example the energy you will need to successfully implement the curriculum to kids in a fun and interactive manner” (R4).

However, the study also found that three of the eight field workers had never received any structured curriculum-related training from their organisations. In the view of these respondents, them being able to deliver their organisation's curriculum was reliant on on-the-job training and self-development.

“Our curriculum was developed internally, and we only got the curriculum manual then we had to go over it and see how we can deliver the activities ourselves. So, I didn't get any training on how to deliver the activities” (R6).

4.6.2 Child protection/Safeguarding

Three of the respondents indicated that they had received training related to child safeguarding and/or child protection. According to these respondents, this training was focused on assisting

them to gain a deeper understanding of safeguarding/child protection principles with a particular focus on their individual accountabilities as SDP field workers.

All the respondents who attended this training confirmed that it was facilitated by external organisations and facilitators who were considered industry experts in the subject matter. Some of the respondents who attended this training programme received certificates, but others did not as the trainings were informal and in certain instances conducted as information sharing sessions by invited industry experts.

4.6.3 Lay counselling

Four of the respondents indicated that as field workers who work directly with beneficiaries but do not have a mental health background or a formal qualification in counselling, they were provided with an opportunity to participate in lay counselling training. According to these respondents, this was very basic training that gave them the tools/skills to deal with a situation where a programme beneficiary is exposed to a dangerous situation or has been traumatised. With this training, they would be able to offer some sort of assistance with initial containment, and then refer them for professional assistance.

“There are trainings that I’ve done that help if a child comes with a problem of being raped, you know you should refer that child to a certain organisation” (R6).

“We do come across situations where kids have been abused. We’ve been given training, basic counselling training for us as field workers where we were trained on how to deal with those type of situations, and what do you do in a case where a child reports that he/she’s been abused” (R7).

One of the respondents indicated that they had also attended training where field workers were trained on basic HIV/AIDS testing and counselling.

4.6.4 Human resource management

One of the respondents indicated that they had been given an opportunity by their organisation to attend a human resources workshop. According to this respondent, their organisation thought he/she was best positioned to attend this kind of training programme in an endeavour to improve their knowledge of human resource competencies and skills.

4.6.5 Personal development programme

Five of the respondents indicated that they had participated in some activity/s and/or benefitted from an organisational programme that led to the acquisition of new knowledge and skills.

These activity/s or programmes were not necessarily related to their job as field workers, but rather were developed and offered for the purpose of personal growth and development. According to the respondents, these development interventions were mostly in-house, with a few being conducted by external organisations or partners.

Some of the training and skills acquired by the field workers who participated in these programmes included:

- developing/writing curriculum vitae (CV) and application/cover letters;
- interview skills;
- basic financial literacy;
- basic computer literacy;
- business and entrepreneurship skills;
- life skills;
- leadership skills; and
- problem solving skills.

4.7. Informal training and development opportunities

Beyond the formal and non-formal opportunities indicated by the respondents, three of the respondents indicated that they had also been beneficiaries of informal training and development opportunities. Based on their responses, the study found that there was limited evidence of meaningful informal training and development opportunities, i.e., the informal training opportunities were either not a common practice within SDP organisations, or field workers were not aware of, exposed to, or were unable to identify, these opportunities.

The two identified informal training and development opportunities, as per the respondents, were coach development and coach mentorship.

4.7.1 Coach/Facilitator development

Three of the respondents highlighted that post the mandatory SDP programme curriculum training provided by their organisation, they had continued to engage in and benefit from re-training through refresher training sessions and peer-to-peer informal sessions. These respondents indicated that these unstructured sessions were conducted in preparation for on-field sessions with programme beneficiaries.

"Before you engage and implement directly to children, you have to do it amongst your peers as preparation and if there's somewhere you do not understand then you can get clarity from others" (R1).

Further to this, three of the respondents highlighted that they had benefited from weekly coach support visits from their programme coordinators and other coaches. According to these respondents, these were helpful as a peer-to-peer review exercise because it provided them with a platform where they as peers could help or assist each other to identify their individual strengths and where they needed to improve for future sessions as coaches and facilitators. The respondents also suggested that the spirit and environment that these informal sessions were conducted in was beneficial to them because it helped develop their confidence.

"We have our own informal sessions that help us to gain more confidence on how to stand in front of people, how to facilitate, how to run your sessions as well" (R3).

"We try to create an environment to develop self-confidence. You want to do everything perfectly because you don't want to be fearful when facilitating sessions. With peer-to-peer learning, I find that it is a more friendly environment, you don't have to worry if ever you have mistakes that we see, it is when we will be able to rectify them" (R4).

According to one of the respondents, these sessions also assisted in inculcating and entrenching the organisational culture amongst field workers, especially the new ones.

"I think when new people (coaches) come in then they do not adhere to the culture of the organisation" (R1).

It emerged that the initial programme curriculum training three of the field workers attended upon starting with their organisations was the only such training they ever attended. In the view of one of the respondents, however, a re-training was not necessary for field workers.

"I don't think it is necessarily to re-train because as a coach, especially when you are doing it for a while, like it becomes common knowledge basically, you know, you end up knowing the curriculum off by heart after a year" (R7).

4.7.2 Coaching and mentorship

Two of the respondents indicated that they benefited from some form of coaching and mentoring by peers and/or someone more senior than them within their organisations. According to these respondents, these informal developmental opportunities contributed to them feeling more positive about their work circumstances and helped them to thrive and achieve success in their respective roles as field workers.

"By shadowing and assisting the training team you acquire skills and confidence to stand in front of people, being able to talk to people, being able to teach people how they are supposed to conduct themselves outside organisation X or when they are representing the organisation" (R2).

"It did help me personally, as the people that we used to work with were able to identify our strengths and our weakness, so you would be given an opportunity where they know you are strongest" (R2).

"One of my former colleagues took me under his wing and taught me a lot of what I know now" (R3).

4.8. Personal benefits of training and development opportunities

The respondents were asked if, in their opinion, the training interventions they had participated in were helpful to them personally. The respondents overwhelmingly believed that the training opportunities they had helped through the acquisition of soft and/or technical skills. These skills, according to the respondents, helped them to better themselves as individuals and in a small way contributed to them reaching their goals.

4.8.1 Contribution to self-development

4.8.1.1 Personal development

All the respondents indicated that they developed personally in one way or the other. One of the respondents indicated that they had gained a lot from one of their organisation's programmes that was focused on their personal development. According to this respondent, over and above the training opportunities they received as field workers, they would also receive additional support and mentorship from their programme leader.

"We would be asked questions such... What do you want to do? Why? What's your ambition? Based on our responses, we would then be taken through things and steps that you could take for you to reach your goals" (R1).

Further to this, this respondent highlighted that they would have vacancies shared with them and not only were they encouraged to apply, but they were also supported through the application process. This included guidance in putting together a curriculum vitae, including application documents, and preparation for an interview if they were invited for one.

"Now I have to have interview skills, you know, I need to know how to write my CV, my motivational letter etc." (R2).

Another respondent suggested that by receiving these development opportunities through their organisation, this had contributed to them becoming more confident in their employability prospects.

"We got interviewed for the position and then I think my confidence and my belief in getting the position was through the trainings I participated in" (R1).

4.8.1.2 Increased employability

The study found that all of the respondents believed the training opportunities they had received had put them in a position where they were more employable – either within their organisations or externally in institutions and establishments like the government, private sector and/or civil society. One of the respondents did mention, however, that as much as the training opportunities had been helpful for their employability, they would still require more training for them to adjust to a bigger organisation.

"I think opportunities have been presented to me to learn more and not only to use in my current position as a field worker but to be bigger than what I am currently" (R5).

According to one of the respondents, basic computer training was the most beneficial as it is a basic, mandatory skill that could lead to other employment and educational opportunities. In this respondent's view, acquiring basic computer skills has enabled them to confidently apply for other jobs and utilise the skills in their educational endeavours.

"When you are looking for work like the first thing that they are asking for is would you be able to work on a computer, that's normally one of the first requirements" (R7).

"For someone like me that didn't have any knowledge of computers it helped a lot because I'll be able to use that knowledge to do the basics" (R7).

Finally, one of the respondents who had attended a job-specific training indicated that they had found it so interesting for them personally, that they had decided to pursue an academic qualification in that field.

"It really helped me personally to find my purpose and also to just to be more interested and to be enthusiastic and keen to find out more about the specific field" (R5).

4.8.1.3 Fostered active citizenship

Two of the eight respondents indicated that the training and development opportunities that they had received had assisted in fostering their citizenry, as they provided them with opportunities for them to acquire skills and knowledge that have allowed them as individuals to become agents of change within their communities. These respondents suggested that the skills they had acquired helped them to initiate and/or strengthen community development interventions that are fit for purpose, feasible and have greater impact. The consensus amongst these respondents was also that there are certain training interventions that are benefitting them on a personal level, because they are able to apply the knowledge and skills acquired outside of work.

“My plan is to have my own soccer team comprising of boys and girls. The trainings have thus been useful for me as they will help me use what I’ve learnt to develop these kids to know what is right and what is wrong in life” (R6).

“Apart from my work, in my community church I’m also busy with children there too. So, my skills I am getting are not only helping my employer, but external to the organisation too” (R8).

4.8.2 Contribution to professional development

4.8.2.1 Coach education

One of the respondents suggested that the sport code-specific training their employer gave them an opportunity to attend has helped them grow as a coach. According to this respondent, the fact that they were able to get an accredited coaching licence was a personal benefit and development opportunity, as it will benefit them in advancing their coaching career in the future.

4.8.2.2 Improved self-confidence

Half of the respondents indicated that the training and development opportunities offered to them by their respective employers have contributed to the enhancement of their self-confidence, both in their personal lives and in their delivery of SDP programmes.

“Besides learning the programme concepts, trainings are also about learning how to be facilitate to people. It builds your confidence” (R1).

“Right now, I know how to do certain things which people in my community can’t, like how to work with people within the community” (R3).

Two of the eight respondents suggested that the curriculum refresher training workshops are the most helpful in building their confidence. According to one of the respondents, the more

field workers engage in training, not only do they become better coaches and facilitators, but also their social skills are improved.

"Personally, I was one of those who did not have confidence when it comes to socialising with people. I am very reserved and shy, so the trainings have really helped me" (R4).

Finally, there was one respondent who highlighted that because of the training opportunities they had received, they found themselves being requested to lead practice sessions for the football club they play for. According to this respondent, the confidence to successfully execute these duties stemmed from the training opportunities they had received and the skills they had acquired through SDP training interventions.

"Whatever that I've learnt from the trainings I also apply them to my training sessions. I use creative skills and leadership skills that I have acquired to run the sessions" (R6).

4.8.2.3 Acquired life skills and knowledge

Three of the respondents indicated that through the training interventions they had participated in, they had acquired certain life skills and knowledge that has contributed to their personal development and well-being. According to these respondents, some of their SDP life skills curriculum content has helped them to be more informed, knowledgeable and responsible individuals on important social issues.

"Before I started this job, I was clueless about HIV/AIDS, the only thing I knew was that you have to use a condom (when having sex). I was not aware that I am able to kiss an HIV positive person because in my mind I thought that if you do you will also contract the virus but only to learn that saliva doesn't transmit the virus" (R3).

"I've learnt that when you make better choices you become a success" (R3).

The trainings have given me knowledge about safeguarding myself as an individual and our organisation. They have helped me to know what is expected of us as people that work with children" (R5).

One of these respondents also noted that the knowledge, information and skills they have acquired from the training opportunities will come in handy in future in their workplace and in their personal lives.

"The first aid information and skills we received could help in a future as we now know how to respond if a something happens to someone" (R1).

4.9. Organisational benefits of training and development interventions

The respondents were asked if, in their opinion, the training interventions they had participated in were generally helpful for their organisation's programme. The responses were mixed, yet most of the respondents found the training and development interventions they had participated in had not only benefited them as individuals, but had been particularly beneficial for their organisations. This, however, was not applicable to all the training interventions, as some of the respondents were of the opinion that some did not benefit their organisation or their programme in any way.

4.9.1 Not benefitting organisational programme

One of the respondents suggested that as much as the first aid training they had received was great for them personally, and in essence should be contributing to the successful implementation of their programme as they have the skills to respond to any incident that requires basic first aid during programme implementation, they do not have sufficient access to the necessary tools and resources as they do not take first aid kits to session sites, and nor do the sites have first aid kits available. This respondent suggested that them being trained as first aiders was thus futile, because even if they had an incident during a session, they would not be able to adequately assist as the first aid kit sits in the office which is not always close to the programme site. The respondent suggested that having the training, knowledge and information without access to the essential resources does not benefit the organisation or the programme.

"After the training I thought that we would be provided with a first aid kit when going to sessions but none of that has happened. There is only one box for the office that we only use when we have games" (R1).

One of the respondents indicated that as much as their organisation supports field workers to undertake first aid training, there are instances when this training is not offered to all the field workers who need to have it. This respondent felt that there is a need to prioritise field workers who work directly with children for this training, and not the field workers who are more at a supervisory level.

Another respondent felt that as much as one of the non-programmatic related training interventions they had attended benefited them on an individual level, it did not benefit the organisation as they felt that they would not get an opportunity to apply the skills and

knowledge they had acquired within their organisation. According to this respondent, there was very little opportunity for them to occupy a position of management in their organisation and the training they attended was most relevant for a person at management level. The respondent further suggested that not all training offered by their organisation benefited it, as these training opportunities were not always supported by any sort of workplace exposure through coaching, mentorship, job rotation, secondment, short term assignment, delegation or assisting, so there are no opportunities to utilise the new skills or information acquired.

4.9.2 Benefits for organisational programme

Five of the eight respondents believed the training and development interventions offered by their organisation were beneficial for their organisation's programme generally, and contributed to the successful implementation of their sport-for-development programme.

4.9.2.1. Capacitated and competent workforce

Five of the respondents felt that their participation in programmes, formal and informal training and development interventions have led to them being more competent as field workers who successfully deliver their organisations' SDP programmes. All these respondents indicated that the training and development interventions not only contributed to them being good programme facilitators, but also placed them in a position where they are curriculum experts. This, some noted, assists in them delivering impactful sport-for-development programmes to young people.

"We improve as facilitators and programme content and those are a means to indirectly attract programme participants" (R1).

"Dealing with kids and we always need to know how to deliver any sort of program that we come across. We need to be able to speak to them and communicate at their own level of understanding" (R5)

Further to this, the five respondents claimed that their competency contributes to the credibility of their organisation in the communities they implement programmes in. This then creates an environment where their organisation can engage and get an opportunity to possibly change young peoples' lives by providing them with relevant life skills and information.

"In my opinion the organisation benefits from us because if you deliver programmes exactly the way you've been told to do it, then you're delivering quality" (R1).

"The trainings teach us the curriculum, which is to be delivered and will bring change to children here in the township" (R4).

According to two of the eight respondents, the informal coach/facilitator development interventions have been the most impactful and contributed the most towards their improved competence as field workers. These respondents highlighted that such interventions provide opportunities where the organisation is able to monitor the growth and development of their field workers and identify individuals who are improving and those that are falling behind so as to provide additional support to them.

One of the respondents stated that field workers being trained in child safeguarding is critical for any organisation's programme. According to this respondent, if child safeguarding principles are applied and entrenched within an SDP programme, programme beneficiaries will experience the programme as a safe space for them. Parents and/or guardians also feel more confident allowing their children to participate in the programme.

"Safeguarding is important because we are dealing with kids, so we always need to be cautious on how we behave and how we speak to kids" (R5).

One of the respondents who benefitted from a computer course felt that this not only benefitted them on a personal level, but was equally beneficial for their organisation, as their administrative responsibilities necessitate the use of computers. According to this respondent, they are now more competent and can make quality submissions and contributions to the organisation.

"I am able to work on a computer when I have to collect data and I have to populate that into a data base" (R7).

Two of the eight respondents also felt that the lay counselling training they participated in contributed to the perceived impact and credibility of their organisations' SDP programmes in their communities. According to these respondents, with the information and skills they have gained, should anything untoward happen during a session, they would know exactly how to handle it or how to deal with a situation through the provision of basic counselling.

"I can be able to give counselling to a child out of this basic counselling training that I have received, even if it's not much, but at least I have a way now of approaching things when I'm faced with them" (R8).

Finally, one of the respondents felt that through the mentorship and shadowing opportunities provided to them, they have grown and become more competent, which has contributed to

growing the pool of competent trainers within their organisation. According to this respondent, with the skills they learned when they assisted and supported training workshops, they were able to conduct other organisational workshops on their own. The respondent stated that if field workers are given guidance, the organisation will have a pool of trainers that can take care of all the training needs.

"Had it not been for the opportunity to assist in other trainings, I wouldn't have the confidence to deliver trainings" (R1)

4.10. Field workers' training and personal experiences

The respondents were asked what their personal experiences as an SDP field worker were in relation to the training and development within their organisation. The responses indicate that as much as the field workers found the training opportunities and interventions generally beneficial for their personal development, their personal experiences were not always positive.

4.10.1 Experienced positive personal development

Three of the eight respondents could identify a positive or favourable experience with the training and development opportunities offered to them by their employer. These three respondents suggested that the training and development opportunities they had been exposed to were helping them in their personal development and life in general.

"I have been able to take the content and skills acquired in training and use them in my personal and family life, for example, dealing with HIV/AIDS within family setting and neighbours. The trainings have also broadened your mind on socio economic and political issues plaguing our communities" (R3).

Further to this, the three respondents suggested that they will be able to utilise the skills that they have acquired in other jobs. These respondents suggested that they are now in a position where they can move from their organisation to another organisation.

"With the facilitation skills I've acquired, you can take me to do other jobs that are not from my employer that requires facilitation, I will be able to execute it" (R4).

4.10.2 Poor planning leading to ad hoc training

One of the respondents highlighted that even though training and development opportunities contribute to field workers' personal growth and development, these opportunities seem to be unplanned and ad hoc. In their view, many SDP organisations do not have training plans that are informed by their field workers' training and development needs. The respondent believed

that when someone gets promoted or new managers join an SDP organisation, they unilaterally decide what training and development interventions field workers will partake in. Many times these training sessions are experimental or aligned to a portfolio of the promoted or new manager.

“When new managers come in, they might do an ad hoc informal and unrecognised training session that is task-orientated or aligned to how they want or need things to be done” (R2)

The respondent suggested that these ad hoc training sessions are mostly geared towards equipping relevant field workers and taking them through what they need and the necessary steps of what they need to do correctly for a specific task, rather than providing training and development opportunities that are geared towards capacitating them for upward career mobility within the organisation or within the SDP sector, meaning many field workers had reached a ceiling within their organisation in terms of job opportunities.

4.10.3 Need for re-training and upskilling

One of the respondents suggested that it is sometimes assumed by SDP organisations that field workers who have been in the field for a while possess certain ‘elementary’ skills like computer skills, however this is not always the case. It was on this basis that two of the eight respondents suggested that a lot more should be done to continually retrain and upskill field workers in the SDP sector.

“I think that a lot can be done to upskill and to expand the knowledge in things like advanced computer skills, management, research, and skills to innovate and improve programme delivery” (R5).

This upskilling and retraining are not only relevant to computers, but are also relevant to critical training on programme curriculum.

“I did curriculum training a long time ago. In my opinion there should be more trainings that will assist to retrain me and if there are any new developments or new information that I need to be aware of” (R6).

4.10.4 Limitations and/or perceived inequities in training practices

Half of the respondents believed that even the training and development opportunities SDP organisations have provided to field workers is very limited.

“Look I am honestly happy, but I feel like there is more that the organisation could focus on. I think they are limiting us because I believe there is a lot that can be done to develop field workers” (R1).

“I also do feel that is more that can be done on a more regular basis instead of occasionally” (R7).

Two of the eight respondents felt that within their respective organisations there are insufficient equitable opportunities for all field workers to participate in training and development opportunities. In essence, these two respondents believed that within their respective organisations, opportunities to participate and benefit from training and development are not made available to all field workers in a consistent and fair manner. The perception is thus that there is favouritism within their respective organisations.

“There is some sort of inequality when it comes to opportunities being offered to people” (R5).

Further to this, according to these respondents, the practice of unequal opportunities, coupled with one of the respondents feeling they had hit a glass ceiling in their organisation, has left them despondent and unmotivated. They believe they are not being given an equal opportunity to adequately grow and develop within their organisation or the SDP sector in general. This has led to these two field workers no longer being interested in the training and development interventions offered by their respective employers.

“I think the frustration for some field workers is the fact that the reason behind them not being interested in any opportunities being provided, is that they are asking themselves what the point is. These colleagues feel as if they have no chance to grow or get promoted, so they question the point of them doing training or being part of this training that's going to take place because they feel as if they are reached the ceiling in their organisation” (R5).

“I don't think these trainings has helped me that much because I am still in the same position” (R8).

4.10.5 Insufficient job-specific training

Two of the respondents benefited from an upward or lateral movement within their respective organisations, yet noted that when they were exposed to their new duties – either through promotion or job rotation – they did not get the relevant job-specific training. Many times, according to these respondents, they had to figure out what to do on their own or solicit assistance from colleagues.

“Some of the other things that I have to do, I am not trained for, so it is not easy for me to report back to them, so I have to learn as we go. Reporting for instance, I don’t have the ground of how to do reports, so initially we would just write in bullet points and submit it to the manager” (R2).

“I believe that an employer should provide me with a training first as that will give me the skills for me to be confident enough to do tasks alone instead of getting other colleagues to come and help me” (R2).

“I think in general we do need some sort of training on what is needed and how to execute tasks” (R5).

One respondent mentioned that promotions and/or job rotations generally mean that a field worker is required to undertake tasks that are technical and/or specialist in nature, such as collecting and cleaning data for monitoring and evaluation purposes, so it is crucial that they are adequately trained.

4.10.6 Contextual irrelevance of training content

Two of the respondents felt that some of the programme-related training interventions they have participated in have not always been contextually relevant. According to these respondents, training material and content that are designed centrally do not always consider the individual and unique contexts of each programme site, thus making some of the training content contextually irrelevant.

“When you get to sites it is totally different to how you’ve been taught and told to do or deliver when in the field” (R1).

These respondents reported that programme sites across areas, regions, provinces and even nations are not the same, meaning that training all field workers in one standard and inflexible curriculum and delivery methodology is not helpful for them.

“The challenges in city X and the challenges that we face here in township Y are different” (R4).

One of the respondents suggested that curriculum developers and trainers need to first get first-hand experience on what the issues are in the different programme sites, regions, provinces and/or countries, and then contextualise that to respond to the realities of the field

workers. This, according to the respondent, could be achieved by curriculum developers and trainers going on site and sourcing input from field workers on curriculum development and training interventions before they are finalised.

Another respondent suggested that the curriculum content and training do not need an overhaul, however, as in their opinion, the content can cover the same things, but the organisation should adjust the training of coaches for each site.

"We're not necessarily saying that they must change the curriculum, but we are saying that within that curriculum if you as coach you can see what the problem is you should have the ability to be able to emphasise on this" (R4).

4.11. Training and development interventions considered important by field workers

The respondents were asked what training and development requirements and interventions both offered or not offered by their organisations they consider important in the SDP sector. Generally, the respondents considered training and development interventions related to the programme delivery and career growth most important, with three of the respondents also considering interventions that contribute to personal development important.

4.11.1. Programme delivery and career development

4.11.1.1. Facilitation course

Three of the respondents indicated that the ability to facilitate is crucial. They suggested that an accredited facilitation course should be obligatory for all incoming field workers before they assume their duties.

4.11.1.2. Communication and diversity training

Two of the eight respondents suggested that due to the nature of a field worker's position, which requires them to be out of the office most of the time and on the ground implementing programmes and representing their SDP organisations in diverse communities, communication and diversity training is critical. This training should aim at enhancing field workers' awareness about different types of diversity and provide them with the knowledge and strategies to develop their interpersonal relationship and communication skills, so as to create an enabling environment where they can successfully implement programmes in different communities.

"As a field worker working with children you need to have patience you need to be very calm, you need to be very friendly" (R5).

4.11.1.3. Lay/Basic counselling course

Four of the eight respondents felt that because field workers work directly with children, who at times have been exposed to trauma, they need to undergo basic lay counselling training. The idea of these respondents is that should a field worker find themselves in a situation where a programme participant opens up and discloses sensitive information to them, they will be in a position to do an initial containment and provide basic psychosocial support while they concurrently work on a referral to a professional.

"I am not suggesting that we need to necessarily counsel a child for a long time, because you need a professional for that, but if a child tells you that they just been raped at home, you should be able to respond immediately and at least stabilise them while you are working on referring him/her" (R6).

"When working with different participants from different background, they come with different issues. You get to a point where children inform you about hectic things like abuse and drug abuse" (R7).

"We need basic counselling skills, because children tend to trust us and they will tell us personal stuff, so field workers need to have the basic counselling training" (R8).

4.11.1.4. Child safeguarding/protection training

Two of the eight respondents felt that all field workers should have advanced information and knowledge on child safeguarding and protection, especially if they work directly with children. One of the two respondents suggested that regular child safeguarding training and re-training should be offered to field workers in an effort to ensure that they know how to conduct themselves around children, as well as to ensure the children's safety at all times.

One of the respondents highlighted that programme beneficiaries vary in age and some are nearly as old as some field workers, so it is important that field workers are trained and are in a position to be able to not only safeguard the children, but also themselves and their organisations. This respondent indicated that with the offering of some SDP programmes remotely, it has also become a safeguarding issue as field workers are finding themselves having to interact with programme beneficiaries online or on social media, which is a risk on its own. Field workers thus need to be trained on how to handle such situations.

"On social media children tend to break professional relationships or step over the boundary of us being coaches or coordinators and they see us as being a friend, so you always need to know and be able to draw the line" (R5).

"I think with the with the right information about child protection and child safeguarding you'll be able to find your way around communicating with kids without coming across as being their friend or without them getting ideas that you're a friend or you're more than a friend" (R5).

4.11.1.5. First Aid courses

Two of the eight respondents felt that every field worker who works directly with children should attend mandatory basic first aid training, so they have the elementary yet necessary skills to manage bleeding, cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR) and setting a splint in case of broken bones.

One of the respondents felt that a once-off basic first aid training is not sufficient, and suggested that organisations must not only ensure that all field workers have a valid (not expired) first aid certificate, but that they be trained in intermediate and advanced first aid.

"It mustn't just end at level 1. Once you're done with level 1, you should go to level 2, and after a while level 3, maybe once a year" (R7).

4.11.1.6. Computer literacy courses

Five of the respondents suggested that there should be basic mandatory computer training for all field workers. These respondents indicated that some administrative work like report writing, databases, record keeping and elements of monitoring and evaluation require basic computer literacy and the skills to utilise different windows operating systems (MS Word, PowerPoint, and Excel).

"Besides being a field worker, you do have admin and there comes a time where you need to do report writing and capturing data" (R7).

"Because there's M&E and reports that we need to do, one cannot afford to bring their paperwork to the office and ask somebody else to do it for you" (R8).

Three of these respondents felt that the basic computer training they had received was not sufficient, arguing that employers should give them opportunities to be trained in intermediate and/or advanced computer skills. One respondent even suggested that field workers with good computer skills stand a better chance of being requested to assist in administrative duties by supervisors or managers.

"I feel like with computers we only know the basics, maybe to open a programme and close it but when it comes to Word and Excel, we encounter difficulties" (R4).

One of the respondents mentioned that the Covid-19 pandemic, which led to the migration of meetings to online platforms, highlighted the importance of access to the internet and concurrently the necessity of critical digital literacy skills for field workers. According to this respondent, the world is changing fast and computer literacy is no longer a luxury but a necessity.

“To be honest we always thought it’s for managers, we never thought that one day we would be required to actually have a one-on-one meeting via Zoom” (R5).

4.11.1.7. Report writing course

One of the respondents indicated that despite never being trained in report writing and human-interest story compilation, field workers are expected to write reports and stories that will contribute to their organisation’s donor/partner proposals and reports. This respondent felt that training on this aspect was important so field workers would be capacitated to develop quality report submissions.

4.11.1.8. Monitoring and evaluation workshops

According to three of the respondents, the reports submitted by field workers are central in their respective organisations’ fundraising efforts, so these respondents were of the view that there should be an increased focus on monitoring and evaluation (M&E) knowledge and skills. They added that there should be mandatory basic M&E training, with a focus on data capturing and organising for all field workers, as organisational fund acquisition and retainment depend on a strong M&E system and credible evidence.

According to one respondent, field workers are being requested to submit data, but they are not being made aware what this data are for, nor how to correctly capture, clean and present it.

“There will be someone coming to you asking for numbers and how many kids have you reach this year. Training will help us know how to capture our data because there’s no point in collecting data and we don’t know what to do with the information and how to sort and that type of things” (R7).

One respondent suggested that the M&E training for field workers should not be extensive or technical, but rather very basic, done in-house and focus mainly on data capturing.

Another respondent also felt that M&E training and experience should lead to increased competence, which would assist field workers to become more employable.

"It might be easier for you to get a promotion and to get another job" (R8).

4.11.1.9. Curriculum development/contextualisation workshops

One of the respondents suggested that some field workers should be given an opportunity to be trained on curriculum development and/or contextualisation. They suggested that such a training would capacitate field workers on how to develop curricula and how to support its contextualisation once developed. This would mean organisations did not have to get curriculum from other countries that needs to be implemented in South Africa.

4.11.1.10. Exposure to mentoring and coaching

Two of the eight respondents suggested that field workers should be exposed to development opportunities such a mentoring and coaching within their organisations. One of these respondents stated that this should be offered to all field workers on a rotational basis as part of their personal development plan, where they would get to assist or shadow a more senior person and be exposed to what they do daily. In this way, according to this respondent, they would learn from their seniors, acquire experience, and could even share ideas with the mentor or coach. Further, this would be a way of not only exposing field workers to new knowledge, but could be a motivating factor and self-discovery journey.

"Sometimes I think I limit myself to where I am. I think because I'm a field worker, that's where I will end, but I don't know that besides me being a field worker, I can do more than this. So, I think if I get to find out how other things are being done, I could discover that I'm good at other things" (R1).

Another respondent believed that if such mentoring and coaching opportunities were provided to field workers, it would stand them in a better position to be considered for promotions.

One of the two respondents went as far as to suggest that organisations should consider having exchange programmes within the SDP sector so that field workers can be exposed to other organisational cultures and learn how things are done in other organisations, including how other field workers operate.

4.11.2. Personal development

4.11.2.1. Leadership development

In addition to job-specific training, one of the respondents suggested that field workers should be taken through a generic leadership development programme. According to them, such a training programme would not be specific to their roles, but would equip them with additional skills that would extend their leadership capability and position them to become supervisors and managers within their own or in other organisations in the future. According to this respondent, the content of such a programme should encourage field workers to engage in the critical self-reflection required for the development of personal leadership competencies, which will capacitate them to understand and appreciate group dynamics and lead teams and programmes effectively and ethically.

4.11.2.2. Financial literacy and entrepreneurship

Two of the eight respondents thought that field workers should be provided with training that will assist them to become more financially literate. One of these respondents suggested that because field workers do not get paid a decent salary, they need to be taught how to handle, use and save money.

In addition to financial literacy, two of the eight respondents further suggested that SDP organisations should offer field workers training programmes that will develop their entrepreneurial skills so that they could be taught how to start and own a business so they can one day become independent.

"I feel that entrepreneurship and business training can help me because I'm still in-between jobs. With the small amount I earn, I'll be able to save in order for me to start something or I borrow the money somewhere and start something because I would know how to draft a business plan and take the business plan to the bank because I want to start a business." (R4).

4.12. Conclusion

The interviews identified the formal, non-formal and informal training and development opportunities offered to field workers by organisations in the SDP sector in South Africa. The researcher also established which of these training opportunities field workers deemed helpful, how these opportunities would benefit them personally as well as their employers, and what their personal experiences as field workers have been in relation to the training and development opportunities within this sector. The interviews also highlighted what training and development requirements and interventions field workers consider important for them in the SDP sector in South Africa. The data indicates that most training interventions offered in the SDP sector in South Africa are non-formal; they take the form of workshops, courses and/or in-house training programmes that are non-credit bearing and are not necessarily intended to

assess the field workers' post-training competency. The study also ascertained that field workers overwhelmingly found that the training and development opportunities benefitted them personally more than they benefitted their organisations, through the acquisition of soft and/or technical skills. In relation to career development, the study found that field workers want to grow as practitioners within the SDP sector. This is despite most of them generally deeming training and development opportunities as only focusing on short-term goals that address immediate key skills gaps that will help demonstrate competencies and strengthen programme implementation. According to the respondents, these short-term orientated training interventions are given priority over the long-term learnings that align personal needs with career advancement opportunities.

Table 4.1 presents an overview of this study respondents' training and development experiences as field workers within their respective SDP organisations.

Table 4.1: Summary of findings

Formal training and development opportunities								
	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8
First aid course/s	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
Facilitation course/s		✓			✓	✓	✓	✓
Sport-specific course/s			✓	✓				
Non-formal training and development opportunities								
	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8
Training of coaches (SDP programme curriculum)	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	
Child protection/Safeguarding					✓		✓	✓
Lay counselling		✓				✓	✓	✓
Human resource management					✓			
Personal development programme	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			
Informal training and development opportunities								
	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8
Coach/facilitator development	✓	✓	✓					
Coaching and mentorship		✓	✓					
Personal benefits of training and development opportunities								
	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8
Contribution to self-development								
Personal development	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Increased employability	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Fostered active citizenry						✓		✓
Contribution to professional development								
Coach education				✓				
Improved self-confidence	✓		✓	✓		✓		
Acquired life skills and knowledge	✓		✓		✓			

Organisational benefits of training and development opportunities								
	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8
Not benefitting organisational programme	✓				✓			
Benefits for organisational programme								
Capacitated a competent workforce	✓			✓	✓		✓	✓

Field workers' training and personal experiences								
	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8
Experienced positive personal development		✓	✓	✓				
Poor planning leading to ad hoc training		✓						
Need for re-training and upskilling					✓	✓		
Limitation and/or perceived inequity in training practices	✓				✓		✓	✓
Insufficient job-specific training		✓			✓			
Contextual irrelevance of training content	✓			✓				

Training and development interventions considered important by field workers								
	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8
Programme delivery and career development								
Facilitation course/s				✓			✓	✓
Communication and diversity training			✓		✓			
Lay/Basic counselling course/s		✓				✓	✓	✓
Child safeguarding/Protection training					✓			✓
First aid course/s			✓				✓	
Computer literacy course/s	✓			✓	✓		✓	✓
Report writing course/s	✓							
Monitoring and evaluation workshops				✓			✓	✓
Curriculum development/Contextualisation workshops				✓				
Exposure to mentoring and coaching	✓	✓						
Personal development								
Leadership development							✓	
Financial literacy and entrepreneurship			✓	✓				✓

The field work results, as highlighted in this chapter, reveal that training and development for field workers in the SDP sector in South Africa is a common practice, as the data confirms that workers are exposed to and benefit from a wide range of training and development opportunities (formal, non-formal and informal) that contribute to their personal and their organisations' development to varying degrees. The field work results also highlight that non-formal training and development interventions are by far the most dominant practice in the SDP sector, however some respondents have also benefited from formal and/or informal

opportunities. These findings are consistent with several previous SDP studies that have found that field workers' learning is derived from different training and development opportunities (Mallett, Trudel, Lyle and Rynne, 2009).

The next chapter discusses the results and offers recommendations based on the findings of this chapter.



CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1. Introduction

Chapter Four established the type, perceived effectiveness and personal experiences of training and development interventions that the field workers had benefitted from. Training and development opportunities that are effective and benefit both the organisation and the individual have long been a research area of interest for scholars and practitioners (Becker and Bish, 2017). The findings from the previous chapter contribute to the body of knowledge by establishing how the training and development opportunities in the SDP sector in South Africa, in field workers' opinions, benefit them as individuals and the organisations they are employed by. Through the data collected, it was ascertained which training and development opportunities SDP field workers consider important within the SDP sector in South Africa.

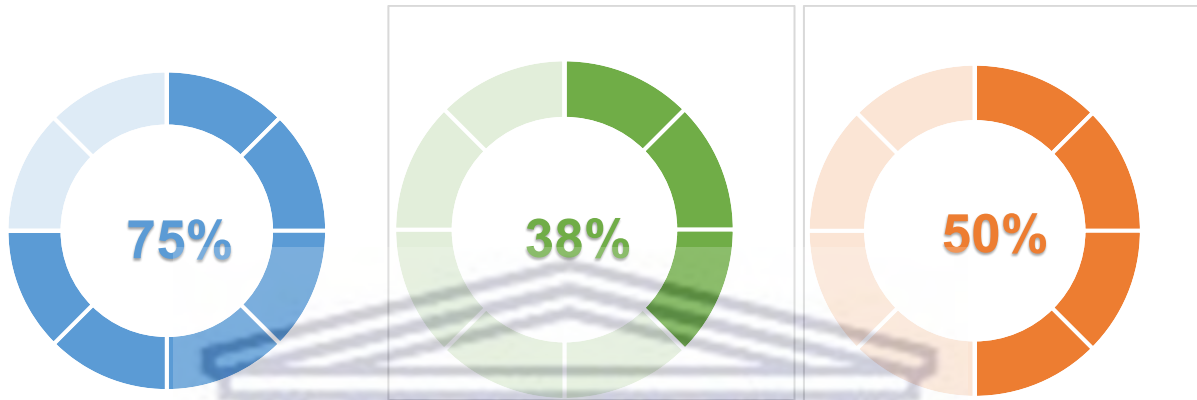
Chapter Five discusses the findings of this study, which are interpreted and discussed in conjunction with the literature. These discussions emanate from the themes that emerged from Chapter Four. Nowadays, with NGOs facing more challenges than in the past, they must be more effective. Scholars such as Maier, Meyer and Steinbereithner (2016) suggest that they must become more business-like in order to keep up-to-date with sector trends, remain competitive and be accountable to stakeholders (e.g., donors, local communities, governments etc.). A critical factor to achieving this involves prioritising human resources development and ensuring that any interventions working towards this are fit for purpose and responsive to the needs of the workforce. This chapter will also discuss the training and development interventions that respondents felt are important for the professional and personal development of field workers and SDP organisations in South Africa.

5.2. Non-formal learning opportunities

The study found that non-formal learning dominated the training and development interventions for field workers in the SDP sector, with more than half of the identified opportunities having been non-formal. According to the respondents, these non-formal opportunities are typically structured and relatively formal in the way they are organised, and are mostly delivered through in-house and external workshops. This is consistent with Marsick and Watkins (2001), who suggested that non-formal learning could take place within organisations and/or at external institutions, however they do not typically have to be classroom-based or highly structured in their delivery. Such an approach makes sense for SDP NGOs, as suggested by Mallett et al. (2009) who found that non-formal opportunities through settings like workshops and in-house training scored highly on contextualisation, meaning and authenticity. This is despite the fact that these training and development interventions are non-

credit bearing and have no assessment means to prove learner competence. This ultimately means that control of learning lies primarily with the field workers (Marsick and Watkins, 2001).

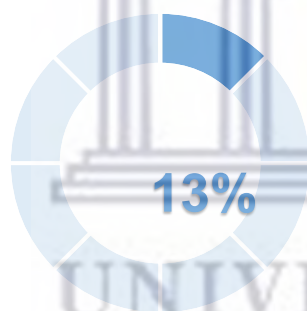
Graphs 5.1 to 5.5 provide an overview of the types of non-formal opportunities and the percentage of respondents who benefitted from each.



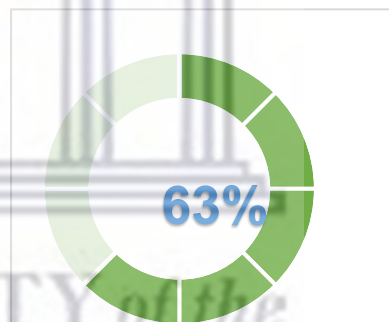
Graph 5.1: SDP Curriculum

**Graph 5.2: Child protection/
Safeguarding**

Graph 5.3: Lay counselling



**Graph 5.4: Human Resources
Management**



Graph 5.5: Personal development programme

Mallet et al. (2009) found non-formal opportunities to be very beneficial as they can be ongoing, highly diverse and extensive. There is, however, a lot of criticism of these interventions, as they are seen to be short-term, unrelated to sport-for-development and peace, and often organised internally or by unaccredited organisations (Vorgan, 2008). According to Kennedy (2014), non-formal learning is also indicative of transmissive professional development, whereby individuals who have benefitted from a non-formal training and development intervention is capacitated to apply and implement set programme requirements. This raises the question of the significance of non-formal training and development interventions in influencing field workers' possible advancement within the SDP sectors.

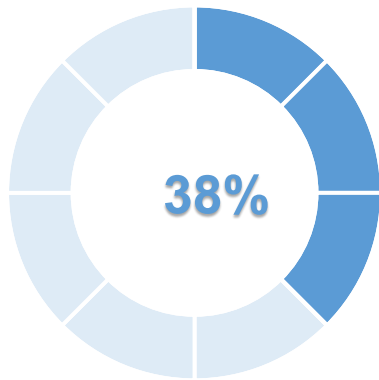
Finally, the study found the in-house training of field workers, related to their respective organisational SDP programme curriculum, as the one training intervention that all SDP organisations value. According to the respondents, most field workers have participated in an

SDP programme curriculum training, especially when they were first onboarded. There were, however, two respondents who had never participated in any SDP programme curriculum training within their organisation. The fact that there are field workers who were expected to deliver their organisation's SDP curriculum to children without receiving any training is a concern. Kramers, Turgeon, Bean, Sabourin and Camire (2020) found that the accumulation of experience as a field worker, in and itself, does not automatically lead to a field worker acquiring and possessing the necessary competencies to teach life skills.

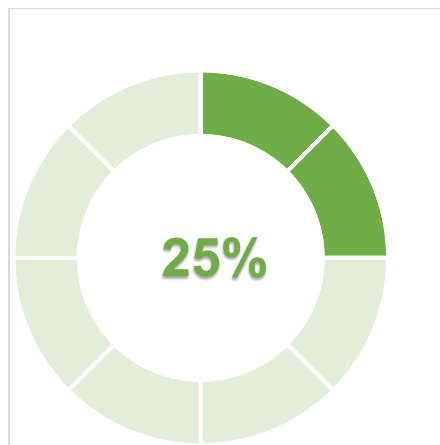
5.3. Informal learning opportunities

Learning that takes place through training and development interventions that are outside the restrictions of a structured learning environment (Cunningham and Hillier, 2013), which are usually casual and/or incidental and related to daily activities linked to work, are typically referred to as informal. Previous studies have found that informal learning can be achieved through opportunities that do not require the direct guidance of others during daily activities (Rynne, Mallett and Tinning, 2008). Informal learning thus takes place outside of, and in addition to, formal and non-formal training and development opportunities (Williams and Ward, 2007).

According to human resources management studies, three quarters of learning that occurs within organisations is accounted for through informal learning. This is starkly contradictory of the findings of this study, as the data indicates the opposite to be true, i.e., informal training and development opportunities are the least used to capacitate field workers in the SDP sector in South Africa. This is reflected through only three of the respondents indicating they had benefitted from informal training and development opportunities, and only two interventions being identified by field workers. This study found that these two identified opportunities were not incidental/unmediated. According to Pajo, Coetzer and Guenole (2010), such opportunities that are deliberate in delivery and focused on tacit learning are intended to occur while on the job, are offered through situated learning. Graphs 5.6 and 5.7 provide an overview of the types of informal opportunities and the percentages of respondents who benefitted from each informal learning opportunity approach.



Graph 5.6: Coach/facilitator development



Graph 5.7: Coaching and mentorship

The researcher is cautious about interpreting this finding as it could mean that informal training opportunities were either not a common practice within the respective SDP organisations, or the respondents were not aware of, exposed to, or were unable to identify, these opportunities since they are not always structured in delivery and intent. This is especially true as informal learning has been found to make the biggest contribution to field workers' development (Wright, Trudel and Culver, 2007), with learning generally occurring through daily work engagements and taking place over a period of time (Donitsa-Schmidt and Zuzovsky, 2020).

The first informal opportunity mentioned by respondents was a coach/facilitator development intervention, which was structured around a peer-to-peer model where field workers would regularly gather to support each other to strengthen their curriculum implementation. In these informal peer education sessions, it was found that learning happened when the field workers had the opportunity to interact, receive information, debate and discuss the knowledge they were acquiring. This was identified as a best practice by the researcher, as peer education has increasing approval in the SDP sector globally and had been adopted by many organisations (Spaaij and Jeanes, 2013). It also allows for the fostering of "horizontal dialogue that enables participants to plan as equals and take a course of action that is contextually and culturally sound" (Nicholls, 2009: 168).

The second informal opportunity mentioned by the respondents is having benefited from some form of coaching and mentoring by peers and/or someone more senior than them within their organisations. The researcher found this to be a positive development as researchers such as Aitken (2014) have found that not only has the practice of mentoring increased, but it has been found that many organisations are also reconsidering the prioritisation of resources in favour of more informal approaches to learning such as mentoring, stretch assignments, temporary assignments and job rotation (Becker and Bish, 2017). However, this trend has not always been informed by best practice or clarity of definition (Clutterbuck, 2014), with Dubois and

Karcher (2014) having previously questioned conventional definitions of mentoring that have focused solely on the traits of the mentor and their relationship with their mentee. Viewing mentorship in isolation from the wider cultural practices that include organisational training and development interventions is flawed, they argued.

Informal learning opportunities, irrespective of whether they are part of the organisational training and development plan or not, may demonstrate both beneficial outcomes and limitations. Some of these benefits may include, but are not limited to, a structured, mentored experience which is founded on direction, a healthy feedback loop and a degree of evaluation (Mallett et al., 2009). For a mentee, this has the potential to result in the acquisition of practical and applied knowledge, cultural awareness, improved inter- and intra-personal skills, and the ability to apply learning to specific situations immediately (Billett, 2002). With field workers being entitled to seek information, guidance and mentorship from anyone, one of the biggest risks and limitations thus becomes the potential lack of quality assurance of the information, guidance and/or mentorship received (Mallett et al., 2009). One could argue that this has the potential to compromise the learning value of the job for an SDP field worker in the long run.

Van der Klink, van der Heijden, Boon and van Rooij (2014) described the learning value of the job as the degree to which professional knowledge and skills can be utilised and expanded in an incumbent's job position. The degree to which informal learning takes place in any job is highly dependent on the learning value of the job, which is also a major contributor to one's professional development (van der Heijden and Bakker, 2011). There have also been studies that have found that individuals occupying positions at work with a high learning value tend to be more proactive and take more initiative. Proactive behaviour inevitably contributes to organisational and individual work performance (Fay and Frese, 2001), increased employability and career success (Seibert, Kraimer and Crant, 2001).

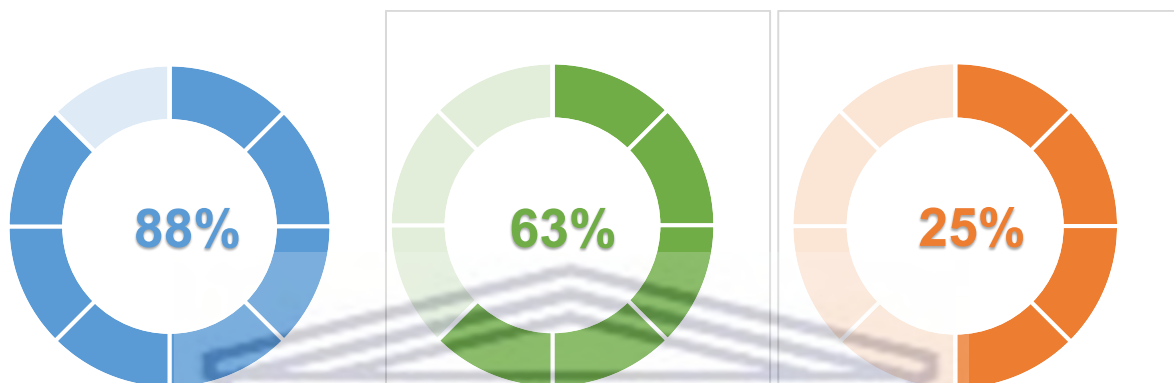
5.4. Formal learning opportunities

Typically, formal learning is considered to take place through training and development interventions that are organised, are structured with specified learning objectives (Cunningham and Hillier, 2013), are developed and endorsed/supported by experts, have quality assurance measures in place, apply formal evaluation or assessment procedures at the end of the training, and recognise achievement (Mallett et al., 2009). This makes formal learning a major contributor to professional and career development.

This study found that very few formal training and development opportunities were given to field workers, with only three interventions being identified by the respondents as having been offered to them. Despite this, seven of the eight respondents indicated that they had at some

point benefitted from at least one formal training intervention. The First Aid NQF Level 1 Course and the Facilitators Course were the two main formal learning opportunities field workers had participated in.

Graphs 5.8 to 5.10 provide an overview of the types of formal opportunities and the percentages of respondents who benefitted from each formal learning opportunity.



Graph 5.8: First Aid Course Graph 5.9: Facilitators Course Graph 5.10: Sport-specific Course

This finding is not surprising, as SDP NGOs are generally small organisations. According to Guo, Brown, Ashcraft, Yoshioka and Dong (2011), human resources management is generally less developed in small NGOs. Barrett and Mayson (2006) also found it as being widely accepted that NGOs, as small organisations, have less resources for human resources management interventions. This means they are less likely to offer formal training opportunities and rather risk facing challenges related to employee professional and career development (Barrett and Mayson 2006). This was echoed by Guo et al. (2011), who highlighted previous studies having shown that provision of professional and career development opportunities in NGO's is not common.

NGOs being less likely to provide formal training opportunities to employees can be ascribed to several reasons (Kitching and Blackburn, 2002), with cost and time being the biggest barriers. These barriers include the cost of formal training versus the opportunity cost of field workers' time when they participate in formal learning (Pajo, et al., 2010), which is characterised by participation and attendance in training, courses and/or formal education.

There are, however, arguments that formal training and development interventions may lack context, and may have a limited level of individualisation required for meaningful learning. However, these arguments have been countered by evidence that has found that an intervention like traditional formal education (e.g., tertiary education) has the potential to contribute to the continued development and success of field workers through formal learning, which has the capacity of leading to the development of soft skills such as critical thinking skills (Mallett et al., 2009) that are critical for field workers and their employability.

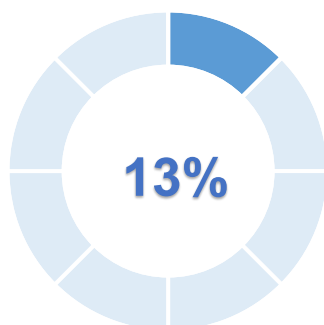
Whilst the educational value of formal learning opportunities may be argued as being questionable and seen to contribute often limited training and development, Mallett et al. (2009) found that they still play a significant role in the professional development process by virtue of the fact that they allow ambitious individuals to simultaneously distinguish themselves from their peers and get noticed by their superiors. Further to this, Kitching and Blackburn (2002) highlighted that the generally limited provision of formal learning opportunities in small NGOs is not necessarily a reflection that employees lack skills or that training is not taking place. Rather, studies show that small NGOs are likely to place much greater reliance on informal training practices and learning processes (Storey 2004).

5.5. Benefits derived from training and development opportunities

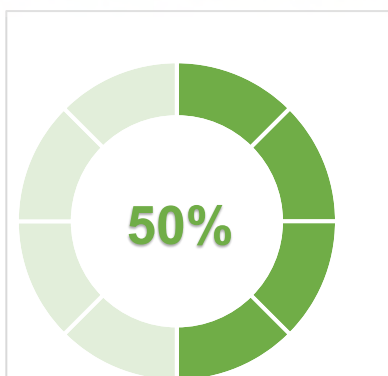
5.5.1. Professional- and self-development

Despite most field workers feeling that their employers could do more to enhance their career mobility within their organisations and the SDP sector in general, the study found that most respondents felt that the opportunity to participate in training and development had contributed to their professional development (five of the respondents) and/or self-development (all of the respondents). The respondents held the view that, even though it might not necessarily have been the explicit intention of the employer, their participation in the above-mentioned learning opportunities indirectly contributed to the enhancement of their employability through the acquisition of certain skills and knowledge that they could transfer and use in other employment opportunities.

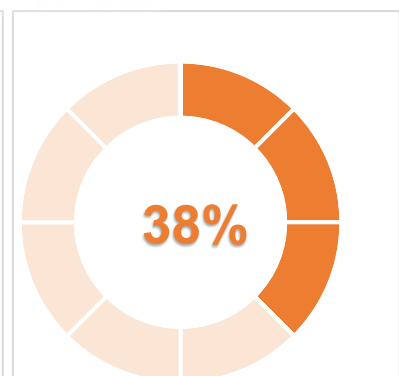
Graphs 5.11 to 5.13 provide an overview of how the respondents perceived their training and development opportunities as having contributed to their professional development.



Graph 5.11: Coach education

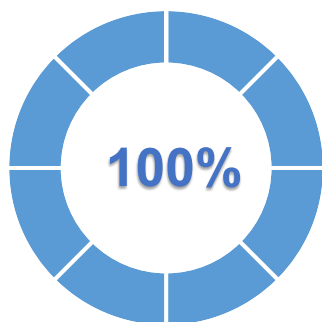


Graph 5.12: Improved self-confidence and knowledge

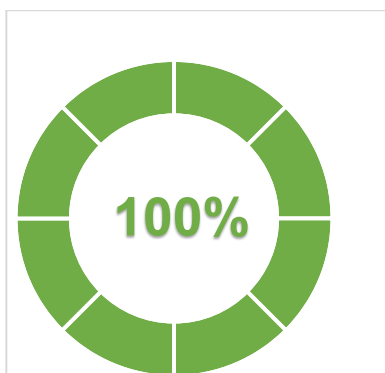


Graph 5.13: Acquired life skills

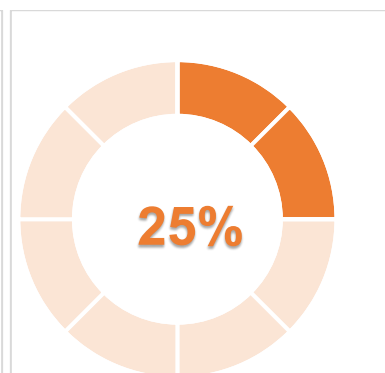
Graphs 5.14 to 5.16 provide an overview of how the respondents perceived training and development opportunities as having contributed to their self-development.



Graph 5.14: Personal development



Graph 5.15: Increased employability



Graph 5.16: Fostered active citizenry

The concept of employability, which involves a permanent process of acquisition and fulfilment of employment within or outside an organisation (Heijde and Van der Heijden, 2006), remains a contested matter. Baruch (2001) found that the notion of employability possesses subtle undertones of conflict between individual and organisational interests, as those whose skills may not be highly developed have an expectation that their employers should be managing their careers and enhancing their employability through job-specific training and development (Clarke and Patrickson, 2008). The fundamental assumption is that the transfer of responsibility for employability from an employee to an employer is neither reflected at either the organisational or individual level (Clarke and Patrickson, 2008), a practice that NGOs can resource, or want to engage with when employability might be seen as a replacement of the former long-term relationships that were built on mutual trust (Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden, 2006).

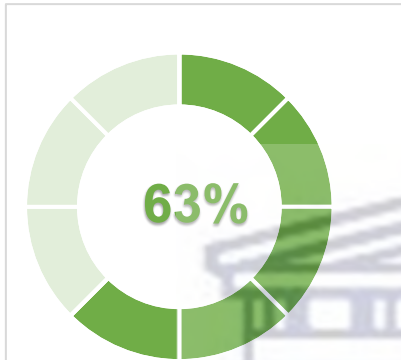
Nevertheless, previous studies have acknowledged that training field workers is key to influencing their effectiveness (Kramers et al., 2020). This was reflected in a study by Trudel, Gilbert and Werthner (2010), who found that field worker participation in training opportunities results in the increased empowerment of marginalised communities and the desire to make a difference in children’s lives. It can be argued that these opportunities can also foster active citizenship and a sense of wanting to be part of something larger than oneself. This is consistent with previous research by Svensson, Hancock and Hums (2017), which found that a passion to help others could be ignited in field workers if the right opportunities are provided to them.

The study further found that training and development improved the field workers’ self-confidence – not only in their ability to effectively implement an SDP curriculum, but also as change agents in their communities. It is important to note that these knowledge and skills are closely related to professional- and self-development (Coalter, Theeboom, Taylor, Commers and Derom, 2021).

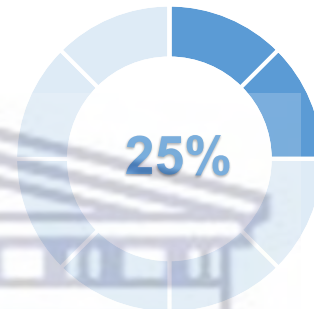
5.5.2. Organisational development

Some respondents felt that certain training and development they had participated in did not benefit their organisation, however they generally believed that their training and development was beneficial for their employers as they could make a clear link to their training and development benefiting their organisation and its SDP programme.

Graphs 5.17 and 5.18 provide an overview of how the respondents perceived training and development opportunities as having benefitted their organisations.



Graph 5.17: Capacitated and competent workforce



Graph 5.18: Not benefitting organisational programme

Five of the respondents held the view that the training and development opportunities offered to field workers was benefitting their organisational programmes, as these opportunities have led to a capacitated workforce. This is consistent with findings from a previous study in Latin America and the Caribbean by Wright, Jacobs, Howell and Ressler (2018), which found that training and development interventions help individual coaches to develop the capacity and ability to implement crucial strategies and concepts. This is critical as many NGOs rely on their field workers to deliver programmes. According to Schepers, Gieter, Pepermans, Bois, Caers and Jegers (2005), these field workers have differing needs and expectations to other sectors, leading to more and more NGOs becoming more strategic in their human resource management (Ridder, Piening and Baluch, 2012). Deliberate and more intense training and development interventions have the potential to have a favourable impact on organisational performance and employees' competence, morale, participation etc.

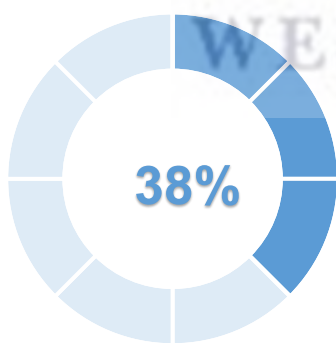
Two of the respondents indicated that some of the training and development interventions offered to them, which had benefitted them personally, did not benefit their organisation. The main reasons advanced for this view is that even after being capacitated, the field workers were not always getting the requisite resources, opportunities and/or support to utilise their acquired skills or knowledge. Over three decades ago, Scheier (1986: 11) warned that training and development in the NGO sector might be a waste of time, saying that: "I am convinced

that 90 to 95% of this learning is lost". By 'lost', he was arguing that the content of the training interventions was hardly ever transferred to the workplace. This was found to be true when many years later, Sullivan, Sharma and Stacy (2002) evaluated a training intervention for field workers in the health sector. Their evaluation found that even though the pre-test and post-test highlighted significant changes in field workers' knowledge, outcome expectations and self-efficacy, minimal behavioural change post the training was noted. Therefore, even after three decades, this study finding suggests that the question raised by Scheier (1986) is still relevant and ensuring transfer and avoiding waste continues to be a challenge for many trainers and NGOs.

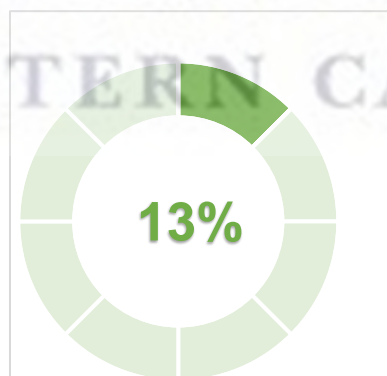
5.6. Field workers' experiences

In collecting data for this study, the researcher engaged with the respondents to provide an overarching, holistic picture of the training and development practices in SDP organisations, as per the field workers' insights. The study found instances where the respondents' personal experiences in relation to training and development has been at times favourable, and sometimes unfavourable. Three of the respondents identified at least one positive and/or favourable experience with the training and development opportunities they had participated in, however this was not always the case as there were many instances highlighted by respondents where their training and development experiences were not positive and/or favourable.

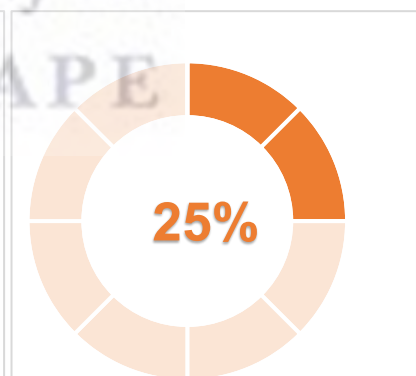
Graphs 5.19 to 5.24 provide an overview of the personal experiences of the respondents in relation to training and development within their organisation.



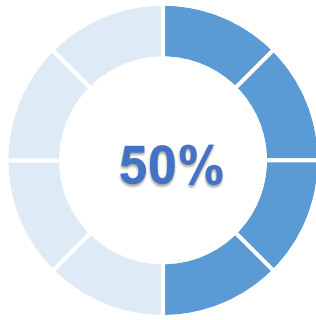
Graph 5.19: Experienced positive training and personal development



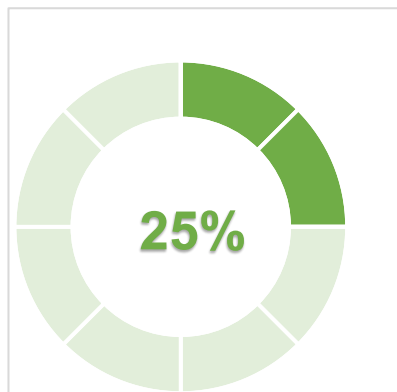
Graph 5.20: Poor planning leading to ad hoc training



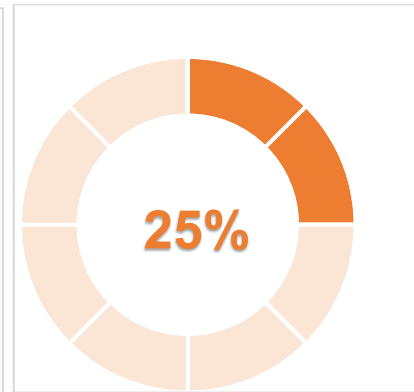
Graph 5.21: Need for re-skilling and upskilling



Graph 5.22: Limitation and/or perceived inequity in training practices



Graph 5.23: Insufficient job-specific training



Graph 5.24: Contextual irrelevance of training content

5.6.1. Ad hoc training

One of the respondents indicated that despite regular in-house training and re-training interventions having been hosted in their organisation, these had generally been done in a haphazard manner. McKinlay (2013) found that such training practices typically had little impact on the career prospects of participants, which, according to van der Klink et al. (2014), could lead to field workers who have been in the same position for a prolonged period becoming despondent and unmotivated. This despondence likely stems from a decrease in the learning value of their job over time.

5.6.2. Inadequate training

Four of the respondents perceived the training and development opportunities being provided to them as inadequate, with some citing unfairness and inconsistency in the training and development opportunities being offered. The insufficiency of opportunities within the SDP sector is not surprising, as it was found as far back as the mid-1980s by Wilson (1984) that NGOs and volunteer organisations often do not have large training budgets (Hall et al., 2003). Based on this finding, concerns have been raised around SDP organisations' capacity to train their field workers adequately and meaningfully. This issue is concerning as the SDP sector is heavily reliant on field workers; Hall et al. (2003) noted that organisations are not always able to recruit field workers who have the skills and competencies required, thus sufficient training and development are the primary means of capacitating field workers.

5.6.3. Insufficient job-specific training

Training and development opportunities should be recurring, consistent and fit for purpose. It is thus notable that in an era where the capacity of SFD organisations continues to be an area of concern (Welty Peachey, Cohen and Shin, 2019), this study found that two of the respondents felt that they had not received sufficient job-specific training to capacitate them in

their new/additional functions/duties. These respondents indicated that they had never received any job-specific formal training when they either were appointed or promoted, or when their jobs required them to undertake additional responsibilities. Rather, there was an implicit expectation that they would “pick things up” on the job. Previous studies have found this to be a common practice in the SDP sector, as scholars have noted that SDP practitioners often lack professional training and development (Welty Peachey et al., 2019). Participation in formal training and development is likely to be limited, ad hoc or reactive, noted Hill and Stewart (2000).

5.6.4. Contextually irrelevant training

In addition to insufficient job-specific training, two of the respondents were of the belief that some of their programme curricula and the subsequent training and development practices related to said curricula were contextually irrelevant and not always responsive to the needs of their heterogeneous communities. Such practices were highlighted in a study by Van der Veken et al. (2021), who found that field workers often have to “invent the job” on the spot by unilaterally deciding to discard what they have been trained on to better align the delivery of their SDP sessions to the contexts and needs of the programme beneficiaries. This means that despite being trained, SDP field workers have to be flexible and able to adapt to their contexts. This is not an area all the respondents had been trained and developed in, however.

It was argued by Kay (2011) that this contextual irrelevance stems from the fact that most research studies informing SDP programme design, training and delivery in the Global South is researched by scholars and organisations from the Global North. This has led to their inability to adequately capture the complexity of the broader cultural indigenous processes and contextual contexts linked to development. As suggested by Whitley, Wright and Gould (2014), cultural differences are every so often a point of difficulty when transferring the skills taught. This argument was underpinned by a study conducted by Trudel, Gilbert and Werthner (2010), who found that group of SDP field workers in Jordan had experienced challenges in the delivery of their programme curriculum due to differing cultural norms in programme sites. According to Trudel et al. (2010), the field workers, who were respondents in the research study, suggested an improvement to the programme design by contextualising the curriculum and field workers’ training to the different regions in Jordan. A South African example was similarly highlighted by Sugden (2006), whose case on the Rugby for Peace SDP programme found that the different cultures within various tribes across different provinces in South Africa caused a great number of difficulties for the field workers when implementing the curriculum and approaches in exactly the way they had been trained.

A failure to consider the criticisms of traditional neo-colonial development practices may be the reason organisations and practitioners develop/adopt curricula and training practices and import them into programme sites without much reflection on the local cultural context and stakeholder needs (Welty Peachey, Musser, Shin and Cohen, 2017).

5.7. Suggested training and development interventions

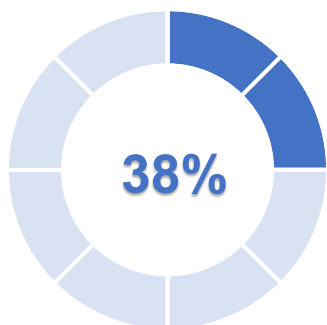
Understanding SDP field workers' experiences and suggestions is essential as they have first-hand experience in the field, particularly regarding ongoing critical issues related to advances and changes in the SDP sector (Giulianotti, Coalter, Collison and Darnell, 2019), organisational failures to deliver programmes (Svensson and Loat, 2019), and training interventions they consider important.

As espoused by the respondents of this study, learning geared towards career growth and personal development is most important to them. This is consistent with Sanders (2014), who suggested that learning is a critical element of adaptation and agility. Without learning, field workers will keep doing what they did before and fail. For this reason, Sanders stressed that the ability to learn through training and development on and off the job is a necessary skill.

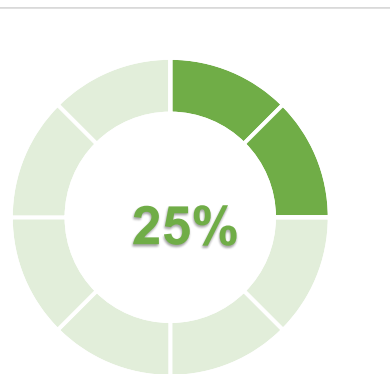
The respondents to this study considered 12 training and development interventions to be important for field workers in the SDP sector in South Africa. These interventions are related to firstly, them being capacitated to better deliver programmes whilst growing in their SDP careers, and secondly, them developing personally as individuals and professionals.

5.7.1. Training and development interventions related to programme delivery and career growth

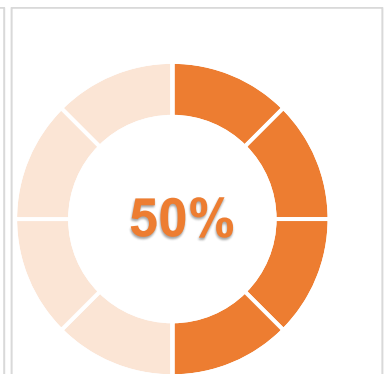
Graphs 5.25 to 5.34 provide an overview of the training and development interventions related to programme delivery considered important by the study respondents.



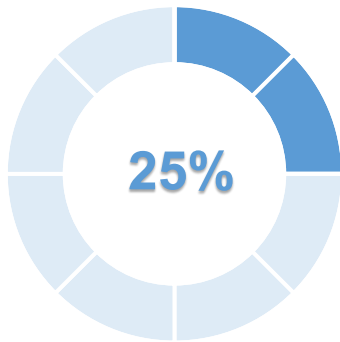
Graph 5.25: Facilitation Course Counselling



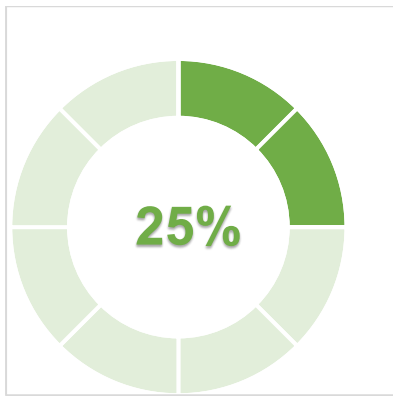
Graph 5.26: Communication and Diversity Training



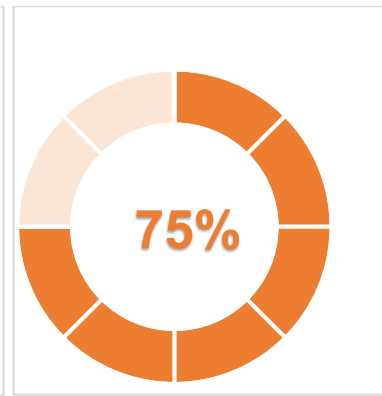
Graph 5.27: Lay/Basic Course



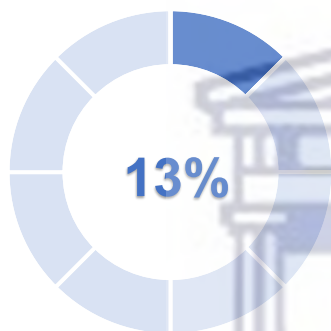
Graph 5.28: Child Safeguarding/Protection Training



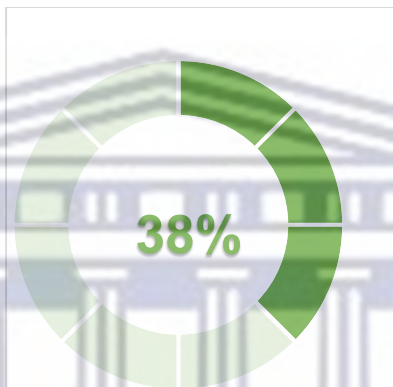
Graph 5.29: First Aid Courses



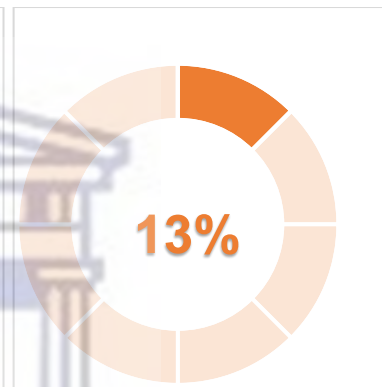
Graph 5.30: Computer Literacy Courses



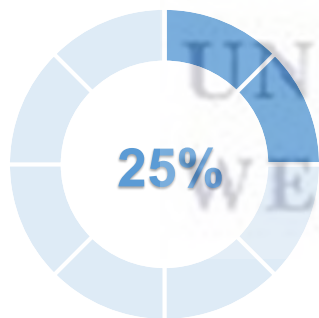
Graph 5.31: Report Writing Course



Graph 5.32: M&E Workshops



Graph 5.33: Curriculum Development/Contextualisation Workshops



Graph 5.34: Mentoring and Coaching

5.7.1.1. Facilitation course/s

Despite five of the respondents having indicated that they had participated in a facilitators course that was intended to help them improve their facilitation skills, only two of them identified a formal facilitation course as being a training and development requirement and/or intervention they considered important for field workers in the SDP sector in South Africa. This calls into question the value derived by the other three respondents from the facilitators course they attended, especially as the data, according to their responses, suggests that this course is one that is valued, considered important and prioritised by S4D organisations. This finding casts doubt on some field workers' recognition that through registering and participating in an accredited facilitators course that teaches them how to facilitate learning using a variety of

methodologies, they are being capacitated and placed in a position where they become familiar with relevant SDP implementation approaches and strategies. As Clutterbuck and Doherty (2019) suggested, this will also help them to develop more positive social environments and safe spaces for their programme beneficiaries.

5.7.1.2. Communication and diversity training

Despite field workers regularly interacting with programme beneficiaries from different backgrounds, this study found that none of the respondents had ever participated in or benefitted from any training or development that was related to effective communication and/or the sensitisation of field workers on issues related to prejudice, discrimination, group dynamics or diversity in general. Two of the respondents thought that it is important that field workers participate in communication and diversity training. This is aligned with scholars such as Debognies et al. (2019), who found that SDP field workers as programme implementers play a leading role in fostering and sustaining effective inter-personal relationships with programme beneficiaries. As the ones who directly and regularly interact with programme beneficiaries from varying backgrounds, field workers need to value diversity and be able to effectively communicate with beneficiaries, and at times guardians, of all abilities, backgrounds, ages, races, creeds, ethnicities etc.

It is generally agreed that in order to create a sense of psychological safety for participants during programme delivery, skills in communication, listening, diversity, inclusion, empathy and social cohesion are key in activating the mechanism of emotional connectivity (Van der Veken, Lauwerier and Willems, 2020). It is for this reason that diversity and intercultural communication training for field workers, where they can gain a better understanding, awareness and appreciation of the fundamentals of diversity and inclusion, is important. As far back as two decades ago, some scholars suggested introducing cross-cultural curricula and training that includes an introduction associated with local information, cultural awareness, language improvement and emotion management (McGrath-Champ and Yang, 2002).

5.7.1.3. Lay/Basic counselling courses

This study found that four of the respondents had been taken through a lay/basic counselling training by their organisation. The same four respondents suggested that such a training, even if not accredited, is important for SDP field workers in South Africa, as they are at times faced with programme beneficiaries who are dealing with trauma, which requires initial containment and a referral to professional assistance. Further to this, programmes are increasingly using sport as an instrument of psychosocial intervention. These are SDP programmes where participation in sport is seen as a protective, or even a preventative, factor (Pascoe and Parker, 2019), which support beneficiaries psychologically and socially as they encounter difficulties in their everyday lives (Parlavecchio, Moreau, Favier-Ambrosini and Gadais, 2021).

Organisations running such programmes are known as Quebec organisations, which have specialised in the use of sport to address psychosocial development issues among youth. It is thus vital that these organisations train field workers using a humanistic approach (Falcão, 2018), lay/basic counselling and skill development so that they are able to intervene directly with beneficiaries in the programme setting. This is in line with a study by Kang and Svensson (2019), which introduced the concept of shared leadership. Their research found the shared leadership concept to be particularly important for SDP organisations, as field workers need to play multiple roles as coaches, facilitators, social workers, educators and mediators in order to be effective (Thorpe and Chawansky, 2017).

5.7.1.4. Safeguarding/ Child protection training

Sport, if not properly managed, monitored and evaluated, has the potential to create an environment where a range of abuses can occur. This is not a new phenomenon (Hartill and Prescott, 2007), however it took notable incidents such as the convictions of prominent coaches in the early 1990s to initiate the introduction of policies related to child safeguarding and protection (Lang and Hartill, 2016). This did not mean, however, the end of abuse within the sporting fraternity, as the socio-cultural environments that dominate sport bodies and organisations continue to be openly criticised for fostering environments that enable the exploitation and abuse of athletes in general, and children in particular (McMahon, Knight, McGannon, 2018). It is thus encouraging that even though only three of the respondents had received safeguarding and/or child protection training, there is nonetheless evidence of SDP organisations conducting this vital training, even on a small scale.

With the increasing awareness of the need to improve safeguarding and child protection (Everley, 2020), the SDP sector, whose programme beneficiaries are mostly vulnerable and at-risk children, has to accept that it is not immune to this scourge. Abuse will continue unabated if field workers are not trained on, and sensitised to, this issue. Two of the respondents were of the same view as they suggested training for field workers who are in regular contact with programme beneficiaries be mandatory. According to these respondents, such training should focus on preventing field workers from doing harm to children and adults by building an understanding of safeguarding and child protection and its importance into the SDP sector.

The potential exploitation and abuse of children in the SDP sector has generally been identified as being sexual, emotional, moral and physical in nature, and has the likelihood to negatively impact all aspects of a victim's well-being (McMahon et al., 2018). Further to this, the misuse of power relations between programme beneficiaries and field workers has been identified in the perpetration of the intentional or unintentional ill-treatment of children (McMahon et al.,

2018). In many instances, a field worker has been identified as having greater influence over programme beneficiaries than other significant adults, such as guardians or teachers (Raakman, Dorsch and Rhind, 2010). Essentially, it is this skewed power distribution that can provide a cultural context that could enable abuse and exploitation (Everley, 2020).

According to Nurse (2018), adequate responses to varying types of abuse and the exploitation of children are needed in field worker education, therefore safeguarding and child protection training should be developed to ensure that field workers:

1. demonstrate an increased awareness or identify different types of harassment, abuse or poor practice;
2. recognise signs of abuse or poor practice and respond appropriately;
3. create a safe programming environment;
4. deal sensitively and effectively with issues;
5. explain their legal responsibilities; and
6. find further information and sources of support.

Further to the above, such trainings cultivate a culture of listening to children and taking account of their wishes and feelings, which ultimately encourages confidence among programme beneficiaries to express themselves.

5.7.1.5. Computer courses

In this era of technological advances, when there is a growing emphasis on having the ability to optimise online resources and platforms, this study found that only three of the respondents had been taken through an end-user computer training course of any sort. This is one of the training interventions that SDP organisations should prioritise for field workers, as six of the eight respondents suggested that there should be at least mandatory basic computer training for all field workers, which should include modules in Word, Excel, PowerPoint and Outlook. According to these respondents, field workers should not be restricted to just basic courses, but must also be eligible for intermediate and advanced end-user computer training courses. This view is supported by Shin, Cohen and Welty Peachey (2020), who suggested that being able to utilise new technology and online mediums is crucial for many interventions and to address a wide range of professional and personal needs.

5.7.1.6. Report writing workshops and courses

In this study, the respondents suggested that field workers at times assist with report writing, the development of proposals and other administrative duties, yet none had ever received any formal, informal or non-formal training related to administration or report writing. One of the respondents was of the view that a training on report writing was important so field workers are capacitated to develop quality reports. This view is consistent with Clutterbuck and Doherty

(2019), who argued that the ability of field workers to provide administrative assistance is an important capacity element within any SDP organisation.

5.7.1.7. Monitoring and evaluation workshops

According to Coalter et al. (2021), most SDP organisations engage in some form of programme monitoring via staff meetings, attendance registers, reports and various other feedback mechanisms, which provide data regarding the degree to which interventions are being delivered against the planned outputs and outcomes. Despite some respondents indicating such being a common practice in their organisation, there was, however, no evidence of any of the respondents having received any training related to monitoring and evaluation. Three of the respondents felt strongly about field workers being exposed to formal or non-formal M&E training, with a particular focus on credible data capturing and organising. This is similar to the views of other practitioners, according to a study conducted by Whitley et al. (2019), who were interested in effective M&E approaches as well as in improved and more accessible training. To respond to this training and development need, some organisations have established communities of practices or learning communities that are facilitated by M&E experts, with SDP field workers learning together about relevant M&E approaches and best practices in the sector (Whitley, Fraser, Dudfield, Yarrow and van der Merwe, 2020).

5.7.1.8. Curriculum development and contextualisation workshops

This study found that six of the respondents had participated in their organisation's programme curriculum training, where they were introduced to and taught their curriculum. This finding confirms that S4D organisations consider their curriculum delivery and session structure to be a priority. However, there was a respondent who suggested that field workers should receive additional training and be given the knowledge, skills and opportunity to contribute to the process of developing/designing SDP curricula and/or support the contextualisation of this curricula. As much as the data confirms that the training of field workers on the delivery of curricula is largely taking place, this respondent's recommendation for field workers to be co-creators of curricula was due to the fact that field workers are often from the communities they programme in, making them best placed to provide culturally- and contextually-appropriate input. Abooli (2019) found that by leveraging field workers' perception-based input and feedback, curricula designers/developers can revise them in a manner that still achieves the intended outcomes, while giving field workers greater agency to contribute to their design, adaptation and delivery. According to Abooli (2019), cultural sensitivity and awareness should not be the sole responsibility of field workers, however. One of the study respondents stated that, "It's important that people that design the curriculum have experiences on the ground that are similar to that in order to avoid situations where designers come in and say, 'This is what you do'" (Abooli, 2019: 212). This respondent emphasised that some sections of certain

curricula can use the same approach from external programme sites (domestically or internationally) without too much attention being paid to individual contexts, however other sections necessitate that, “enough pre-work be been done with the people that are going to be involved in the training and implementation, particularly field workers, to understand context, to have them involved as programme implementers” (Aboali, 2019: 212).

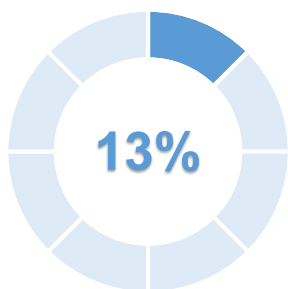
5.7.1.9. Coaching and mentorship

Two of the eight respondents from this study had benefited from non-structured informal coaching and mentoring from colleagues who were in more senior positions than them. Desimone, Hochberg, Porter, Polikoff, Schwartz and Johnson (2014) distinguished between formal and informal mentorship, describing formal mentorship as a well-structured training and development intervention within an organisation, and a mentee who is assigned to a mentor over a specific period of time. On the contrary, with informal mentorship, mentors and duties are not assigned by the organisation. Becker and Bish (2017) found that having a mentor, even if only informally, was seen as a powerful way to use those with more experience as a source of knowledge and exposure.

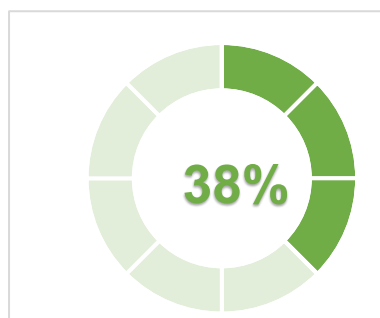
It was on this basis that two of the respondents suggested that field workers should be exposed to development opportunities through coaching and mentoring within their organisation by being allocated mentors. Trudel et al. (2010) recommended that mentors integrate a democratic exploratory coaching style when working with field workers as mentees. This style has shown evidence of providing meaningful learning experiences and development opportunities, as opposed to the ‘top down’ mentorship style.

5.7.2. Training and development interventions related to personal development

Graphs 5.35 and 5.36 provide an overview of the training and development interventions related to personal development that the respondents considered important for field workers in the SDP sector in South Africa.



Graph 5.35: Leadership Development



Graph 5.36: Financial Literacy and Entrepreneurship

5.7.2.1. Leadership and management development programmes

In this study, where it was found that the leadership and management development of field workers is not a priority as only one of the respondents had participated in leadership development training, one respondent suggested that organisations should deliberately afford field workers opportunities to partake in leadership and management development programmes. They argued that these could equip them with critical skills and place them in a position where they are in capable of filling up supervisory and management vacancies within the SDP sector. This assertion was also stated by Armstrong and Sadler-Smith (2008), who suggested that in an environment that is continuously evolving, it is in the best interests of SDP organisations to ensure they identify effective ways to develop and enhance the leadership and management skills and capabilities of their staff at all levels. According to Cunningham (2012), leadership and management development programmes are a popular and widely accepted means to ensure organisations keep leadership and management competencies relevant. This is crucial not only for SDP organisations, but the field workers will also benefit from improved effectiveness.

Given the importance of developing field workers' leadership and management capacity, there is thus a need to consider strategically appropriate approaches to designing learning interventions. Respondents in a study by Shin et al. (2020) suggested that SDP organisations need to prioritise leadership and management training for new and continuing field workers. These respondents believed that strengthening and expanding the SDP sector, both horizontally (network among new leaders) and vertically (younger and newer leadership), could start with leadership and management training and development.

5.7.2.2. Entrepreneurship training

Three of the respondents to this study were of the view that field workers in the SDP sector should be supported to acquire skills that would enable them to manage their finances (financial literacy) and start and run their own businesses (entrepreneurship). This is consistent with a finding from a study by Shin et al. (2020), where the interviewees advised SDP field workers to develop social entrepreneurship and business skills. These interviewees not only saw entrepreneurship training as potentially contributing to the eventual independence of field workers, but they also highlighted social entrepreneurship as being an important skill set for practitioners (McSweeney, 2020).

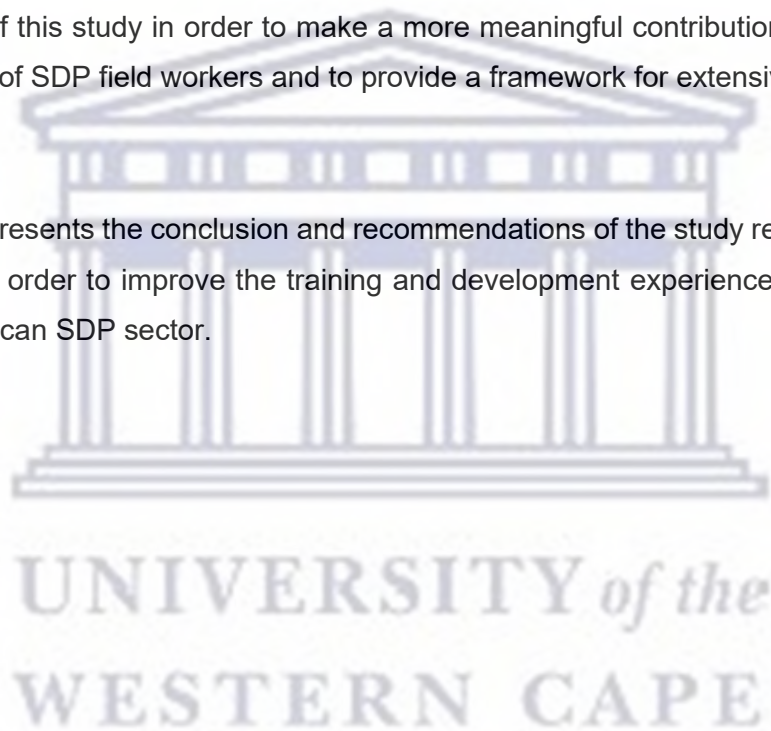
5.8. Conclusion

In this chapter, the findings were interpreted and explained in conjunction with the literature reviewed. Based on the analysis of the findings of the study and with the support of the literature, this chapter discussed formal, non-formal and informal learning experiences and

opportunities, as well as the perceived benefits derived from these opportunities. The analysis of this study's findings confirmed that different types of learning opportunities are offered to field workers in the South African SDP sector. Based on the study respondents' experiences, these training, development and learning opportunities are offered in different forms and settings, and are geared towards improving field workers' skills, knowledge and instructional practices, as well as to foster their personal and professional development. The chapter also discussed field workers' experiences in relation to training and development within their respective SDP organisations and their suggested training and development interventions for SDP field workers.

The purpose of examining previous research was to compare it with the findings and discussions of this study in order to make a more meaningful contribution to the training and development of SDP field workers and to provide a framework for extensive research into this field.

Chapter Six presents the conclusion and recommendations of the study regarding what needs to be done in order to improve the training and development experiences of field workers in the South African SDP sector.



CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Introduction

The purpose of this study was to collect data that clarifies what training and development opportunities field workers are exposed to through their respective SDP organisations. The study further sought to determine the field workers' personal experiences and what they perceive the benefits of these opportunities to be in terms of building their capacities – not just as coaches, facilitators and/or coordinators (field workers), but also as practitioners in the SDP sector at large.

The stated research objectives of the study were to:

- determine the training and development opportunities that are offered to coaches, facilitators and coordinators implementing SDP activities;
- explore the personal experiences of field workers in relation to training and development within the SDP sector;
- identify good practices in the training and development of field workers in the SDP sector; and
- contribute to the improvement of the training and development of field workers within the SDP sector in South Africa.

Qualitative research was utilised as the methodology and purposive sampling was employed to identify participants for this study. To collect data, semi-structured interviews were used with the researcher relying on storytelling to collect rich data. The data were analysed and categorised into broad categories, and themes were subsequently identified to form the basis of rich descriptions in the results and discussion chapter.

6.2. Conclusions

Several scholars have highlighted how the effectiveness of NGO programming is in many ways dependent on the quality of its field workers. In a sector where training, development and exposure to varying learning opportunities is generally recognised as an effective means of enhancing field workers' knowledge and capabilities (Farber, 2001), their engagement with a basket of learning opportunities throughout their careers will be useful for their professional and personal development (Allen and Reid, 2019; Coalter, 2010).

The SDP literature differentiates between non-formal, informal and formal learning (Clutterbuck and Doherty, 2019), with formal and non-formal learning being similar in many ways, especially in their delivery. Informal learning, on the other hand, is more distinct (Donitsa-Schmidt and Zuzovsky, 2020), as learning occurs spontaneously in everyday settings, rather than deriving from planned exercises (García-Peñalvo and Conde, 2013). Although informal

learning has been found to be the likeliest to enhance a field worker's capacity, this does not necessarily mean that formal and non-formal learning activities, like participation in trainings, workshops or courses, are less important. This was confirmed by the findings of this study, which found that, according to the respondents, there is a bias and preference by SDP organisations towards non-formal training and development interventions. A possible reason for the predominance of non-formal learning in the SDP sector in South Africa is that as an NGO-dominated sector, which is largely dependent on donors, funders and partners, there are less discretionary funds for organisations to spend on non-programmatic or "non-core programme" activities. If true, then this would not necessarily be a South African phenomenon, as Svensson et al. (2017) previously found that many SDP organisations in other parts of the world generally face challenges to meaningfully develop staff capacity as they are highly resource-dependent. In addition, Donitsa-Schmidt and Zuzovsky (2020) noted that non-formal learning opportunities are more relevant and responsive to the immediate needs of field workers in their daily duties, such as those learning interventions that have been developed to improve pedagogical instruction skills.

Given that all the respondents of this study identified multiple training and development interventions that are not necessarily SDP-specific as being important to them, the study further found that the field workers see their roles as being more than strictly technical. This finding confirms that training and development geared towards professional and personal development is highly desired, sought after, and appreciated by, SDP field workers.

6.3. Summary of key findings

The findings of this study confirm that the training and development of SDP field workers in South Africa involve a range of learning opportunities that take place through several avenues, including formal, informal and non-formal learning. However, in a sector where SDP organisations are competing for donor funding, resources and partnerships, relevant in-house and job-specific non-formal learning opportunities that are intended for the acquisition of knowledge and improvement of pedagogical skills and practices were found to be the most widely offered training and development opportunities for SDP field workers.

The study also found that the predominance of non-formal learning has led to insufficient formal training and development opportunities. Some studies have attributed this to budgets (or a lack thereof), which stems from the non-prioritisation and/or inability of SDP organisations to adequately fundraise for training and development. Some scholars have linked this to SDP leaders having a lack of business acumen, skills and/or the relevant education required to effectively lead in the non-profit sector. This assertion was highlighted in a study by Shin et al. (2020), where the respondents placed strong emphasis on financial resources and sustaining

financial capacity as a means to build sustainability and facilitate the longevity of their organisations and programmes. According to Shin et al. (2020), this finding demonstrates that SDP practitioners generally understand the concept of sustainability in a less complex way than the more multi-faceted concept employed by scholars. Inevitably, and as confirmed by the findings of this study, management development or the training for upward career mobility of field workers in the sector at large lies at the periphery of many SDP organisations' priorities.

Finally, the study found that there does not seem to be a full appreciation of what informal learning can offer to field workers in the SDP sector. Despite informal learning opportunities being: (1) strongly credited for their ability to develop situation-specific competencies in the workplace setting; (2) linked to the process of bring practical knowledge to the fore (Marsick and Watkins, 2015), and (3) possibly the least costly of the learning practices, it seems to have the least developmental opportunities for field workers.

6.4. Recommendations

The NGO-dominated SDP sector finds itself facing a plethora of challenges, which are often complex and dynamic. At the forefront of this are the contextual external factors which continuously change the "playing field", such as globalisation, decentralisation, networking and technological advancements (VanSant, 2003). In this changing environment, SDP organisations have to increase their learning capability and capacity.

A study by Clutterbuck and Doherty (2019) found that training and development are among the most important capacity elements that impact the ability of any organisation to achieve its primary SDP mandate. This finding reminds us that SDP organisations are highly dependent on a competent and capable workforce to maintain and build on their programmatic and organisational success. They must, therefore, attract and retain their field workers by offering training, development and career opportunities. This will be achieved by offering them a variety of learning opportunities, particularly formal and informal ones.

With the intention of contributing to the training and development of field workers within the SDP sector in South Africa, the researcher makes the following recommendations:

6.4.1. Promote and support formal learning

Non-formal learning opportunities improve a field workers' programme-related knowledge, pedagogical skills and general competences in the SDP sector. Stangl (2017) described competences as skills that can be learned and cognitively anchored, adding that they are knowledge-based skills and abilities with the sole aim of successfully accomplishing tasks and requirements in everyday and professional situations. This definition raises questions of

whether non-formal learning and its related competences can sufficiently contribute to the strategic, administrative, operational and leadership competences and skill sets that increase field workers' employability and their prospects of upward career mobility within the SDP sector. These competences are generally acquired through formal training, which not only offers accredited certification (academic or vocational), but also allows for the acquisition of both hard skills (job specific) and soft skills (life skills). According to Garrouste (2011: 9), these are the skills that "enable individuals to progress towards or enter into employment, stay in employment and progress during their career".

Sack and Allen (2019) suggested that employers should be offering training and development programmes that include relevant formal learning opportunities (qualifications, certifications and/or credentials) that align with sector demands. There is sufficient evidence that formal credentials and certifications increase individuals' career prospects and employability (Briggs, 2018), i.e., they would improve field workers' prospects of being considered when applying for more senior positions in their organisations or the SDP sector at large. This is particularly important as it is common practice globally among SDP organisations to employ decision makers and technical experts with some sort of academic or vocational qualification as a minimum requirement.

The first recommendation of this study is thus that SDP organisations should promote, encourage and support formal learning as a means to enhance field workers' capacity and employability in the sector. If the SDP sector wants to be seen to be training and developing field workers adequately and meaningfully, formal learning opportunities should be promoted and supported by SDP organisations from the moment field workers enter the sector. This is consistent with the findings of a study by Donitsa-Schmidt and Zuzovsky (2020), which found formal learning to be the most important type of learning in the early years of field workers' careers, as it increases their chances of being promoted to a more senior position. Participation in formal training should not be a challenge, as the desire for formal learning opportunities to augment and complement informal and non-formal learning is there (Becker and Bish, 2017). What is important is that organisations make these available to field workers. Finally, Choi and Jacobs (2011) reminded us that from a learning design perspective, formal learning can improve a field worker's capacity and aptitude to learn from informal learning opportunities and further assist with the incorporation and augmentation of these learnings with those acquired through formal opportunities.

6.4.2. Make accredited facilitator training mandatory

The researcher recommends that the SDP sector in South Africa make an accredited facilitators course a minimum mandatory requirement for any field worker before they are

allowed to facilitate programmes. As SDP facilitation is not lecture-based, facilitation courses will capacitate field workers in effective sport and development pedagogies, as well as the Teaching Personal and Social Responsibility (TPSR) instructional model. This will give them the ability and confidence to innovate by testing facilitation approaches and learning about what works and what does not work at different programme sites. In essence, TPSR is an empowerment-based approach that allows programme implementers (e.g., SDP field workers) to use sport as a vehicle for teaching values and life skills that can be applied in other settings. There is sufficient evidence that indicates that well-implemented TPSR training programmes can create positive learning environments and foster responsibility in a programme setting (Wright et al., 2018), with TPSR having been successfully applied in many different cultural contexts (Jung and Wright, 2012).

Irrespective of the model adopted to implement SDP programmes that will lead to behavioural change amongst programme beneficiaries, it is crucial that field workers appreciate that culturally and contextually meaningful ways to dialogue and express opinions is key to secure engagement (Everley, 2020), with appropriate pedagogical and facilitation strategies that reflect the broader outcomes that SDP is hoping to achieve (Spaaij and Jeanes, 2013).

6.4.3. Formalise and institutionalise informal learning

According to Kennedy (2014), formal and non-formal learning are a reflection of traditional transmissive views of field workers' professional development, i.e., treating field workers as passive recipients of knowledge, information and skills. In the transmissive model of pedagogy, the knowledge that is delivered to students remains in the firm control of the teacher, and acquisition of this knowledge is demonstrated through some form of testing (Fraser, Kennedy, Reid and McKinney, 2007). This study found that this was the case in eight of the 10 learning opportunities that the respondents of this study benefitted from.

On the other hand, informal learning is aligned more with the transformative view of professional development. In the transformative view, field workers are seen as reflective SDP practitioners who are independent and self-directed learners who create their own personal practical knowledge and are continuously learning from their own experiences, whilst seeking to improve by learning from colleagues (Fraser, Kennedy, Reid and McKinney, 2007). Based on this, as well as the fact that only three of the respondents indicated they had benefitted from informal training and development opportunities and only identified two interventions, the researcher recommends that SDP organisations change the status quo to formal learning and work towards formalising and institutionalising informal learning as part of their organisational training and development programmes. This will provide opportunities for the development of vital skills that would complement those that field workers will and/or would already have

acquired through formal and non-formal learning opportunities. There is sufficient research that supports this view, i.e., that much learning occurs via informal routes, starting from the early stages of career development (McCormack, Gore and Thomas, 2006).

With the findings of this study indicating that informal learning is the least used training and development approach for field workers in the SD4 sector, the researcher urges SDP organisations not to consider informal learning as less important. Becker and Bish (2017) argued that informal learning cannot simply be left to chance; SDP organisations should rather be deliberate in formalising and institutionalising it by using it strategically in conjunction with formal and non-formal learning, in order to derive the most benefit from these opportunities. This will require intent and support, coupled with processes that facilitate opportunities for this learning to take place. The formalisation and institutionalisation of informal learning will require SDP organisations to customise the learning and development of individual field workers, especially as informal learning is considered to be tailored to an individual and can be accessed at a point in an individual's development that is timely, and the learnings immediately applied.

Finally, as only two of the respondents had benefited from some form of coaching or mentoring by peers and/or someone more senior than them within their organisations, it is recommended that in formalising and institutionalising informal learning, every SDP organisation should have a programme that offers field workers mentoring opportunities. This will provide them with direct guidance from more experienced SDP practitioners, whether through formal/structured mentoring relationships or informal mentoring approaches.

6.4.4. Develop a training and development plan

The findings of this study confirm that training and development opportunities are indeed being provided to field workers in the SDP sector in South Africa. A long-standing view of Wayne, Shore and Linden (1997) is that participation in different learning opportunities is regarded by field workers as a benefit, which could be a catalyst for individuals to reciprocate through increased levels of commitment, loyalty and effort, both in terms of in-role and extra-role performance. This is consistent with the organisational support theory, which suggests that when they perceive they are a beneficiary of favourable treatment by their organisation, employees feel obliged to reciprocate positively. This social exchange mechanism has been used to justify and account for positive behavioural and attitudinal shifts specifically associated with the provision of training and development (Pajo, et al., 2010). It is thus vital that SDP organisations fully appreciate the value of their human capital, the benefits of field workers' professional development, and the need for proper and deliberate planning for their training

and development. This practice and approach have been found to have a positive impact on employee motivation and work performance (Akingbola, 2013).

The researcher thus urges South African SDP organisations to not be responsible for what one of the respondents described as “poor planning”, leading to ad hoc training practices. In this day and age, it is unacceptable that field workers, or any employees for that matter, are regularly exposed to learning opportunities that are accidental or experimental. It is for this reason that it is recommended that SDP organisations invest in the development of training and development plans that are not just task-orientated, but rather designed to move field workers towards upward career mobility within the organisation and the SDP sector.

In developing a training plan, the first step is for SDP organisations to identify and assess the training and development needs of their field workers. To achieve this, Becker and Bish (2017) noted that organisations must invest in the development of “infrastructure” around learning and development that allows for field workers to be able to identify and access the most appropriate opportunities for their learning needs. This may include the use of performance management instruments or processes to identify learning and development needs, thereby allowing the SDP organisations to respond to both collective and individual training and development needs.

With the findings of this study having identified non-formal training opportunities as being predominant in the South African SDP sector, the ability of organisations to offer the relevant non-formal opportunities is key. This can be achieved through the adequate identification and assessment of field workers’ training and development needs, which should inform the types of non-formal training interventions to be included in the organisational training and development plan.

Finally, SDP training plans should factor in and incorporate the re-training of field workers. The findings of this study confirm that only two of the respondents had benefited from re-training, which was related to programme curriculum. It is thus recommended that SDP organisations formalise this practice into their training and development plans, as that will create a culture where the field workers are obliged, yet feel encouraged, to participate in the various forms of re-training. The intention will be to strengthen approaches to teaching life skills, regardless of their years of experience.

6.4.5. Institutionalise leadership and management development

SDP organisations need to have practitioners, especially field workers, who are capable, have capacity and are provided with opportunities to take the baton and occupy senior positions that

become vacant within their organisations. The all-inclusive implementation of a good succession plan positions any SDP organisation to be able to continue being efficient and relevant, even with the emergence of a new breed of SDP practitioners who need to take up leadership and management positions in the sector. Therefore, SDP organisations' ability to be forward looking and deliberate when it comes to issues of succession planning will contribute to their longevity, as being blasé about it could be catastrophic and lead to an organisation having compromised leadership, or having to repeatedly import talent for senior positions.

It is also recommended that SDP organisations be deliberate about institutionalising leadership and management development, especially for field workers. Leadership and management should not be seen as innate, but rather should be considered a skill that SDP organisations approach as they do any other skill that can be learned, developed and maximised. This, along with the promotion and support of formal learning, as well as the institutionalisation of informal opportunities, will contribute to ensuring that the SDP sector does not find itself with inadequate (or untrained) and unqualified (or underqualified) personnel in positions of influence, decision making and/or programme implementation.

Ndlovu (2016) highlighted that historically, leadership and management development programmes have focused on the diffusion of best practices whilst targeting the acquisition of specific skills and competencies (McCleskey, 2014). For example, such programmes target social competencies, self-management strategies and work facilitation (Day, 2009). Bass (2008) warned that leadership and management development programmes should not only emphasis specific, narrow skills, but equally ensure that budding leaders are beneficiaries of skills and competency training aimed at developing their task-orientated or relational skill deficits.

The institutionalisation of leadership and management development in SDP organisations will expand field workers' horizons and enhance their understanding of the relevance and role of leaders and managers in today's SDP sector. Participation in a leadership and management development and/or skills programme could provide field workers with opportunities to immerse themselves in the latest thinking about best practice in leadership and management, and provide them with the necessary personal and professional tools to strengthen their effectiveness as SDP practitioners.

6.4.6. Create an enabling environment and encourage innovation

This study highlights that there is a strong perception that SDP organisations are not providing sufficient and/or equal and fair opportunities for all field workers to benefit from training and

development opportunities. This has led to some of the respondents being despondent and unmotivated. This is concerning, as the availability of training and development opportunities is one thing, but equally important is the availability and willingness of individuals to participate and engage in learning (Rynne, Mallett and Tinning, 2006). The reasons for the perceived unfairness were not in the scope of this study, however, van der Klink et al. (2014) found that different organisational and employee context factors may impact employees' participation in various learning activities. The willingness to participate in learning opportunities may be dependent on field workers identifying the value of learning and possessing a readiness to learn (Knowles, 1980); perceived benefits; career trajectory; what he or she may already know (Rynne, Mallett and Tinning, 2006); manager/supervisor support; and workplace norms regarding innovation (Bates, 2007).

It is recommended that SDP organisations be intentional in creating environments and a culture where field workers not only want to participate in organisational training and development interventions, but are also provided opportunities and encouraged to innovate and experiment with newly acquired knowledge, skills and approaches. This requires SDP organisations to transform towards being learning organisations where field workers are supported to optimise the benefits of training and development by entrenching organisational structures and practices that promote, encourage and enforce newly acquired learning. SDP organisations must therefore be employers where: (1) training and development policies that guide participation and expectations are explicit, transparent and applied consistently; (2) training and development is geared towards both professional and personal development (upward career and social mobility); (3) field workers who are able and willing to use their training are prioritised for new assignments; (4) job aids (resources or technology) are made available to support what field workers have learnt in training; and (5) the use of learning on the job is supported.

6.4.7. Context-sensitive curricula and training

Knowing “what’s going on” and “what works” for different groups, cultures and communities is known as understanding a particular context. According to two of the study respondents, this is not always fully appreciated in their organisations. According to them, some of their programme curricula and the subsequent training and development practices related to the curricula are at times contextually irrelevant and not always responsive to the needs of their heterogeneous communities. Clutterbuck and Doherty (2019) stressed that a full understanding of the development issues, societal matters and contexts of different communities is a prerequisite for any SDP NGO. An understanding and appreciation of the local culture, the unique needs of the intended programme beneficiaries, the organisation’s development objectives, and field workers’ experience working in (or being from) the targeted

community were found by Clutterbuck and Doherty (2019) to be contextual factors that must be accounted for when designing SDP curricula.

Abooali (2019) referred to “context” as cultural awareness and identified it as the “critical piece” that enables curriculum designers to develop curricula which are context-sensitive whilst also resonating with programme beneficiaries from different communities. According to Abooali (2019), the context-sensitive curricula should be flexible enough to be adjusted to the specific and constantly changing needs of individual communities. As communities, even in the same geographic boundaries, are not homogeneous, certain components of SDP curricula should be designed to be emphasised or de-emphasised according to the programme site. This, according to Spaaij and Jeanes (2013), requires local input and connections to the local context, as that allows for curricula that emerge from and respond to each specific community in which delivery is intended.

It is recommended that each programme site be given specific attention according to their needs, because challenges at sites, especially when they cross municipal and provincial borders, are different. The study thus maintains that centrally developed curricula will not necessarily be equally impactful across all communities, cultures, races etc. in South Africa. In appreciating the cultural heterogeneity of South African society, it is further recommended that SDP organisations prioritise the contextualisation and quality of field worker training, as the researcher has identified these to be key for the potential success of any SDP programme. The general objective of field worker training is for content be understood, embraced and implemented (Wright, Jacobs, Howell and Ressler, 2018), however, just as with context-sensitive curricula, field workers need to be exposed to context-dependent learning where they are able to acquire skills to be adaptable and flexible in their programme implementation. This approach is supported by van der Veken et al. (2021), who emphasised the ability of field workers to constantly adapt to contexts by demonstrating flexibility and the hybridity suitable to the environments they are programming in. Flexibility, according to Abooali (2019), also means allowing for field workers to infuse their local knowledge, be agile and responsive to changes in the environment, and incorporate their own context-responsive ways of facilitating into their programme delivery.

Finally, it is recommended that organisations contextualise non-formal and informal training and development interventions (including the training material) to meet the collective and individual needs and abilities of their field workers. This requires versatile training curricula and approaches that can create meaningful learning experiences across several levels of competency. This could mean diversifying teaching methods to utilising approaches such as films, case studies and scenario-based group work to assist in the learning process.

6.4.8. Curriculum development/contextualisation training

This study found that exposure to, and training on, curriculum development and/or contextualisation is considered an important intervention among field workers. One of the respondents suggested that a training related to this would provide field workers with basic knowledge and skills of the curriculum development process, and further capacitate them to be able to support in the contextualisation of curricula once developed. This finding is consistent with Abooli (2019), who found that the best way to ensure context-sensitive and appropriate curricula in SDP interventions is to provide field workers with a degree of agency in the co-designing of curricula. This comes as no surprise, as field workers generally have cultural awareness and a better understanding of their local contexts. As one respondent in Abooli's study believed, field workers have a better sense of the specific needs of the intended beneficiaries in the various programme sites, as well as what activities and approaches best serve them. If appreciated by SDP organisations, this could be useful to curriculum designers.

Abooli (2019) highlighted a good practice, where curriculum design protocols are designed to give field workers a voice in determining the curriculum content, structure and approach. This is an example of an SDP organisation that is non-hierarchical in their process of designing curricula, making their model and approach adaptable to local contexts and giving field workers the power to make inputs directly. At times, and in other organisations, field workers also play a role in reviewing and revising curricula (Abooli, 2019). This is another good practice, as field workers are best placed and have a unique understanding of what programme beneficiaries experience, what works, and how they respond to the curriculum on a day-to-day basis.

The researcher recommends that SDP organisations in South Africa invest in capacitating field workers to be able to meaningfully contribute to curriculum development and/or the contextualisation process. This could be achieved by training and supporting field workers so they can play a key role and influence the development and/or finalisation of SDP curricula before they are implemented at programme sites. This recommendation will be effective if the support afforded to field workers is meaningful and their input is not dismissed or downplayed. As Abooli (2019) found, the contextualisation process might at times require negotiation between the curriculum designers and the field workers as the curriculum implementers.

6.4.9. Expand fundraising and partnership scope

The sustainability of many (if not all) SDP NGOs is reliant on funders, donors and/or partnerships, where these organisations are beneficiaries of philanthropic donations, grants and/or funding contributions for programme implementation. SDP organisations therefore invest a lot of time and resources towards fundraising by engaging many potential donors and

partners in an effort to forge or strengthen relationships. Due to the plethora of SDP organisations in South Africa, the funding space is highly contested, which has resulted in an increased need for programme visibility, evidence-based programming, impact and the professionalisation of SDP organisations. This is not a new phenomenon, as scholars such as Smillie (1995) argued that increased competition for funding has pushed NGOs to professionalise, necessitating highly skilled employees, especially on the fundraising front.

In a sector where field workers are generally young people, it is recommended that SDP organisations expand their fundraising efforts to go beyond purely programme implementation and programme management, as there is a need to strengthen fundraising efforts towards the training and development of field workers too. SDP fundraisers need to be proactive and deliberate in exploring funding or partnerships where field workers could benefit from leadership development, employability, empowerment and skills development opportunities. This could include internships, learnerships, scholarships, accredited skills programmes or any other learning opportunity that aims to increase their employability within their organisation and in the SDP sector at large.

In many SDP NGOs, human resources management is generally less developed, meaning they have less resources for field worker development initiatives. For these organisations, mobilising funds, forging partnerships and establishing adequate training and development infrastructure is likely perceived to be too time consuming and resource intensive (PriceWaterhouseCoopers, 2018). This results in them maintaining the status quo and reproducing the same interventions, with organisations lacking the ability to support their field workers to reach their full potential and meet their employment-related objectives (Warner, Robinson, Heal, Lloyd, O'Connell and Rose, 2020).

In a sector where collaborative partnership approaches are typically underutilised and skills development programmes are generally being rolled out in isolation by government, private sector and civil society, it is recommended that SDP organisations expand their fundraising and partnerships scope beyond just monetary funding and/or solely funding recipients for programme implementation; there is a need to forge collaborative partnerships that will contribute to strengthening, scaling up and improving the meaningful training and development of field workers. SDP organisations could benefit from collaborative partnerships and private-sector funding, as the private sector is instrumental in supporting the design, development and implementation of skills development programmes. Such collaborative partnerships are also supported by the United Nations (UN), where education, training and upskilling programmes for young people have been the backbone of the organisation through the International Labour Organization (ILO) and the World Bank since 2000 (Freedman 2005). Partnerships with

vocational skills training organisations and private companies could also benefit SDP organisations, as they are key in supporting the identification of market and labour trends, thus ensuring that training and development programmes are responsive to the market's needs. This is important as literature on youth aspirations has highlighted that many youth perceive their skills to be mismatched with their jobs in terms of education, skills and aspirations (Barford, Coombe and Proefke, 2021). According to Nordman and Pasquier-Doumer (2014), formal training, especially vocational training, could be helpful in addressing skill mismatches.

6.4.10. Monitoring and evaluation of training and development

The findings of this study indicate that there is some level of commitment and investment by SDP organisations in South Africa towards the training and development of field workers as their exposure and participation in various learning opportunities is not uncommon. In recommending the formalisation and institutionalization of continuous learning through training and development, the researcher recommends that SDP organisations develop systematic programmes for the monitoring and evaluation of the training and development of sport-for-development and peace practitioners. According to Coalter et al., Monitoring is the “systematic, collection and analysis of information related to a planned and agreed programme of action”. (Coalter et al., 2021:13). Coalter et al. further describe evaluation as the “process of undertaking a systematic and objective examination of monitoring information in order to make judgements based on agreed criteria (e.g., specified outcomes)”. (Coalter et al., 2021:13). M&E should be an integral part of designing and implementing training and development interventions for field workers. Together, monitoring and evaluation enable SDP organisations to measure and evaluate if, and to what extent, training and development interventions are meeting its intended goals. Therefore, by adopting robust M&E systems, SDP organisations will be able to assess the quality and impact of their work by systematically determining and measuring change, and understand if, and how, change has occurred from field workers engagement in training and development opportunities. This could include measuring any changes in knowledge, attitudes and communication, improved capacity and competences.

Further to this, the development of M&E frameworks and associated tools that are fit for purpose, will lead to the strengthening of the design of training and development interventions, and the setting of appropriate learning outcomes. Finally, the M&E functions should support and inform policy and training and development practices. It should also be sensitive to the various levels of the organisation and generate information and knowledge for continuous improvement. It is anticipated by the researcher that the results on a meaningful M&E exercise will provide important lessons of experience that will require reflection, learning and the consideration of improved practices.

6.5. Implications of this research

This study is significant given that the SDP sector continues to advance and attract the attention of various other sectors, including the government, private sector, civil society and international development organisations in South Africa. It is thus in the best interests of the SDP sector that it entices, capacitates and retains a workforce that not only conceptualises, but also delivers, quality, contextually relevant and sustainable programmes through sustained capacity building. This study aimed to add to the existing body of knowledge and address a gap in the literature by using a pragmatic approach to determine the first-hand experiences of the training and development practices of field workers in the South African SDP sector. This is an important contribution as field workers' experiences should inform individual organisations and the sector at large what works, what does not work, what can contribute to the training and development of field workers, and ultimately what can contribute towards a more competent workforce and the credibility of the sector.

What the findings of this study indicate is that SDP organisations in South Africa are generally not spaces where tacit or explicit social integration contracts, in which training and development opportunities offer serious professional perspectives for field workers, exist. This calls for the reconfiguration of many SDP organisations' training practices, approaches, policies and general human resource management strategies.

6.6. Limitations of the study

While this research makes a meaningful contribution in assisting the SDP sector to better understand the training and development opportunities being offered to field workers, there are significant limitations. In a country where the SDP sector is thriving and SDP organisations (international, national and community) are plentiful, the first, and arguably most significant limitation, is the study's small sample size. Data from two organisations limits the study's ability to make sector-wide generalisations about the training and development practices and experiences of field workers. The findings of this study are therefore not necessarily a reflection of the state of training and development in other SDP organisations but are restricted to the two organisations where the data were collected from. Generalisability is therefore restricted by the context in which this study was conducted. However, through this exercise of exploring the training and development of SDP field workers in South Africa using a case study of field workers' experiences from two organisations, the researcher is confident that the findings provide transferable conclusions for the improvement of training and development in the SDP sector. Organisations will also be encouraged to use the findings and recommendations to inform their own training and development practices, approaches, policies and general human resource management strategies.

Another limitation of this study is the homogeneity of the sample. Due to the diversity and differences in the social, cultural and geographic settings that SDP programming across SA, it was challenging to conduct the study with field workers from organisations across all the different cultural, social and geographical scenes for this study meaning that it is difficult to accurately generalise about what is learned in one cultural setting to another cultural setting. Therefore, the sample of this study was relatively homogenous in terms of the type and socio-economic status of SDP organisation they were employed by. Therefore, the researcher cannot generalise the findings of his study about the training and development of SDP Practitioners to all other SDP organisations in South Africa because organisational social contexts and capacity differ vastly. It is therefore important to stress that the findings of this study are not necessarily a reflection of the state of training and development of SDP practitioners in South Africa but are strictly restricted to the two organisations that participated. Generalisability is therefore restricted by the context in which this study was conducted.

The final limitation is the fact that data were collected from field workers only. Future studies may include several perspectives across various levels of SDP organisations to gain richer insight into field workers' training and development practices, approaches and policies in the SDP sector in South Africa.

6.7. Suggestions for future studies

The International Platform on Sport and Development lists over 950 registered NGOs in the SDP sector globally, which is an increase of 439.8% from the 176 NGOs that were registered in 2019 (Whitley et al., 2019). Furthermore, the increase in academic journals on SDP topics, coupled with the rise of academic programmes and massive open online courses (MOOC) such as the Sport for Sustainable Development: Designing effective policies and programmes offered by the International Platform on Sport and Development (sportanddev), is an indication of the increased popularity and growth of SDP as a legitimate and valuable field of study (Aboali, 2019). This increase in SDP initiatives, as well as research efforts dedicated to advancing scholarship of SDP, point to the sustained appeal of sport and strong investment in exploring the potential of how communities at large (including field workers) can be developed through sport-based initiatives. This presents both a research need and an opportunity, as several areas remain for investigation. Among these is the need to better understand if and how organisational training and development contributes to field worker career advancement in the SDP sector. The fact that field workers are involved in various types of learning does not show the effect that different types of learning have on their career advancement.

6.8. Conclusion

The data collected and subsequent findings of this study show that the training and development of field workers is not a foreign concept, as SDP organisations are providing various opportunities to field workers. What the study found is that most of the opportunities are designed to strengthen programme implementation in line with organisational goals. This is consistent with Abooli (2019), who found that generally, training interventions are designed to provide field workers with the capacity and resources to enhance their understanding of their organisation's goals, as well as the knowledge to meaningfully connect with their programme beneficiaries. A recent position paper stressed the importance of this intentional support for field workers by having organisations intentionally facilitate positive development (life skills) among programme beneficiaries (Kramers et al., 2020). This is especially important in the SDP sector as less experienced field workers, especially those who are new to the sector, may be unaware of their role in teaching life skills or may be ill-equipped to explicitly teach life skills through sport (Camire, 2014).

However, as much as pedagogical training geared towards strengthening programme implementation is necessary, this study found is that there is a need for SDP organisations to additionally identify the holistic development needs of field workers and provide relevant and appropriate training and development support to facilitate that process. This has been a long-held view by many scholars such as Spivak (1988), who over three decades ago suggested that sport and development organisations need to provide more than technical and didactic instruction to foster meaningful change. This, as Chang (2005) suggested, calls for more sophisticated and well-designed training and development programmes. At the turn of the century, Farber (2001) found that well-designed training and development programmes have the potential to benefit not just the field workers but also their organisations, with the perceived benefits of training and development also potentially affecting field worker recruitment, retention, performance quality, personal growth and a generally motivated workforce. This was the same view that Scott and Caldwell (1996) held as strong advocates of the training and development of field workers. as well as recognising their achievements. Everyone values being appreciated and this can only improve the productivity, motivation and satisfaction of field workers. This is especially true for smaller organisations, where it can be argued that the scope for development and career advancement may be perceived as being less appealing (Marlow, 2000).

Despite the distinction between formal, non-formal and informal learning, it is imperative to recognise that these different approaches do not necessarily lead to different skills, competences or types of knowledge. According to the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP), the differences between them are related to the setting in

which they occur, whether (or not) they are structured, if they have explicit objectives and outcomes, and the intentionality of the learner (European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, 2009). Becker and Bish (2017) argued for the effective combination of all three learning approaches, which is supported by this researcher as there is opportunity and relevance for each approach within SDP organisations.

Despite being non-credit bearing, non-formal opportunities allow for learning that is ongoing, highly diverse and extensive. This study, however, calls for increased recognition and appreciation of the value of informal learning opportunities to be offered to field workers by SDP organisations.

Although less structured, informal approaches are a 'low-hanging fruit' and can be an 'easy win' for any SDP organisation. Becker and Bish (2017) highlighted that if strategically managed, informal learning opportunities can offer powerful ways to tailor learning opportunities for field workers to complement non-formal learning opportunities.

Finally, previous research has found formal learning to be the most important type of learning in a field workers' career. There is evidence that participation in learning opportunities, such as traditional formal education (e.g., tertiary education) and/or accredited short courses, increases a field worker's chance of being promoted to a supervisory or leadership position. Most importantly, field workers' exposure to such opportunities will ensure that the SDP sector develops and maintains an adequately trained and qualified workforce that can emerge into positions of influence, decision making and/or programme implementation within the sport, development and peace sector.

In closing, van der Veken, Lauwerier and Willems (2020) remind us that field workers harbour expectations of becoming more employable within the SDP or other sectors. Even though it is standard practice to earn a stipend in the South African SDP sector, this study found that field workers are also looking to gain access to resources for personal development, and yearn for opportunities for meaningful learning and growth in the hope of securing decent employment to earn a living wage. It is thus imperative that in SDP organisations' training and development plans, they remember the five key factors that are essential to accelerating a young person's path to employment: (1) people and leadership skills; (2) formal qualifications; (3) practical job application skills; (4) relevant experience; and (5) access to networks (PriceWaterhouseCooper, 2018). These factors, according to Sack and Allen (2019), establish a framework for youth employment training that is supported by a range of literature in the SDP field.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Interview questions and interview schedule

Research Instrument

Interview questions and interview schedule:

1. What are the formal and informal trainings and development opportunities offered to you as a field worker by your organisation? Please name and elaborate on them.
2. In your opinion, are the trainings offered helpful for you personally and for your organisation's programme generally? How so or why not?
3. What are your personal experiences as a field worker in relation to the training and development within your organisation?
4. What training and development requirements and interventions do you consider important for field workers in the SDP sector in South Africa, both offered or not offered by your organisation?



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Appendix B: Informed consent letters

Consent Form

Title of the study: Exploring the training and development of sport-for-development and peace practitioners in South Africa: A case study of field workers experiences from two civil society organisations.

The study has been described to me in a language that I understand. My questions about the study have been answered. I understand what my participation will involve, and I agree to participate of my own choice and free will. I understand that my identity will not be disclosed to anyone. I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time without giving a reason and without fear of negative consequences or loss of benefits.

Participant's name.....

Participant's signature.....

Date.....



Appendix C: Gatekeepers' letters



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The Planet Art #2, Unit 8, 2nd floor • 32 Jamieson Street • Gardens, Cape Town 8001 • South Africa • +27 21 420 5154
Registration Number: 2005/010913/08 • 125-815 NPO • sacommunications@grassrootsoccer.org

LETTER OF PERMISSION

Professor Marion Keim
University of the Western Cape
Robert Sobukwe Road
Bellville, 7535
Republic of South Africa

22 July 2020

Dear Professor Marion Keim

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

This letter serves to confirm that I, Mbulelo Malotana, Managing Director of Grassroot Soccer South Africa hereby acknowledge and approve the research of Ayanda Linda Ndlovu within Grassroot Soccer South Africa for the completion of his Master of Philosophy (Sport-for-Development).

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Mbulelo Malotana".

Mbulelo Malotana

Managing Director – Grassroot Soccer South Africa



LETTER OF PERMISSION

Professor Marion Keim
University of the Western Cape
Robert Sobukwe Road
Bellville, 7535
Republic of South Africa

13th August 2020

Dear Professor Marion Keim

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

This letter serves to confirm that I, Nosipho Xapile, General Manager of United Through Sport, hereby acknowledge and approve the research of Ayanda Linda Ndlovu within United Through Sport for the completion of his Master of Philosophy (Sport-for-Development).

Sincerely,

Nosipho Xapile
General Manager
United Through Sport

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UK registered charity 1102107
SA PBO: 930025212

Appendix D: Ethical clearance



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07 July 2020

Mr AL Ndlovu
SRES
Faculty of Community and Health Science

Ethics Reference Number: HS20/4/48

Project Title: Exploring the training and development of sport-for development and peace practitioners in South Africa: A case study of field workers experiences from two civil society organisations.

Approval Period: 07 July 2020 – 07 July 2023

I hereby certify that the Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Western Cape approved the methodology and ethics of the above mentioned research project.

Any amendments, extension or other modifications to the protocol must be submitted to the Ethics Committee for approval.

Please remember to submit a progress report by 30 November each year for the duration of the project.

The permission to conduct the study must be submitted to HSSREC for record keeping purposes.

The Committee must be informed of any serious adverse event and/or termination of the study.

Ms Patricia Josias
Research Ethics Committee Officer
University of the Western Cape

Director: Research Development
University of the Western Cape
Private Bag X 17
Bellville 7535
Republic of South Africa
Tel: +27 21 958 4111
Email: research-ethics@uwc.ac.za

HSSREC Registration Number: HSSREC-130416-949

FROM HOPE TO ACTION THROUGH KNOWLEDGE.

Appendix E: Editing letter

JENNIFER RENTON

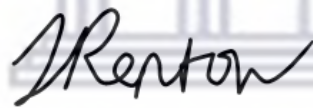
PO Box 68648
Bryanston
2021
12 October 2023

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to confirm that I am a professional editor and proofreader and that I have edited Ayanda Ndlovu's dissertation: *Exploring the training and development of sport-for-development and peace practitioners in South Africa: A case study of field workers' experiences from two civil society organisations.*

For any queries, please contact me on jenniferrenton@live.com.

Yours sincerely,



Jennifer Renton

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Appendix F: Plagiarism declaration



MODULE NAME	: SPORT DEV MINI THESIS 804
MODULE CODE	: SRD804
DURATION	: 2023
TOTAL MARKS	:

Course Coordinator : Prof Marion Keim

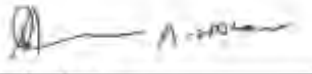
STUDENT DETAILS

Full name : Ayanda Linda Ndlovu

Student number : 3522817

DECLARATION

1. I understand that plagiarism means copying another person's work and passing it off as my own. I know that it is impermissible. The answers submitted herewith are my own work.
2. I acknowledge that plagiarism will be treated as dishonesty.
3. Every significant contribution to, and quotation in, these answers obtained from published or unpublished sources has been acknowledged by means of an appropriate citation and reference.
4. All books, articles and any other materials that I have referred to or quoted from in this assignment are listed in the bibliography.
5. I have not allowed any other person to copy these answers or any part thereof and acknowledge that doing so will make me party to dishonesty.
6. By submitting this cover page electronically, with or without my signature, I acknowledge compliance with paragraphs 1 to 5 above.


Signature

12 October 2023
Date

Appendix G: Supervisor's permission to submit



INTERDISCIPLINARY CENTRE FOR
SPORTS SCIENCE AND DEVELOPMENT
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www.uwc.ac.za/icssd
Email:
mkeim@uwc.ac.za/dphigeland@uwc.ac.za
Tel +27 21 959 3859



20 September 2023

Re: Letter for submission (Ayanda Ndlovu 3522817)

As the supervisor for Ayanda Ndlovu, student No 3522817, I hereby confirm that his thesis entitled:
Exploring the training and development of sport-for-development and peace practitioners in South Africa: A case study of field workers experiences from two civil society organisations
is ready for examination.

Should you require any further information, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "M. Keim".

Prof. Marion Keim PhD, LLB
UNESCO Chair: Sport, Development, Peace and Olympic Education
University of the Western Cape (UWC)
Director: Interdisciplinary Centre for Sports Science and Development, (UWC)
Member IOC Olympic Education Commission
Contact No: 082 202 3454
Email: mkeim@uwc.ac.za

*Director: - Prof M Keim + Professor/Researcher: - Prof C De Coning
Lecturers: Prof. L. Davids, Prof. S Titus, Prof. M. Young, Dr. K. Leisegang, and Mr. W. Lucas,
Administrator: - Mrs. D. Phigeland*