

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND

**COMPLEXITIES OF THE PROFESSIONALISATION
PROCESS AND ETHICS OF COMMUNITY
DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA**

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the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I proclaim that this thesis is my own work and confirm that all the sources used are acknowledged. The sections or parts of this thesis are not submitted before or submitted for a degree at any other higher education institution.

Kefilwe Johanna Dithake

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Signature

20 July 2021

.....

Date

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Abstract

This thesis examined the professionalisation process complexities and ethics of community development in South Africa. The purpose of this study was to examine the current move to professionalise the community development sector to explain professionalisation process complexities, the tensions, challenges, and the values of community development in South Africa. The quest for professionalisation calls for the standardisation of knowledge, certifications, the establishment of occupational membership associations, and a system of self-regulation for community development practitioners and community workers into a formalised profession and be committed to serving the public interest. The professionalisation process of the community development sector was explicitly acknowledged in the White Paper on Social Welfare in 1997. In October 2011, the national Department of Social Development (DSD) organised a three-day Inaugural Summit held at the Vulindlela Village in Coega, Eastern Cape, which paved the way for the professionalisation process, and consulted stakeholders within the community development sector to plan the professionalisation process in this field. This summit was the first step undertaken towards the professionalisation process. The national DSD was mandated to lead, oversee and coordinate the professionalisation of community development. The Steering Committee, the South African Council of Social Service Profession (SACSSP), and the Task Team to professionalise community development in the planning and implementation process.

The study adopted multiple case study designs to explore and explain how the community development practitioners, social workers, and community development workers view the professionalisation process complexities and the values of community development. This case study research took place in Gauteng at the local, provincial, and national levels of government. The four cases underpinning the study include the practitioners from non-governmental organisations (NGO), community development workers (CDWs) from the Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (COGTA), the provincial and national Department of Social Development (DSD), and the higher education institutions

(HEI). The case study analysis focused first on each case separately (within-case analysis), including the connection of each case to the phenomenon underpinning the study. Understanding each case (within-case analysis) was essential to understanding the case context. By adopting multiple case study research designs, contributions to existing research on community development and the professionalisation process are made. The research questions underpinning the phenomenon under study are answered by accumulating findings from all four cases (cross-case analysis findings).

Interviews and secondary data analysis were used to collect data. The interviews are the primary data source, and documentary analysis was used to corroborate the findings of the interviews. Non-probability purposive sampling and theoretical sampling were employed in this study. The empirics consist of seventy-four interviews with community development workers, social workers, and community development practitioners. The data analysis process followed the constructivist grounded theory constant comparison iterative and coding process, including two cycles of initial and focused coding. The theoretical codes developed in the study represent the foundation of the theory developed. Given the plethora of research in this field of study, the constructivist grounded theory data analysis process was applicable in generating the nascent theory that suits the nature of this inquiry. This study found that the professionalisation process was motivated by the need for status recognition and that the process is evolving as state regulation. Professionalisation process complexities are connected to the complex context of the history of the multidisciplinary nature of community development practice, lack of engagement and broader consultative processes, the qualification versus the occupational wider set of professionalisation processes, a crisis of status recognition, professional identity issues, the unclear scope of practice, and a lack of regulatory framework. Against this backdrop, challenges, tensions, turf issues, and contestations are identified. Including the ethical issues of conflict of interest, professional misconduct, and malpractice are raised as the major challenge of the evolving profession of community development practice. A substantive theory developed in this study is inductively theorised from data and contributes to existing research on community development professional practice. Based on the study findings, recommendations for policy and practice and further research are suggested.

Keywords: Community development, collaboration and partnership, ethical issues, multidisciplinary nature, professionalisation, process complexities, and professionalism.

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Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Full text
ANC	African National Congress
CDP	Community Development Practitioners
CDS	Community Development Society
CDW	Community Development Workers
CDWP	Community Development Workers Programme
CDPSC	Community Development Professionalisation Steering Committee
COGTA	Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs
DSD	Department of Social Development
GEAR	Growth, Employment and Redistribution
IACD	International Association for Community Development
NQF	National Qualifications Framework
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
RPL	Recognition of Prior Learning
SACSSP	South African Council for Social Service Professions
SAQA	South African Qualifications Authority
SETA	Sector Education and Training Authority
UDF	United Democratic Front

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1. INTRODUCTION

This thesis explains the complexities of the professionalisation processes in the evolving profession of community development, including ethical challenges experienced by practitioners in the field of community development. Professionalisation processes refer to the path through which occupations are changed from occupation to professions status (Abbott, 1988; Carr-Saunders, & Wilson, 1933; Evetts, 2006; Freidson, 2001; Greenwood, 1957; Larson, 1977). The adoption of the policy framework of the White Paper for Social Welfare 1997 mandated by the former government Department for Welfare and Population Development, 1997 in the Republic of South Africa and the amendment of the Social Work Act (110 of 1978) into the Social Services Professions Act (110 of 1978) (Triegaardt, 2002) made provision for the establishment of new social service professions in the sector of social development, including community development workers or practitioners, probation services, and child and youth care field practice and services. The need for professionalisation of the community development field in South Africa was mandated and recognised through the White Paper of Social Welfare (Department of Social Development, 1997).

Moreover, in the health sector, community health workers have been used after 1994 with the transformation of social welfare (Friedman, 2002). Thereafter, in 2003 Community Development Workers Programme (CDWP) was introduced at the Department of Provincial and Local Government (DPLG). The main purpose of community development workers (CDWs) is to keep a close link and relationship with people at the community level and help in “developing a community or people-centered initiative” (DPLG, 2005, p. 13). The introduction of CDWs originates from the President's Office; hence it is perceived as the brainchild of former President Thabo Mbeki. The central vision for this programme is captured in his State of the Nation Address which happened in February 2003, when he indicated that the “government will create a public service echelon of multi-skilled CDWs who will maintain direct contact with the people where these masses live. We are determined to ensure that government goes to the people so that we sharply improve the quality of the outcomes of public expenditures intended to raise the standards of living of our people” (Baaitjies & Hinstra, 2005, p. 10; Department of Provincial and Local Government (DPLG), (2004). Additionally, this was followed by the establishment of the national programme and community development practitioners (CDPs) at the Department of Social Development under the Sustainable Livelihood Unit Department of Social Development. (DSD) (2009). These statements reaffirmed the government's commitment to community development. Subsequently, debates on the professionalisation process of community development

started with the introduction of this programme. Despite this, internationally, the professionalisation of community development has been debated in many countries, such as Australia and Ireland (Kenny, 1996; Andrew, 1992; Ife, 2002; Meade, 2011; Shaw, 2008). Some of the concerns raised are related to the potential of community development to being transformed into elitism and the prospect of distancing the practice from grass-roots activism (Meade, 2012; Meade & O'Donovan, 2002, p. 8) as well as its over-emphasis on “technical competence above an ideological debate” (Thompson, 2006, p.29).

Furthermore, in 2008, the DSD Integrated Sustainable Rural Development and Urban Renewal Programme conducted a skills audit report to determine and generate a comprehensive “State of Skills” in relation to community development practice (The Department of Social Development, 2010). The Skills Audit Report, recommended creating a community development practice system that consists of knowledgeable and well-trained CDPs and managers, hence the quest for the professionalisation of community development in the sector. The national Department of Social Development (DSD) has been at the forefront of the professionalisation of community development as mandated by stakeholders from different sectors during the Inaugural Summit for the professionalisation of community development (DSD, 2011). The stakeholder consultative meetings and the Inaugural Summit held in October 2011 mapped out the process towards professionalisation of community development. The summit acknowledged community development in a developmental state and further stressed that professionalisation is critical to standardise the practice. This study investigated complexities of the professionalisation process. The turf issues, benefits, disadvantages of professionalisation of community development in this regard, the delayed process of professionalisation, and challenges related to multidisciplinary community development such as lack of coordination, communication, collaboration, and ethical misconduct and ethical malpractice in the community development sector. Accordingly, this research sought to contribute to the topic under study. Collaborative theory for multidisciplinary developmental community development in Chapter Ten of this study emerges from the study's findings and represents the knowledge contribution of this study.

1.2. Background of the study

This section contextualises professionalisation and the ethics of community development, as discussed in the introduction. It is widely recognised that European control in South Africa in the colonial and apartheid government eras contributed to the most dreadful racial disparities in the history of human existence. The details and impact of the history of the South African

social welfare context and community development landscape are addressed in Chapter Two. The issues associated with community development professionalisation in South Africa are closely linked to the global debates of professionalisation.

At the international level, community development cannot be separated from colonial history, social and political, the rise of new democratic governments, globalisation including the advent of the global economy efforts (Popple, 2006; Popple & Quinn, 2002; Powell, Geoghegan, Dublin, Farmer, 2005). Globalisation process has also led to changes not only economically, but also the political and social challenges at the community level. Communities are closely affected by the global impact at these levels. Therefore, in the landscape of the professionalisation of community development, numerous components play a pivotal role, including the historical, political, economic, cultural, and social contexts. Furthermore, in 1948, when the white-dominated National Party came to power in South Africa, it enacted apartheid laws and racial discrimination. The apartheid system categorised the South African races as Whites, Blacks, Indians, and Coloureds, including the social, political, economic, and cultural aspects of their lives. In this regard, the history of community development in this country is closely interconnected to the struggle against colonialism and apartheid government (Ditlhake, 2020; Patel, 2005). Therefore, with professionalisation in this field, cotextual circumstances are critical as it defines the place in which community development is practiced and in particular its potential to distance from community development grass-roots political activism.

South African civil society and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) represent both the historical-cultural evolution and peculiarities of the South African socio-political and economic history and their combined contemporary experiences and realities. The current strands of activist or struggle NGOs can be traced to the early 1970s (Camay & Gordan, 2007; The Institute for Democracy in South Africa, 2001; Nauta, 2004). This strand of NGOs is contextually counter-posed with predominantly white-controlled welfare NGOs whose emergence can be traced long before this period and was mainly due to the patronage of various apartheid governments, white-owned businesses, and charities to promote the racially conceived policy of separate development (Julie, 2009; Nauta, 2004).

The Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), as well as the Community Based Organisations (CBOs) in South Africa, have historically been advocates for the poor and marginalised people. They played an essential role in empowering the poor with social and economic interventions and delivering social services to ensure social justice. CDWs in South Africa played an important role in poverty alleviation, hunger mitigation, highlighting inequalities, and delivering services to the poor and vulnerable communities. They have been performing this function as unpaid, funded, or non-funded initiatives. The apartheid government officially ended in 1994 when the majority of the South Africans elected the new

democratic Government of National Unity under the authority of the African National Congress (ANC).

The ANC currently is the governing ruling party. Community development in South Africa has a political history. The roots of community development under the apartheid government are noticeable from the policy statement made by the Minister of Community Development in 1962. In his policy statement, he used the definition of the United Nations (1955) community development to justify the Group Areas Act, 41 of 1950 as being significant for settling people in their areas as a precondition for development: "the ideal should as far as possible be to protect each racial group in its own proclaimed areas against the infiltration by other groups" (Botha 1962, p. 4). In the early 1980s, community development strategies adopted were mechanisms used to destroy "black spots" and relocate African people from 'White South Africa' to the 'homelands' (De Beer, 1998). The evictions fueled resistance amongst the discriminated racial group who felt that community development is not about separate development. However, community development is about the involvement of people in decision-making in matters that affect them to improve their living conditions. Examples of counter-resistance efforts are stated in "Steve Biko's work and the Black Consciousness Movement" (Stubbs 1978, p. 108).

The complex historical nature and the political landscape of the roots of community development in South Africa ought to be understood before and after 1994. Shaw (2006) reminds us why politics are important, saying that communities are constructed politically, and this offers the discourse and practices that frame the margins of community development at any given time, its opportunities, and limitations. Politics express the totality of interrelationships involving power, authority, and influence. The community does not exist within a political vacuum but reflects and reinforces "power dynamics within a particular context and time" (Shaw, 2008, p.34). In this country, the transformation of social welfare from colonial rule and apartheid to a democratic society created opportunities to recognize other social service professions (Gray & Lombard 2008; Patel, 2016). The enactment of the White Paper for Social Welfare (DSD, 1997) and the amendment of the Social Work Act (110 of 1978) to *become* the Social Service Professions Act (110 of 1978) made provision for the establishment of other social service professions, such as community development, probation service, and youth and child-care services as well as opportunities for the professionalisation of these occupations.

The professionalisation of community development in South Africa is gaining considerable momentum, and as a multidisciplinary field, work in this area has been targeted and prioritised for professionalisation (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2012). After the transformation of social welfare, the institutionalisation of community development professionalisation was

acknowledged and formalised through the White Paper for Welfare of 1997 (DSD, 1997; Luka & Mainstry, 2012).

Internationally, the professionalisation of community development has been highly contested (Meade, 2011). Many of the debates center around the appropriateness and the relevance of the community development professional model. Many authors, such as Andrews (1992) and Ife (2002), argue against the professionalisation of community development practice and state that the professional model may transform the practice into community development elitism, that is, exclusive property of an elite class of expert professionals.

The professional model suggests the importance of a specialised body of knowledge and practices limited to only practitioners who have entrance to it and those who have received formal training including knowledge as well as the skills required to carry out that practice (Abbott, 1988; Ife, 2013; Banks, 2012; Loewenberg & Dolgoff, 1992; Potgieter, 1998). Furthermore, the professional model calls for clearly articulated norms, standards and professions ethical stance, including regulation of professional practice guided by a code of ethics, formal professional associations, and professional boards (Larson, 1977; Abbott, Compton & Galaway, 1994; Evetts, 2003; Freidson, 2001; Loewenberg & Dolgoff, 1992; Potgieter, 1998; Sharma, 1997). It is within this backdrop that this study will explain the complexities of the professionalisation process and ethics of community development in South Africa, the nature of ethics, ethical problems, and ethical dilemmas that arise in everyday community development practice in contexts where community development practitioners have to make judgments and decisions. The Public Service Act (1994); Public Service Regulations (2001); White Paper for Social Welfare (1997); South African Constitution of 1996, the Reconstruction and Development Programme of 1994 (RDP), and the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (1997) are some of the critical pieces of legislation and policies regulating and supporting the community development programme. Professionalism is essential as a means to provide various intricate services to society at large, but it does not necessarily “assure quality” (Evetts, 1999, p.124).

Furthermore, with the evolving professionalisation of community development, there is a dire need for research to thoroughly understand the complexities linked to professionalisation and the values of community development. Incontestably, community development in South Africa is in the process of transformation into a professional model of practice. The policy and practice changes need to be interrogated and understood. A better understanding of the new developments in the community development sector can be inferred through systematic research.

1.3. Statement of the problem and rationale of the study

The landscape of community development practice in South Africa is multidisciplinary in its approach and has its historical roots before 1994. The multidisciplinary practice of community development included practitioners from NGOs, civil society organisations, community-based organisations, and the government of the day in the late 1980s. The social work profession used to be the only social service profession dominant in providing services in the social welfare and community development sector. Community development was not being recognised in terms of the contribution it made in the social welfare sector. After 1994 with the transformation of social welfare services and the adoption of the White Paper for Social Welfare of 1997, and the amendment of the Social Work Act (110 of 1978) to become the Social Service Professions Act (110 of 1978). The changes were made for the inclusion and recognition of the CDWs and CDPs, probation services and child and youth care services in the sector of social development.

The first CDWs conference was held in June 2007. Here, a proposal was made to establish a proper professional cadre that would clarify career paths for the CDWs and ensure their mobility. The field is not regulated, and therefore there is no existing policy guideline. The curriculum provided by various Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) is not standardised, and it is presented from different multidisciplinary fields such as social work and related social science disciplines. No standards are guiding the resourcing of community development. The {DSD} held a Summit in October 2011 with the objective of professionalising community development and mapping the process towards professionalisation of community development practice. Seventeen years later, the process of professionalisation of community development remains incomplete.

Scholars argue that the predisposing characteristics, image building activity, and public recognition are the core conditions or aspects of the professionalisation process required for an occupation to be considered a profession (Abbotts, 1988; Friedson, 2001; Greenwood, 1957). Bonnin and Ruggunan (2013) and Webster (2004) suggested the need for studies that focus on the complexities of professionalisation. In this regard, this study aims to explain the complexities linked to the process of professionalisation of community development and the accompanying ethical issues. There is some agreement in the social work literature that codes of ethics provide ethical standards for social service practitioners in deciding ethical dilemmas in the field of practice, protecting the public from incompetent practitioners, ensuring professional regulations rather than government control, and protecting social workers from litigation (Gray, & Webb, 2010). There is considerable disagreement between ethical theories about the nature of ethics and how ethical judgment is arrived at and justified (Gasper, 2008; Banks, 2012). Previous studies on ethics in a related discipline such as social work have also stated that there is limited evidence in the literature that focuses on ethics

and ethical dilemmas in community development (Gray & Webb, 2010; Banks, 2012; Dolgoff, Loewenberg, Harrington, 2009).

Furthermore, limited desktop research exists on the professionalisation of community development (Chille, 2012; De Beer & Swanepoel; 2012; Hart, 2012; Maistry, 2012). However, several authors from various disciplines made references to professionalisation, such as Crankshaw (1997) on race, skills, and occupation; Gilbert's (1998) studies on community pharmacists; and Bonnini & Ruggunan (2013); Faull (2013) and Sefalafala & Webster (2013) on the sociology of professions. However, Bonnini and Ruggunan (2013) argued that how these studies are conceptualised and the inquiries raised do not resonate with some traditional debates concerning the sociology of professions. Crompton (1990) and Evetts (2003) share similar sentiments. Empirical studies on professions recommended the need for qualitative studies to investigate the professionalisation process, opportunities, professional status, professionalism, and the state's role in professionalisation (Bonnini & Ruggunan, 2013; Faull, 2013; Sefalafala & Webster, 2013). Complexities associated with professionalisation have, in addition, been criticised as representing the professional autonomy, the practitioner self-interest, exclusion of non-professionals, and inclusive elite self-interest aiming to promote increasing credentialism to exclude others, including unpaid CSWs activists and volunteers in communities (Ledwith, 2005; Meade, 2011).

1.4. PURPOSE STATEMENT

The purpose of this study was to examine the current move to professionalise the community development sector to explain professionalisation process complexities, the tensions, challenges, and the values of community development in South Africa. In doing so the thesis contributes by taking a new perspective on how the occupation of community development becomes professionalised. Ethical codes are critical components of the definition of a profession, and decisions are made in the context of personal and professional life. Hugman (1996, p. 12) suggests that a code of ethics is a "discursive document" that should constantly be under discussion and reconsideration. Banks (1998; 2012, p. 213) argues for developing a code of ethics, "not as an imposed set of rules developed by the professional associations, but as part of a dynamic and evolving ethical tradition and as a stimulus for debate, reflection on changing and contradictory values." For such a project to succeed, the researcher believes the code of ethics must be critically discussed and acknowledged, and be embedded in the evolving ethical tradition of the profession. Bonnini and Ruggunana (2013, p.3) and Webster (2004), in the study of the South African sociology of a profession, recommended the need for "qualitative studies focusing on the complexities of professionalisation" and opportunities of professionalism.

The study adopted an explanatory qualitative case study research design. The sequences of the events that produce the professionalisation of community development, complexities of professionalisation, ethical issues or challenges are explored, described, and explained in the context of community development professionals' decisions. Secondly, based on the findings of the cross-case analysis of the four descriptions, a theoretical model will be developed. CDPs can evaluate ethical decision-making or draw guidance in their everyday handling of ambiguous and complex situations in practice. An exploration component was used to deepen the analysis, process, and theory construction. The description element in this study aided in providing a detailed picture of the complexities of professionalisation, ethics, problems, ethical dilemmas, and professionalism of community development collected from community development professionals' experiences.

1.4.1. Main research question

The main research question and sub-questions arising from the objective of the study are as follows:

Main research question: How can the community development profession collectively improve the recognition of its work as a professional activity for community development practitioners to face future vexing moral questions in South Africa?

1.4.2. Sub-Questions

The following sub-questions guided the study research process:

- 1.4.2.1. Why and how has the professionalisation of community development evolved?
- 1.4.2.2. What are the complexities related to the professionalisation of community development?
- 1.4.2.3. What are the ethical issues, and how are moral conclusions approached in community development professionalism?
- 1.4.2.4. How can a practice model be theorised inductively by drawing on the answers to the questions above?

1.4.3. Research objectives

The overarching objectives from the purpose of the study are to:

- 1.4.3. Explore the views, challenges, tensions, and complexities of professionalisation of community development work in South Africa;
- 1.4.4. Explain complexities and the delayed process of the professionalisation process of community development work;
- 1.4.5. Describe ethical challenges, issues, and complexities in community development practice and how practitioners resolved ethical issues; and
- 1.4.6. Develop community development practice theory, theorised inductively from the study findings.

1.5. Significance of the study

A code of ethics is one essential element required for ethical practice and fundamental from a professional, regulatory point of view as professionals seek to manage complex and dynamic situations. In the absence of codes of ethics, CDPs depend on personal experience or organisational guidance. Relying on these makes ethical decision-making complex. Banks (2012) and Dolgoff et al. (2005) pointed out that ethical decision-making can be difficult but necessary when professionals face complex situations and the empirical studies on professionalised community development in South Africa are limited. Research on ethical decision-making practice in community development is also limited. This study aims to understand the complexities of professionalisation and ethics of community development; and how CDPs use codes of ethics to resolve ethical dilemmas. A theoretical framework distilled from data will be developed and will be the main original contribution of the study.

1.6. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

In this study, the researcher anticipated a limitation of generalisation, subjectivity, and construct validity associated with the case study design methodology. To overcome this, the researcher used Yin's (2003) case study protocol for the four cases in this research. A common criticism leveled against the case study methodology is the generalisation of findings or conclusions beyond the immediate case (Thomas & Myers, 2015; Stake, 2006; Yin, 2003). Some of the criticism in this area applies only to a single case study inquiry. In this study, a multiple case studies design was employed. Four cases were used to gather data from interviews and secondary data, while conclusions were drawn from within and cross-case analysis. The case study protocol stated in the methodology section was developed to enhance the reliability of the research study inquiry. Yin (2000) stated the protocol as a significant element in asserting the reliability of case study research. Thomas and Myers (2015) and Yin (2014) pointed out that generalisation of results, from either single or multiple case study designs, is made in theory and not in the population of the study. A collective case study was followed in this study to strengthen the results by constant comparison with the situation presented in the four cases used in the study, thus increasing the robustness of the theory generated in this research. A non-probability homogeneous purposive sampling and theoretical sampling in this study were used to maximise the results by considering the voices, views, and relevant groups of actors in the professionalisation of community development. Construct validity has been the primary source of criticism in qualitative case study research because of the potential researcher's own subjective reality. However, Yin (2003) suggested three ways to mitigate this challenge: using various sources

of evidence, creating a sequence of evidence, and having a draft case study report reviewed by the key informants.

1.7. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology explicated in this study is an outline of how this study was approached and is explicated comprehensively in chapter three. The following discussion is an overview of the methodology adopted and undertaken in the study.

1.7.1. Research approach

This primary research adopted a qualitative approach to explain the complexities of professionalisation and the ethics of community development as experienced by the study participants. The qualitative approach depends strongly on the articulated and introspective people made to provide detailed descriptions of their experiences (Anthony & Jack, 2009; Wolcott, 2009). This approach enabled the researcher to get an understanding of the participant's meanings and elaborate to uncover the meanings of what the participants shared.

1.7.2. Research Design

The literature offers various definitions for case study research (Merriam, 2009; Van Wynberghe & Khan, 2007; Yin, Stake, 2006; 2014). Flyvbjerg (2011, p. 301) chooses to depend on the dictionary definition of case study: "an intensive analysis of an individual unit stressing developmental factors in relation to the environment." Simons (2009) provides a definition that integrates the contemporary nature of case study inquiry and its purpose. A case study is a comprehensive investigation of multiple views of the intricacy and distinctiveness of a particular system in an everyday situation. It is based on research inquiry, uses different methods, context and is evidence-led. The primary purpose is to engender an in-depth understanding of the topic, a professional practice, or community action. This is the contextualised nature of case study research highlighted by Simons (2009) and Yin (2003). This definition pinpoints the unique characteristic of case studies in social science research and its relevance for investigating complex practices and context (Anthony & Jack, 2009; Thomas & Myers, 2015; Steward, 2012; Yin, 2014). The definition stated above was adopted in this study as it helped strengthen the researcher's understanding and its "tell-tale" possibility for the case study. Yin (2003) emphasises the practical nature, whereas Simons (2009) focuses on the complexity and particularity.

A multiple explanatory case study research design was applied to achieve the objectives of this study. Stake (2006) and Yin (2014) affirm that a case can either be a person, certain event, particular programme, time period, critical incident, or a community. A case in this study was an individual from organisations and institutions of government. Thomas & Myers (2015) and Flyvbjerg (2006) maintain that a case study investigates issues to answer a specific research question while searching for various evidence within a case. The four cases were selected and compared to meet the objectives of the study. Evidence produced must be open to scrutiny in an acceptable scientific way to provide credibility (Wolcott, 2009). Table 3. 1 provides four descriptions of the cases. The names of the specific organisations and specific names of the participants are not identified to adhere to confidentiality and anonymity in research ethics. Yin (2014, p. 64) recommends the use of case study protocol as part of a carefully designed research project that would include the following sections:

- Overview of the project (project objectives and case study issues).
- Field procedures (credentials and access to the sites).
- Questions (specific questions that the investigator must keep in mind during data collection)
- Guide for the report (outline, format for the narrative).

The above case study protocol was followed in this study. The quintessential main feature of case studies is that they strive towards a holistic understanding of case context or cultural systems of actions. Cultural systems of actions refer to interrelated activities engaged in by participants in a social environment or situations (Stake, 2006).

Table 1.1. A brief description of the four cases

Case 1: Non-governmental organisations (NGOs) The term Non-Governmental Organisations is very broad. It covers civil society organisations ranging from political action groups to social services. NGOs are diverse and play different roles in different situations. The NGOs that participated in the study engaged with youth development, HIV/AIDS activism, skills development, and advocacy work. Their roots differ in terms of their services, geographical and historical context, and the communities in which they are based. They employed CDWs and social service professionals such as social workers, auxiliary social workers, including the occupation of the child and youth care workers.
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Case 2: Community Development Workers (CDWs)

CDWs are a new category of public servants introduced by President Thabo Mbeki in 2003. The CDWs are multi-skilled public servants deployed in various communities to assist people accessing government services, including poverty alleviation programmes. CDWs are based in local municipalities and interact with ward committees and councilors. The qualifications of CDWs range from no matric certificate to diplomas, undergraduate degrees, honors, and master's degrees. COGTA employs the majority of the CDWs.

Case 3: Community Development Practitioners (CDPs)

The transformation of social welfare services after 1994 in South Africa led to the establishment of the community development approach. The (DSD) employed social workers and CDPs. The CDPs are only employed in government in various provinces by the DSD under sustainable livelihoods. Sustainable livelihood is an overarching framework to implement community development adopted by the government—the qualifications of the CDPs range from matric, diploma to honors degrees.

Case 4: Institutions of higher education (HEI)

HEI offered a degree course in Community Development at SAQA level 8 through social work, development studies, and others. The Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVETs) colleges also offer community development at levels 3, 4, and 5. The HEI and the Stakeholder workshop in June 2012 for Community Development Qualification for a three-year degree in community development were then only offered by the Universities of Johannesburg, Stellenbosch, and KwaZulu-Natal. There is no uniformity in the offering of the degree and practicum component. Other universities are offering community development at the honors and master's levels.

1.7.3. Demarcation and the context of the study

The practice of community development in South Africa is multidisciplinary. The study was conducted in the Roodepoort, Germiston, and Pretoria regions in Gauteng province. Twenty-five years after the introduction of the democratic government, "South Africa is still battling with issues of poverty, inequality, unemployment, and hunger" (Statistics South Africa, 2013a, p. 22). This plight is also mirrored in research studies and stated that the most precarious challenges to be met by the South African government are social issues of poverty, inequality, unemployment, and crime (Ipsos, 2014). These issues remained primary concerns and challenges confronting the community development sector and social service practitioners. How the stakeholders of the social service professions, the government, the

business sector, and civil society organisations become actively involved and collaborate consequently influences how these social issues are dealt with in communities (Weymouth, 2015). In this regard, Patel (2016, p.242) asserts that poverty reduction depends on creating viable “social networks and trustful relationships between individuals, groups, and communities”. The existing literature on community development and sociology of profession supports positive and constructive relationships, partnerships and emphasises the importance of including beneficiaries (Chambers,1993; Eversole, 2015; James,1999; Uhlik,1995).

1.7.4. Population

Babbie and Mouton (2001, p. 100)) describe the study population as a group of people the researcher uses to reach conclusions and recommendations. While authors such as Creswell (2009) and Babbie & Mouton (2011) explained population as an aggregate of all cases that conforms to the same designated set of specifications, the target population refers to “only those cases that theoretically might be selected as research participants, those who are potentially accessible to the researcher” (Neuman, 2006, p.224). The unit of analysis is a “critical factor” in designing case study research. Yin (2006, p.24) described the unit of analysis as the “persons” included within the group. The unit of analysis in this study included practitioners and stakeholders in the professionalisation process of the community development field. In this study, the unit of analysis included CDPs at the provincial and national DSD, CDWs at the local government, higher education institutions, NGOs, and service users in community development in Gauteng province. Selecting a case can be difficult, but the literature guides this area (Yin, 2000). Stake (2006) recommends that the selection provides an opportunity to get the most out of what can be learned meaningfully, within the ambit of a limited time frame.

1.7.5. Sampling and selection criteria

In this study, a non-probability homogeneous purposive sampling and theoretical sampling strategy were employed. In non-probability sampling, people are selected to the sample based on “experience or the fact that they might be unusual or different from the norm; their selection is not a matter of pure chance” (Denscombe, 2010 p. 25). Purposive sampling involves “selecting respondents based on their ability to provide needed information” (Padgett, 2008, p. 53). Purposive sampling is consistent with case study research design in which participants “share common experiences so that detailed patterns of meaning and relationships can be identified” (Neuman, 2011, p. 222). The participants were chosen based on the knowledge that they have relevant to the study. The practitioners with a minimum of three years of working experience were selected through the national, local, and provincial

governments. The officials, managers, directors of the organisations and institutions were initially approached in writing, then telephonically, to secure consent to participate in the study. Preliminary meetings with the interested parties were scheduled, and a participant information sheet was given to the interested individuals. Theoretical sampling was also employed in this study. Theoretical sampling means looking for relevant data to develop an emerging theory. The key aim of theoretical sampling is to elaborate and enhance the development of categories constituting a theory in line with the grounded theory data analysis process.

Sampling size is the total number of participants that constitute the population. Padgett (2008, p. 56) suggests that when determining the number of participants to be selected in the study, a smaller number is desirable when investigating intense information to allow "intensity" and "homogeneity." In the current study, a total of seventy-four participants were selected and interviewed the motivation for the above sample size was to saturate categories and provide opportunities for detailed theory development. The unit of analysis was purposefully sampled from three regions in the Gauteng area: the DSD at West Rand, Ekurhuleni, Johannesburg, and Pretoria regions. Purposive sampling was used for the population of CDPs with a minimum experience of three years and over 18 years. (See Table 1.2. below for a description of the participants).

Table 1.2. Description of the participants

Participant	Number of participants	Organisation/Institution
Service users of community development projects,	6	NGO
Managers from the NGOs	3	NGO
Community development workers from NonGovernmental Organisations (NGOs)	4	NGO
Officials from Community Development Steering Committee and task team	2	Community Development Steering Committee and Task Team and HEI
Social workers	2	NGO
Social workers	2	DSD
Practitioners	12	HEI
CDWs	5	COGTA
Senior officials	3	COGTA

Senior officials	6	DSD National
CDPs	22	DSD Provincial
CDPs managers	6	DSD Provincial
A senior official statutory body	1	South African Council of Social Service Professions (SACSSP) and Task Team
Total number of participants	74	

In total, seventy-four participants with a minimum of three years of experience in community development were interviewed. Case studies are multi-perspectival analyses (Stake, 2006; Steward, 2012; Yin, 2003). In this study, the researcher used the meanings and perspectives of the participants. Simons (2009) argues that the case study methodology is "microscopic" because it often lacks a sufficient number of cases. Thomas & Myers (2015) and Yin (2014) persuasively argued that the number of participants or sample size whether lesser or more cases are employed does not alter the multiple case study into a macroscopic study. The study's purpose should be the main yardstick and the base to be applied to any kind of research, including the single or collective case. In this way, the single case or multiple case study designs are considered acceptable, provided they meet the established objectives of the study. In this study, objectives were taken into consideration in making decisions about the parameters of the study.

1.7.6. Data collection methods

In this study, an in-depth interview and secondary documents were used to collect data. Participants were selected for the one-to-one in-depth semi-structured interviews. Hennink, Hunter, and Baily (2011:109) define an interview as "a conversation with a purpose" and an in-depth interview as "a one-to-one method of data collection that involves an interviewer and an interviewee discussing specific topics in depth." Face-to-face interviews and documentary analysis were used as methods of collecting data in this study. Interviews were the primary source of data and documentary analysis corroborated the findings of the interviews. The semi-structured interview schedule was used as an instrument to gather data on the complexities of professionalisation and values of community development. In addition to structured background questions, open-ended questions were asked in order for participants to engage fully and express themselves on what is being asked. The interviews were conducted on-site and took approximately one hour thirty minutes. The interviews were transcribed and audio-recorded using a life scribe. An interview, according to Harding (2013, p. 30), allows the participant to be part of the "reflective process," "explore experience and

reveal many features of that experience." Permission for recording and participation was sought before the commencement of the study.

Stake (1995) and Yin (2014) identified documents, interviews, direct observations, archival records, physical artifacts, and participant observation as sources of evidence that can be used in case studies. Interviews were the primary source of data collection. In the interests of triangulation of evidence, data was also collected and analysed from collected documents. Documentary analysis was used to corroborate evidence collected from the interviews. The documentary analysis encompasses studying documents to understand their substantive content or to illuminate deeper meanings that may be revealed by their style and coverage (Hennink, Hutter, & Bailey, 2011). The sources of documents used in this study include training documents such as a tool kit for community development practitioners in South Africa (Department of Social Development, 2008), Community Development Workers Programmes (Department of Provincial and Local Government, 2004) ; the White Papers for Social Welfare (Department of Social Development, 1997), The Draft Community Development Practice Policy Framework of Community Development (2014) and related reports such as the inaugural summit report on S of community development, the qualification stakeholders meeting (Department of Social Development, 2011) and the national report on skills audit for community development. These documents were used to corroborate the findings of the interviews.

1.7.7. Research Instruments

Data was collected using interviews and secondary data analysis. The interview schedule was used with the individuals who participated in the study about the central phenomenon to saturate the categories and provide a detailed theory. Interview schedules were utilised in this study with practitioners, managers of the NGOs, managers, and officials in government, community development steering Committee, users of services, social workers, research institutions linked to the university, lecturers, and Associations of Social Service professions (See Annexure C). The interview questions for the interview schedules were organised around relevant themes to describe and explain their experiences. The researcher used prompts to encourage participants to share their experiences as much as they can, enabling the researcher to have a deeper understanding of their views, challenges, and complexities. A pilot study was conducted to test the research instruments. Necessary changes and adjustments were made to address the research questions underpinning the study. In analysing the documents, the researcher used guidelines and questions proposed by Charmarz (2014, p. 45), outlined in chapter eight of the study.

1.7.8. Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness refers to the fact that "the study results are believable and worth paying attention to" (Babbie & Mouton, 1998, p. 276). Trustworthiness ensures that the findings of a study can be trusted as a truthful reflection of the participants' responses shared during data collection in the study, instead of being the researcher's subjective views. It also refers to the correctness and relevance of the tools and methods used to collect data in a study. In this study, interviews and documents analysis were used as a method of collecting data to corroborate the findings of the interviews. To justify the trustworthiness and rigor of the research findings, the researcher adopted the four criteria for quality assessment of qualitative research, such as credibility, confirmability, dependability, and transferability to enhance the trustworthiness of the findings as suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985). Credibility in this study was ensured by verifying the study's findings with a process known as member checking and by recording the interview (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Participants were given the opportunity to look at the findings and to provide feedback. The researcher considered the feedback received from the participants during the member checking process as indicated in the findings. This technique was employed throughout all the data collection, data analysis processes of the study, and drawing conclusions and making recommendations. De Vos *et al.* (2011) argue that effective planning, correct identification, and selection of the study participants also enhance the research credibility. Hence only the participants of the study with three years of working experience participated in the study. Evidence produced must be open to scrutiny in an acceptable scientific way to provide credibility (Neuman, 2011).

Dependability refers to the level to which a research study followed a logical process and was well documented and edited (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). It also refers to the level to which the research tools and techniques used can be trusted to test what they set out to test. The researcher followed Yin's (2003) protocol of case study research and stipulated general rules for case study research design. This protocol is essential in multiple case studies like this one. Yin (2014) presented a protocol as a significant element in enhancing the reliability in case study research. In line with this, the researcher documented an outline of the case study, the phenomenon being investigated, objectives and the study field procedures undertaken, the outline of case study questions, participant's narratives, and the findings of this study.

Transferability in qualitative studies is provided through a detailed description essential to catch a reader interested in making a transfer to reach a decisive decision about whether the transfer can be possibly well thought out (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The participants' direct words illustrate identified themes that should enable the reader to understand the basis of the researcher's interpretations and conclusions. The inductive and in vivo codes helped

capture the participants' concerns, personal experience, and actions, retaining "telling statements discovered in the interviews (Charmaz, p. 343), thereby improving the study's trustworthiness. Confirmability ensures that data collected in a study confirms the findings and implications. To demonstrate confirmability, the researcher will clearly describe the methodology used to collect and analyse different sources. As this is a qualitative study, the researcher audio-recorded all interviews and later transcribed them before analysis to ensure that none of the responses shared by the participants in the study were altered. However, using transcribed interviews reflects the sources versus potentially altered words as construed by the researcher.

1.7.9. Data analysis

Data analysis in case study research and data collection draws on the established qualitative research methods. Hence analysis of data in case study inquiry can be described as "a complex process that entails moving back and forth between concrete bits of data and abstract as well as between descriptions and interpretations (Merriam, 2009, p. 176). Data analysis is described as "creating order from chaos" (Merriam, 2009, p. 177). In this study, the researcher used Charmaz's (2014) constructivist grounded theory approach to analyse data. Strauss & Corbin (1990) identified coding and adjunctive procedures as the two main processes to grounded theory data analysis. Analysis of data took place through open and selective coding to achieve the theoretical model of the study. Charmaz's (2014) grounded constructivist theory data analysis process consists of two phases: the initial and focused phase. Multiple case study design was employed. Data collection was undertaken across four cases, as indicated above, using interviews and documentary analysis. These methods of collecting data were used in this research to focus on each case within the multiple case study design (Stake, 2006). The use of multiple data collection methods supports the efficacy of case study research (Yin, 2003). The cross-case analysis was undertaken after the analysis of each case. Analysis of each case was in this research was underpinned by the research questions of the study. The purpose of the within-case analysis was to articulate the complexities of professionalisation and the ethics of community development.

The constructivist grounded theory and grounded theory (GT) data analysis process are based on two key aspects, namely theoretical sampling and constant comparison (Charmaz, 2014; Strauss & Corbin, 1990; Suddaby, 2006). The constant comparison involves the iterative process of comparing data incidents during the analysis process, continuously and simultaneously by comparing categories repetitively with one another. Constant comparison was employed when new data was gathered. Actions were recorded, and the views of the participants were constantly compared with the new participants. The purpose of following

this method was to look for similarities and differences in the data in terms of perspectives, events, and actions to produce coded categories or concepts. Codes and categories were compared to fine-tune theoretical categories, concepts and to allow the emergence of new categories. Theoretical categories were grouped together to form themes in this study. The emergent theory developed was made by comparing plausible relationships between theoretical categories and emergent themes. The tentative theory was explored through additional data and tested using theoretical sampling. Theoretical saturation was reached when new categories emerged. Charmaz (2006) explains that the testing of the emergent theory is guided by theoretical sampling. Data collection, analysis, and theory stand in a reciprocal relationship (De Vos, Fouche & Delpont, 2012).

1.7.10. Ethical considerations

Research ethics involves matters related to a researcher's ethical conduct in executing the research study. Babbie (2011, p. 66) avers that ethics are typically associated with “morality”, and they deal with matters of right and wrong. Qualitative research predominantly depends on human beings as sources of data. For that reason, De Taylor, Bogdan, and DeVault (2015) emphasise that this must not be done in a manner that violates the participants in any way. Elsewhere, Punch (2014) enlightens us that ethics relate to what conduct is right or wrong on the researcher's part. The researcher observed ethics during the study and obtained ethical clearance from the Wits University Non-Medical Ethics Committee (H18/03/04) after meeting the institution's ethical research requirements (see Annexure A). In agreement with the ethical obligations of academic research in the field and to ensure that the research is conducted ethically, the following measures were taken and observed as required in research ethics. Prior to conducting the study, the researcher requested permission to conduct the study. All the organisations and institutions that participated in the study granted permission (see Annexure A-F). All the participants were informed about the purpose of the study, both via mail correspondence and before the interview was taking place.

1.7.10.1. Gaining access

Access to the participants was negotiated as an essential step in research in that it increases the credibility of the study (Thomas & Myers, 2015). The participants were chosen based on their knowledge of the phenomenon being studied and its relevance to the study. Community development practitioners with a minimum experience of more than three years were identified through provincial government coordinators, managers, and networks developed through training. The senior officials of the organisations and institutions were contacted in writing through emails and later via telephone to secure permission and consent for

participation. CDPs, CDWs, service users, senior officials from government, NGOs/CBBs, and lecturers from Higher Education and Training institutions were approached initially through emails and telephone calls. A preliminary meeting with interested parties was scheduled, and a participant information sheet was provided to those present. Permission was also sought before interviewing the participants of the study. Moreover, all participants were treated anonymously in order to cause no harm. The interviews were conducted by the researcher between July 2018 to December 2019. The interviews were held in separate meeting rooms at the participant's workplace in order to provide them with a safe environment familiar to them, with the exception of the CDWs which were held in a public place due to the participant's wishes.

1.7.10.2. Informed consent

Informed consent exists specifically when the participants have been made fully aware of the goal of the study, associated risks, and the advantages and their liberty to pull out at any time. As such, the decision by the subjects to participate in the study must be unrestricted (Punch, 2014). Official written permission from authorities was sought to support the fieldwork. Participants were told that partaking in the study is only voluntary. It implies that a participant should be of legal age to be able to give consent. Secondly, participants were informed about the subject matter and all the elements thereof. Participants have to make an informed choice to participate in the study without being subjected to any form of force, deceit, fraud, or any concealed motive (Taylor, Bogdan. & De Vault, 2015).

Voluntary participation in this study was sought in two ways. The researcher ensured that participants had read and understood the information about the research study as provided in the information sheet. They were allowed to ask questions about the research study and for participating in the study. Confidentiality was explained, for example, in terms of not revealing the participants' names in the report, pseudonyms or use of codes, and anonymization of data. The data in research, publications, sharing, and archiving was explained to the participants. The participants were told that they have the right not to take part or not to answer questions that make them uncomfortable or cause distress. In addition, they were informed that they may withdraw from the interview process at any time. Participants were provided with a participant information sheet that outlines the aim of the study, provisions around confidentiality, risk, voluntary participation, and data protection. They were required to sign a consent form for participation and agree to the interview's audio recording. Participants were also informed that the audio recording will be kept in a secured cupboard and demolished five years after the publication of the thesis and that there will be

no direct reimbursements or payments for participating in this study. As a final point, all participants signed an informed consent form (See Appendix B).

1.7.10.3. Confidentiality and Anonymity

The privacy of the participants was safeguarded by ascertaining confidentiality and anonymity. Confidentiality warranted that the “information collected from the participants of the study is not revealed in a form that it can be linked or traced back to the individuals” (Rubin & Babbie, 2014, p. 523). Confidentiality was addressed during individual interviews, and their identity was not disclosed in the report. No quotations reflected the names of the individuals. Confidentiality was safeguarded by keeping all data in a safe place and confidential. After interview transcription, all identifying information was removed from the transcripts. In order to ensure anonymity, all participants were allocated codes. To assure confidentiality and anonymity for the participants in this study, only the research supervisor and the researcher had access to the data. The audio recordings were kept in a locked filing cupboard when not being used for transcription. To ensure anonymity, the participant's names were not revealed in the report to ensure that no one reading the research report can identify who or link opinions expressed by participants.

1.7.10.4. Deception of participants

Deception involves misleading participants, withholding information, or giving incorrect information to encourage participation, with the view that participants would otherwise decline or refuse to participate (Punch, 2014). In order to avoid deceiving the study participants, all facts about the study processes were explained to them. The study purpose, the participants' role, and the academic nature of this study were explained before conducting the study.

1.7.10.5. Distress and emotional harm

Vainio (2012) warns that researchers need to avoid harming participants, especially where sensitive and emotional topics are involved. There is no risk or harm (maleficence) to participants as they are not a vulnerable group. However, counseling or debriefing sessions were arranged in case participants request such support. Participants who needed emotional support were referred to the DSD for counseling.

1.8. OUTLINE OF THE THESIS

This thesis contains eleven chapters outlined below:

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY. This chapter provides orientation and background information to the entire study, including problem statement, aim and objectives of the study, definition of terms, introductory theoretical statement, research methodology, and ethical principles undertaken in this study. The final section of this introduction outlines the order of content for the thesis.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW, THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK.

This chapter reviews the literature related to community development, professionalisation, and ethics, particularly their current applicability to community development professionalisation. This literature review grounds the study in the current evolving profession and professionalisation of community development. The chapter closes with a review of selected theoretical perspectives and conceptual frameworks of community development.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Chapter three outlines the methodology of the case study reported in this thesis, namely the multiple case study design, qualitative research approach, methods of data collection, and analysis process. The final section of the methodology accounts for the broad principles of ethics undertaken in this study.

CHAPTER FOUR: CASE PRESENTATION OVERVIEW AND CASE: 1 FINDINGS

This chapter outlines an overview of the multiple case study data gathering processes of the four cases underpinning the study. Case one presentation and within-case analysis findings are presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE: CASE 2 PRESENTATION AND FINDINGS

This chapter presents case two and within-case analysis findings. Theoretical categories emanating from this case are presented.

CHAPTER SIX: CASE 3 PRESENTATION AND FINDINGS

This chapter presents case three and within-case analysis findings. Theoretical categories emanating from this case are presented.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CASE 4 PRESENTATION AND FINDINGS

This chapter presents case four and within-case analysis findings. Theoretical categories emanating from this case are presented.

CHAPTER EIGHT: DOCUMENTARY ANALYSIS

Chapter eight presents data collected and analysed by gathering documents related to the phenomenon under study. All the documents were public and could be described as public records.

CHAPTER NINE: CROSS CASE ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Chapter nine presents the cross-case analysis. The relationship between each case, code, and categories running across the cases is central. The findings from the cross-case analysis in this study are reported in this chapter.

CHAPTER TEN: THEORY GENERATED GROUNDED FROM DATA

In this chapter, the theory generated from data is presented. This is the original contribution of this study.

CHAPTER ELEVEN: DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter summarises the study findings integrated with the analysis based on the theoretical framework. and the conclusions and recommendations reached in this study. Suggestions for further research are presented.

1.9. DEFINITION OF TERMS

In this study, the following core terms are applied.

1.9. 1. Community economic development

The term 'economic development is often confused with community development. Community development is broader than economic development and can include local initiatives, education issues, and housing in nature. Community economic development is used in this study to include activities such as employment training or business management.

1.9.2. Community work and community development

To define community development, we need to define community and development. The community has many meanings, it can refer to a geographical place or people with joint or different values interacting with one another (Theodori, 2005). Geoghegan et al. (2005,13) state that development has numerous meanings, including modernisation, urbanisation, development economic, and technological improvement. Shaw (2008, p.34) reiterates that "community is constructed politically provides the parameters of community development at any given time, possibilities and limitations. Politics expresses the totality of interrelationships, involving power, authority, and influence. Clearly community does not exist in a vacuum but reflects and reinforces the dynamics of power within a particular context and times, the same is true for community development". Weyers (2011) differentiates between community work and community development by describing community development as an "umbrella concept for the conscious efforts of change agents aimed at achieving economic psychosocial, bio-physiological, technological, spiritual, cultural, political, environmental, education and other spheres of community life." This definition of community development as a multi-professional approach is adopted in this study. Community development is broader than community work. The term community work refers to the social work method of working in communities and organisations. Community work in this study is used as a method of social work practice.

1.9.3. Developmental Social Welfare

Community work and community development contribute to the nation's well-being by promoting social development and social welfare efforts that enable the development of the people's capacity and a sense of self-reliance. Social welfare refers to the nation's social programmes, benefits, and services that help people meet those social, economic, education, and health needs fundamental to society's maintenance (Zastrow, 2010. p. 5). Moreover, Patel (2014) adds that social welfare is intensely political and ideological and continues to shape the debate about the direction of social welfare. Therefore, developmental social welfare is the integration of social and economic development aimed at enhancing the welfare of all its citizens (Patel, 2005). This definition of developmental social welfare is adopted in this study.

1.9.4. Ethical codes

The term 'ethics refers to moral philosophy and ethics as moral norms and standards, including habits, preferences, rules, standards, principles, character traits, or habits (Banks,

2012, Gay & Webb, 2010). In this study, ethical codes refer to the code adopted by the profession to regulate professional practice to make the practitioners accountable and convey an aura of what the profession stands for.

1.9.5. Professionalisation

Professionalisation is the term given to changing an occupation to a self-regulating or state regulating profession by means of legislative protection (Freidson (2001).

1.9.6. Professions

Professions according to Evetts (2003) sociological studies of professions have almost continuously and laboriously focused on defining a profession and investigating what is and what is not a profession. Professions have been defined as a means of occupational control by Friedson (2005, p. 2), who describes them as "occupational groups which have, by virtue of their formal knowledge, been granted a license by the state to control the training, the qualifications process and the regulation of qualified practitioners." Moreover, only those whose qualifications are recognised by the profession, usually represented by the professional body, are entitled to engage in professional work, and so professions have a monopoly over the provision of the services they control. This definition of professions is adopted in this study.

1.9.7. Professional socialisation

Merton, Reader and Kendall (1957) describe professional socialisation as a process by which people selectively acquire the values and attitudes, shared interests, professional skills, and knowledge.

1.9.8. Social development

Underpinning the White Paper on Social Welfare (1997) is a social development approach adopted after the transformation of social welfare in 1994, and it was endorsed by the United Nations World Summit on Social Development in 1995 (United Nations 1996). Midgley (1995, p. 25) defines social development "as a process of planned social change designed to promote the well-being of the population as a whole in conjunction with a dynamic process of economic development." This definition of social development is adopted in this study.

1.10. SUMMARY

This chapter has introduced the study and defined significant concepts. The chapter further stated the research problem generated for this study, the research questions, and the aim and objectives of the study. The methodology of the study was briefly explained and will be further expanded in chapter three. The next chapter will review the literature underpinning the study.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the context of community development and the professionalisation of community development in contemporary South Africa. Community development has been defined in many ways (De Beer, 1998; Ledwith, 2005; United Nations, 1955, Weyers, 2011). Despite being understood to mean different things, including geographical locations, the main purpose of community-development collective efforts is about helping people to assist one another to improve their living conditions by addressing community challenges and shared interests. Community development in every country is shaped by unique historical, social, political, cultural, and economic challenges. To this end, this chapter is an exploration of the significant historical context of social welfare and the roots of community development work in South Africa that have profoundly shaped the landscape of community development practice and the professionalisation process.

The community development history in this country hints at the breadth of civil society organisations social and political transformative role in promoting social justice and human rights during the apartheid period and after 1994. This history, acknowledged in the literature, indicates that community development emerged as political activism and social response against the apartheid government and its policy of racial discrimination. The link between community development and social welfare is acknowledged in significant policy measures and directions to transform social welfare (Patel, 2005) and professionalise community development in South Africa in the White Paper for Social Welfare (DSD, 1997). These significant changes highlight how community development is theorised and practiced, including its contribution to the community development sector. In order to place the

contribution of this study within the body of knowledge, the international literature and research on community development, professionalisation, sociological theories of professions, and ethical theories were reviewed.

Furthermore, various theories in the field of community development, professionalisation, and ethics were examined, while gaps existing in the knowledge area, recent developments in the area of study, and current developments were identified (Banks, 2012; Corey, Corey & Callanan, 2011; Gray & Webb, 2010; Schenck, Nel & Louw, 2010). This study acknowledges a dearth of studies on the complexities of professionalisation and ethics in the community development field. In light of this, references available from global and local authors from various disciplines, such as sociology, social work, development studies, were used to provide a theoretical background. The chapter concludes by combining these understandings to answer the last sub-question of the research and the aim of the study in terms of benefits, challenges, tensions, and complexities related to the professionalisation process in this country.

2.2. Transformation of social welfare and professionalisation of community development South Africa

The provision of social welfare in the Global North and South has been developed to address the social welfare problems in the respective contexts. Social welfare is broadly conceived as a “nation's system of programs, benefits, and services that help people meet those social, economic, educational, and health needs fundamental to society's maintenance” (Zastrow, 2010, p. 5). An extensive literature exists on approaches to the study of social welfare and ways for analysis that may be used. A cross-cultural analysis of the conception of social welfare shows that the residual and institutional conception of social welfare seems to be dominant in the literature and empirical studies.

The residual approach is based on the premise that social welfare institutions should play only when the typical supply structures, the family, and the market break down (Mc Kendrick, 1990; Patel, 2016). The institutional, in contrast, sees the welfare services as a typical first-line function of modern industrial society (Mc Kendrick, 1990; Patel, 2005). While these two views seem divergent, in practice, there are welfare organisations and programmes in today's social welfare structures embodying both views in South Africa. In addition, the developmental social welfare approach model is the third view of social welfare's uniquely South African society.

In South Africa before 1994, social work and social welfare were fragmented, exclusive, and organised on racial grounds that mirrored apartheid policies. Historically, the social welfare system and social work have been closely linked to Apartheid economic, social and political

policies, as their existence was associated with addressing the 'poor white' problems (McKendrick, 1990). With the transformation of society and social structures, apartheid policies and laws were repealed and overturned by the new Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) paired with key supporting policies, such as The Reconstruction and Development Plan; (African National Congress, 1994); the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) strategy (Department of Finance, 1996), the White Paper on Social Welfare (Department of Welfare, 1997); and the Financing Policy for Developmental Social Welfare Services (Department of Welfare, 1996) (Triegaardt, 2002). The White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) provides a policy framework for transforming social welfare in South Africa from a residual approach to a developmental welfare system that facilitates human capacity and self-reliance within a caring and enabling socio-economic environment.

Before 1994, the social work profession was the leading role player in social welfare. The amendment of the Social Work Act (110 of 1978) to become the Social Service Professions Act (110 of 1978) made provision for the establishment of social service professions other than social work. The amendment of this legislation led to the recognition of other social service professions, such as community development practitioners, child and youth care, and probation services for the contribution they have made in the social development sector. In addition, South Africa is facing enormous social, political, economic, health, and environmental challenges. These overwhelming and escalating social problems facing South African society require the coordinated efforts of all people involved in social development. They cannot be accomplished by social workers and the social work profession alone (The White Paper for Social Welfare 1997). The transformation of social welfare created opportunities for the professionalisation of new professions. Bak (2004) argues that the role of social work to these other social service professions is left ambiguous.

Intrinsic to developmental social welfare is the notion of social development (Gray, 2006), which aims to combine the promotion of human welfare with economic development. Midgley's (2014) ideas on social development have played an essential role in shaping the current social welfare discourse in South Africa (Midgley & Tang 2001; Midgley, Tracey & Livermore, 2000; Midgley, 1995; Patel, 2016). The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) and the White Paper for Social Welfare are the two policy frameworks that provided the guideline for the practice of community development. Following the recommendations by the Presidency in 2003, CDWs were engaged by government departments as a new cadre of public service employed to bridge the gap between government services and the intended beneficiary at the community level (Department of Social Development, 2007). The developmental social welfare approach also informs the practice of community development. It is conceived as playing a pivotal role in bringing about

comprehensive, integrated, and developmental strategies in social welfare programmes (White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997).

The social development approach to social policy emerged in the 1960s to address human development needs in the world's poorest nations following independence from colonial rule (Patel, 2016). It re-emerged in the 1990s due to inequitable and distorted growth and development and was endorsed by the United Nations World Summit for Social Development in 1995 (United Nations, 1996). Essentially it is the policies and programmes that enhance people's welfare and at the same time contribute positively to economic development (Midgley, 1997). The social development approach was given international recognition in the United Nations World Summit on Social Development held in Copenhagen in 1995. The White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) in South Africa explicitly references the developmental adoption approach to social welfare. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) provide a framework from which to consider the development environment and the entire international community to work together towards a common end in ensuring that human development reaches everyone, everywhere. If these goals are achieved, world poverty will be cut by half, tens of millions of lives will be saved, and billions more will have the opportunity to benefit from the global economy (United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), 2016).

Community development is a strategy for promoting social development (Midgley, 2014;). Key concepts central to understanding community building include participation, empowerment, capacity building, community building, and community action (Swanepoel & De Beer, 2012; Midgley, 2014; Minkler & Wallerstein, 1997; Freirer, 1972). Community building seeks to strengthen social capital by mobilising participation in community initiatives and local associations. It builds capacity and fosters what Grobler (2009) calls people-centered development. Social capital plays a vital role in economic development. That has been a plethora of current research focusing on social capital in community development (Robinson & Green, 2011. p. 4). These focus on the role of social networks in promoting or preventing joint efforts. Economic development is not only about entrepreneurship and capital investment. It requires social relationships that reinforce economic transactions and policies that promote social capital. Community building relies on trained professionals or volunteers to initiate and implement community development projects and programmes that encourage community participation.

2.3. Non-Governmental Organisations, Civil Society Organisations, and community development

The White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) explicitly states that social welfare should be taken in partnership with the government, social service professions, communities, the

private sector, and civil society organisations. Social welfare services in South Africa were provided by religious organisations and the NGOs (Patel, 2005). The emergence of (NGOs) in Western Europe and North America had different and contradictory historical and political motives and circumstances (Kanyinga, 2007; Shivji, 2007). While NGOs emergence and active role can be traced back to the 1960s, even long before, their actual impact, growth, role, and spread in the developing countries of the South became visible in the 1980s and are documented in great detail within the context of social development and democratic governance (Lewis & Kanji, 2009; Tvedt, 1998; Edwards & Hume 1996). Historically, developmental NGOs represented themselves as radical, dynamic, and responsive institutions representing and articulating pro-poor interests, with a unique comparative advantage, but over time, they have been drifting towards being normative organisations existing alongside and influenced by advanced capitalism and its market ethos (Shivji, 2007; Nauta, 2004; Tvedt, 1998). Arising from these evolving and changing politico-economic conditions, as well as social influences and survival imperatives, these NGOs are steadily being predicated on creating [their] own leading centers and hierarchies, shared traditions, and the former radical ideology matured and transformed into appropriate shapes as part of mainstream politics (Argenti, 2004; Lehman, 2007). For this reason, Matanga (2010 p. 245) argues that NGOs are not isolated from the “societies and social order” in which they exist; and are an integral part of the social system and mirror the rest of society” (Aagaard, 2016, p. 4). Like the context in which they exist and operate, NGOs have grown more complex and ambiguous, and the institutional landscape in which they are embedded is undergoing rapid change (Ossewaarde, Nijhof & Heyse, 2008).

The state-civil society relations post-1994 significantly impacted the theory and practice of community development realities (Dhupath, 2002; Fisher, 1997; Kanyinga, 2007; Shivji, 2007). For many years, neither the state nor community-based sector articulated a straightforward, integrated, and coherent approach to community development's location, function, and role. This fragmentation extended not only to national government policy but also to educational qualifications, training, and resourcing. Since approximately 2000, creating the institutional and policy architecture for CDWs began to take shape. In 2005, the National Community Development Programme was launched (Department of Social Development, 2011).

African NGOs' social roots and subsequent growth resulted from particular developmental crises and democratic deficits experienced in Africa due to colonial social engineering. They thus were generally motivated by a common desire to find alternative working solutions for the betterment of their communities (Kanyinga, 2007), especially those that emerged during the formative years of post-colonial Africa and are understood to have emerged out of the community of interests informed by experiences of under-development and widespread

poverty. NGOs in South Africa are thus a product of African historical discourses and complexities. This is also to the South African political, social, economic, and contemporary social realities (Dhupath, 2002; Fisher, 1997; Kanyinga, 2007; Shivji, 2007).

Habib (2005) argues that the diversity and plurality of the NGOs are essential catalysts for a practical and functional relationship with the state, expressed through the positive polarity between NGOs, on the one hand, and mediated tension with the state, on the other. Habib (1999) terms the pull-push factor whereby different NGOs pull in different directions, some directly opposing the state, others collaborating with the state, and others between these polarities. Habib posits that this is a positive climaxing of NGOs maturing within the context of neoliberalism and globalisation, and that, as a consequence, "... the post-apartheid era has witnessed the 'normalization' of South African society in a neoliberal global environment" (Habib, 1999, p. 684). Ballard, Habib, and Valodia (2006) therefore see the significant challenges and threats facing civil society as neo-liberalism and its globalising effects, as well as the democratic transition and its consequent consolidation. In contrast to Atkinson (1996) and Habib (1999), Shivji (2007) argues that NGOs are neither victims of the authoritarian African state nor the neo-liberal and global imperatives, respectively; instead, he sees them as both the embryo and catalyst of neoliberalism and imperialism's 'foot soldiers' against the post-colonial African project of socio-economic and political independence as well as cultural emancipation. Shivji (2007, p. 14) thus places "the rise, the prominence and the privileging of the NGO sector in the womb of the neoliberal offensive, whose aim is as much ideological as economic and political... [they] are predicated on the philosophical and political premise of neo-liberalism and globalization paradigm, [and there exists], a false bi-polarity or dichotomy between the state and civil society". In this context, Shivji (2006) sees NGOs as a significant problem in themselves, especially the African NGOs whose agenda is argued to be driven from outside and thus needing help from African intellectuals to re-conceptualise their existence and agenda-setting, which must be rooted within the global relation of forces and the understanding of the African cause within it. As is evident from the literature above, many research studies on NGOs are primarily premised on the normative theoretical expositions of state-civil society relations to exclude internal NGO institutional and organisational dynamics, which might be instrumental to these state-civil society relations the very future existence of the sector itself.

The growth, development, and spread of NGOs within social development and political change since the 1980s has been primarily documented (Lewis & Opoku-Mensah, 2006, 2005; Edwards & Hulme, 1996; Fowler, 2000). NGOs (or the third sector) have become a significant constituent of civil society, especially over the last twenty-five years (Lewis & Opoku-Mensah, 2006; Edwards & Hulme, 1996). Moreover, in recent years, they have become synonymous with civil society, and the term 'NGOs' and 'civil society' are being used

interchangeably. Significantly, NGOs have come to play in consolidating democratic governance and social development internationally (James & Malunga, 2006). Challenges facing many NGOs relate to the "failure to grasp their transformed organisational imperatives, and they remain stuck in their historical glorification, comfortable and acclaimed accreditations" (van Tuijl, 2000, p. 17).

2.4. Contested nature of community development

Community development is a multidimensional field consisting of many disciplines and varied contexts. The literature is filled with contradictions about its meaning. There are diverse meanings of community development (Budapest, 2004; Christenson, Fendley, & Robinson, 1989; De Beer and Swanepoel, 2013; Hutchison & Nogradi, 1996; United Nations, 1955; Weyers 2011), and "community development projects take many shapes and that probably has inhibited definition" (Parsons, 1978, p.7). The literature in this field is frequently divided among practitioners who promote development in the community and those who advocate the development of the community (Shaffer & Summer, 1989). This distinction is often characterised as 'process' versus 'outcome' (Robinson & Green, 2011). In describing community development, various texts on community development start by defining the two key concepts: community and development, separately, then pronouncing what each offer when carried together. This chapter undertakes this task to define community development and the difficulty in integrating these two concepts and exploring the intricacies in the professionalisation of community development as a field composed of many disciplines.

2.4.1. The notion of community

The term community has a wide range of meanings. When it is used in community development, it may refer to a space-based or geographical and functional community (Ditlhake & Maphosa, 2021). The active community encompasses relationships and connections that exist among the group of people who share similar interests or concerns. The community contributes to how we identify ourselves, –self-knowledge or who we think we are, and how we position ourselves socially (Creed, 2006, Delanty, 2009). The notions of community and development evade clear definitions and meaning. Nevertheless, they are part of everyday experience, and as such, familiarity warrants investigation (Creed, 2006, p. 4). Community is well established as a contested concept (Diamond, 2004; Manson, 2000, p.19). The idea of community and development is essential in the current social or political discourse (Bennett, Grossberg & Morris (2005). Conceptualisation of the notion of community shifts with different perspectives and for different social and political purposes (Delanty, 2009). A significant change in community way of living over the years has been the upsurge of relational community and subsequent decline of the geographical community

(Garreau, 1991) and also extended to encompass virtual community, which is entirely lacking locality and may include the kind of relationships that on Facebook or WhatsApp groups and others in which others are part of the community (Ditlhake & Maphosa, 2021). However, in the South African local government, a community is defined by a ward system, a geographic area where a municipality is divided (Local Government Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (32 of 2000)). In this regard, the Municipal Systems Act (2000) regards the community as a key role-player in the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) process.

Development is frequently examined and not fundamentally contested but conceived as a buzzword (Cornwall, 2007; Rist, 2007). "Buzzwords conglomerate general agreement on the abstract notion they present with endless disagreement about what they might mean in practice" (Cornwall, 2007, p. 472). A critical difference between contested concepts and buzzwords is that a buzzword's notion has a stronger tone of disparagement than is usually linked with the fundamentally contested concept (Cornwall & Brock, 2005). A community can be conceptualised as a community of interest or geographic community. Authors such as Creed (2006) and Delanty (2009) argue that the idea of community shifts as it is conceptualised from different perspectives and diverse social and political commitments. It is shaped by the intention of those that use it (Plant, 2010). There is a broad agreement in the literature that community is contested, desirable, and represents positive regard and an achievement that is commonly valued. Contested concepts enjoy "automatic approval" (Standing, 2007, p. 514) and bring with them a "feel-good factor" that is broadly accepted (Cornwall, 2007, p. 475).

The involvement of people consistently emerged as one of the standard features in various attempts to define community (Ife, 2013; Taylor, 1982). The community's other standard features include social relationships, interactions, place, common ties, shared values, unity, reciprocity, and security (Taylor, 1982). These features depict different meanings of community and hence the internal complexity of the group. There is consensus in the scholarly literature on the warm collectivity or clench of community and disagreements on the notion of community. The negative connotation, which is also argued and centered around the creation of community, ignores aspirations to inclusivity (Godway & Finn, 1994), high expectation of security-laden on community (Bauman, 2001), and easy connotations of positive admiration or bold ambition (Plant, 2010). While the functional definition and meaning of community remain elusive, attempts to define community have clarified standard features and established an understanding of community as an ambivalent, contested, paradoxical, and fluid notion (Bauman, 2001; Delanty, 2009; Plant, 2010).

Various attempts to explain the meaning of community and a range of features described above have been identified. Only one common feature, the involvement of people, consistently emerged. The modern discussion argues that the simple presence of people is

not enough; experience of fitting in is also necessary (Creed, 2006; Delanty, 2009). Other features such as social capital, social network, virtual community, shared values, reciprocity, interaction, social relationships, and security, distinguished community. These features bring different ways to develop the meaning of community, therefore creating the internal complexity of community.

2.4.2. The notion of development

The term “development” implies change and progress or the unfolding of something new (Todora, 1997). It has application across domains and has been part of sociology for centuries (Frank & Smith, 1999). The long-lasting well-documented history of development is a tell-tale of the contested and contextual nature of the idea. Development has meant different things from one historical situation to another and from one actor to another (Hettne, 2009). The concept of development similarly evades clear meaning as Hettne (1990, p. 2) argues; “there can be no fixed and final definition of development... only suggestion of what it should imply in a particular context.” Development “has different things from one historical situation to another ” (Hettne, 2009, p. 1). Development has different meanings and diverse purposes. Narrowing development to the notion of economic change limits applying the notion; for example, it does not reduce the variety of development meaning (McMichael, 2012). A key concern in economic development is the capacity to measure development, and this is unlikely without some amount of standard features (McMichael, 2012). The focus of development as alleviating poverty and other related social issues includes features relevant to the quality of life. Development must therefore be conceived as a multidimensional process involving significant changes in social structures, popular attitudes, and national institutions, as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality, and the eradication of poverty (Coetzee, Graaff, Hendricks, Wood, 2001, McMichael 2012). Furthermore, authors such as Dithake (2020) and McMichael (2012) pointed to the central role of colonisation in understanding development. They argued that globalisation approaches to development have changed to address inequality and food supply issues, sustainability, and social change at the community level.

The terms 'development' and 'community' are not easily defined. Community development literature is filled with contradictory notions about the field. The notion of development has a stronger tone as compared to the contested notion of community. Whether these concepts are contested or are used as buzzwords, they assist in stepping back and thinking about the numerous and emotive meanings they conjure. The limitation of the framework is argued around the semantic distinction between “concept and conception” (Clark, 1973, p. 126). The shortcomings of the contested concept do not detract from the analytical capacity of the criteria of the concept, and instead, they “direct the focus of inquiry to whether using this framework adds insight in questioning these concepts” (Collier, Hidalgo & Miciuceanu, 2006,

p. 236). The rival claims to the idea of development are subject of continuing debate. The literature in the development discussion in contemporary writing identifies the pattern for using the terms development, underdevelopment, and developing (Midgley, 1995; McMichael, 2012). The practicality of the concept itself is under question (Sachs, 1992; Ziai, 2013). The postmodern development literature has emerged to argue this point (Ziai, 2007).

2.4.3. Comparing and contrasting diverse meanings of community development

There are different definitions, meanings, and conceptual frameworks for understanding community development. Underpinning the different definitions of community development is the contrasting framework for understanding the meaning of community development and its practice. These frameworks include community development as a process, program, outcome, and ideology (Christon, Fendley & Robinson, 1989, Robinson & Green, 2011). However, there is a wide range of definitions and frameworks of community development common ideas that cut across through all of them to bring about change in the structures and community's standard of living. There has been disagreement as to how change occurs. It is influenced by the context of policies, ideologies, and the perspectives of CDPs.

A review of the literature and empirical research shows that there has always been disagreement as to the most effective approach to planned change or community development and concerns about the outcome of various approaches of community development. Summers (1986, p. 361) outlines these differing views as “reformist versus revolutionary, populist versus elitist, structural versus individualistic, and outcome versus process”. All the way through the history of community development, there has been a sense of complementarity and pressure among the leading approaches to the practice of community development. Literature in community development is divided among those who promote development in the community and campaign the development of the community. This division is described as a process versus outcome. As a process, development focuses on implementing change, while an outcome emphasises the desired result of the change. However, what is common, is the continuing importance of place based, the significance of community participation in matters that affect people at the local level.

Ample studies have been conducted in recent years about the loss of community and the implications for civil society (Putnam, 2000). Globalisation has changed the economic, political, and social relationships at the local level. Challenging issues of education, housing, and jobs therefore remains the key concerns for most communities. There is interest in mobilizing residents to build assets that improve their quality of life (Green & Haines, 2008; Kretzmann & McKnight, 2005). While communities are closely or indirectly incorporated into the global economy, culture and community relationships issues continue to play an essential role in the daily life of people in communities. The idea of community as a valid concept today

is often criticised by social analysts. Much of this analysis emphasises the individualistic nature of many modern societies (Bellay, Madsen, Sullivan, Swiller & Tipton, 1985). Many cultures are individualistic in contrast to collectivistic, and many issues encourage people to look for common interests and concerns at the local level. Other critics argue that the concept of community is filled with assumptions about a standard set of values and norms. This assumption tends to ignore the divisions at the community level in terms of race, gender, and class that may yield diverse values and interests. The use of the concept "community" in this paper does not presuppose that communities hold the same values or follow similar norms. It presupposes that there are imposed or joint issues by many people who live in a given area. Community development has evolved beyond a focus on poverty, including education, health care, and the environment.

2.4.4. International context of community development

The practice of community development as a profession, practice, method, and process at an international level has long been established since the 1960s and 1970s in the United State of America (USA), Australia, New Zealand, and Ireland (Littrell, Littrell, Iftekar & Jeanetta (2019, p. 39). Internationally, there are diverse definitions and contrasting conceptual frameworks for understanding community development. When community development is viewed as a profession, International Association for Community Development (IACD) (2004) states that community development as a profession integrates knowledge from many disciplines with theory, research, teaching, and practice as essential and interdependent functions that are vital in the public and private sector. This perspective of community as a profession emphasizes an eclectic approach to knowledge at the sectoral level (Flora, Flora & Gasteyer (2018); Littrell, Littrell, Iftekar & Jeanetta (2019).

In 2004, the IACD, together with the Combined European Bureau for Social Development and the Hungarian Association for Community Development, established the joint statement for community development, known as the Budapest Declaration. In an attempt to describe the limits of community development. The Budapest Declaration described community development as a way of strengthening civil society by prioritising the actions of communities and their perspectives in the development of social, economic, and environmental policy. It seeks the empowerment of local communities, taken to mean both geographical communities, communities of interest or identity, and communities organising around specific themes or policy initiatives. It strengthens people's capacity as active citizens through their community groups, organisations, and network; and the capacity of institutions and agencies (public, private and non-governmental organisations) to work in dialogues with citizens to shape and determine a change in their communities. It plays a crucial role in supporting active democratic life by promoting the autonomous voice of disadvantaged and vulnerable communities. It has a set of "core values/ social principles covering human rights, social

inclusion, equity and respect for diversity, and specific skills and knowledge base" (IACD), Combined European Bureau for Social Development, & Hungarian Association for Community Development, 2004, p. 1). The Budapest Declaration highlights the landscape of community development, specific values, and problems, and the multiplicity of actions possible under community development. Authors such as Campfens (1997) and Miller (2004) agree on the extensive and contextualised nature of the idea of community development.

Community development has diverse meanings, including a group of people initiating a "social action process or planned intervention to change their economic, social, cultural, and environmental situation" (Christenson, Fendley & Robinson, 1989, p.14). There is consensus in the literature that community development enhances the quality of the standard of living, who decides on matters that affect them, and how it is attained. There may also be points of dispute depending on the particular perspective on community development upheld by the community practitioner and the members in communities. These are community development as a process, ideology, programme, and outcome (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2012). Henderson & Thomas, 1980; Schenck et al., 2010; Westoby, 2014; Weyers, 2011). The term 'community' lacks precision. By 1985, more than 90 definitions of the community had already been recorded. The term community is used differently by different disciplines and even differently within disciplines, so there is no single correct meaning, and we have to be aware of what we mean when we use the term community.

Globally, the origin and practice of community development can be traced back to the early history of the modernisation theory of development in the 1950s and 1960s in western European countries and Africa (Chille, 2007; United Nations, 1996). Many authors trace the origin of World War II reconstruction efforts to improve less developed countries (Wise, 1998; Green & Haines, 2008; Georghegan & Powell, 2006). A more in-depth exploration of the history of the community in an international context is available (Cary, 1970; Christenson & Robinson, 1989; Summer, 1986; Vidal, 1992).

During the 1960s and 1970s, community development was formalised as an academic discipline and professional practice in countries such as United States of America, SA, the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada, and New Zealand (Chile, 2012). For example, in New Zealand, community development was professionalised, with funding programmes ranging from arts, sporting clubs, and voluntary associations and racing clubs that enabled the "growth of high caliber and skilled practitioners" (Chile, 2007, p. 53). The South African government adopted the Irish model of professionalisation. In Ireland, for example, community development evolved as a profession through the youth. However, in countries such as the United Kingdom, New Zealand, and Australia, community development has been formalised as an academic discipline and professional practice since the 1960s (Chile, 2012).

Internationally, and in countries of the South, non-professionals were utilised through citizen involvement to address the social and economic problems, population pressure, changing priorities (De Beer; 1998; 2010; Green & Haines, 2008; United Nations, 1996). Over the past 20 years in South Africa, an emphasis on community development, community participation, and asset-based community development approach has increased recognition, including sustainable community development by actively engaging community members on matters that affect them. Community development has been conceptualized as a “process of organising and supporting community groups in identifying, planning, and acting upon strategies for social change and gaining increased self-reliance and decision-making power as a result of their activities” (Toren cited in Labonte, 1993, p. 237). The developments in this field in South Africa with the resultant social transformation of social welfare have progressed into the professionalisation of community development.

2.4.5. Community development practice in South Africa

Advocates of liberal or humanistic views and radical participatory development are the two distinguished schools of thought in community development concerning the participatory development debate (Midgley, 1986). The radical debate supports grassroots initiatives and activities that promote engagements in community decision making, empowerment, and social justice among the powerless, rather than involving communities in tailor-made projects as is the case with the liberal approach, which is top-down by nature (De Beer & Swanepoel, 1998). Since the 1980s, the radical school of thought has gained ground and, to date, dominates the debate about community development. The radical approach to participation led to the development of different approaches to people-centered community development (Grobler & Schenck, 2009); social development (Midgley, 2014); learning process approach (Korten, 1980); human-scale development and empowerment (Max-Neef 1991; Chambers, 2008); the asset-based approach (Green & Haines, 2008; Schenck *et al.*, 2010) and participatory action research (Reason & Bradbury, 2008). These perspectives which constitute community development are as varied as the perspectives on how they are best evaluated.

Community development literature is filled with contradictory notions about the field. The literature is divided among those who advocate "development about the community" and development for the community (Shaffer & Summer, 1989). This distinction is often characterised as a process versus outcomes: Is community development about promoting community participation in local matters, or is it about generating tangible outcomes, such as jobs, housing, or business sector? This is a false dichotomy because CDWs do both. CDPs are engaged in various activities, including economic development, housing, job training, and others (Brophy & Shabecoff, 2001). To a large extent, the field has been shaped by community practice rather than being guided by theory. The purpose of this chapter is to

situate contemporary community development as a substantive knowledge base and a field of practice in a historical context. More in-depth explorations of the history of community development are available (Cary, 1970; Christenson & Robinson, 2008; Vidal, 1992). Geoghegan and Powell (2008) assert that the practice of international community development continues to reflect differing ideologies and traditions. They state that today, there are three dominant practices of community development: A neoliberal version where civil society is subservient to the needs of economic development; a corporatist version that advocates a partnership between the state, market, and civil society; and an activist version, where community development is envisaged as a local, nodal and global resistance to neoliberalism. If this is correct, the meaning and the practice of community development continue to adapt to changing economic, political, and social conditions.

In South Africa, community development was enacted as a programme as stated in the White Paper of Social Welfare (DSD, 1997). After 1994, with the transformation of social welfare, the CDWs and CDPs have been employed in municipalities and DSD as the new cadres of public service servants to assist the government in working with communities to improve the social, economic, political, cultural, environmental services, and to promote service delivery to communities. Furthermore, they work in regional wards and Ward Committees. The CDPs are positioned in government to bridge the gap between civil society and other stakeholders in community development. The SAQA qualification for community development accredited includes NQF Levels 4, 5, and eight levels. The roles of CDPs in community development include:

- “understanding stakeholders and developing effective partnerships with ward committees, CDWs, community-based organisations (CBOs), and other community-based stakeholders;
- understanding the community, using a variety of tools such as household and community profiles or community-based planning, understanding their livelihoods, performing service delivery analysis, mapping community issues, and disaggregating households;
- developing community-based plans and helping communities to identify livelihood opportunities, working with different stakeholders at a community level, and linking to external stakeholders such as municipalities;
- assisting communities to mobilise and manage resources to support their priorities.
- supporting initiatives, projects and services, and conflict resolution in the community and helping communities to implement their plans
- helping communities to reflect on what is happening in their community, monitoring progress, and holding service providers accountable” (Department of Social Development, 2009, p.10).

CDWs are employed by COGTA and the CDPs fall under DSD and are given operational support by various government departments. Community development work is multidisciplinary, varied, and complex; thus, the CDWs have mentors who support them in their work. These mentors are known as community development supervisors, and they, in turn, report to their managers. They are all employed by provincial governments, with national and local governments (Ministry for Public Service and Administration, 2007). According to the Draft document of the norms and standards for community development (Department of Social Development, 2014-2015) classification of CDPs in South Africa is identified as follows: Assistant CDPs, community development supervisors, community development assistant managers, community development managers, community development policy developers and community development policy managers. The stakeholders in community development include household's/ family members, local government, municipalities, government, NGOs, private sector, research institutions, universities, and donor agencies. The government projects and programmes delivered by CDPS practitioners at the DSD include Bana Pele School Uniform Project, War on Poverty Household Community Profiling, and Development Centres.

2.4.6. The context of community development professionalisation in South Africa

Across many countries, transformations of societies into service economies have created a growing demand for professional services (Kuhlmann, 2013). The reality of the professionalisation of community development in South Africa is challenging and complex. It is impacted by several interconnected factors, including its deep-seated roots in the apartheid period, public policy change, and the transformation of the social structures and social welfare in South Africa. The result of these changes for social welfare has been the erosion of the social work profession as the only role player in social welfare, rendering the pool of social work professionals inadequate to meet the national social and welfare needs. The South African social development goals cannot be carried out only by social workers but by a group of social service professions. In 1998 of the Social Work Act (110 of 1978), the policy amendment to become the Social Service Professions Act (110 of 1978) made provision for the inclusion, recognition, and professionalisation of the other social service professions such as community development and probation services. This policy amendment also paved the way for the transition of the Council of Social Work (CSW) into the South African Council of Social Service Professions (SACSSP) as an umbrella body of both social work and the new professions such as community development and probation services (Lombard, 2000b). The social services that have been recognised and pursued regulation and professionalisation include youth care work, probation work, community development work, and numerous specialisations within the field of social welfare

(Department of Social Development, 2005, b). The Department of Social Development is heading the professionalisation project in the community development field. With the state centrally implicated in calling for professionalisation in the community development field in South Africa, a question can be asked as to whether professional credentialing will only apply to CDWs and CDPs in South Africa. Compared to the Republic of Ireland, Meade (2008, p. 890) stated that the professionalisation project of the community development sector in Ireland reflects the "creation of a policy active community sector; participation by local and national community sector organisations in a formal partnership with the state; targeted state funding for community initiatives; the deployment of community development programmes as social inclusion strategies; and an ever-growing emphasis on managerialism and accountability within the sector." However, Gaynor (2011) and Meade (2005) argue that the growing impact of state patronage may erode the orientation of community development and participatory democracy. This highlights that the state-targeted professionalisation project is not unique to South Africa. The South African national and international policy framework governing community development in the social development sector includes the following:

- The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1997.
- The Reconstruction and Development Policy (RDP), 1994.
- The White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997.
- The Non-Profit Act No 71 of 1997.
- The White Paper on Local Government of 1998.
- The White Paper on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities of 2015.
- Population Development Policy of 1998.
- The Children's Act 38 of 2005 as Amended.
- Older Persons Act of 2006.
- National Food and Nutrition Security Policy of 2014.
- The National Development Plan Vision 2030.
- Millennium Development Goals.
- Sustainable Development Goals: The 2030 Agenda.

These policy frameworks guide all respective social service professions within the social development sector to promote socio-economic development and sustainable development in communities. However, it is twenty-seven years after democracy in South Africa, and the process of professionalisation of community development as instituted by the White Paper for Social Welfare of 1997 has not been finalised. There is no legislative and regulatory framework governing community development. The process of professionalising and regulating the community development profession has been lengthy and complex, with the majority of practitioners not falling under professional occupation.

The development of professions and the study of professions are closely linked to the formation of the modern democratic state and establishing welfare services (Bertilsson 1990; Kuhlmann, 2006). In other words, the sociology of professions is a Northern project (Ruggunan, 2012). Various authors agree that professions evolve as either state regulation or statutory law and self-regulation (Abbott, 1988, Larson, 1977; Evetts, 2011; Freidson, 2001; Morgan, 1998; Light, 2010). The self-regulating mode is known as the “Anglo-Saxon model” of professionalisation, and the state-regulatory is also known as the “continental model” of professionalisation (Collins, 1990, p. 15). The North-Western lens theory and research on professions, professionalism, and professionalisation remain dominant even in the new directions in the sociology of professions (Evetts, 2006).

Furthermore, King, Marginson, and Naidoo (2011, p. 10) argue that “empirical examples from the global South are seldom considered in international debates”. As Kuhlmann (2011) states, little is known about the dynamics of globalization and local/national transformation in society and how this impacts on and alters the concept of professionalisation. The dominance of North-American and Anglo-Saxon approaches to the sociology of professions has led to a situation in which the model of liberal societies that underpins the regulatory architecture of the state profession relationship in these countries has informed the study of professions (Abbott, 1988; Freidson, 2001; Larson, 1977; Light, 2010). The state has been an essential player in legitimising professional powers and knowledge (Johnson, Larkin & Saks, 1995). The professionalisation of community development in South Africa has been the goal of the DSD for the past two decades, with the transformation of social welfare.

2.4. 7. Global context and the development of professions

Globally, the development of occupations and the evolution of professions has been the subject of scholarly investigations since the late nineteenth century until the 1950s when the sociologist Durkheim published the *Division of Labour in Society* (1893), and Weber (1904) published *The protestant ethic and the spirit of capitalism* and *Capital*, Volume 1, *Das Kapital* was written by Karl Marx (1867). Emile Durkheim, Max Weber, and Karl Marx developed a new science of the study of society, sociology. They studied social structures and presented their findings and ideas, which included observations on occupational groups and their position in the structure and function of society. This early analysis provided the basis for the analysis of the early development of the professions. Since then, the sociology of professions continuously and laboriously focused on defining 'profession' and investigating “what is and what is not a profession” (Evetts, 2003, p. 395). The theory of professions has since been critiqued and refined, reflecting new knowledge and changing social theories proposed. Developments in understanding professions have now shifted the focus of sociology in terms of the importance of professionalism, particularly the professionalism of the individuals (Evetts, 2003; Freidson, 2001).

Professionalisation has been a much-debated topic since the beginning of the 20th century (Abbott, 1994; Larson, 1977). Professions could only achieve credibility, efficiency, and reputation through professionalisation. One of the key findings in a recent study by Hart (2012) confirms statutory recognition of community development in South Africa. Although community development professionalisation in South Africa is evolving, there is limited empirical research investigating the status of professionalism, value, and ethical dilemmas of community development. This gap has also been identified by authors (Bonnin & Ruggunan 2013; Webster, 2004) in the study of the South African sociology of professions, and they recommended the need for qualitative studies focusing on the complexity and opportunities of professionalism. What is a professional, and what the current articulation of professionalism means about community development work in South Africa is evolving?

Abbott (1994) emphasised the need for community participation in the development of a profession, although there is no clear-cut agreement in the literature of community development on what community participation is or rules on how to ensure it (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2012; Henderson & Thomas, 1980; Schenck et al., 2010; Westoby, 2014; Weyers, 2011). The involvement of actors is widely recognised as a fundamental element in professionalisation, such as practicing members, users, state universities, and organisations (Burrage, Jaraush, & Siegris, 1990).

Professionalism evolved differently in different parts of the world. The academic literature on the history of professions and the state's role in professionalisation is dominated by the European, USA, and British contexts (Bonnin & Ruggunan, 2013). Carr-Saunders and Wilson (1933) were the first social scientists to systematically analyse the transition of diverse occupations in terms of professionalisation. Their work has since become known as a definitive history of professions (Niemann-Struweg & Meintjies, 2008). Various authors on professionalisation agree on the key features which distinguish professionalisation. Many authors define professionalisation in terms of specialised skills and training, minimum fees from salaries, professional associations, and the codes of ethics governing professional practice (Abbot, 1988; Burrage et al., 1990; Freidson, 1994; Macdonald, 1995). One of the salient features which emerges from the academic literature is that professionalisation follows a particular process, and professions are distinguishable by the body of knowledge, authority, community sanction, ethical codes, and culture (Greenwood, 1957). However, various definitions point to the fact that there is no clear-cut or one-size-fits-all process of professionalisation (Abbott, 1988; Burrage., 1990; Evetts, 2011; Freidson, 1994; Macdonald, 1995; Webster, 2014).). Rather, it is important to view this process as a continuum of the established and developing professions to avoid any distortions. Community development in South Africa falls within the lower end of the continuum since it is a developing profession.

Since the 1960s, sociologists have undertaken significant research into the history, dynamics, and evolution of various professions (Abbott, 1988). One of the insights that have emerged is that professions emerged differently in different countries. The factors contributing to that include history, culture, political, and economic circumstances. The context, in turn, affects the activities and working conditions of the professionals. The neo-Weberian theories provide a comprehensive analysis of the actors, strategies, power relations, and knowledge claims associated with the institutionalisation of professions in the national context (Abbotts, 1988; Burrage et al., 1990; Evetts, 2011; Freidson, 1994; Macdonald, 1995; Webster, 2014).). The functional role, political and self-interested dimension underpins the orthodox understanding of the professional project. The functional role of the professional trait includes setting and maintaining the standards about competence and ethics. The political and self-interested dimension deals with establishing and pursuing monopolies, restricting numbers, and upholding exclusive rights for sustaining fee levels and social standing.

Some studies have alluded that professions evolve as more or less independent self-regulating bodies and by statutory law or state regulation (Morgan, 1998). In South Africa, the discourse on professionalism extends beyond the expert or high-skill occupation. Race, gender, and lower skill occupation dominate the literature on professionalisation (Webster, 2014). It is evident that there are intriguing parallels to be drawn from the above as a particular issue, and practice dilemmas re-emerge in different contexts over time. The professionalism dynamism in the South African context is the discourse of professions within as well as above (Evetts, 2011). Adopting the sociology of professions as a theoretical framework in this study will provide an opportunity to interrogate the role of community development in the context of a multi-service team practice issue, ethical dilemmas, and views about the professionalisation of the community development state project.

2.4.8. Professionalisation and socialisation of students in the academic programme

Professionalism is an imprecise concept and has many meanings and interpretations. There is no consensus in the literature on professionalism on how it is defined, how to develop and measure professionalism. Webster (1997) defines professionalism as a set of attitudes and behaviors appropriate to a particular occupation. It is defined by sets of attitudes and behaviors specific to the professions. The development of professional attitudes and behaviors are essential in the practice of community development and for maintaining the status and reputation of the community development profession. How to foster professional attitudes and behaviors in community development remains a crucial area for further investigation.

Various authors describe professions as possessing sets of structural and attitudinal attributes that set them apart from occupations (Greenwood, 1957; Parsons, 1951; Vollmer, 1966; Wilensky, 1964). Attitude is defined as a mental position, feeling, or emotion about a fact or state (Webster, 1997). In contrast to attitude, behavior is defined as the manner of conducting oneself (Webster 1997). Professional attitudes according to Hammer, (2000, p. 456) refer to a “predisposition, feeling, emotion, or thoughts that uphold the ideals of a profession and service as a basis of professional behavior”. Professional behavior includes moral behavior that enhances the best outcomes in professional responsibilities and interfaces (Purkerson, Mason, Chalmers, Popovick & Rupp, 2000). Other authors describe the components of professional behavior and attributes as encompassing altruism, excellence, honor and integrity, duty, and respect for others (Hammer, 2000).

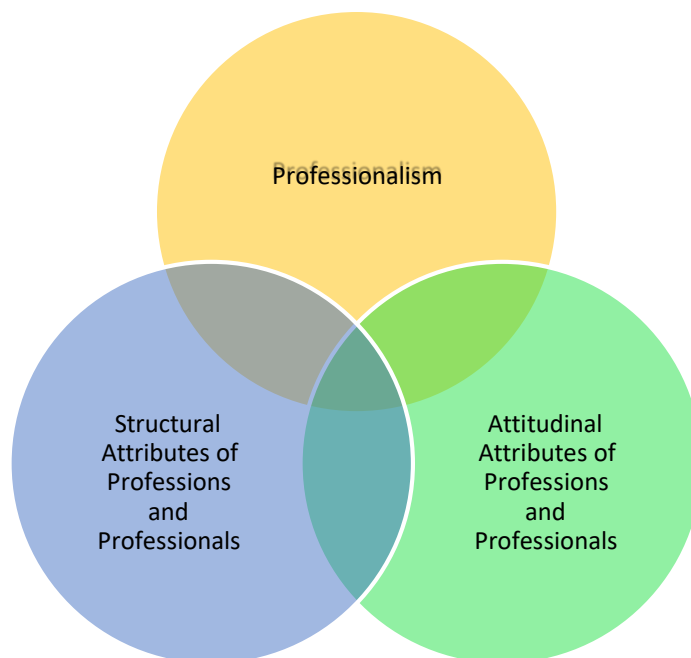


Figure: 2.1. Structural and attitudinal attributes of professions (Adopted from Hammer, 2000).

The structural attributes of professions and professionals include a body of knowledge, professional values, and skills, unique socialisation of student members, licensure/certification, professional bodies, governance by peers, social prestige, vital service to society, code of ethics, autonomy, the equivalence of members, and unique relationship with the client (Hammer, 2000). The attitudinal attributes of professionals are described as the use of the professional organisation as a significant reference, service to the public, self-regulation, sense of calling to the field, and autonomy (Hammer, 2000). In this study, a broader definition of professionalism encompassing structural and attitudinal attributes will be adopted. The development of student attitudes and behavior is the more significant part of professional socialisation and the development of professionalism. Merton, Reader and Kendall (1957) describe professional socialisation as a process by which people

selectively acquire the values and attitudes, shared interests, professional skills, and knowledge. This definition will be applied in this study, and the term professional socialisation will describe the transformation of community development students into professionals. In light of the professionalisation of community development occupations, CDPs are faced with the challenge of keeping professionalism as a basis for all their professional activities. It is also incumbent on universities to educate and train students to become professionals. Professional socialisation literature explicitly indicates that the factors that have had the most significant influence on student attitudes and behavior are: the values and behavior that students bring into the professional programme, role modeling in the professional and academic environment, and the environment themselves (Fitzpatrick, While & Roberts, 1996). Although no literature conclusively offers proven or known methods for fostering students' professionalism, these key factors have been identified as potentially having a more significant impact on students as they develop into professionals.

2.4.9. Stakeholders and professionalisation

Various studies on the registration of professions have noted that the process of registration of professions is long, complex, and demanding (Cumming, 2008). The international drive towards the regulation of professions is intended to raise standards and enhance the profession's standing. Regulating practice, according to Webb (2006, p. 42), is to “govern and control a set of rule-bound actions or procedures”, other identifying characteristics of regulation include elements, such as standards, status, autonomy, public recognition, and the (Weiss-Gal & Welbourne, 2008) and vary substantially from one country to another. In improving the community development status as a full-blown profession, it is imperative to involve all stakeholders in the professional activity of community development practice. In answering why improving professional status is essential, for Brill (2001, p. 224), the genuine concern is societies granting “community sanction, authority, and status to the profession”, which is crucial to the continued growth of the profession. For community development to accomplish professional status, it has to meet all the criteria that have been used to evaluate the profession since Flexner's (1915, p. 581) initial article in 1915. The six criteria of a profession delineated by Flexner are “(a) features “essentially intellectual operations with large individual responsibility;” (b) is based on science and learning;(c) uses knowledge for a practical and definite end; (d) possesses an educational communicable technique; (e) tends to self-organization; and (f) is altruistic in motivation.” The professional education of community development has substantial core knowledge on the community development process. Research on improving the quality of community practice has focused on practice processes (De Beer, 2012; Weyers, 2014). Achieving the standards requires the commitment of all stakeholders.

Frisch and Servon (2006, p. 89) assert that community development systems consist of actors, strategies, policy tools, and best practices. In South Africa, the players include government, sponsors, private sectors, civil society, NGOs, professional associations, communities, and universities. The government created policies and programmes on how community development occurs (Department of Social Development, 2007). In South Africa, the government plays a crucial role in community development. The government employs CDWs and is regarded as a new cadre of public servants in promoting service delivery. This implies that the state is the provider of services, and communities are the recipients. The state's involvement raises contestations in the professionalisation of community development. De Beer and Swanepoel (2012) argue that community development in South Africa needs to be guarded against being co-opted by the state and being used for service delivery (Maistry, 2012).

Moreover, Banks (2012) argues that codes of ethics are integral to the definition of the profession, and it is said to be a feature of professionalism. In learning lessons from other professions, Rhodes (1991, p. 18) questions whether the current social work practice empowers clients or undermines them: "the focus on 'professionalism,' for example, runs the risk of increasing the power and authority of the worker over the client and thus of empowering workers rather than clients." The challenge for the institutions representing community development professional activity, including professional associations and institutions of higher learning, is how they will nurture and preserve an environment in which community development professionals can uphold the new professionalism. Chambers (1993) proposes new professionalism as a professional activity that puts people, especially the poor, first. Within professional social work literature, new professionalism is expressed as constructed on the recognition for professional knowledge to be employed in the best interests of the citizens, while at the same time embracing the elitist professional practice (Healy, 2000; Lymbery, 2001).

Registration of the profession and codes of ethics is seen to protect standards, promote the profession, and embed the profession's values. This is echoed in the International Association of Schools of Social Work (IASSW) Global Qualifying Standards for Social Work Education and Training (2002), section 9.3 makes explicit reference to both registration and codes of ethics, and viewed them as interlinked (Orme, J. & Rennie, G. (2006). McDonald, Harris, and Winterstein (2003) state that registration is a source of strength, as it presents formal recognition by the government. Lack of the arrangements and systems for professional recognition, they suggest, reflects a weakness in advancing professionalisation. The social work profession in South Africa grappled with professionalisation, defining its boundaries and relationship to other professions, and establishing its own professional identity (Mazibuko & Gray, 2007, p. 129). Healy and Meagher (2004, p. 50) provide positive

arguments for professionalisation and contend that a de-professionalised and deskilled workforce is not in an excellent position to defend the interests of the service users. However, there is consensus in the literature about the significance of registration, code of ethics, professionalism, and the professionalisation project. Concerns regarding registration have been raised as a challenge. Registration is seen to be reflecting a version of professionalism based on the professional as a technician and contributes further to the technical aspects of the profession (Banks, 2004; Healy & Meagher, 2004; McDonald, Harris & Winterstein, 2003).

2.5. Perspectives on ethics theories

In contemporary South Africa, ethics play a vital role in all aspects of life. Community development, social work, and the ethics of development are no exception. Although the term 'ethics' is commonly used in different ways, there is agreement that a distinction has to be made between ethics as synonymous with moral philosophy, which is used in a singular term, and ethics as moral norms and standards used in plural terms (Banks, 2012). Meta ethics, normative ethics, and descriptive ethics are the three broad types of ethics distinguished in the literature of moral philosophy (Warnock, 1998). Although moral ethics is confined to meta-ethics, the nature and the merit of moral philosophy are disputed in the literature of ethics (Urmson, 1975). Norms and standards are the other overlapping terms used to refer 'to ethics. Authors vary in terms of whether they regard ethics as norms, standards, rules, principles, character traits, or codes of ethics (Banks, 2012).

There are two different and competing schools of thought which can be distinguished within the field of ethics. The first school of thought focuses on action or ethics of conduct, including deontology, teleology consequentialism, and utilitarianism (Banks 2012). Critique has been leveled against a principled approach in professional ethics (Beauchamp & Childress, 2009) and the Kantian and Utilitarian approach to morality. The critique leveled against the principle-based approach and professional ethics is that it emphasises actions instead of the person doing the action (Banks, 2012; Gray & Webb, 2010). Many professions have been more inclined to follow deontology and defined it as acting out of duty or obligation (Corey, Corey & Callanan, 2011; Kant 1948). Teleology stresses the "end results," which is the "ultimate purpose of goodness pursued in ethics" (Corey, Corey & Callanan, 2011, p. 8).

Furthermore, the form of the teleological theory, utilitarianism and consequentialism emphasize the person's character and the importance of the consequence of our actions (Banks, 2012. Corey, Corey & Callanan, 2011). Ethics form part of the developing profession of community development. The deontology and teleological theories inform the debates and discussion about ethics and, in some critical ways, the professionalisation of community development in South Africa. Therefore, in some important ways about the relevance of code

of ethics, to investigating the ethical issues and complexities for community development evolving profession in South Africa.

The second stream of thought focuses on the agent's character, which includes ethics of care, virtue-based ethics, post-modern ethics, and proximity ethics (Banks, 2012; Corey, Corey & Callanan, 2011; Gray & Webb, 2007; Gasper, 2008). In contrast to the principle-based approach to ethics, it ignores essential features encompassing making moral judgement and living moral life, including the character, motives, and emotions of the moral agent, a particular context in which judgments are made, and the particular relationship and commitment people have to each other. Although virtue ethics in social work is increasing in relevance, scientific research in this area is limited. Much has been written about ethics of conduct from a normative or philosophical perspective. A more explanatory approach is required in community development to explore and describe the fundamental concept of virtue ethics in community development. How CDPs develop into ethically sensitive competent practitioners remains an unexplored area. In the context of development ethics, notions of accountability, social justice, rationality, and fairness are regarded as essential aspects of making ethical judgments and decisions (Goulet, 2005). There is considerable disagreement among ethical theories about the nature of ethics and how ethical judgment is arrived at and justified (Gasper, 2008).

The social work code of ethics is derived from Western liberal thought and is heavily influenced by the commitment to individualism. Imposition of values disregards other philosophical and cultural traditions of universalism, such as those of Asia, Africa, China, and the East (Hugman, 2005; Midgley, 2001; Healy, 2000). Critics of universalism challenge are due to the objection to the primacy of individual rights. Critics point out that many of the other traditions prioritise the harmony of the family or community over the interests of the individual (Healy & Meagher, 2004). Emerging from and in response to the traditions of the Western liberal theory are ideas about ethics that take entirely different starting points from the debate between deontology and teleology. Hugman (2005, p. 447) describes these as an "ethics of care," which take caring relationships as the start point; "ethics of compassion" where intelligent use of emotion provides the fulcrum for ethical decision making; an "ethics of life" that takes sustainability as a criterion, and post-modern ethics that focus on the contingent, uncertain, and transient nature of contemporary social relationships. However, Hugman (2008, p. 448) provides the following solution to this dilemma: "Perhaps, then, the solution to this diversity is to regard ethical statements, at both the national and international level, as living traditions in the manner of an ongoing conversation." There will be a written statement on ethics at any specific time, probably in the form of a code, which applies to the professional community. Nevertheless, this is open to continual debate and reconsideration.

2.5.1. Professional code of ethics

Professional standards establish the accepted or normative behavioral conduct of professional practice (Gasper, 2008, Gray & Webb, 2010). According to Reamer and Shardlow (2009), professionals are expected to conform to the profession's standards, and there are quality control measures for practice. The standards are presumed to guide practitioners' everyday practice, and help practitioners confront ethical dilemmas (Bank, 2012; Dolgoff, Loewenberg & Harrington, 2009). Although there are limited non-empirical and empirical studies that guide community development professionals, there are significant empirical studies in social work (Banks, 2012). Social work's current formulations of the codes of ethics are founded on notions of confidentiality, individualism, and "client" self-determination, rooted in Western hegemonic discourses. Codes of ethics seem to serve at least four functions: (i) guidance to practitioners about how to act; (ii) protection of users from malpractice or abuse; (iii) contribution to the 'professional status' of an occupation; (iv) Establishment and maintenance of professional identity (Banks, 1998, 2012). Various authors in the literature and studies of codes of ethics, ethical dilemmas, and ethical decision making have consensus that the standards of practice and the limits of ethical behavior are difficult to define (Barker, 1988; Hampton, 1984; Vrannas, 1982). In social work, Banks and Nohr (2003) identify dual relationships, intimate relationships, mixed modalities, advice-giving, boundary behaviors, and financial transactions as the six domains of quality control measures for practice. This explanatory study was conducted on these uncertainties in community development in South Africa.

Ethics are an essential feature of the professions based on the premise that professional education and practice require distinctive knowledge, skills, and values, which can be obtained only through professional education (Hugman, 1996). Internationally, community development is a professional practice and academic discipline (Littrell & Murphy, 2006). The current formulation of the international codes of ethics for community development is founded on notions of "Community Development is a practice-based profession and an academic discipline that promotes participative democracy, sustainable development, rights, economic opportunity, equality, and social justice, through the organisation, education, and empowerment of people within their communities, whether these be of locality, identity or interest, in urban and rural settings" (IACD, 2017, p.6). The principles of good practice seem to serve at least five functions: (i) Promote active and representative participation toward enabling all community members to meaningfully influence the decisions that affect their lives; (ii) Engage community members in learning about and understanding community issues, and the economic, social, environmental, political, psychological, and other impacts associated with alternative courses of action; (iii) Incorporate the diverse interests and cultures of the community in the community development process; and disengage from the

support of any effort that is likely to adversely affect the disadvantaged members of a community; (iv) work actively to enhance the leadership capacity of community members, leaders, and groups within the community and (v) be open to using the full range of action strategies to work toward the long-term sustainability and well-being of the community. The lesson from international experience is that careful attention should be paid to the principles of good practice for the evolving profession of community development.

2.5.2. Ethical decision making

Ethical criteria and value judgments are core components of ethical decision-making (Banks, 2012b; Dolgoff, Loewenberg & Harrington, 2009). Although facts and skills are essential, ethical judgment cannot be dealt with based on factual information or professional skills alone, regardless of their scope or refinement (Rhodes, 1986). Various ethical decision-making models in social work are available to guide practitioners in the ethical decision-making process. McAuliffe and Chenoweth (2007, p. 40) offer a helpful review and classification of ethical decision-making models, including “process models, reflective models, and cultural models”. Community development as a developing profession has a gap in the literature on how community development professionals define, understand, and respond to ethical issues in their professional practice. Models for ethical decision-making can be used to evaluate ethical problems and dilemmas (Goovaerts, 2003; Gallagher & Sykes, 2008; Congress, 1999).

2.6. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Sociology of profession (Abbott, 1988; Evettes, 2011; Freidson, 2001; Collins, 1990), social development theory Patel (2016); Banks’ (2012) ethics theory and Schenck *et al.*’s (2010) and McKnight & Kretzmann (1993), asset-based community development are theoretical lenses adopted in this study. The theories of professions assisted in interrogating the professionalisation of community development in South Africa and assumptions on the professionalisation process and profession, professional, professionalism, thus generating theory from data collected. Banks (2012) will provide valuable insight about a framework for principles, techniques for ethical assessment, and ethical decision making in professional practice and their place in a professional community development profession.

2.6.1. Asset Based Community Development

Schenck *et al.* (2010) Asset Based Community Development (ABCD) framework is underpinned by strengths and an asset vulnerability approach to understanding community development. The ABCD as a theoretical lens has been chosen for the following reasons: Firstly, it is adaptable to diverse local contexts and is based on a people-centered community development process. Secondly, it relies on participation and pays special attention to strengths and assets. Thirdly, it emphasises the importance of the bottom-up rather than the

top-down approach. Lastly, Flora, Flora, and Fey (2004) expand the understanding by applying the concept of cultural capital, the way people know, underpinned by social construction. It aligns with the paradigm adopted in this study, which focuses on the subjective nature of human interaction. To this effect, asset-based community development focuses on the interaction between the natural, cultural, human, social, leverage political, financial, and the built capitals Flora et al., including enhancing assets to people at the community level.

2.6.2. Community development theory

There are different definitions and conceptual frameworks for understanding community development. Underpinning them is the contrasting framework for understanding the meaning of community development and its practice. These frameworks include community development as a process, programme, outcome, and ideology (Christenson & Robinson, 1989, p.13). Although there are many definitions and frameworks of community development, one idea that threads through all of them is bringing about change in the structures and communities' standards of living. There has been disagreement as to how change occurs. This difference is also influenced by the context of community development practitioners' policies, ideologies, and perspectives. The literature and empirical research review show that there has always been disagreement as to the most effective approach to planned change in community development and concerns about the outcome of various community development approaches. Summers outlines these differing views as reformist versus revolution, populist versus elitist, structural versus individualistic, and outcome versus process (Ife, 2013; Meade, 2011; Shaw, 2008, 2011; Summers, 1986, p. 361). Throughout the history of community development, there have been dominant complementarity approaches to the practice of community development. In South Africa and other parts of the world, non-professionals were utilised through citizen involvement to address the social and economic problems, population pressure, changing priorities (De Beer & Swanepoel, 1998). The community development theory lens by De beer and Swanepoel (2013) is adopted in the study and emphasises the importance of local participation in the actions and processes that shape communities.

2.6.3. Social development theory

The concept of "social development" originated in the Global South after World War II (Midgley, 2014). Although it has been regarded as the third world approach, social development has attracted attention in other parts of the world and, Western countries. Underlying the diverse definitions of social development is the contrasting theoretical framework that encapsulates the diverse concepts, ideas, and practice interventions that have emerged and are associated with social development (Midgley, 1995; Patel, 2016). The field of social development is not known for scholarly accomplishments. Various authors

suggest research studies that evaluate and enhance social development practice (Midgley, 2014). The social development theory lens is employed and fosters social and economic development on a micro, mezzo, and macro level, and enhances the commitment of human rights, and social justice.

There are different approaches to the definition of social development and its formulation in different historical contexts. This usage reflects internal efforts to promote Millennium Development Goals, adopted at the United Nations Millennium Summit in 2000. In contrast, social development describes lofty ideals such as progress, social integration, peace, and social justice. Scholars working in different academic fields such as development studies, social work, sociology, and social policy have used the term in different ways. The definition of social development reflects ideological and conceptual interpretations. These different definitional approaches reflect the diverse normative beliefs of scholars and practitioners and the ideas that find expression in social development. These definitions reveal different types of interventions, and there is no single agreed-upon definition of social development.

2.6.4. Sociology theory of professions

The classical authors of the sociology of professions such as Durkheim (1893) and Weber (1893) considered the role of professions in social development. The development of the profession or professionalisation in community development literature is extensively reviewed internationally, including barriers to professionalisation. These have included lack of professional identity (Hammer, 2000); institutional challenges, the absence of professional organisation within the occupation itself (Collins, 2011; Evetts, 2011; Johnson, 1995; Larson, 1977), hierarchical and institutional diversity and disintegration, and lack of professions' own knowledge base (Abbott, 1988; Freidson, 2001; Greenwood, 1957). Although in South Africa, there is limited empirical research and literature on the subject, there are reports on community development initiatives, projects, policy proposals, and academic contributions from associated disciplines, such as the sociological study of professions. References are available from writers from various disciplines, such as sociology, social work, and development studies (Abbott, 1988, Evettes, 2011; Freidson, 2001; Collins, 2019; Bonnin & Ruggunan, 2013; Faull, 2013; Webster, 2004; Sefalafala & Webster, 2013). The researcher, however, used and cited insights that were relevant and useful to the study.

There seems to be an agreement in the professional literature that the profession shares specific values and ethics in most parts of the world (Compton & Galaway, 1994; Loewenberg & Dolgoff, 1992; Potgieter, 1998). Community development in South Africa is

an emerging profession. Loewenberg and Dolgoff (1992) and Potgieter (1998) stress that there are ethical implications to almost every professional decision. An emphasis on professional ethics is due to a desire to “retrieve human values and moral concerns from the high-tech influence of science, professionalisation, and rapid technological innovation characteristic of all areas of contemporary life” (Walrond-Skinner & Watson, 1987, p. 5). Professional values are a particular grouping and ordering of values within a professional context. Although the terms ‘values’ and ‘ethics’ are used interchangeably in the literature, despite their differences in meaning, values in this study refer to a profession's beliefs about what is right or wrong (Congress, 1999). The profession adopts an ethical code to regulate the profession, and codes are general guiding principles for professionals. CDPs and CDWs are employees of NGOs, the Government, and CBOs. Developing the core values and principles of community development will provide valuable insight into professionalism and promote authentic community development. As argued by several authors (Chille, 2012; De Beer and Swanepoel, 2012; Hart, 2012; Maistry, 2012), the professionalisation process of community development work in South Africa has emerged onto the agenda state discipline and has mirrored the Irish model. Literature on professionalisation suggests that enactment of professionalisation is by no means straightforward (Burchell *et al.*, 1980). The community development profession is a unique discipline that has been informed by the political, social, and economic landscape and policy framework (Shaw, 2011, 2008; Meade, 2011). Figure 2.2. depicts a schematic presentation of the theoretical framework which underpins the research project.

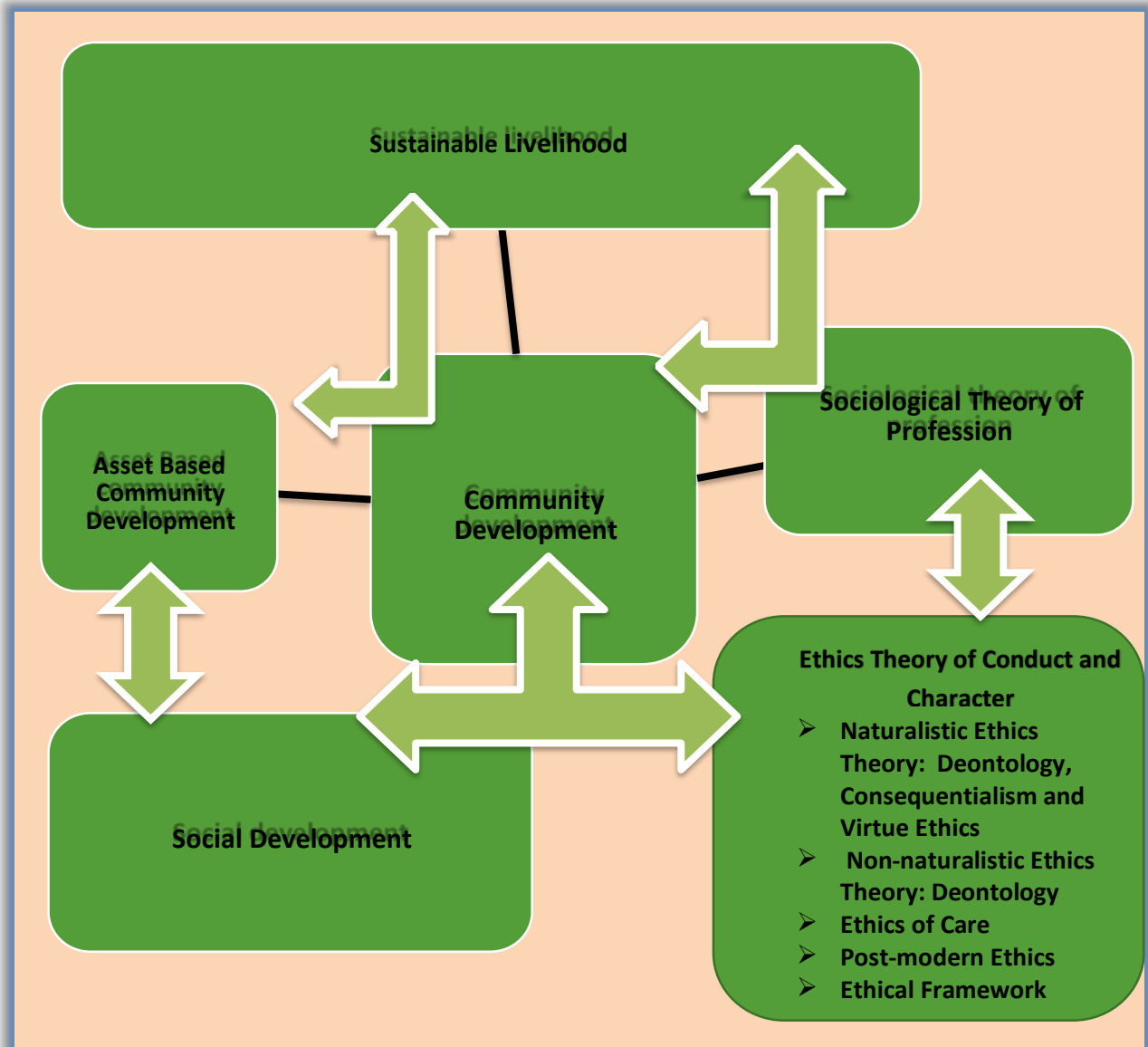


Figure 2.2. The theoretical framework underpinning the study

Professionalisation refers to the development of an occupational group towards the greater organisation, social status, recognition, and legislative protection of the profession (Abbott, 1988). 'Profession' also includes assuming a dominant position in the division of labor to gain control over the determination of the substance of its work (Freidson, 1970, p. 15). Sociological studies of professions have almost continuously focused on defining a profession and qualifying as a profession (Carr-Saunders & Wilson, 1933; Evetts, 2003; Freidson, 1970; Larson, 1977; Parsons, 1951). Examining past professional development theories reveals that professions develop in a standard professionalisation pattern (Abbott, 1988). Traditional theories of professionalisation argue that professions follow a specific sequence of development (Abbott, 1988). The continuum process seems to be the common theme in past professional development theories, emphasising licensure, association, and code of ethics. The professionalisation process poses a problem because it focuses on structure rather than on the context in which the professional activity occurs. Theories of professional development differ along two distinctly different dimensions, that is, formal and

substantive. The formal differences among the past professional theories include coalescence into groups, straight forward sequence of professionalisation's unique story (Wilensky, 1964), and elite's practitioners proposed by Larson (1977), which does not follow the convergence plot in his view, the substantive version includes the structural, functional, monopoly and cultural concepts. Exploring the benefits and the value of professionalisation of community development will be imperative to gain insight into the extent of success with which professionalisation has achieved its goals. Understandings of professions have shifted focus from professionalisation to the importance of professionalism, particularly the professionalism of the individual (Evetts, 2003; Freidson, 2001).

A profession as a category has been criticised as not a generic occupational type (Compton & Galaway, 1994), and it has been perceived to be under threat from organisational, economic, and political changes (Reed, 1996). Professions are portrayed as experiencing a reduction in autonomy and dominance and an inability to act as self-regulating occupational groups (Freidson, 1994; Harrison & Ahmad, 2000; Macdonald, 1995). Reed (1996) has argued the opposite and emphasised the expansion of occupations based on knowledge and employment divisions, economic growth sector in the labor markets of the developed countries (Frenkel, Korczynski, Donoghue & Shire, 1995), transitional (Buchner-Jeziorska & Evetts, 1997), and developing societies (Hiremath & Gudagunti, 1998).

Despite these different interpretations, disputes, and disagreements about what should be regarded as the defining features of a profession, Greenwood (1957) and Crompton (1990) emphasise that professions share many similar characteristics and standard processes. Abbott (1988) and Evetts' (2003) approach of a profession as a generic group of occupations based on knowledge, both technical and tacit, is adopted in this study and offers an explanation of how an occupation becomes a profession and understanding of professionalism. There is a shift of focus in the literature from defining a profession to the analysis of professionalism. Research grounded in the sociology of professions has drawn attention to the normative value systems and controlling ideology as two distinguished analyses of the meanings and functions of professionalism (Evetts, 2003).

A close observation of sociological theories of profession reveals that there is no universally accepted theory of professionalisation and profession. When sociological literature is pursued, different theoretical formulations conceptualise professionalisation, professions, and professionalism, which fall into two broad perspectives: functionalism and conflict theory. Wilensky (1964) and Hart (2012) are some of the theorists specialising in professional activity, and they consider professionalisation as a process and enlist different steps and attributes, such as defining a codified body of knowledge, fundamental principles, theories, practice, and certification process as features of professionalisation. There is no agreement concerning the features of a profession, but authors (Abbott, 1988; Freidson, 2001; Larson,

1977) agree on specialised knowledge, code of ethics, professional development, and research and control of access. A profession describes an occupation that assumed a dominant position in labor division to gain control over the substance of its work (Freidson, 1970). Against this backdrop, a significant question is asked about what are the complexities of the professionalisation of community development and how it evolved?

The 'sociology of professions' was born typically with an Anglo-American focus which identified the rise of the profession as an effort that commonly occurred initially to institutions to regulate specific areas of practice (Johnson, 1972; Larson, 1977). Some authors highlight the functional, public-spirited, and civilising motives behind this measure and accentuate the way the professional guilds allowed ethical and altruistic values, knowledge base, and standards to uphold about the public in order to safeguard services such as medicine and law (Carr-Saunders & Wilson, 1933; Parson, 1951). Other authors link professional projects to power enforcement and pursuit of self-interest by an elite group wanting to create a monopoly for their services, limiting numbers in a profession to preserve fee levels and social standing (Johnson, 1972; Larson, 1977). All these authors suggest that professionalisation is a bottom-up process that developed independently from direct government intervention. This perspective dominated the study of professions for many years. Efforts were made to abstract and generalise the unique features of a profession in a specific historical and geographical context and the intrinsic features of professionalisation (Evetts, 2003).

Burrage and Torstendahl (1990) challenge the above spatial conceptualisation of professionalisation and stress the relationship between the state and professions. The work of these authors revealed how the state is directly involved in institutionalisation, regulation, and re-organisation and as the primary end-user of technical services in a different context (Freidson, 1994). This is a different situation observed in the Anglo-American context, where autonomy from the state has been the foundational feature of professionalisation.

Classical studies in sociology examined middle-class occupations and white-collar work; Bonnin and Ruggunan (2013) the nursing profession, Nzimande's (1991) doctoral studies on black managers, Crankshaw (1997) on race, skill, and occupation, among others. The main questions raised by these studies do not resonate with some of the traditional debates concerning the sociology of profession (Crompton, 1990; Evetts, 2003). Authors such as Bonnin and Ruggunan (2013), in the study of their South African sociology of profession, recommend the need for qualitative studies focusing on the complexity and opportunities of professionalism (Webster, 2004). One of the driving forces behind the professionalisation of community development includes the need for lower-skilled occupations in the youth work field, for example, to gain occupational legitimacy and control access, as stated by Webster (2004). Against this backdrop, the study will examine critical issues, themes, and ethical dilemmas confronting community development workers (CDW) as a profession.

2.6. 5. Ethics theory

Limited research on ethics and ethical dilemmas among community development practitioners motivated the need to review the literature on ethical leadership. Ethics in business and leadership has become the focus of much scholarly interest (Mcann & Holt, 2013). Numerous books and articles focus on leadership theories, behaviors, and effective practice (Northhouse, 2003; Rost, 1993). The King Report on Governance for South Africa recognised that good governance starts with ethical leadership and corporate responsibility (King III Report, 2009, p. 24). Leadership in community development may be the critical determinant in ethics engagement.

The literature suggests that ethical theories are distinguished into two categories. The theories are related to behavior and character (Heifetz, 1994). Meta-ethics, normative ethics, and descriptive ethics are the three types of ethics used in social work professional ethics and will be adopted in this study (Banks, 2012). The three main ethical approaches to normative ethics include the virtue theory (ethics of character), consequentialism, and deontology (Banks, 2012; Gray & Webb, 2010). The main distinguishing feature of these approaches lies not in how moral dilemmas are approached but in how moral conclusions are reached. Approaches to ethics in social work have drawn on Kantian and utilitarian themes, focusing on the individual responsibility to choose courses of action that can be given a justification in apparently universal and rational terms (Banks, 2001, p. 5). Criticism has been leveled against them for not being universally rational and for reflecting a particular historical discourse. There is a need to learn and demonstrate both ethical principles and ethical virtues in the professionalism agenda. Virtue ethics theory emphasises that morality stems from human character; virtuous people and virtuous acts are most likely to produce moral outcomes and lead to human flourishing (Banks, 2012; Gray & Webb, 2010).

Several themes stand out and form the basis of how community development evolved and developed. Some of these are participation (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2012), collective action (Weyers, 2011), institutionalisation, training, project management (Nicholas *et al.*, 2010), community building, community action, and community economic development (Midgley, 2014, p. 103; Phillips, 2009); funding and the government's role and the influence of community development at the local level and improving the standard of living of the people. These are some of the key themes which illustrate how community development evolved and developed. Furthermore, these themes also highlight the debates about the complexities of the history and conceptualisation of community development practice.

2.7. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The literature reviewed in this study played a crucial role in shaping and conceptualising the research problem. The conceptual framework formed the basis for the research problem and

stems from the theoretical framework used in this study. The conceptual framework explains either graphically, or in narrative form, the main things to be studied, the key factors, concepts or variables, and the presumed relationship among them (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 18; Hennink et al., 2011, p.40; Maxwell, 2005). The conceptual framework in this study describes the concepts selected from the theoretical framework, which become the basis for this research inquiry. The key concepts drawn from the theoretical framework include professionalisation, professionalism, professional associations, ethics, social development, community development, and stakeholders. Social development has been defined in many ways, and there is no standard definition of social development that has been adopted (Midgley, 2014). Although much conceptual progress has been made in formulating relevant conceptual insights, the field is viewed as a practical affair in which concrete projects and programmes are much more prominent than theory (Midgley, 2014).

After a careful examination of the sociological literature and theory of professions, there are five elements on which there is consensus among the authors on professions. The five elements —systematic theory, authority, community sanction, ethical codes, and culture — constitute the distinguishing attributes that all professions possess (Banks 2012; Evettes 2004; Gray & Webb 2010; Greenwood, 1957). The key difference between professional and non-professional occupations lies in the element of superior skill, which flows from the body of theory or knowledge. Greenwood (1957) defines a body of theory in a profession as a system of abstract propositions that describe in general terms the class of phenomenon comprising the profession's focus of interest. The two key terms underpinning the concept of social development are as follows: Firstly, social refers to human interactions, such as a large number of groups and associations including the family, neighborhood, associations, formal organisations, communities, and even societies (Midgley, 2014, p.3). Secondly, development connotes a multi-faceted process that comprises social, cultural, gender, political, environmental, and economic dimensions of communities (Midgley, 2014). Although the social development literature and field remains fragmented and theoretically unrefined. Social development is defined as a “planned process of social change designed to promote the wellbeing of the population as a whole in conjunction with a dynamic process of economic development. Social development is people-centred that harmonises the economic and social aspects to achieving human development Midgley (1995:25), In this study, Midgley's (2014) definition of social development is adopted in the study.

Community development is a strategy for promoting social development (Midgley, 2014, Patel, 2016). Key concepts central to understanding community development include participation, empowerment, capacity building, community building, community action, process, programme, outcome, and ideology (Midgley, 2014; Minkler & Wallerstein, 1997; Freirer, 1972). Community building seeks to strengthen social capital by mobilising

participation in community initiatives and local associations. It builds capacity and fosters what Grobler (2009) calls people-centered development. Social capital plays a vital role in economic development. Community building relies on trained professionals or volunteers to initiate and implement community development projects and programmes that encourage community participation.

Community participation has been recognised in community development literature. In government, participation means no more than using the services offered (Cornwall, 2007). This is different from the more potent forms of participation stated above, which entail involving and assisting communities to exercise control over decisions to achieve goals (Summer, 1986). There is no clear-cut agreement in community development literature on the nature of community participation or prescription to ensure it. Internationally, community development took shape in the 1950s when community development was synonymous with community participation (Chile, 2007; De Beer, 1998). The situation has now changed, and there appears to be no clear understanding of the relationship between the two (Abbotts, 1995). The community development approach emphasises self-help, the democratic process, and local leadership in community revitalisation (Barker, 1988; Henderson & Thomas, 1980). Most community development work involves the participation of the communities or beneficiaries involved (Cornwall, 2007). Thus, community participation is an essential component of community development and reflects a grassroots or bottom-up approach to problem-solving. Community development has been conceived as a social process resulting from citizen participation (De Sylva, 2018). However, drawing on the key features identified above, this study defines community development as a strategy for promoting social development in which community members actively participate in addressing community-identified priorities and are empowered through the community development process (Kenny, 1994; Minkler & Wallerstein, 1997).

As a process in this study, community development refers to implementing change such as technical assistance, self-help, solidarity, and social support. As a programme, community development refers to the government programmes and policies of community development. As an outcome, it will be used to refer to the desired results of change. Community development as an ideology of action is used to restructure the social, normative, and economic order for desired change (Christenson & Robinson, 1989, p. 13). Although there are various definitions and conceptual frameworks of community development, one common denominator that appears among all is that community development must bring change within the community to win a more fundamental and sustainable way. As Shaw (2011) argues, although there are differences in the level of change, how it happens, who bears the

burden of change or benefits from it are the questions whose answers, though shaped by the definitions, play out in the context of policies, ideologies and practitioners' perspective.

Asset-Based Community Development (ABCD) is a practice model approach to shift existing capital in the community to attain changes (Boyd, Hayes, Wilson & Bearsley-Smith, 2008). An asset is also known as capital or capabilities. The term capital refers to individuals and institutions' talent, skills, and capacity (Kretzmann & McKnight, 2005). The different types of capital that can be distinguished in community development include human, social, political, physical, and financial capital. ABCD's approach carries out the principle of detection and building by using available capital within the community to address their needs or solve problems (Schenck *et al.*, 2010). ABCD approach also stresses the importance of local resources by supporting the usable potential to empower and mobilise the community while promoting positive changes (Boyd *et al.*, 2008). It shows that the development community has to be driven by communities (Mathie & Cunningham, 2003), and it emphasises the strength and capacity of local communities to achieve sustainable development (Bergdall, 2003). It is a philosophy that believes in bringing out the capacity, ability, and talent of the people (Chambers, 2008).

Professional associations across the globe are geared towards protecting the interests of professions, clients, or communities by maintaining professional conduct and education standards for the profession. Mazibuko and Gray (2007, p. 130) define professional associations as a system that enhances professional identity, provides opportunities to exchange ideas, and encourages professional growth through conferences, publications, newsletters, and funding for research. Professional associations are also conceived as agents which create opportunities for inter-disciplinary coalitions and alliances, solidifying a united force for policy and legislative advocacy at the local, state, and federal levels (Miley, O'Melia & DuBois, 1998).

The term "ethics" is broadly used in two ways. Firstly, it is used synonymously with moral philosophy and secondly, as a moral norm and standard. Within each of these broad types of usage, variations depending on what type of moral philosophy is stressed and whether moral norms are seen as habits, preferences, rules, standards, principles, or character traits. Moral philosophy describes the branch of philosophy concerned with studying morality, moral problems, and moral judgments (Bank, 2012). The nature and merit of moral philosophy are disputed in the literature of ethics. All the definitions identified above is adopted in this study. Figure 2.3. below depicts a schematic presentation of the conceptual framework which underpins the research project.

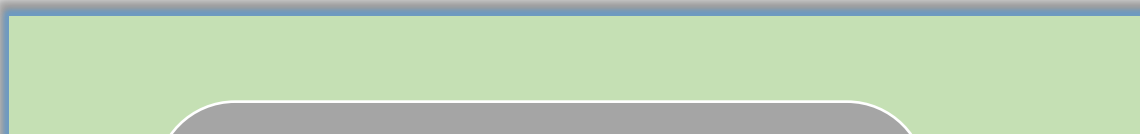


Figure 2.3. The conceptual framework underpinning the study

Meta-ethics, normative ethics, and descriptive ethics are the three broad types of ethics distinguished in moral philosophy literature (Banks, 2012; Gray & Webb, 2010). Moral philosophers confine moral philosophy to normative and meta-ethics. Meta-ethics is concerned with critical and analytical thinking about the meaning and use of moral terms such as right, good, bad, or duty about whether the moral judgment can be justified or the nature of morality. Normative ethics give answers to moral questions and problems regarding the morally correct course of action and decisions in practice, including how a person could be morally a good individual or views about telling truth for example. Descriptive ethics concerns itself with the people's beliefs and moral opinions and how they act on them or

views about what is morally right or wrong. In the context of professional ethics, the three types of ethics are applicable.

Secondly, ethics refers to norms and standards of behavior people follow concerning good and bad character qualities. The common usage of this second sense of ethics is to express a code of ethics, which describes a set of principles, standards or rules of conduct, or character traits required for ethical practice (Banks, 2012; Gray & Webb, 2010). Although ethics codes are specific to different professional organisations, Koocher and Keith-Spiegel (2008) note several similarities, which include promoting the welfare of the users of the service, practicing within the scope of one's competence, doing no harm, protecting client confidentiality and privacy, acting ethically and responsibly, avoiding exploitation and upholding the integrity of the profession by striving for aspirational practice. In the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) (2002) code of ethics, the limits of codes are succinctly described. A code of ethics cannot guarantee ethical behavior, resolve all ethical issues and disputes, or capture the richness and complexity involved in striving to make responsible choices within a moral community. Instead, a code of ethics sets forth values, ethical principles, and ethical standards to which professionals aspire, and actions can be judged (purpose of NASW code of ethics).

Moreover, Banks, (2012) differentiates between principle ethics and virtue ethics. Principle ethics, also known as mandatory ethics, is a set of obligations and a method that focuses on moral issues intending to solve certain ethical dilemmas and development of framework to guide future thinking and professional behavior (Banks, 2012). Aspirational ethics, also known as virtue ethics (Koocher & Keith-Spiegel 2008), pertains to the character traits of the practitioner, and it entails understanding the spirit behind the code and the principle on which the code rests.

The literature on professionalism is studded with exhortations to increase professionalism (Abbott, 1988; Burrage *et al.*, 1990; Johnson, 1972; Larson, 1977). There is a much larger literature on professions in sociology and social work which focuses on professions as social groupings in which professionals, and including professional associations' role that they play in society. The term 'profession' describes a complex of strategic alliances across professions, ownership of professional boundaries among practitioners who share common professional attributes and competencies (Macdonald, 1995). Among the critical distinctions of professionalism are a technical knowledge base shared among all the members of the profession, membership's interest control over entry to the profession, and robust user of services orientation which emphasises putting the users' needs before personal interest, shared values, and behavior norms, professional boards and licensing organisation (Banks 2012; Corey, Corey & Callanan 2011; Evettes 2004; Gray & Webb 2010). These kinds of

insight are valuable as they aid in explaining the professionalism of community development and the complexity of its underlying knowledge.

Furthermore, autonomy, beneficence, justice, fidelity, and veracity are the six basic moral principles that form the foundation of functioning at the highest level as a professional (Corey *et al.*, 2010). Although ethics codes are necessary, they are not enough for exercising ethical responsibility. CDPs must be aware of the limitations of the ethics codes of their professional organisations. Several writers in social work and psychology have developed models for ethical decision-making (Barnett & Johnson, 2010; Frame & Williams, 2005; Koocher & Kieth-Spiegel, 2008) as Greenwood (1957) has suggested, debates around the notion of what it means to be a professional focus on three concepts: knowledge, autonomy, and competencies. Autonomy means no one except another professional can challenge the day-to-day decision (Gray & Webb, 2010).

Along with the autonomy, professional boards and associations are required to inculcate self-restraint if the profession's authority is to be legitimate. The source of authority is expert knowledge, skills, values, and principles of community facilitation. Community development draws its knowledge from the concept of social justice, and its body of knowledge is predominantly normative (Chille, 2012; Ledwith, 2005). Core competencies and capabilities play an essential role in defining professions as knowledge-reliant production. Core competencies are essential in sustaining the profession. Distinct competencies are a set of activities that a profession can coordinate better than another profession. The limits of expert knowledge, autonomy, and authority define the boundaries of the individual professional practice and the complexity of operationalising professionalism.

Professionalism is an elusive concept and has many definitions and interpretations. There is no consensus in the literature on professionalism on how it is defined, how to develop and measure professionalism. Webster (1997) defines professionalism as a set of attitudes and behaviors accepted to a particular occupation. The development of professional attitudes and behaviors is vital in the practice of community development and for maintaining the status and reputation of the community development profession. How to foster professional attitudes and behaviors in community development remains a crucial area for further investigation.

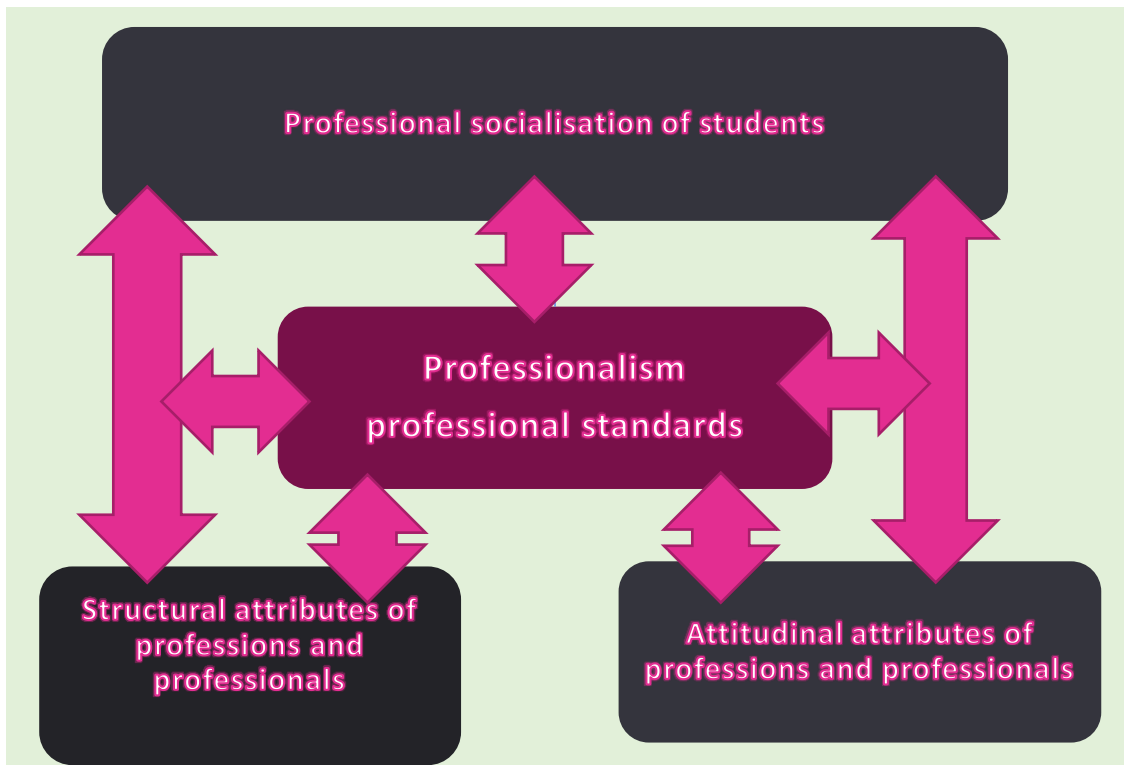


Figure: 2.4. Professionalisation and socialisation of students (Adopted from Hammer, 2000).

The structural attributes of professions and professionals include the specialised body of knowledge, values, and skills, unique socialisation of student members, licensure/certification, professional associations, governance by peers, social prestige, vital service to society, code of ethics, autonomy, the equivalence of members, and unique relationship with the client (Hammer, 2000). The attitudinal attributes of professionals are described as the use of the professional organisation as a significant reference, service to the public, self-regulation, sense of calling to the field, and autonomy (Hammer, 2000). In this study, a broader definition of professionalism encompassing structural and attitudinal attributes will be adopted. Merton et al. (195, p. 287) notes that the development of student attitudes and behavior is the more significant part of professional socialisation and define professional socialization as a “process by which people selectively acquire values and attitudes, interests, skills, and knowledge”. This definition will be applied in this study, and the term professional socialisation will describe the transformation of community development students into CDPs or professionals. In the light of the professionalisation of community development work, practitioners are essentially facing professionalism challenges in their daily professional activities. It is also incumbent on universities to educate and train students to become professionals. Professional socialisation literature explicitly indicates that the factors that have had the most significant influence on student attitudes and behavior are: the values and behavior that students bring into the professional programme, role modeling in the professional and academic environment, and the community environment itself (Yang et al., 1997). Although there is a lack of a body of

literature that conclusively offers proven or recognised methods for fostering students' professionalism, these key factors have been identified as potentially having a more significant impact on students as they develop into professionals. Loewenberg and Dolgoff (1992) state that professional standards establish the accepted behavioral conduct of professionals in practice when confronted with ethical dilemmas. However, Jayarate, Croxton, and Mattison (1997, p. 187) argue that although there is a significant amount of non-empirical literature on a modicum of standards of care, there are virtually no empirical studies of professional standards that exist for social workers or social service professions. There is an agreement in the professional literature on social work that professional standards serve internal monitoring and accountability, quality control measures of practice, and criteria by which social workers will be judged in law courts. Although there is consensus, standards of practice and the limits of ethical behavior are very complex and not easy to define (Barker, 1998; Hampton, 1984).

2. 8. Summary

Community development has always been a contested field, characterised by varying and conflicting meanings and definitions, many competing theoretical perspectives and developmental goals for intervention in communities to promote the social and economic development. The context in which community development professionals operate differs, impacting their range of choices, and offering various opportunities and challenges. This differing context sets the framework for evaluating differing community development strategies, together with their potential relevance for the contemporary context in South Africa.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter aims to outline the methodology of the case study research undertaken in this thesis. A detailed description, explanation, and justification of how the research methodology was applied are provided. This study employed an explanatory qualitative research approach (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Creswell, 2009; Neuman, 2011) and a case study research design adopted from Yin (2014) and Stake (2006). The classification of intrinsic and instrumental case study (Stake, 2006, p. 4; Thomas & Myers, 2015) are identified as indicators of the purpose of case study research. An instrumental case study design and collective case study design consisting of four cases were utilised in this study. Authors such as Stake (2006) and Yin (2003) note that case study research can also be used for exploratory, explanatory or descriptive purposes. An explanatory case study consistent with the research approach was undertaken to answer the research questions in this study.

The study population case encompassed practitioners in the community development sector in Gauteng province. The unit of analysis included practitioners at non-governmental organisations, lecturers at higher education institutions, CDWs at COGTA, and CDPs at the DSD, government at the local, provincial and national government. Purposive and theoretical sampling was used in this study. Interviews and documents were used as methods of collecting data. The practice of case study design in the social science landscape was investigated. The case study design in the research will be outlined as a lead-up to articulating the ontology, epistemology, and justification of the methodology of the case study approach. Features of the collective case study employed are examined to clarify the research design for this study. Case analysis for each case and cross-case analysis was undertaken to compare the object and explain different contexts and processes varying across the cases. Emerging issues were identified and examined to distill common issues. The cross-case issues were created through the process of comparing and merging salient specific case issues.

Ethics approval was sought from the University Ethics Committee, and permission to conduct the research was sought from all the stakeholders involved in the study. Interviews and documentary analysis were used as data collection methods. Seventy-four participants were interviewed in this study. For documentary analysis documents such as A Toolkit for Community Development Practitioners (2009), Community Development Workers Programme (2004), The White Paper for Social Welfare in South Africa (1997), Inaugural Summit reports for the professionalisation of community development 26-28 October 2011, community development qualification stakeholder meetings and The National Report Skills Audit for Community Development (2010), books and journal articles constituted the secondary source of documentation. These reports are publicly accessible as they are for public consumption and are not classified under confidential documents. The constructivism

paradigm was adopted in this study. Charmaz's (2014) elements of constructivist grounded theory data analysis process were used for the data analysis process in this study. Multiple case study research requires attention to "each case before attending to findings from collecting cases" (Stake, 2006, p.2). The final section of the methodology accounts for the broad principles of trustworthiness and rigor, and ethical principles underpinning the study.

3.2. The landscape of social research and case study research

There is a division in social science research and natural science research between qualitative and quantitative research approaches. Guba and Lincoln (1994) refer to this distinction as competing paradigms between qualitative and quantitative research. In applying qualitative and quantitative research within the reality of the natural science, observable knowledge once discovered forms a stable basis for truth and a challenge presented to this tradition by relativist ontology, interactive epistemology, holism, and fluid notion of the truth (Alvesson & Skoldberg, 2009; Crotty, 1998; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). The root of the argument lies with the tension between axiological positions (Guba & Lincoln, 2005; Lincoln, Lynham & Guba, 2011). Together with the modification in emphasis, the notion of the battle between qualitative and quantitative paradigms is softened to an exploration of where and how paradigms exhibit confluence and where and how they exhibit differences, controversies, and contradictions (Guba & Lincoln, 2005; Lincoln & Guba, 2000; Lincoln, Lynham & Guba, 2001). The positivist claim to certainty was challenged and intensified in the social sciences by questions about the suitability of the scientific method of social research (Crotty, 1998; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). The shift in the claim of the certainty of quantitative research can be noticed with the growth of qualitative research. The post-modernist perspectives and the critical social theory push against the grand theory of scientific methods to draw attention to the multiple and contradictory features of the world (Alvesson & Skoldberg, 2009; Guba & Lincoln, 2005). Critical and post-modernist research found the growth of qualitative research, humanised the scientific methods, and represented the qualitative research approach (Alvesson & Skoldberg, 2009; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Hence qualitative research approach is non-positivist and anti-foundational (Guba & Lincoln, 2005; Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Under this division, qualitative research tends to be associated with "relativist ontology" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011, p. 13).

Furthermore, the empirical tradition of grounded theory and ethnography epitomises the qualitative research of the "positivist and post-positivist tradition" (Alvesson & Skoldberg, 2009, p 53). Grounded theory is a type of reasoning that begins with studying a range of individual cases and extrapolates from them to form a "conceptual category" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 188; Neuman, 2006). This study adopted Yin (2003) and Stake's (2006) case study collective case study design. Elements of Charmaz's (2014) constructivist grounded theory

data analysis were adopted to analyse data in this study. Constructivist grounded theory data analysis was chosen to focus more on contemporary versions of grounded theory and address recent post-structural, postmodern concerns with a difference, reflexivity, rationality, positionality, and inductive approach (Charmaz, 2000; 2006; 2014). Originally, grounded theory was developed and elaborated by Glaser & Strauss (1967). Literature review on grounded theory suggests different versions of grounded theory, as there were different grounded theorists (Dey, 1999). The original version of Glaser and Strauss's (1967) grounded theory, and constructivist grounded theory of Charmaz (2006), and the hybrid version are distinguished. Constructivist grounded theory by Charmaz (2014) adopts the inductive, comparative, emergent, and open-ended approach of the original statement as proposed by Glaser & Strauss (1967). Elements of constructivist grounded theory data analysis are well suited and are chosen in this study for several reasons.

Firstly, the professionalisation of community development in South Africa is a new phenomenon, and limited empirical research has been conducted on professionalisation, professionalism, values, and ethics of community development work. Therefore, the subject of this phenomenon under study falls under contemporary study. Secondly, grounded theory ensures that interpretations are based on collected data or theory faithful to evidence (Neuman, 2006), and a pre-understanding from the practice and extant theory is applied for their relevance to the emergent issues than pre-imposed on the study. Thirdly, it is relevant when the researcher wants to take a fresh look at the phenomenon under study. Fourthly, a clearly defined process of the constructivist grounded theory method enhances a clear framework of the data analysis process. Lastly, Strauss & Corbin (1990, p. 27) notes that grounded theory procedures force the researcher to break through assumptions and "create a new order out of the old". Grounded theory intends to generate or discover a theory or abstract analytical schema of a phenomenon that relates to a particular situation grounded in experience and the participants' perception (Charmaz, 2014; Creswell, 1998; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). This study is well placed to make theory grounded in data collected from community development practitioners, using case study design.

This brief justification of the debate about qualitative and quantitative research paradigms helped the researcher articulate the methodological approach of this study and located the case study in the social research landscape. De Vos et al. (2012) emphasise that social science research aims to understand the complexity of human experience. The case study research sits within the contemporary context. The following section situates the case study within the landscape of social research. It also sets the groundwork of articulating epistemology, ontology, methodology, ethics, and qualitative approach undertaken in this research.

3.2. 1. Epistemology and ontology of case study

Badenhorst (2007) and Neuman (2006) note that qualitative research relies on data in the form of words where researchers seek to understand the meaning of human actions, and data are expressed through the description. Similarly, De Vos et al. (2012) indicate that in qualitative research, the researcher tries to understand participant's definitions of their world with the subjective exploration of reality from an insider perspective. Methodology approaches consistent with qualitative research include ethnography, phenomenology, narrative, grounded theory, case study design, and action research (Padget, 2008). Collective case study design (Stake, 2006; Yin, 2003) informed by constructivist grounded theory data analysis method (Charmaz, 2014) was employed in the study. Neuman (2006) explains methodology as a theory of the organisation of activity. Research methodology explains the ways of collecting data while reflecting on the "planning, structuring, and execution of the research" (Bryanard, Hanekom & Bryanard, 2014, p. 38). It also refers to "the various steps that were adopted by the researcher in interrogating the research problem along with the logic behind them" (Kumar, 2008, p. 5). This study adopted a case study design and the elements of grounded theory data analysis.

Additionally, methodology accounts for the logic of the research, as demonstrated by the link between "epistemology and ontology, the feasibility of the research question, and the research action" (Crotty, 1998, p. 3) to examine the phenomenon under study. Epistemology is the theory of knowledge (Crotty, 1998, p. 3). In the research context, epistemology explains "knowledge, the central concern being how can what exists be known?" (Higgs & Trede, 2010, p. 32). The epistemological question of case study research has been riddled with the issue of generalisation (Flyvbjerg, 2006; Stake, 2006; Thomas & Meyers, 2011c; Yin, 2000). While such an assessment has negative connotations, this situation is also presented as the strength of case study research (Hyett, Kenny & Dickson-Sift, 2014). Ontology in social science research considers the nature of existence. Research questions and research design rely on being that can be identified enough to be researched and understood somehow and thus involve holding a perspective on the nature of reality (Higgs et al., 2010, p. 18). This research aims to explain the complexities of the professionalisation process and the ethics of community development. The ontological assumption is that community development exists as a practice in the field and professional endeavor. Ontology relies on the "notion of narrative fact" (Bruner, 1998, p.19) and accepts a range of universals as central to reality (Bruner, 1996, p.131). The following paragraphs explain the methodology used in this study.

3.3. Research paradigm

Following the qualitative approach, the constructivist paradigm informed this study. Denzin and Lincoln (2008, p.31) refer to a paradigm as a “net that contains the researcher’s epistemological, ontological and methodological premise”. The social construction paradigm is idiographic and inductive. Idiographic is also known as a “thick description” (Babbie & Mouton, 2001, p. 277). Constructivism assumes that a person develops the meaning of experiences and events, and constructs the realities in which they participate (Charmaz, 2006). This paradigm denies the existence of objective reality, “asserting instead that realities are the social construction of the mind, and that there exist as many such constructions as there are individuals and even though construction will be shared” (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 43). Social action is the deed to which people attach subjective meaning and activity with purpose and intent (Neuman, 2011, p. 102). This study aims to elicit and understand how the research participants construct their individual and shared meaning of the phenomenon under study.

Furthermore, what is explicit to constructivism is the similar construction of meaning by the researchers, in that their interpretation of the object under study is itself a construction (Charmaz, 2006, p. 187). This shared pattern permits the co-construction of meaning by the participants and the researcher, in allowing for data to speak for itself and constant comparison within and across case analysis of the complexities of professionalisation and ethics of community development, the researcher’s analysis is characterised as constructivist grounded theory data analysis (Charmaz, 2014). The constant iterative analysis process further strengthened the theory developed in this study. This frame of reference is relevant in this study as it supports the inherent subjectivity of human beings and complexities and multiple perspectives of social reality. Charmaz (2014) recognises and stresses the social context, interaction, sharing viewpoints, and interpretive understandings. The researcher’s interpretation in constructivist research demands that the study be conducted in a reflective and transparent process (Charmaz, 2006). Reflection involves “thinking about the condition for what one is doing, investigating the way in which the theoretical, cultural and political context of the individual and the intellectual involvement affects interaction with whatever is being researched” (Alvesson & Skoeldberg, 2000, p. 245). Articulating the researcher’s assumption and experience through reflective memos before analytical memos were written and data gathering helped the researcher achieve transparency (Charmaz, 2006).

3.4. Research approach

The explanatory qualitative approach informs this study. Qualitative research studies human actions from the insider perspective and is also referred to as emic (Babbie & Mouton, 2011, p. 53; Hennink et al., 2011). An “Explanatory, exploratory, and descriptive research” is

distinguished as the three purposes of the research (Babbie et al., 2011, p. 73). Although it is helpful to distinguish the three purposes of the research, most studies typically have elements of all three (Babbie, 2001). Descriptive studies are those that provide a depiction of the situation or problem, which is in line to explain and describe the various ideas of community development professionalisation and professionalism, values and ethics of community development work (Babbie et al., 2011), while exploratory is essential whenever a researcher is breaking new ground. They can always yield new insights into a topic for the research (Babbie et al., 2011). The chief shortcoming of exploratory studies is that they seldom provide satisfactory answers to the research question. In this study, the researcher is interested in understanding the complexities of professionalisation, values, and ethics of community development work. While for situated methodology, the demands of the context inform methodological choices rather than broader arguments of social research (Thomas et al., 2015; Stake, 2006; Yin, 2014). An explanatory case study research used in this study sits within this contemporary context. Bailey (1994) and Neuman (2011) point out that explorative and descriptive qualitative studies have complementary strengths. Qualitative research aims to conceptualise the findings in the “interactive world” in which they are generated (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011, p. 19). The research questions will be answered from the data collected from the interviews and secondary data. Triangulation serves to “clarify meaning by identifying different ways the phenomenon is viewed” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, p. 443). In addition, Yin (2014) accepts that as a general principle, the inclusion of multiple sources of data collection in a research project is likely to increase the reliability of the observations. The study pursued triangulation in order to maximise the reliability of the data collection and case study method. The use of multiple data collection methods supports the “efficacy of case study research” (Yin, 2003, p. 97). The careful and precise application of the collective case study method ensured that the theory emerging from this study meets the criteria for credibility, dependability, confirmability, transferability, and rigor (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Qualitative data analysis involves making thick descriptions (Harding, 2013; Hennink et al., 2011; Miles & Huberman, 1994). It is crucial to ensure the type of data analysis employed matches the research paradigm and data and can answer the research question (Blanche, Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006). Evidence in academic literature points to the fact that many researchers go beyond using the generic form of data analysis, and they add the process within one of the qualitative strategies of inquiry (Creswell, 2009,). From all the given definitions and explanations, it can be deduced that the qualitative research approach is best suited to study phenomena from their natural setting and attempts to make sense of or interpret phenomena in terms of the meaning people bring to them. The rationale for using

a qualitative research approach in this study was influenced by the following advantages as highlighted by Babbie & Mouton (2001, p.270):

- The research is conducted in the natural setting of social actors; □ Focus on the process rather than outcome;
- The actor's perspective or insider emic view is emphasised; and
- The Primary aim is in-depth (thick) descriptions and understanding of the actions and events.

This study aided in providing in-depth descriptive information on the case study and explanation for the reasons behind professionalisation, ethical issues, and dilemmas in community development. The research process is inductive in its approach and results in the generation of theory. The qualitative researcher is seen as the main instrument in the research process. Qualitative research is exploratory in nature (De Vos, *et al* (2012). It is useful when the researcher does not understand how the participants relate to the issue or problem. In this study, the qualitative research approach enabled the researcher to gain insight into the complexities of professionalisation, ethics, and values of community development.

3.5. Demarcation of the field of study

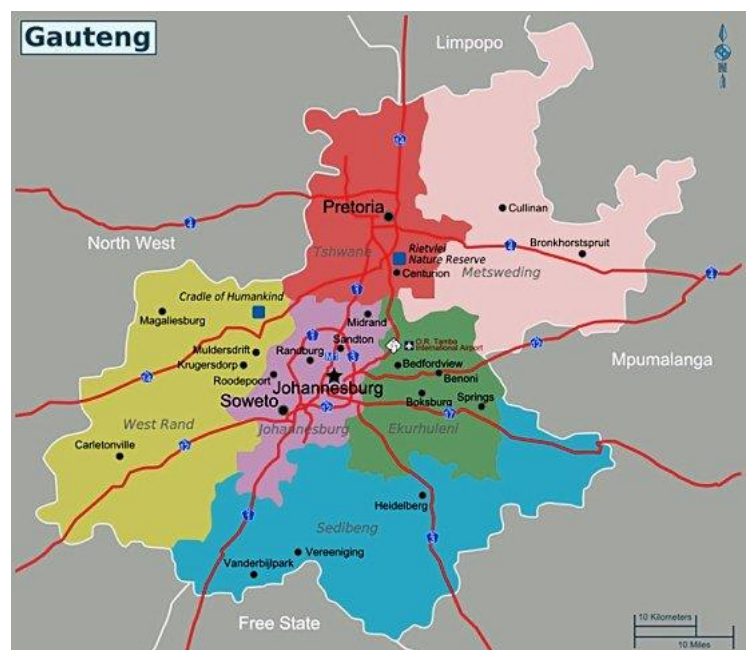
This study is based in Gauteng province. Gauteng is one of the nine provinces in South Africa with two metropolitan cities and three district Municipalities: The City of Tshwane, the City of Johannesburg, West Rand, Ekurhuleni, and Sedibeng (See figure 3.1 and figure 3.2 below)

Figure 3.1: Map of Gauteng with Municipalities named and districts shaded



Source: From Wikimedia Commons, the free media repository

Figure 3.2: Map of Gauteng showing the demarcation of the study



Source: From <https://www.researchgate.net/figure/Map-of-Gauteng-Province-in-South-Africa-showing-the-Johannesburg-Metropolitan>

The government established the Community Development Programme in 2004, and the work of community development workers started in 2005. The focus of the community development programme is to enable communities to make better use of government services and to address service delivery challenges in communities to improve the quality of life of citizens (Department of Local Government (1998). CDPs and CDWs are employed as public servants in nine provinces across South Africa. The Community Development Programme draws its legal basis from the following legislation and policy documents: The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (108 of 1996), with reference particularly to the Bill of Rights; the Public Service Act (1994, amended 2006); and the Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act (2005); the White Paper for Transformation of Service Delivery (Batho Pele, 1997); and the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997). In 1998 of the Social Work Act (110 of 1978), the policy amendment to become the Social Service Professions Act (110 of 1978) made the provision for the social service professions other than social work. This policy change made the provision for the inclusion, recognition, and professionalisation of the other social service professions such as community development, probation services, community development. Community development work is practiced in government, non-governmental organisations, the private sector, and universities' training. The unit of analysis was purposively selected and sampled from districts in the Gauteng Area at the Department of Social Development at West Rand, Ekurhuleni, and Johannesburg region sites. Cases were selected from West Rand, Ekurhuleni, and Johannesburg region.

Each case was analysed and written up, and described separately in developing the core categories. These main categories were then compared to explain different contexts and processes varying across the cases. Emerging key issues were identified and examined to distill common issues. The cross-case issues were created through the process of comparing and merging salient specific case issues. The contextual description and interpretation were provided (See chapters five and six for case presentation and within-case analysis).

3.6. Rationale for using multiple case study research design

This study utilised a qualitative case study research design. Research design is the basic plan which guides the data collection and analysis of the phases of the research project Kumur (2008), and authors such Habib, Pathink & Maryam (2014) describe research design as a map that identifies the means and the method to be pursued for collecting and analysing the data. A case study research is described as "an empirical inquiry investigating a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not evident" (Yin, 2003, p. 13). A case study is an intensive investigation of a single unit, and the unit of study may investigate an individual or multiple units (Stake, 2006). While the primary distinction in designing a case study's methodological framework is between single and multiple case designs, the multiple case study design was utilised to investigate the phenomenon and address the research questions underpinning the study. Individuals or practitioners are the units of analysis in this study. The defining feature of a case study is the individual unit (Yin, 2014; Stake, 2006). The interaction of the unit of study with its context is a vital part of the investigation. Thickly described case studies consider the multiple perspectives and attempt to understand the influences of multilevel social systems on subjects' perspectives and behavior (Babbie *et al.*, p. 281; Stake, 2011).

Lincoln and Guba (1985) point out that qualitative research is based on the view that social phenomena, human dilemmas, and the nature of cases are situational. Various authors such as Padgett (2008:35) and Stake (2006) corroborate this by asserting that this situation is imperative to understanding the "quintain" or phenomenon. Community development professionalisation as an evolving phenomenon in South Africa warrants further empirical investigation. Therefore, a qualitative study calls for an examination of the experiences and views of the practitioners in this context.

A typology that delineates the essential elements of case study research as the subject, object, purpose, and process was adopted to clarify the case study research design underpinning this study (Thomas *et al.*, 2015; Stake 2000; Yin (2003). It is imperative to highlight the non-linear nature of this typology; decision-making in these steps does not follow a linear process. The typology identifies the phenomena of the case study of the

practitioners in community development professionalisation as the subject of the research. The subject is the phenomenon through which an object is explored, and its potential to elucidate the theoretical interest of the research is central (Thomas et al., 2011).

A case study investigation of professionalisation of community development to explain the complexities of professionalisation and the ethics of community development in South Africa is central to answering the research question underpinning this study. Although multiple case studies are not fundamental, as the question could be addressed from the single case study, multiple case studies provide additional insights that may not be possible within a single case investigation. This study used multiple case study consisting of four cases, which included community development workers at COGTA, CDPs such as DSD provincial and stakeholders at the National Department of Social Development, lecturers at Higher Education Institutions, Non- Governmental organisations, and service users in the were engaged in this research. The experiences and views of the practitioners from the four cases are the subjects of the case study research design. The object of this case study research was informed by the theory emanating from data. As Charmaz (2014) and Thomas *et al.* (2011, p. 514) point out, it is the way this object develops that is the heart of the study. The object is the point of theoretical interest at the heart of the inquiry. Data emanating from multiple case studies of the complexities and ethics of professionalisation of community development was informed by elements of constructivist grounded theory data analysis process (Charmaz, 2014) and is central to theoretical direction and theory emanating from data. Hence this is the object in this case study research design.

The typology of case study components includes “purpose, approach, and research process” (Thomas & Meyers, 2015, p. 58). The purpose of the case study research clarifies the research's analytical intent (Thomas et al., 2015; Yin, 2014). The broad classification of case study research and its purpose includes intrinsic and instrumental case studies (Stake, 2006; Thomas et al., 2011). The analytical focus of intrinsic case study pertains to the unique features of a particular phenomenon identified as a case study site, whereas instrumental case studies investigate issues external to the phenomenon (Stake, 2006). The case study design was instrumental in that the research focuses implicit in, though external, to each case.

The approach in the typology is delineated or explained as the focus of the research, whether the purpose of the case study is “theoretical or descriptive” (Thomas et al. 2011, p.516). Case study research can also be used for exploratory, explanatory or descriptive purposes (Stake 2000; Yin 2003). Although there are overlaps between these strategies, to avoid a gross mismatch of the research strategy, an explanatory case study was adopted since it was more advantageous compared to the explorative and descriptive case studies and relevant to answering the how and why of the research questions. Merriam (1998) posits

that case studies help analyse the how and why questions in situations where there is a range of factors, such as those found in professionalisation. This study focuses on the professionalisation of community development, complexities, ethics, and how professionalisation evolved.

The final component of the typology concerns itself with the operational process of the research and refers to the nature of the subject as “singular or plural” (Thomas et al., 2015). The focus of singular case studies is characterised as a retrospective, snapshot, and diachronic, and multiple cases as “nested, parallel and sequential” (Thomas et al., 2011a, p. 517). A snapshot of the context at the time of fieldwork for each site was investigated. The role of conceptualisation, the importance of contextual detail and in-depth description, using multiple sources of data, and analytical strategies are the four design principles of case study research (Stake, 2000; Yin 2003). Collective case study design informed by the constructivist theory data analysis process (Charmaz, 2014) and data saturation guided this research study.

3.7. Population of the study

De Vos et al. (2012) describe the population as consisting of individuals whom the researcher can access and who have appropriate knowledge and experience on the study theme. Babbie et al. (2011) look at a study population as involving identifying those people who can provide the most relevant, comprehensive, and rich information by their relationship with the research questions. In contrast, Neuman (2011) describes a population comprising the entire aggregation of elements or cases in which a researcher is interested. A target population is an accessible population with the particular experience or knowledge of the phenomenon that the researcher is seeking to explore (Punch, 2014, Yin, 2006).

In the case of study research, the difference between notions of case and variable is central to mapping the Yin (2014) population. The different forms of cases in case study research are distinguished by focusing on whether a case is identified as conceptual or variable (Simons, 2009). The contrast between Yin (2003) and Stake's (2006) multiple case research is an example. Yin (2014) uses established variables and focuses on an understanding of cross-case analysis through which understanding is gained of the variable rather than the case, while Stake (2006) relies on understanding each case as a whole and accumulating understanding across cases. Stake (2006) advocates thematic analysis as part of multiple case research, and the focus of analysis is understanding the case as a whole. The population or the unit of analysis form of case study research ontology rests in the case, whereas for the population analysis approach, the ontology rests in the constant comparative analysis informed by Charmaz's (2014) constructivist grounded theory data

analysis. The description below of the multiple cross-case analysis clarifies this point in this study.

The study population encompassed community development workers within the social service professions or workforce in the demarcated area of Gauteng province in West Rand, Ekurhuleni and Johannesburg, and Pretoria regions. The unit of analysis included universities, non-governmental organisations, and government institutions. Purposive sampling and theoretical sampling were done to enable the researcher to study selected participants from the population who can provide rich information. The study population included the community development steering committee, practitioners, and lecturers at higher education institutions. The study's validity is related to the sampling (Babbie et al., 2011; Charmaz, 2014; Guest, Namey, Mitchell, 2013; Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

3.8. Purposive and Theoretical Sampling

Purposive and theoretical sampling was used in this study. Sampling is the selection of cases from a wider population (De Vos et al., 2012). Its primary purpose is to choose what, where, when, and whom to interview (Charmaz, 2014). Since the study is qualitative, nonprobability sampling was used. In non-probability sampling, the odds of selecting a particular individual are not known at all (Neuman, 2011). The researcher used purposive sampling to identify participants for this study. This technique is also called judgmental sampling (De Vos et al., 2012). It is based entirely on the researcher's judgment, in that "a sample constitutes elements that contain the most characteristic, representative or typical attributes of the population that serve the purpose of the study best" (De Vos et al., 2012). The participants were chosen because they can contribute to the emerging theory or have knowledge of the phenomenon being studied and provide data relevant to the study. Maximum variation of purposive sampling (Punch, 2014) was used to strengthen the richness and depth of the data collection to identify cases that depict a variety of practice contexts of community development.

Furthermore, as the theory emerged, theoretical sampling was used in this study (Harding, 2006). Data analysis informed the selection of theoretical sampling (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Glaser and Strauss (1967) indicate that theoretical sampling is data collection for generating theory. The analyst jointly collects, codes, and analyses data and decides what to collect next to develop a theory as it emerges (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 45). The ability to give meaning to data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 42). and recognise what is relevant, important, or lacks relevance was determined through theoretical sensitivity. The case study offers an opportunity through which theory can be built up following careful observation of the social world (Liamputtong & Ezzy, 2005, p. 265).

Theoretical sampling was conducted throughout the data collection and data analysis process in this study. It emerged through using constructivist grounded theory data analysis process and comparative analysis of earlier data collected in this study. It assisted the researcher in advancing analysis of the meanings, construct complete or robust categories and develop the relationships between categories. New participants were added, an interview guide was revised, and focused questions were devised to learn about categories such as the time frame of the professionalisation process (See Interview guide in Appendix F). Furthermore, follow-up interviews were conducted with senior officials involved in the professionalisation process to learn about the timeframe of the professionalisation process, the scope of community development, and the need for a collaborative approach of social service professions in community development. The researcher sought statements, events, and cases that illuminate categories. New data emanating from the theoretical sampling process was coded, compared and including emerging emerging categories. Theoretical sampling includes beginning with data, creating tentative ideas about the data, and scrutinizing these concepts through further empirical inquiry. Engaging in theoretical coding assisted the researcher in predicting where to find or search and how to find needed data to mitigate gaps and saturate the categories. Further data collection in this study refined the theoretical sampling. It was used to elaborate and refine theoretical categories, and it illuminated fresh conceptual directions of the phenomenon under study (see Chapters Four - Seven in this study). As Charmaz (2014, p.199) states, theoretical sampling is “strategic, specific, and systematic”.

The unit of analysis was purposefully sampled from three regions in Gauteng at the Department of Social Development at West Rand, Ekurhuleni, Pretoria, and Johannesburg region. Purposive sampling was done, drawing on the population of community development practitioners with a minimum experience of three years and over 18 years. The sampling of the study included the beneficiaries of the community development project, community development practitioners and senior officials from Community-Based Organisations (CBOs), Faith-Based Organisations (FBOs), Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), civil society organisations, Community Development Steering Committee, Further Education and Training (FET) colleges, Higher Institutions of Education (HIE), social workers, SACSSP and senior officials at the Department of Social Development. The sampling was only concluded when data saturation was reached with the grounded theory research process.

3.8.1. Case recruitment and selection

Before recruitment, ethical approval was sought, and participants were selected for individual in-depth semi-structured interviews. The researcher used purposive sampling and theoretical sampling to identify participants in this study. The study inclusion criteria were

practitioners with a minimum experience of three years and over the age of 18 years. The participants were chosen based on their knowledge of the phenomenon being studied. Participants were accessed through provincial government coordinators, managers, and networks developed through training. The directors of the organisations and institutions were initially approached in writing, then followed up telephonically to secure organisational consent to participate. CDPs, CDWs, service users, senior officials from government, NGOs/CBBs, and lecturers from higher education institutions and training were approached initially through emails and telephones. A preliminary meeting with interested parties was scheduled, and participant information sheets were provided to those present.

Furthermore, as Harding (2013) rightfully indicated, there are no hard and fast rules for determining sample size in qualitative research. The number of participants selected in a qualitative study is purely dependent on what a researcher wants to know, the purpose of the study, and practical factors. Since this study was qualitative, the sample consisting of fifty participants was proposed and recommended at the very beginning of the study and by the ethics committee as a requirement for ethics clearance. Data saturation determined the stopping point of the data collection process. Data saturation also influenced sample selection in this study. Charmaz (2014, p. 213) posited that saturation of data for researchers means "a convenient stopping point for their study." In this study, data saturation occurred at the stage when no new insights or leads were offered and when no new theory was being generated.

Data Collection	Case 1 Nongovernmental organisations and service user	Case 2 Community Development Workers	Case 3 Community Development Practitioners	Case 4 Higher Education Institutions
Number of Participants	15	8	39	12
Number of Interviews	15	8	39	12

Table.3.1: Brief Summary of data collected from the cases

The description of participants and the number of participants in this study ranged as follows: four CDWs from the NGO, six beneficiaries of the community development project from the NGO, three senior managers from the NGO, two social workers from the NGO; Five CDWs from COGTA, three senior officials COGTA; twenty-two CDPs from DSD provincial, two social workers DSD provincial, six senior officials DSD provincial, two from a senior official from Community Development Steering Committee and Task Team, six senior officials from DSD national twelve participants from four different Higher Education Institutions (HEI), one senior official from SACSSP statutory body and deputy director-general and the director from the Department of Social Development and the chairperson of the community development board. In total, seventy-four participants with a minimum of three years of experience in community development were interviewed.

3.9. DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Interviews and documentary analysis were used as methods for collecting data. These methods were used for understanding the cases in context and framed what the researcher could code in this study. Data collection process and the data analysis process in this study, occurred concurrently following constant iterative process. The purpose of data collection methods is to describe the methods undertaken to investigate the phenomenon under study. Data collection methods describe how the researcher collects data from the study participants (Babbie et al., 2011). The multiple case study research adopted in the study draws on the instrument of qualitative research to collect data. The notion of a case and a phenomenon distinguishes a case study from other forms of qualitative research. Understanding the case and its context is the priority in single and multiple case research. The interviews and the secondary data analysis methods are used to gain an understanding of the case. Multiple case study research requires attention to each case before attention to findings from collecting cases (Stake, 2006, p.2). The main focus of data collection for the individual case study is the context and phenomena of each case and each case's research question.

Stake (2006, p.107) points out that there is an innate tension in multiple case study research that stems from the focus of each case as a whole and the research question to be answered from the findings across cases. This point is vital in differentiating between case study research and other forms of qualitative research. Four case studies underpinning the study from Gauteng Area at the DSD West Rand, Ekurhuleni, and Johannesburg region sites, higher education institutions, non-governmental organisations, and COGTA are central to the purpose and subject of this study. Each case portrays the complexities of professionalisation and ethics of community development. This study aims to investigate

professionalisation process complexities and values of community development in South Africa.

The interviews and secondary data collection methods aided in understanding the case in context. Interviews and secondary documents were used for collecting data. Consistent with case study design (Yin, 2003; Stake, 2006), data collection methods in this study included in-depth interviews and documentary reviews. The use of multiple data collection methods supports the efficacy of the case study research (Yin, 2003, p. 98; Stake, 2006). Yin (2000) further recommends carrying out a pilot study to explore both substantive and method issues. A pilot study was conducted before starting data collection with the actual cases. Pilot study aided in sharpening the focus of the research and ensuring that the intended field procedures were effective. Data collection occurred between July 2018 to December 2019. Data was collected to advance theoretical plausibility, direction, centrality, and adequacy (Charmaz, 2014, p. 87). A more detailed summary of data gathered for each case and documents reviewed are offered in Chapters Four, Five, and Six. The following section provides general descriptions of the two methods of data collection, which include interviews and documentary, and how ethics were applied when using these methods.

3.9.1. Rationale for using in-depth interviews

Hennink Hutter and Bailey (2011, p. 109) define an interview as "a conversation with a purpose" and an in-depth interview as "a one-to-one method of data collection that involves an interviewer and an interviewee discussing specific topics in depth." An in-depth one-on-one interview guide (Hennink et al., 2011, p. 109; Padgett, 2008, p. 103) was utilised to gather data from the participants. Interviews provided a way of collecting data that cannot be observed due to the context or events before the researcher was present (Merriam, 2009, p. 88). The advantage of using interviews is that it allowed the researcher to follow up and further probe the leads during the interview. Interviews, according to Hennink et al. (2011, p.110), enable participants to engage in a "reflective process" and "explore his or her experience in detail and reveal the many features of that experience." During interviews, the researcher acknowledged the participants as "experts and knowers" in re-telling their stories about the complexities of the professionalisation of community development. An interview guide addresses specific dimensions of research questions while at the same time leaving space for study participants to offer new meanings to the study or topic at hand (Harding 2006). The rationale for the use of in-depth interviews in this study is that it enabled the researcher to gain "a rich, nuanced understanding of the thinking (motivation) that drives behaviour and attitude formation or otherwise leads to other consequences in the lives of the individual interviewee" (De Vos et al. 2012, p. 342). All the interviews were audio-recorded in order to avoid data loss through memory decay during fieldwork. All the

participants consented to the audio-recording. The interview length varied, but on average, they were about an hour and thirty minutes.

An interview guide was used as the primary research instrument during data collection. A pilot study was conducted. The primary purpose of the pilot study was to uncover possible shortcomings of the interview guide to make necessary adjustments before the main research study began. A pilot study involves administering the research tools to people who did not form part of the actual study but have the same attributes as those who will participate in the research. The researcher made considerable changes in the interview guide after the pilot study was done. Certain sections of the questions were repetitive, and this problem was corrected. Questions were rephrased for the service users as it was superficial to ask them in the format they had been written.

A collecting case study design was used to guide data collection. Interviews were conducted from the four cases. For each case, information gathered was guided by the protocol of case study design consisting of questions regarding the type of information to be collected and possible sources (Stake, 2006; Yin, 2003). Although an interview guide was developed at the onset of the research to plan data collection, it was applied flexibly to allow the lines of inquiry that emerged to unfold, which were unique to each case. The questions posed to research participants are outlined in the interview guide located in Appendix C). The researcher gathered similar and varied information about each case to answer the research question. The aim of interviewing in constructivist grounded theory is to attend to the study participants and construct theoretical analysis (Charmaz, 2014). Questions were modified to reflect emerging theory. For example, questions such as what is your view on the professionalisation of community development? The interviews began with the topic guide consisting of broad questions. Concurrent data collection and analysis ensured adjustment of the topic guide, development of the categories and theory, and the opportunity to narrow down the area of concern and interest to the participants.

3.9.2. Rationale for using documentary analysis

Data was gathered using a variety of documents that provided vital information about the study. "Documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observation, participant observation, and physical artifacts" are the primary sources of evidence for case study design (Yin, 2000, p. 79). Documentary analysis is a detailed and systematic examination of the contents of a particular body of material, specifically, internal documents and unpublished in-house information for identifying patterns, themes, and biases to capture the essence of what happened in the past (Merriam, 2009). It is an excellent data collection method in the absence of interviews as the people involved in the professionalisation process in the past might not be available to tell the story. The documents used in this study

included the toolkit for community development practitioners in South Africa and community development programme, the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997), and reports such as the Inaugural Summit report on professionalisation of community development, community development qualification stakeholder meeting, and the National Report on Skills Audit for community development and a special edition of journal articles published by *Africanus Journal* on community development professionalisation. The following legislative and policy documents were also used: the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (108 of 1996), with reference particularly to the Bill of Rights; the Public Service Act (1994, amended 2006); the InterGovernmental Relations Framework Act (2005); the White Paper for Transformation of Service Delivery (Batho Pele, 1997); and the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997). The policy amendment in 1998 of the Social Work Act (110 of 1978) to become the Social Service Professions Act (110 of 1978) was also included in the study. Evidence gathered through these documents was augmented by in-depth interviews to eliminate discrepancies. These provided insightful details into unrecorded occurrences, utterances, emotions, and similar dynamics surrounding the recorded facts in various literature. Analysis of these documents enabled the research to gain access to substantive recorded evidence from past events. These documents were carefully reviewed and not accepted as literal recordings of events that have taken place. In these instances, the researcher was concerned with the validity of the documents. In-depth semi-structured interviews were used as the primary mode of collecting data and a supporting method to address gaps in information that may have been overlooked.

3.10. An account of the fieldwork phase of the study

The fieldwork phase ran from July 2018 to December 2019. During this period, the researcher visited the sites selected for the study. Participants were accessed through provincial government coordinators, managers, and networks developed through training. The CDPs and CDWs were approached initially through emails and telephone. To ensure that the participants interviewed have historical perspective and practice context, the sample criteria include participants with a minimum experience of 3 years in the community development field. The interviews were conducted on-site and took approximately one hour thirty minutes. Interview guidelines, as outlined by Charmaz (2014); Creswell (2009); Guest, Namey, and Mitchell (2013); and Neuman (2006) was used for making preparations and conducting interviews. The interviews were transcribed and audio-recorded using a life scribe. Permission for recording and participation was sought before the commencement of the study. All recorded files of the interviews were transferred to the computer. The researcher solely did all the transcribing in this study. Interviews transcription consumed much time due to the number of interviews conducted in this study. The researcher cross-checked all interviews transcriptions for accuracy by repeatedly listening to parts of the tapes

that were selected to be included as verbatim quotes to report the findings. An inductive approach was adopted. After data collection, substantial reading of the literature was undertaken based on the study's findings to find the theory that explains the data.

3.11. Data analysis

Merriam (1998) proposes that the case study methodology can be used with various methods of data analysis, including the constant comparative method of grounded theory (Charmaz, 2014). Data analysis involves attempts to spawn a deeper understanding and interpretation of the data. Creswell (2009) states that data analysis is an ongoing process involving continual reflection about data, asking analytical questions throughout the study. Charmaz's (2014) elements of constructivist grounded theory data analysis were followed. This approach develops theoretical constructs from data rather than externally imposed ideas from extant theories. In constructivist grounded theory, the researcher seeks tacit meaning about values and beliefs revealed through immersion in the data (Charmaz, 2006). It offers an implicitly inductive approach to data analysis whereby codes, concepts, and theory are derived from data (Charmaz, 2006; Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Glaser, 1978; Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1997, 1998). Early grounded theorists sought to discover the patterns of behavior in the data and conceptualise their properties through abstraction (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Glaser, 1978). In contrast with the early grounded theorists, constructivist grounded theorists seek to understand differences and variation among research participants and co-construct meaning with them (Charmaz, 2006). They extend the focus of grounded theory to postmodern deconstruction, interconnecting social worlds, arenas, matrices of structure, trajectories of action, resources, hierarchies of power and influence, social policies, hierarchies of suffering, situated and local reading of ordinary people and their lives (Charmaz, 2014).

The case study design promoted the collection of rich data from multiple sources, and the constructivist grounded theory data analysis enabled insightful and methodological questioning of data during analysis to develop substantive theory. Analytical strategies that can be distinguished in case study design include how the findings are organized and whether generalisation is appropriate to the case study data and theory development (Yin, 2014; Stake, 2000). Case study research involves a detailed description of the setting or individual followed by the analysis of the data for themes or common issues (Creswell, 2009). A number of the basic features of constructivist grounded theory make it an appropriate method for this research.

Firstly, the grounded theory contributes to areas in which little research has thus far been done. As stated previously, little research has been conducted specifically on the professionalisation and professionalism of the community development field. Most of the research in community development has focused on the process and models of community

development. Constructivist grounded theory is an appropriate methodology for this study as it can generate theory that can be used as a precursor for further investigation of this phenomenon and related issues. Other qualitative techniques, quantitative methods, or mixed methods can then be used in subsequent studies to test, verify or extend the qualitative research problems that emerge from this study.

Secondly, this approach is geared towards producing a relevant theory, guiding actions, and practice. The grounded theory emphasises a critical dialogue between emergent theoretical propositions and relevant theoretical or conceptual frameworks (Grbitch, 1999, p. 30). Neiswiadomy (1998, p. 96) differentiates between theoretical frameworks and conceptual frameworks. Theoretical frameworks involve a broad explanation of the relationship between concepts of interest generally based on one theory, whereas conceptual frameworks link concepts selected from previous research or the researcher's own experience (Seibold, 2002, p. 4). Thirdly, this methodology entails an analysis of the process. Process refers to the linking sequence of action or interaction related to the management of or control over a social phenomenon. The process is a way of explaining and accounting for change. Central to these processes was the attempt to answer the research questions and address the study's objectives. Data analysis followed the two-step process of analysing case studies by (Charmaz 2014). The figure below illustrates Charmaz's (2014) constructivist grounded theory followed in this study. Initial coding, focused coding, and selective coding are used

for sorting data, synthesising interviews, field notes and secondary data.

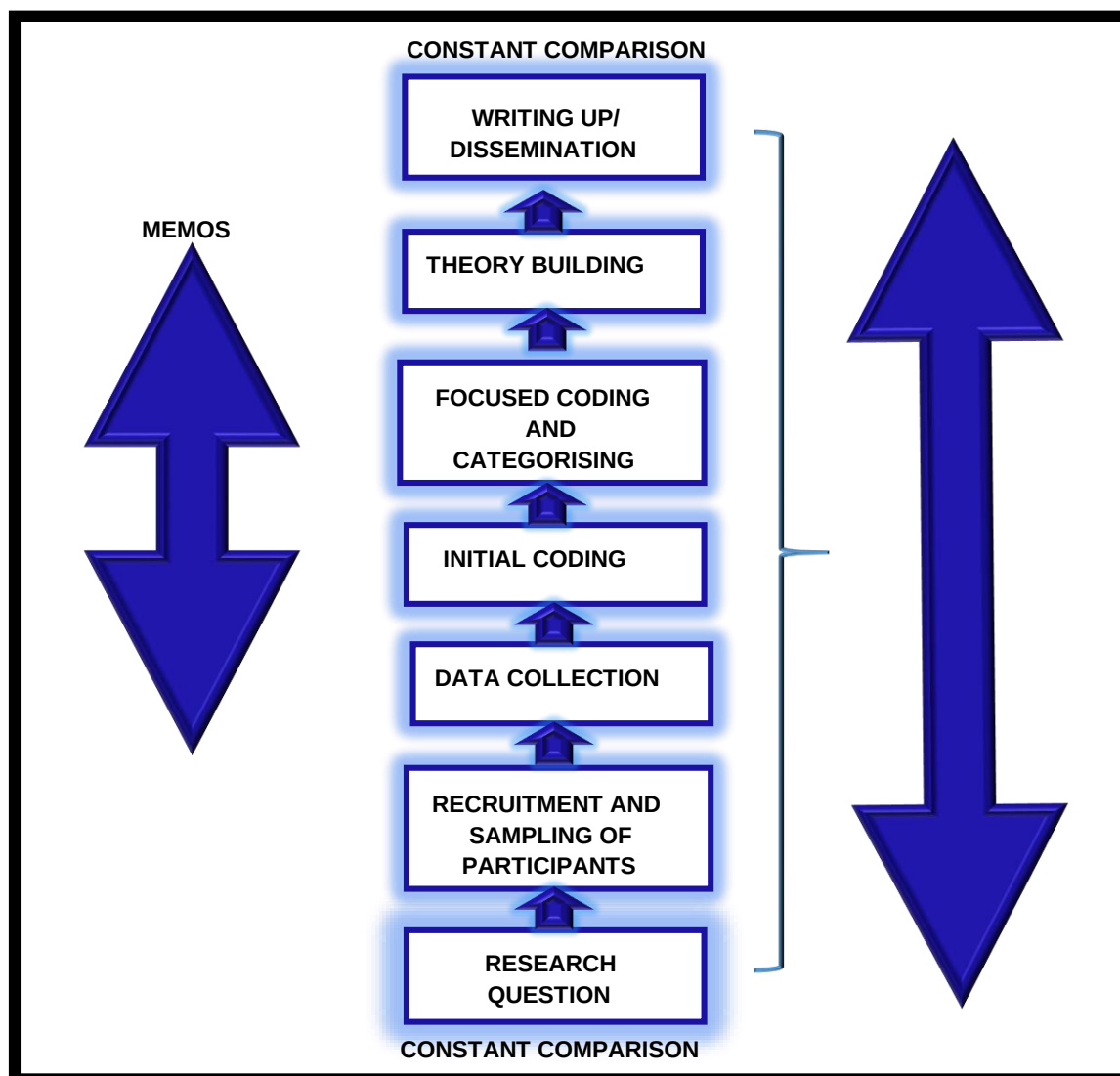


Figure 3.3. Data Analysis Process Adopted from Charmaz (2014, p.4)

Coding means naming data segments with labels that categorise and account for each piece of data (Charmaz, 2014). In coding, a constant comparison method was used as espoused by several authors (Charmaz, 2014; Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The iterative analysis process assisted the researcher in digging deeper into the research problem, locate the source of data needed, and develop categories and subsequent data needed. Pattern matching, explanation building, and series analyses addressed internal validity in case study design (Yin, 2003). The patterns that emerged from data were matched with theory. Explanation building was utilised as a mode of data analysis. It is a form of pattern building to generate an explanation about the case study. In ensuring external validity, generalisation was made based on the evidence provided by the data. It was ensured by linking findings and previous knowledge and referred to as “analytical

generalisation" (Yin, 2000, p. 283). In ensuring the reliability of the study, member checking was conducted by having a draft case study report reviewed by participants on the study. Member checking assisted in checking the overall adequacy of the data and interpretations. It also provided an opportunity to correct obvious errors.

Coding in data analysis provided the researcher with the opportunity to look at data emanating from the study. Codes that were telling were utilised in this study. Codes that were developed gave the researcher a flash of insight and a way of looking at the data. The constructivist grounded theory consists of at least two phases, which include initial coding and focused coding. Data analysis followed this two-step process of analysing case studies outlined by Charmaz (2014). The steps are as follows:

3.11.1. Initial coding

Initial coding starts with the close reading of data and adopting participants' telling terms as codes. The main aim of the initial coding phase is to remain open to theoretical possibilities indicated by reading data. This stage is similar to the original grounded theory open coding. Open coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) is initially employed to name and give meaning to the data. This may also involve the use of "in Vivo" codes that are participants' statements (Charmaz, 2014; Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Glaser, 1978). Coding means "naming the segments data with the label that simultaneously categorizes, summarizes, and accounts for each piece of data" (Charmaz 2014, p. 111). Coding in this study was done by assigning labels to data segments. As Charmaz (2006, p.80) states, a code sets up a relationship with data and participants. For data interpretation and analysis in this study, the researcher started by studying the data fragments to define what was happening in the data and what they meant. As Charmaraz (2014, p. 115) notes, constructivist "codes are transitional objects, crystalise what we learn while studying data, as transitional objects, they connect fragments of data with analytical abstraction that we accord to them." Analytical questions proposed by Charmaz (2014) aided this study to further the researcher's understanding and for subsequent data gathering towards analytical issues of the phenomenon under study.

In-vivo codes were also created during the coding process. According to Corbin & Strauss (2008, p.65), in-vivo codes are "concepts using the actual words of the research participants rather than being named by the analyst". The text segments were highlighted and were then used as a code name. Codes with different names but essentially meaning the same thing were merged under one code name (See Chapters Four, Five, Six and Seven on how the initial coding was conducted in this study to answer the research question about the views of CDPs regarding the professionalisation of community development and how the codes were made fit to the data).

The initial coding involves breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualising, and categorising data. The initial phase aims to remain close to the theoretical direction indicated by the readings of the data. Transcripts were examined line by line to identify features of the data. The themes, issues, actions, and thoughts were coded or named. Data were coded, and the researcher gave code names to capture something essential to the coded data. *Invivo* codes were taken directly from data based on specific expressions which held significant meaning for the study population. The codes with similar meanings were linked together, and the categories were renamed to provide a more abstract meaning. The link between concepts was verified through constant comparison. This stage was critical in this study because it pointed out where subsequent data was needed. It also helped to ensure that the codes developed stuck to the data. Consistent with the constructivist grounded theory emphasis on emergence (Charmaz, 2014), the researcher raised questions about the codes created from reading data rather than emanating from the interview guide. Questioning data means analysing, interpreting, and examining how data was established and why and how the meanings developed. Charmaz's (2014) coding strategies in questioning data were also used as a guideline for developing an analytical frame. Questions asked during this phase included interrogating what data revealed? What did the data suggest? From whose point of view and what theoretical category did this specific datum indicate? Discovering if data has gaps is part of the analytical process of grounded theory. Coding proceeded systematically across the data set and helped to form new codes. In other instances, codes were added to the existing codes that were adequate to capture intrinsic meaning captured in the text. Coding helped the researcher to understand the participants' views from their frame of reference and clues to consider later in focused coding. As Charmaz (2014) states, codes offer to interrogate, sorting and synthesising interviews and documents.

3.11.2. Focused coding

The "focused coding phase follows initial coding. It is the second primary phase of coding in constructivist grounded theory (Charmaz, 2014). Initial codes lay the path to the analysis of the focused coding. The goal of focused coding is to determine the "adequacy and conceptual strength of the researcher's initial codes" (Charmaz, 2014, p. 114). Initial codes were studied, assessed, and compared to ascertain what they implied and revealed. In this study, initial codes provided the basis for making informed choices about the skeleton of analysis and managing the emerging focused codes and analyses. Charmaz (2014, p. 141) explicates that "focused coding uses initial codes with more theoretical reach, direction, centrality and needs to be treated as the core of the nascent analysis".

The focused phase provides the skeleton of data analysis and preconception about the data topic (Charmaz, 2014). Embarking on the second data analysis stage in this study, the

researcher thoroughly studied the codes that subsume recurrent initial codes and greater analytical power. This phase is concerned with studying and analysing the initial phase and how the codes account for data, comparative process, and emerging analysis (Charmaz, 2014). In engaging in focused coding, the initial codes, which the researcher defined as the most useful initial coding, were tested against large batches of data (See Chapters Four to Seven for codes developed in this study). The codes with greater analytical power were distinguished. The focused codes were then grouped according to the emerging categories. The core category is central to and links the data; it accounts for variation in the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). It, therefore, provides a theory to explain the social processes surrounding the phenomenon under study. More than one story emerged from the data. A decision was taken about choosing which story to develop. Ideas from the literature were integrated, and further sampling was undertaken when necessary to expand the theory (Stern, 1980). Subsequent interviews were conducted to verify the theory and enhance its development. As Strauss and Corbin (1998) state, “selective coding links all categories to the core category by enabling the emergence of the storyline or theory...this involves selecting core categories, systematically relating it to other categories, validating those relationships and filling in categories that need further development and refinement”. Charmaz (2014) concurs that theoretical integration begins with focused coding and proceeds through all subsequent analytical tasks.

Constructivist grounded theorists like Charmaz do not use axial coding because of its complications. Charmaz (2014) uses an emergent analytical strategy rather than procedural application as espoused by Glaser & Strauss (1967) and Strauss & Corbin (1997). This is what differentiates the constructivist grounded theorists from the original grounded theorists. In this study, the coding procedures and memo writing were used as data analysis strategies. Facts or incidents obtained from interviews and documents were coded systematically. Memos were written as a record of analysis, and diagramming was used to visualise the relationship between concepts.

Analytical approaches were used, such as asking questions of the data and what grounded theorists call the constant comparison method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), where similarities and differences were identified, and codes that fitted together were clustered into categories. The constant comparative analysis method is the critical feature of grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Data collection and analysis is seen as simultaneous and an interactive process. A comparison was made between words, sentences, codes, paragraphs, and categories. This was done in order to identify data that matches and are different. Analytical memos were written to record the relationship between categories to maintain a close link between analytical interpretation and empirical data. Categories were reviewed, and analytical memos were reread and synthesised. This final phase of analysis involved

abduction, whereby the analysis was related to the primary research question and the literature. After developing one's own grounded theory, "careful analysis of relevant extant literature provides cues for raising its theoretical level" (Lempert cited in Charmaz, 2006, p.19).

Throughout the data analysis process, the community development practitioners and other study participants were directly involved in verifying the data and emerging theory. In deciding when to stop the coding and analysis process, Glaser (1978) discusses saturation as a key to knowing when to stop. Data saturation was reached when all participants expressed the same ideas relevant to developing theory, and nothing new was emerging from the interviews. The data collection process and analysis were concluded, and the final number of participants of the study was determined. It should be noted that throughout the analysis process, some codes and categories were saturated before the others. Quotes from the data demonstrate how the theory was constructed. The theory was constructed from data and represented the social reality as perceived by the participant. In other words, it 'fits' (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Glaser & Strauss (1967) suggest that a grounded theory should have 'relevance' or 'grab' and 'work.' These criteria imply that the theory should be helpful. The theory explains what is happening in the setting and predicts what will happen under certain circumstances. The theory developed in this study provided the guideline for practice, professionalism, and community development practice.

3.12. Trustworthiness of qualitative data collection, analysis and rigour

According to Babbie *et al.* (2011), trustworthiness in qualitative research denotes the neutral stance and trustworthiness of the research findings. Lincoln & Guba (1985) propose the four criteria for enhancing trustworthiness of qualitative studies. These includes credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability, parallel to internal validity, external validity, reliability, and objectivity in qualitative research. Qualitative research needs to demonstrate credibility (i.e., the complexity of the interpretation and the trustworthiness of the data collected) and rigor (rival explanation and account for irregularities in the data emic) (Babbie & Mouton, 2001, p. 53; Hennink *et al.*, 2011). In contrast to Bailey (1994) and Neuman (2011), trustworthiness or a study's soundness is based on the extent to which the findings accurately capture the phenomenon studied, also known as the credibility of the findings, the ability of the study to account for variability over time (dependability) and the extent to which the process of collecting data and coming to conclusions is straightforward and can be followed by another (confirmability) and the likelihood that the findings have meaning in other similar situations (transferability).

Credibility: According to Lincoln & Guba (1985), credibility involves establishing that the results of qualitative research are credible or believable from the perspective of the

participants in the research. Credibility was achieved by data saturation, referential adequacy, triangulation, peer debriefing, member checking, and audit trail (Neuman, 2011). Within a constructivist paradigm, member checking provided an opportunity to explore further the tensions and complexities of the proposed interpretations (Charmaz, 2014). Member checking was done by going to the source of the information and preliminary case descriptions to check both data, analysis, and theory development. Member checking provides an opportunity to explore further the tensions and complexities of the proposed interpretations (Charmaz, 2014).

Transferability: Refers to the extent to which findings can be “applied to other contexts or with other participants” (Babbie & Mouton, 2011, p. 277). Peer reviewing was done with the person who is not part of the study but who had a general understanding of the nature of the study to review the insight and analysis to deepen the first level coding. The inclusion of thick descriptions of individual case descriptions, setting, and interactions geared towards providing the reader with sufficient information to feel that they have vicariously experienced the case, allows naturalistic generalisation (Stake, 1995). Such thick description contributed to the transferability of the study.

Confirmability: This is analogous to objectivity in quantitative research and is the degree to which the results can be confirmed or corroborated by others (De Vos *et al.*, 2012). Confirmability is similar to reliability in qualitative research (Babbie & Mouton, 2001, p. 53; Hennink *et al.*, 2011; Bailey 1994; Neuman, 2011). The case study protocol, proper organisation of the data storage systems, comparative analysis, coding process, and analytical memos were used to enable the development of an audit trail, which contributed to the research confirmability. Multiple sources using intensive interviews and document review were used to enhance the validity and reliability of the study.

Dependability: This explains obtaining the same results if we could observe the same thing twice (Neuman, 2011). Extensive field notes and triangulation of different data sources were obtained from various sources (the CDPs, CDWs, lecturers from higher education institutions, and managers). By giving multiple perspectives within the study, credibility, dependability, and confirmability were strengthened. A tape recording was used to document the findings. A field journal was used, and member and peer examination promoted the researcher’s reflexivity and thus the credibility of the study.

Rigor: Grounded theory has its criteria for assessing the rigor or quality of the study. The fit and relevance, workability, and modifiability are criteria distinguished for assessing rigor in grounded theory (Glaser, 1978). The fit and relevance were maintained by ensuring that the categories developed relate to data and are derived through constant comparison and conceptualisation. Analytical approaches included asking questions of the data and what

grounded theorists call constant comparison (Glaser & Strauss, 1967); similarities and differences between codes were identified, and codes that fit together were clustered into abstract patterns or categories. Categories were then integrated into the core categories that emerged in the data. This is referred to as workability. The concepts that are important to the theory were incorporated into it through the constant comparison process. The modifiable theory was altered when new relevant data was compared to existing data or plausible stories (Charmaz, 2014).

In ensuring that the theory is valid, grounded, or well supported by data, Hennink *et al.* (2011) suggest strategies for verifying empirical theory. In order to maintain this, the following three strategies were employed. Firstly, by using consistency checks, returning to data and concept indicator models to validate concepts in theory, secondly, checking the fit of the theory with the data of the emerging theory to ensure the robustness of the emerging theory. Finally, through an audit trail. Using these strategies aided in identifying the nuances in the theory, refinement, and revision of the emerging theory in this study. This, in turn, enhanced the fit and the absolute validity of the study.

3.13. Limitations of the study

The findings of the study cannot be generalised. As Strauss and Corbin (1998) alluded, findings of grounded theory study cannot be replicated and generalised to a total population but may have meanings to others in a similar social setting. Likewise, if the other researcher follows the audit trail, the theoretical explanation should be similar (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), although Glaser questions why anyone would want to do this. Parts of the research may be subjective. Supervision guidance is essential to reduce this from happening and using an “audit trail” (Babbie & Mouton, 2001, p. 276).

3.14. Ethical considerations

Ethics are defined as “a discipline dealing with what is good and bad or right and wrong or with moral duty and obligations” (De Vos *et al.*, 2012). This study considered ethical issues such as confidentiality, written informed consent, dignity, and respect, right to participate, the principle of no harm, compensation, or benefits. Ethics approval was sought from the University Ethics Committee, and permission to conduct the research was requested from all the stakeholders involved in the study. All participants were informed verbally as well as in writing about the study. A participant information letter was written and given to the participants of the study.

Informed consent: Adult participants (e.g., social workers or community practitioners) were asked for informed consent before the commencement of the study and tape recording of the interviews. Participation was voluntary, and participants were informed that they could

withdraw from the study at any time (See Appendix B for Participant Consent Form). The participants were also allowed to ask questions during or after they participated in the research (De Vos et al., 2012). Participants were told that participation in the study was entirely voluntary. The researcher ensured that participants had read and understood the information about the research study as provided in the information sheet. They were allowed to ask questions about the research study and their participation in the study. Confidentiality was explained, for example, in terms of not revealing the participants' names in the report, pseudonyms or use of codes, anonymisation of data. The data in research, publications, sharing, and archiving was explained to the participants.

The participants were informed that they have the right not to participate, not to answer questions that cause them distress or discomfort, and they may withdraw from the interview process at any time. Participants were provided with a participant information sheet that outlined the purpose of the study, provisions around confidentiality, risk, voluntary participation, and data protection. They were required to sign a consent form for participation and agree to the interview's tape recording. Participants were also informed that the tape would be kept in a locked cabinet and destroyed five years after the publication of the research report. Participants were also aware that there would be no direct benefits or rewards for participating in this study.

Right to Autonomy: The participants were not coerced to participate in the study. Instead, voluntary participation was invited. The participants had the right to refuse to answer the questions they felt uncomfortable answering. Participants also had the right to withdraw from the study at any stage of the research process. They were assured that their nonparticipation would not disadvantage them while participation would not bring any monetary or other gains.

Confidentiality and anonymity: Confidentiality and anonymity were dealt with as ethical issues in the data collection process. While confidentiality has to do with not disclosing information discussed between participants and the researcher, anonymity is the ethical protection that participants remain nameless, their identity is protected from disclosure, and remains unknown (Babbie et al., 2001). In terms of maintaining confidentiality, the researcher ensures that no names and addresses appear on the transcripts (De Vos et al., 2012). Identifiable information was removed from the interview transcript or quotations used so that no individual participants can be identified from the report. No quotations reflect the name of the individuals. Confidentiality was ensured by keeping all data confidential. The researcher refrained from revealing the names of the participants on the tapes, files or identifying them inadvertently when reporting findings. Participant names were replaced with codes and pseudonyms. Data was kept confidential on a password-protected computer and was only accessible to the researcher. In addition, safe data storage methods were used.

For example, transcripts were stored in a secure location and all work stored on the computer was password protected.

The principle of no harm to the participant was ensured. The researcher did not perpetuate harm or prejudice the participants (Hennink et al., 2011). The researcher also ensured that the study results were not published or shared in any way that might bring harm to the children. Pseudonyms and codes were used when reporting data to ensure confidentiality (De Vos et al., 2012). Coding was used during data gathering and processing of the interviews, notes, tapes, and transcripts. Raw data were stored securely for the appropriate period, according to the requirements of the ethics committee.

Compensation and Benefits. The researcher made it clear to the participants that they would not receive any incentive for participating in the study. The offering of incentives is best avoided, as it may influence participation (Babbie et al., 2001), as this constitutes personal pressure on participants (De Vos et al., 2012).

Right to respect and dignity: The participants and their views were respected throughout the research process. Participants were treated with dignity and were not involved in the research processes to negatively affect their dignity. They were informed about the purpose of the study and the methodology to be employed in this study. They were informed that they had the right to access the research findings and the final report.

3.15. Summary

As stated in the introductory section, this chapter, the researcher outlined the methodology of the case study research, the purpose of the study, and the research questions. It located the case study research in a broader landscape and outlined the ontology and epistemology to meet the purpose of this research. The notion of a case and case context is vital in multiple case study design. Within case analysis and cross-case analysis are central to explaining constructivist data analysis's constant iterative process in this study. The final section in this chapter accounts for the broad ethical considerations.

CHAPTER FOUR: CASE PRESENTATION OVERVIEW AND CASE 1: FINDINGS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter three identified the methodologies that were selected to investigate the phenomenon underpinning the study. This chapter outlines an overview of the multiple case study data

gathering processes of the four cases underpinning the study. Interviews and secondary data analysis were undertaken to investigate the the questions identified in the methodology section. Intensive interviews were the primary data collection method. Secondary data analysis corroborated the interviewed findings. Purposive sampling and theoretical sampling, which is unique to the constructivist grounded theory, were used. Theoretical sampling is a process of data collection for generating theory, which is the contribution of knowledge in this study outlined in Chapter ten, was used. The researcher in this study collected data, coded and analysed it, then decided on what data to collect next to address the research questions. These decisions were guided by the researcher's engagement with the data and emergent categories, but not on a preconceived theoretical framework. Data saturation and theoretical saturation was stopped at the point of saturation (Charmaz, 2014). Theoretical saturation occurs when "gathering more data about a category reveals no new properties nor yields any further theoretical insights about the emerging grounded theory" (Charmaz, 2014, p. 345). This process began and was confirmed in 74 interviews. Intensive interviewing generated much data in this study and ultimately revealed aspects of the phenomenon under study that might not otherwise have been visible.

The researcher adhered to ethical considerations, and the topic areas were not sensitive, although participants were referred to consider psychological support and counseling where needed. Participants are identified only by number (e.g., P1, P2, P3, etc.). This study met the credibility criteria in that the data was subject to "peer debriefing" (Lincoln & Guba, 1986, p. 77) by subjecting its data to interpretations. Participants requested the final copy of the thesis once the study is concluded. The findings from secondary data analysis are presented in Chapter eight of this study. Data gathered for all four cases was analysed using Charmaz's (2014) constructivist elements of data analysis constant comparison iterative process. The analysis process followed a constant comparative data analysis process (Charmaz, 2014). The process followed consists of two significant steps: the initial phase and the focused or selective phase data analysis process. Each case was analysed first to understand the case context and the "uniqueness of each case" (Stake, 2006, p.11). The capacity to capture social phenomenon and context is strength in case study methodology (Yin, 2003; Stake, 2006). This is what distinguishes a case study from other forms of qualitative inquiry. The analysis of each case in a multiple case study research is known as "within-case analysis" (Stake, 2006, p.2). The findings for case one are presented in this chapter. The findings for case two are presented in Chapter five. The case three results are presented in Chapter six, while case four findings are presented in Chapter five. Although within-case analysis is undertaken, the answers to the research questions in this study will be addressed in the cross-case analysis. Cross case analysis findings are presented in Chapter nine of this study. The case studies tell us about the complexities of professionalisation and the ethical challenges in community development work.

4.2. OVERVIEW OF THE CASE DESCRIPTIONS AND DATA STRUCTURE

The study was undertaken using a collective case study design (Stake, 2000; Yin, 2003). Yin (2003, p. 97) notes that the use of multiple data collection methods supports the efficacy of case study research. “Multiple case study research requires attention to each case before attention to findings from collecting cases” (Stake, 2006, p.2). Within case, analysis is undertaken for each case before a cross-case analysis can be carried out. There is an innate tension in multiple case study research that stems from the focus on each case and as a whole. In a multiple case study, the “research question is answered from the findings across the cases” (Stake, 2006, p.107). Data collected from the interviews for all four cases were analysed in relation to the overarching questions and research posed in Chapter One and Chapter three in this thesis. In order to study how participant’s, perceive the current attempt to develop the community development profession, the professionalisation process complexities, and the values in South Africa, the researcher was guided by the questions during data collection. The following research questions were posed, as follows:

Q: 1. *What is your educational qualification or professional training, and how long have you been working in the field of community development?*

Q: 2. *What is your understanding of community development, and how would you describe the history of community development process that is built before and after 1994 in South Africa?*

a) *What is your understanding of community development, community work, and social development?*

b) *What is the history of community development before 1994, and why is it important?*

Q: 2 (c) *What is the history of community development after 1994, and how has community development work changed over time?*

Q: 3. *What were the reasons, challenges, tensions, or complexities the emerging profession of community development had to deal with during the professionalisation process of community development?*

Why was it important to professionalise community development?

What led to the professionalisation of community development?

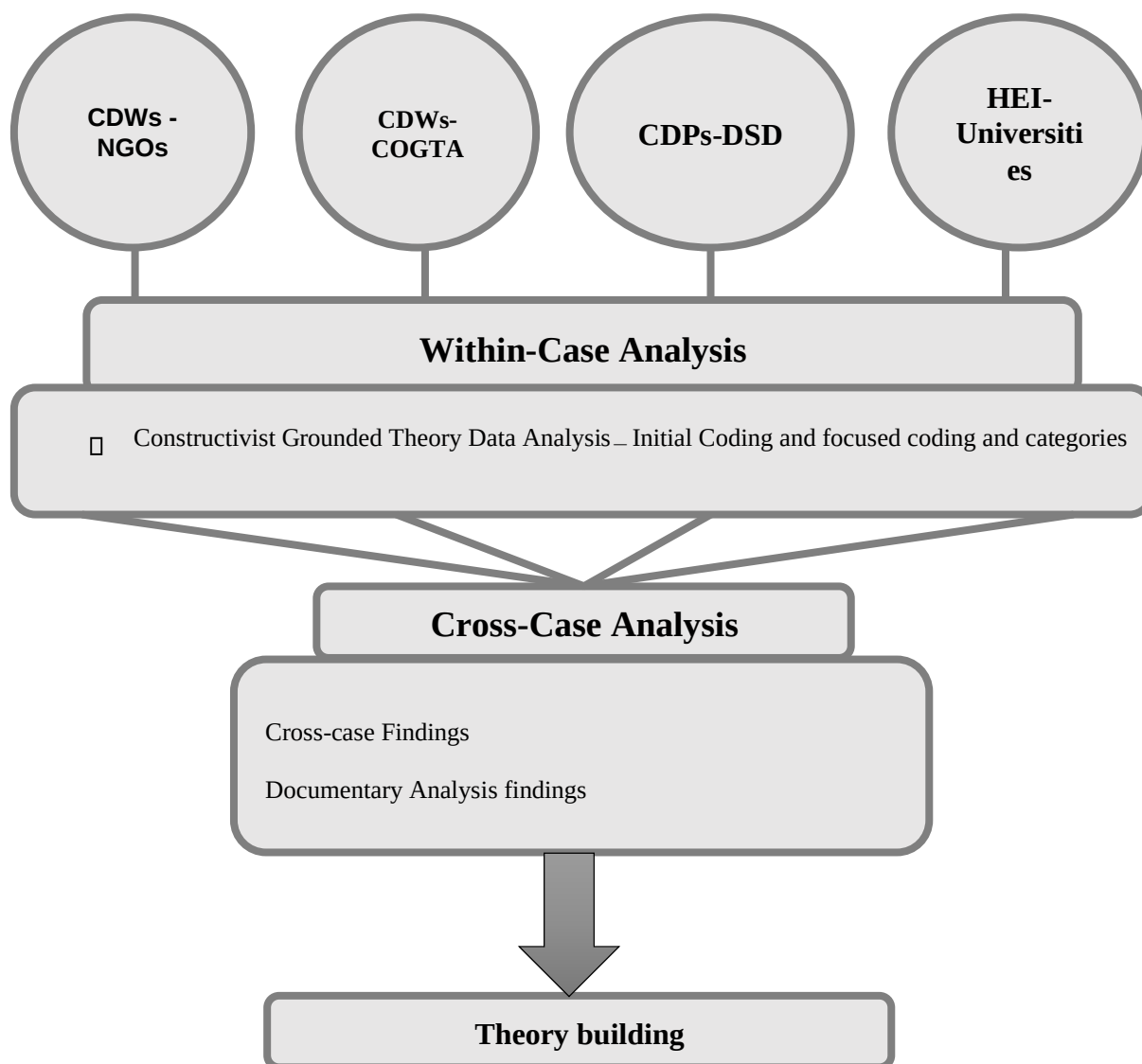
What processes were involved in the professionalisation of community development?

How has the professionalisation of community development evolved, and the tensions, challenges, and complexities that the evolving profession of community development grappled with?

Q: 4. *What are the ethical issues that you encounter in community development, and how are they resolved?*

In addition, the multiple case study research design was applied to achieve the objectives of the study. Gillham (2000) maintains that a case study investigates issues to answer specific research questions while searching for various evidence within the case. In order to meet the objectives of this research, the study consisted of four cases; and practitioners engaged in community development and professionalisation of community development in South Africa were selected for these case studies. Four cases examined in the study included a case of CDWs at the Non -Governmental Organisation, a case of CDWs at COGTA, the Higher Education Institutions, and CDPs at the Provincial and National DSD. Case study protocol for approaching individual cases in this study is described in appendix D. Questions asked are outlined in the interview guide in appendix C. Consistent with case study design (Yin, 2003; Stake, 1995), data collection methods included semi-structured interviews and document review. Data collection occurred between June and December 2019. Figure 4.1. below summarises each case. Interviews were the primary source of data and Atlas. ti (Frieze, 2014) was used for data management. All the interviews were audiotaped and transcribed verbatim. Purposive and theoretical sampling was used in collecting data in this study. Interviews and documentary analysis served to collect data to understand the case and its context within the multiple-case design.

FIGURE. 4.1: Overview of the four main cases and data analysis process underpinning the study.



4.2.1. Within case analysis and data analysis process undertaken in the study

The findings of this multiple case study research underwent two stages of analysis: stage one (chapter 4-6), which resulted in the interpretation of each case, also known as within case analysis. Data analysis in this study draws on Charmaz's (2014) grounded theory of data analysis. Data analysis followed the two-phase process of analysing case studies outlined by Charmaz (2014). The phases include initial coding and focused selective coding. In analysing data and coding, these two phases are employed for all cases underpinning the study. In constructing a case record, data was organised according to four cases and analyses using these two phases. The first analytical task in grounded theory is coding. Coding means "naming data segments, summarising, and accounting for each piece of data" (Charmaz, p. 109). Saldana (2013, p.3) describes a code as "short words or phrases that symbolically assign a summative, salient and essence, capturing and/or evocative attributes for a portion of language based or visuals." The coding process involves carefully reading data, considering which codes are discussed in that section of data, and then labeling this section with relevant codes. It involves continually identifying what is being said, assessing

the context of the discussion, following the line of argument, and then deciding which codes are appropriate.

Inductive codes were developed from reading data and noting issues of importance raised by participants. Searching for inductive code allows the data to speak for itself. It is central to qualitative data analysis and reflects the principle of grounded theory (Glasser and Strauss, 1967). In identifying codes in this study, participants' words, lines and segments of data were studied in the interview transcript and codes were formed from the participants' telling terms. As Star (2007, p.80) states, coding sets a relationship with the data and the participants. The development of codes assisted in interrogating, sorting, and synthesizing interviews and documents in the study. Code development was stopped at the point of saturation (Charmaz, 2014), which is when no new issues were identified in the data. Examples of codes such as professional identities, low professional status, the tension between social service professionals, developmental approach, and others were created to illuminate how the participants of the study responded to the research questions, what meaning they held regarding the complexities of professionalisation, and the ethics of community development.

4.2.2. Account of interviews, data gathering process, initial coding, focused coding, and constant iterative data analysis process

Initial phase coding provided paths to undertake coding and analysis. In the focused coding phase, the most significant or frequent earlier codes were used to sift through the remaining data. In this study, focused codes developed during the second data analysis stage were treated as tentative categories. This aided the researcher in developing the categories further and scrutinize them in terms of what data reflected and what category the codes indicated. Glasser & Strauss (1967, p. 37) describe category as a “conceptual element in theory”. Data in this study was hierarchically organised according to the main categories to understand the relationships and links between data for each case's categories (Charmaz, 2014). Categories were then compared against large batches of data and with each other. The purpose was to identify variations within and between categories. The comparative iterative analysis process assisted the researcher in being aware of gaps in the analysis process, and corrective measures were made. Theoretical categories were saturated in this study. Saturating theoretical categories means that categories are robust because the researcher found no properties of these categories, and the researchers established properties that account for patterns in the data (Glaser, 1978; Holton, 2007; Wiener, 2007).

Participants' own voices are used to illustrate the processes. Word for word replicas of the words spoken in the interview were produced. Verbatim transcripts are essential for GT analysis as they capture information from the participants' in their own words, phrases, and

expressions, allowing the researcher to uncover “cultural meaning” (Hennink et al, 2011 p. 211). In order to ensure the accuracy and completeness of the verbatim transcripts, the researcher repeatedly listened to the segments of each recorded interview and compared them with the written transcripts to identify errors, omissions, and inaccuracies. The ethical principles and considerations were adhered to during data analysis. The speakers were identified as participants, and written transcripts were anonymised. A similar name was used relating to the same interview, such as participant 1, participant 2, etc. In anonymizing the interview transcripts, the names of the participants were erased, including explicit identifying information that may show identity of a participants. These identifiers were left blank or replaced with pseudonyms. Quotations have been edited for clarity. Finally, each case is summarised to highlight the case's uniqueness and salient features. Figure 4.1 above provides an overview of the main cases that are described in the ensuing chapters.

4.2.3. Account of cross-case analysis constant iterative process

Stake (2006) advocates case analysis that focuses on each case and then on the cases as a whole. Within case analysis and cross-case analysis of the four cases combined answers all the study's research questions. Chapter nine discusses the cross-case analysis of the four cases underpinning the study. Common elements and differences across cases and the main categories explain how different contexts and processes vary across cases. Although each case was analysed separately, the concepts of all cases influenced subsequent data analysis. Chapter eight in this study discusses cross-case analysis in detail.

4.3. CASE ONE PRESENTATION AND FINDINGS

4.3.1. Introduction to case 1 and case context

Understanding the case and its context is the priority in single and multiple case study research. The case study approaches emphasise the importance of the uniqueness of each case in a multiple case study and case context to answer the phenomenon under study. CDWs who participated, in this case, are from the various non-governmental organisations (NGOs) in the township and Johannesburg central.

The services rendered in communities include working in partnership with other NGOs in skills development programs for the population at risk, as indicated in the following extracts (P.2, P.3, P.4, P.5). *“When working in communities, our programs include skills development.”*

The target population is youth at risk, women...h young people who are unemployed and out of school, assist vulnerable families, children and the older people, computer skills, sewing. We also work in partnership with other NGOs and refer communities to other services we do not offer." Lack of community participation and funding limitations are some of the reasons leading to the closure of many NGOs. The following extracts illustrate their thoughts on this (P1, P.2, P.3, P.4, P.5). *"Community development is based at the community...you need to involve the community...the challenge is that the community does not participate, donor funding and resource challenges. In NGOs as well there is no guarantee that organization will be in existence...funding is an issue...In our case in 2003 we were twenty-five employees in our organisation but now we have only five members of staff due to lack of funding. Some NGOs could not survive and ended up closing down for the same reason".*

4.3.2. Case 1 within-case analysis: One initial phase coding

In this study, conducting initial coding was the beginning task for initiating the analysis process. Charmaz (2014) and Glasser (1992) prescribe coding without preconceived concepts in mind. Initial coding was undertaken with each interview. All the interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed. In order to comply with ethical considerations, all the participants identifying information were removed. The Atlas Iti qualitative data analysis software was used to engage with data word-by-word and line-by-line during initial coding. The researcher, during the coding process, paid attention to actions and coded data as actions. Coding data as actions assisted the researcher to stay close to data, identify gaps in data, and explore data areas that needed further inquiry.

In-vivo codes from participants were identified. For example, participants supported the professionalisation of community development as stated from the narrative extracts *"Professionalisation will not hurt" It ends up as a dialogue or shopping list for service delivery" CDPs are social worker's cousins"* were prominent. The detailed account of the initial codes generated in this case are indicated in Appendix H.

4.3.3. Case 1 within-case analysis: Focused Phase

The focused phase is the second phase of grounded theory data analysis. Focused coding aims to determine the adequacy and conceptual strength of the initial codes, thereby concentrating on what they are saying and the "comparison the researcher makes between the codes" (Charmaz 2014, p. 140). In conducting focused codes in this study, the initial codes were studied and assessed. The researcher focused on what they meant, and a

comparison between them was made. The goal of the focused coding process in data analysis was to determine how the initial codes accounted for data, what they implied and revealed in this study, to represent collective definitions and meanings. Codes with similar characteristics were identified and grouped into categories. Grounded theory emphasis is on the process instead of description; it avoids predetermined sampling and seeks to build theory instead of solely interpreting the data. Grounded theorists vary, and nuanced descriptions of category, concept, property, and dimension build blocks of analysis through a coding system. Corbin and Strauss (2008), for example, prescribe criteria for central and core categories, asserting that they must be abstract, must appear frequently, logically, and consistently in the data, and should grow in-depth and explanatory power as other categories are related to them or nested within them. Charmaz (2014) defines categorising as an analytic step that elevates selected codes for significance or patterning to form more abstract concepts, properties, and interrelations, which must then be defined and further explored. For Charmaz (2014), these more abstract categories signify the foundation of theory. Figure 4.2 presents a schematic of the focused phase data analysis processes and theoretical categories developed in this study.



Figure 4.2. Theoretical Categories

The categories mentioned earlier in this within-case analysis represent a broader concept or topical issue in this within-case analysis. These categories will become the core components of the cross-case analysis and in theory development or conceptual framework to explain and develop theory about the research questions in this study. Focused codes heighten the comparative process and aid in making informed choices about the skeleton of analysis in this study. For example, the initial codes that appear more frequently in answering the first research question identified include matric certificate, diploma in child and youth care, and master's degree in communication, social work, and development. These codes that appeared frequently are categorised as multidisciplinary educational qualifications. Line-by-line coding of the data during the initial phase led to the refinement of the multidisciplinary nature complexity concept was integral to the theory-generating analysis. Appendix L shows the example of the focused codes, interview excerpts, and the corresponding codes.

4.3.4. Case one: Theoretical categories and aggregated theoretical categories.

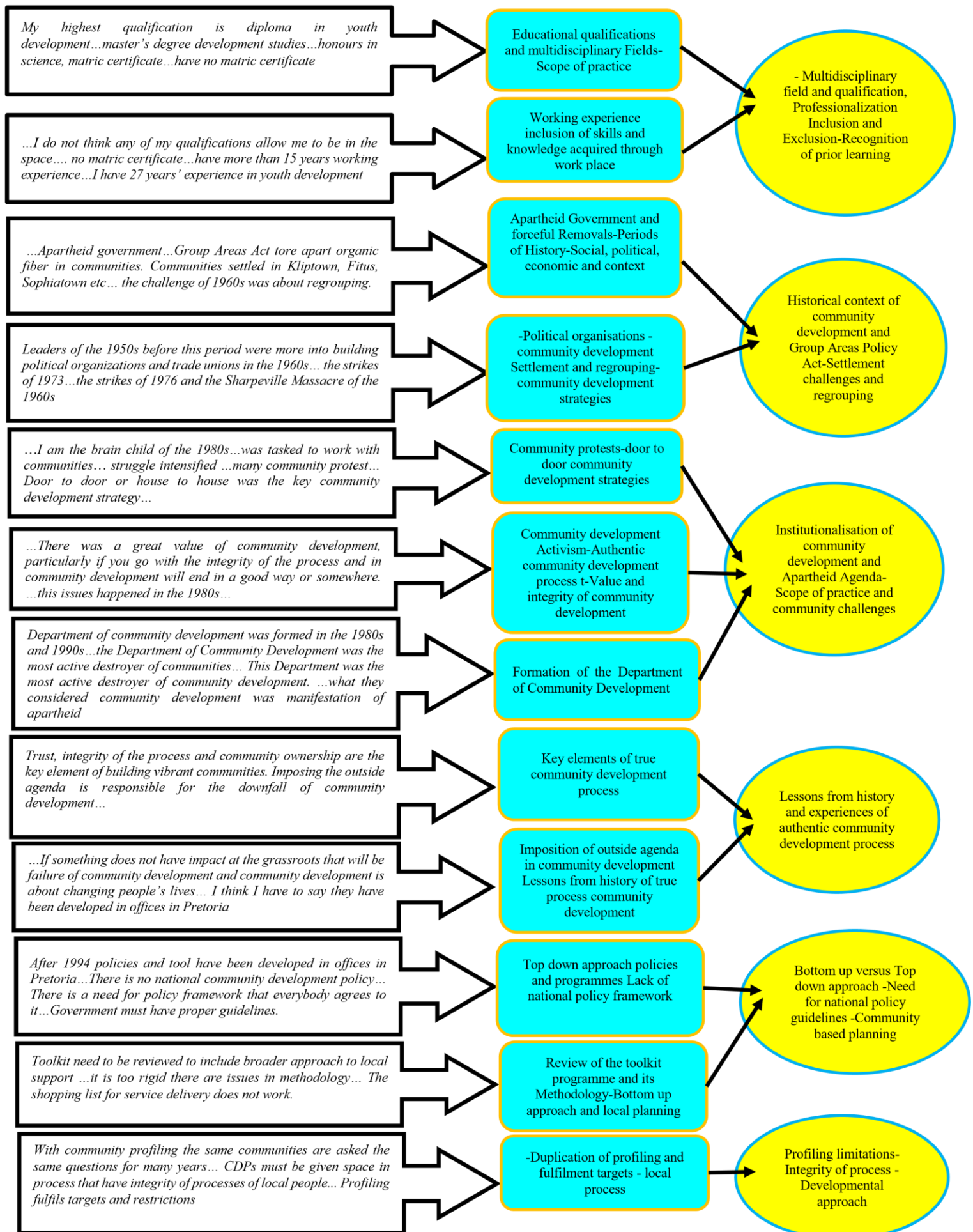
Theoretical coding follows the codes created through focused coding (Charmaz, 2014., p.150). Figure 4.3. shows theoretical codes generated in this case and depicts the relationship between categories. They assisted to theorise data and focused codes.

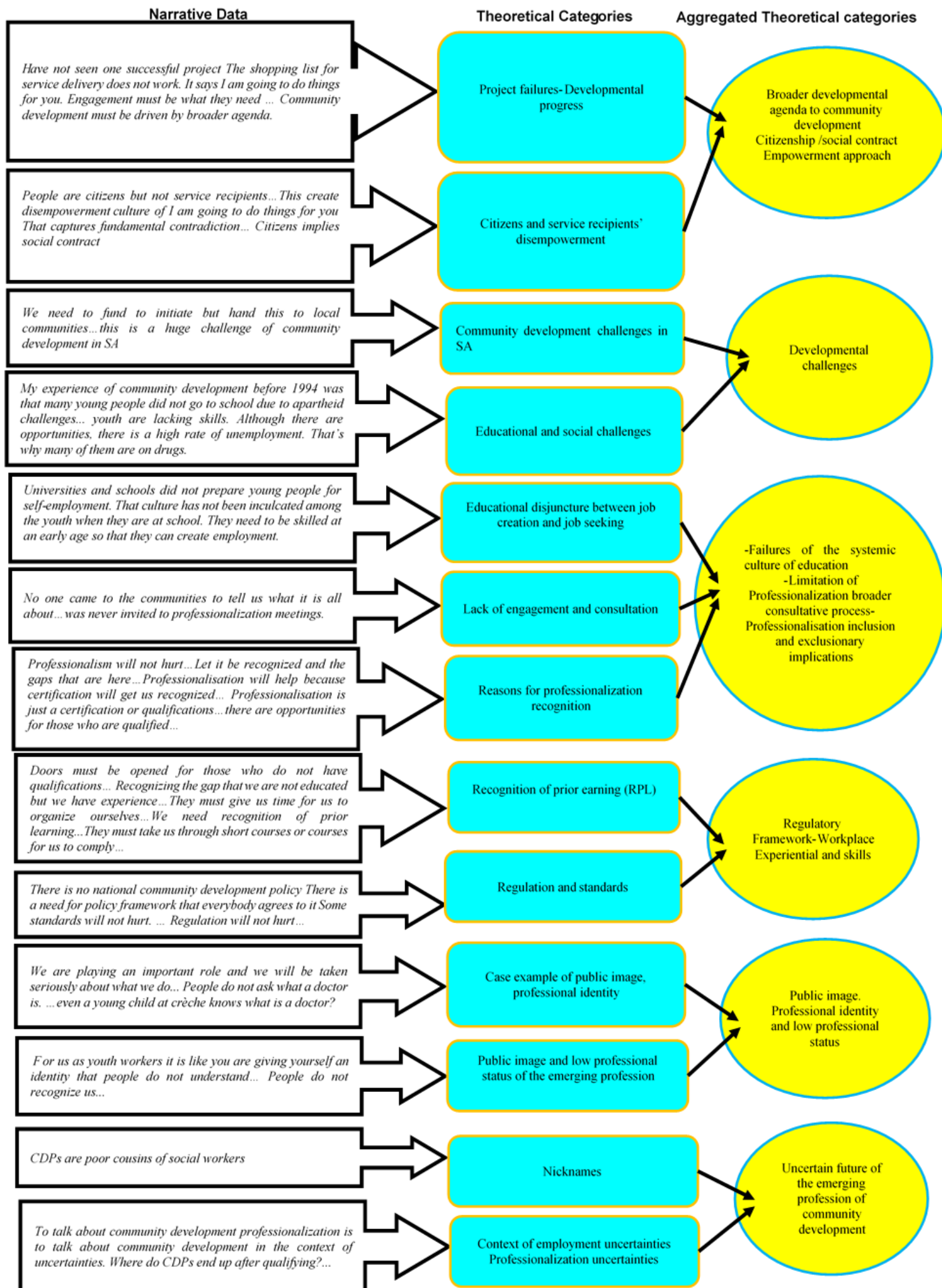
Figure 4.3. Theoretical categories and Aggregated theoretical categories.

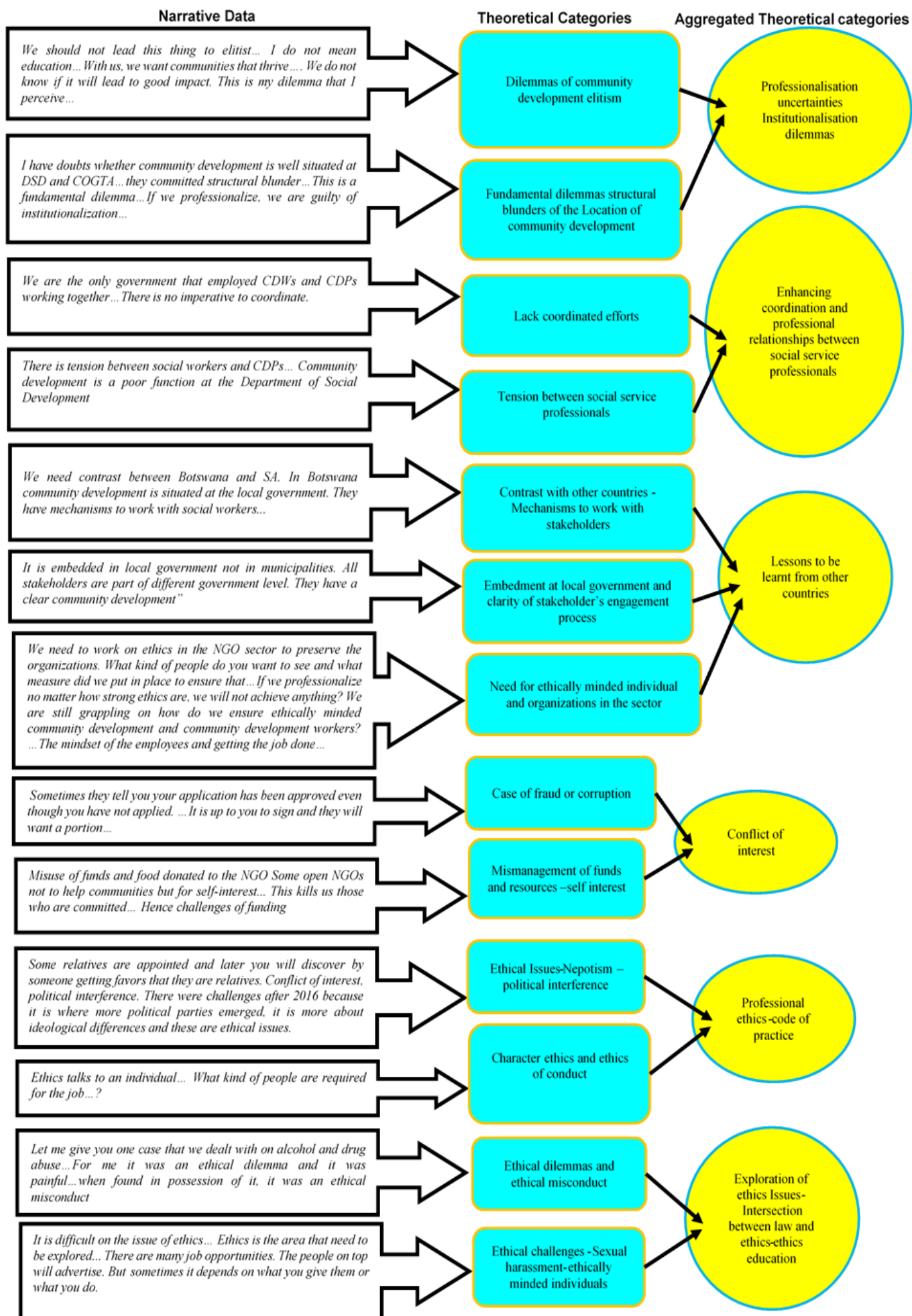
Narrative Data

Theoretical Categories

Aggregated Theoretical categories







[illegible]

Theoretical categories and aggregated theoretical categories were created. Categories were then compared against large batches of data and with each other—the constant comparative analysis process helped to identify variations within and between categories. Gaps in the analysis process were identified, and the researcher made corrective measures. Theoretical categories were then saturated, and aggregated theoretical dimensions were developed. Diagram 4. 1 provides a summary of case codes generated for this case. This case provided an example of the context of community development before and after 1994.

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Unique features and periods of the history of community development were shown, including the authentic process of community development, door-to-door strategies, citizens versus recipients of services, a toolkit for community development practitioners, community-based planning, community profiling, and challenges within this position.

In contrast, the unique contributions of non-governmental organizations and political organisations were identified. This included forming the first Department of Community in 1980 and how the apartheid government destroyed the vibrant fiber of communities. The findings showed that community development started by identifying community needs and mobilising people, and working with them to show them that apartheid was detrimental, as shown from the narrative extract *"They were more concerned about settlements and logistical challenges of the 1960s and 1970s. Their challenges were about regrouping...Group Areas Act tore apart organic fiber in communities. Community development is about belonging together. When they regrouped, they were threatened too... Huge part of community development was identification of large part of people in communities. The effect of forceful removals tore apart those vibrant communities. Communities settled in Kliptown, Fitus, Sophia town and Lanasia etc...Not much has been written."*

Community mobilisation was used as a political strategy. House to house or door to door was a community development and political strategy used for political support. One way of working with people was to work with them about the challenges that they faced. These pushed leaders into housing issues as the needs identified by the communities before 1994. Trusting people was necessary, and people were able to share their challenges. The history and the strategies used taught the leaders that the great value of community development lies with respecting the integrity of the process. The mobilisation was first a political agenda and gave rise to community development. The community mobilisation process rested on the ownership of the community to give form, tone, and direction. The tension noted in the study is that with professionalisation, an outside expert professional determines how things should work, and this risks creating dependency, lack of empowerment, and denial of decision making. These emerged as reasons for project failures. The findings showed a need to look at self-directed communities. This is a considerable challenge of community development in South Africa, and the lack of national policy for community development and lack of processes that have an integrity of the local people. Engagement must start with what people need. The government — through DSD and COGTA — is said to have committed a structural blunder as shown from the narrative extracts *"We are the only government that employs CDPs and CDWs there is no imperative to coordinate... I have doubts whether community development is well situated at DSD and what is the mandate of the DSD. ...The pressure is from the top...CDP get told what they must develop. When*

you approach people to receive services you place them in a passive role...The CDPs get given targets and this is one of the biggest challenges from the provincial offices. It gets cascaded down to the CDPs. They tick boxes. Shopping list for service delivery does not work.....The tool kit is used to fulfil targets...same communities are asked the same questions for 20 years... do not envy CDPs.... They have no place and time to do community development.

Many projects failed...engagement of people is project based...toolkit push CDPs to community-based planning...it needs to be reviewed.....there is role confusion..... there is no clear community development framework.....there is no developmental progress. CDPs are poor cousins of social work. There is need for CDPs to spent time with communities...the way we engage people must be different...there is the need to look at self-directed communities... Government needs to redefine its role in community development. vs citizens. Is it an enabler of communities or is it citizens? Citizens implies social contract. Even in Batho Pele”

The case also provided examples of ethical complexities linked to fraud, conflict of interest, ethical issues, and dilemmas in practice. It also illustrated that community development in South Africa is embedded and emerged as a political and social reaction against the apartheid government's structural and systemic problems. It also illustrated that, after 1994, CDPs are dependent and restricted by targets set by the government. Hence, they are not given space and time to advocate for communities and practice the authentic community development process. A process is indicated as imported as opposed to a basket of service delivery approach to the community.

This case features a strong history of community development process and strategies, how to trust, respecting the integrity of community development, and social contract contributes to authentic community development. The case demonstrated the need for broader consultative processes, the benefits, and complexities of professionalisation of community development and how this project should not lead to community development elitism, tensions between social service practitioners, the need to learn lessons from the history of community development before 1994 and lessons to learn from other countries. The importance of bottom-up decision-making, as opposed to top-down, is stressed to clarify the direction of community development. This case illustrates how community development plays out in the context of a top-down community development in which the government approach to the community prescribes the vision and community development programs. The process is associated with a bottom-up approach to community development. It also emphasises that the authentic process of community development is the means of achieving community development outcomes. In addition, case examples of ethical issues and

dilemmas were revealed. Ethics education is recommended to instill ethically minded professionals and organisations to promote ethical accountability in the sector.

5.1. Introduction and case context

Chapter four presented an overview of all the cases and the data gathering process, ethical considerations, trustworthiness, and data analysis processes underpinning the multiple case study. This chapter presents and analyses case two, and the same protocol of the multiple case study was followed in this study. The interviews took approximately an hour thirty minutes and were all audio-recorded and transcribed. All the names and identifiers were removed to comply with ethical considerations. As outlined in the previous chapter, multiple case studies focus initially on case analysis and cross-case analysis afterward (Eienhardt, 1989). Within case analysis is guided by the research questions underpinning the study. Given the purpose and the nature of the study, the theoretical sampling led the researcher to community development workers at COGTA and DPSA, although the initial plan of the study was to focus on CDPs at the DSD. All participants met the selection criteria outlined in chapter one and chapter three. Theoretical categories developed were also saturated to account for patterns of data. This case is situated at the local government with CDWs located at municipalities in various wards in Gauteng province. Theoretical sampling included senior officials from DPSA and COGTA, and including the CDWs. DPSA coordinates the Community Development Workers Programme (CDWP) at the national level. COGTA is the employer of community development workers. As expanded in the foundational chapters and Chapter four presentation of multiple cases, this notion of case context was important. The CDWP was established in 2004. This programme was founded to address service delivery challenges in poor communities between 1994 and 2004 which was highlighted in the government report titled *Towards a Ten-Year Review: Synthesis Report on Implementation of Government Programmes* (Republic of South Africa, 2003); as revealed by participants' narratives below in explaining the functions and location of the community development workers.

The CDWs are working in the area of community development. Their function is to coordinate at the community level as typical public servants. They are based in various wards. We have 130 wards. They identify gaps in services by bringing government services to the people

The community development program is coordinated nationally by DPSA... we work closely with COGTA. In essence, COGTA is the employer of CDWs ... DPSA is a mother body of government responsible for policies across government departments. When the CDW program was established, it was called Provincial-Local Government, and now that department is called COGTA...

In addition, the CDWs work with local government ward councilors at the municipal level. Some CDWs are based in specific government departments and are doing different functions related to the department mandate. For example, in health, there are EPWs. This

case examines the CDWs located at the municipal level of government in communities. The CDWs are based in communities and work at various wards at the municipality level, as indicated by the narrative extracts: *"The CDWs program came about the idea of having public service servants... they are based in various wards.....they identify gaps in services...bringing government service to the people...we have 130 wards..."*

"It was the basket government created to make sure that there is interaction between government and the people...e.g. Batho Pele... The CDWs are the warm bodies...this is a group of public service servants... different to the normal public service servants... They interface at all these levels and not office based... The CDWs work at the community level in a ward so that they can work with citizens and structures in the wards at the municipal level."

'After 1994 majority of the citizens were not receiving government services...there was a big gap between citizens and government... services must be closer to communities....' "My role is to link people with services and resources. We do not have one focus area. We are interventionists. We do not have resources but link and influence resources... we are working with issues at the totality. That is how we are different from the CDPs."

5.2. Case 2 within-case analysis: Initial Phase

Initial coding was the starting point for initiating the analysis process. Initial codes are "provisional, comparative, and grounded in data" (Charmaz, 2014, p. 117). Initial coding was conducted with each of the interviews, audio-recorded, and transcribed. Participants consented to audio recording the interviews. Names and identifying information were removed to comply with ethical considerations. The researcher used Atlas Iti qualitative data analysis software to engage with data word-by-word line-by-line during initial coding. Data were treated as actions and helped the researcher stick closely to data and see areas in which data is needed. *In vivo* codes from participants were identified. For example, codes such as *"Re bo Maphanda," "We are hustlers,"* and *"Poitjie kos"* was eminent. The initial codes generated in this case are indicated in Appendix I.

5.3. Case 2 within case analysis/Focused Coding/selective phase

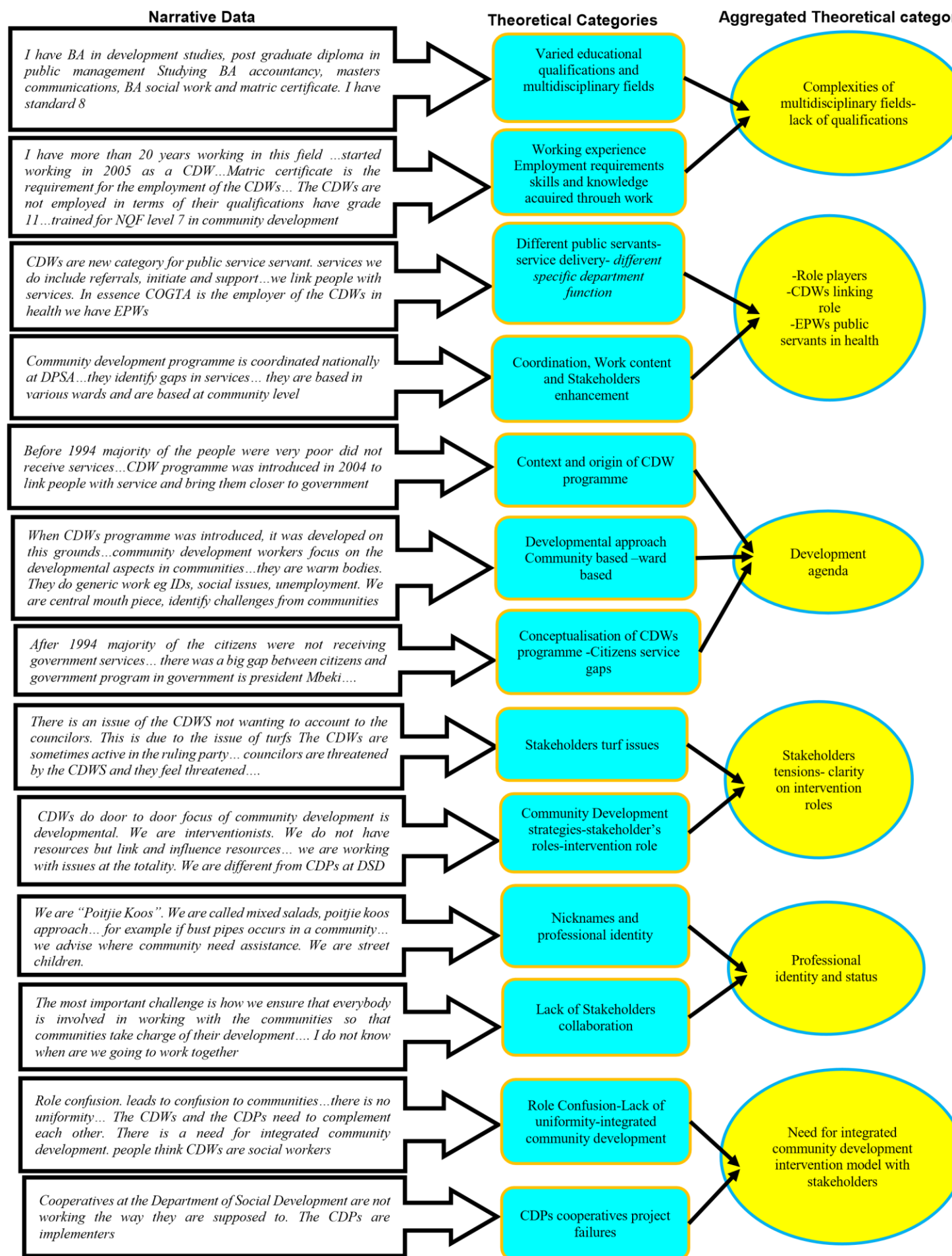
Focused coding involves attending to "how initial codes account for data" (Charmaz, 2014, p. 140). The researcher studied the initial codes and assessed them through a constant comparative process of data analysis.

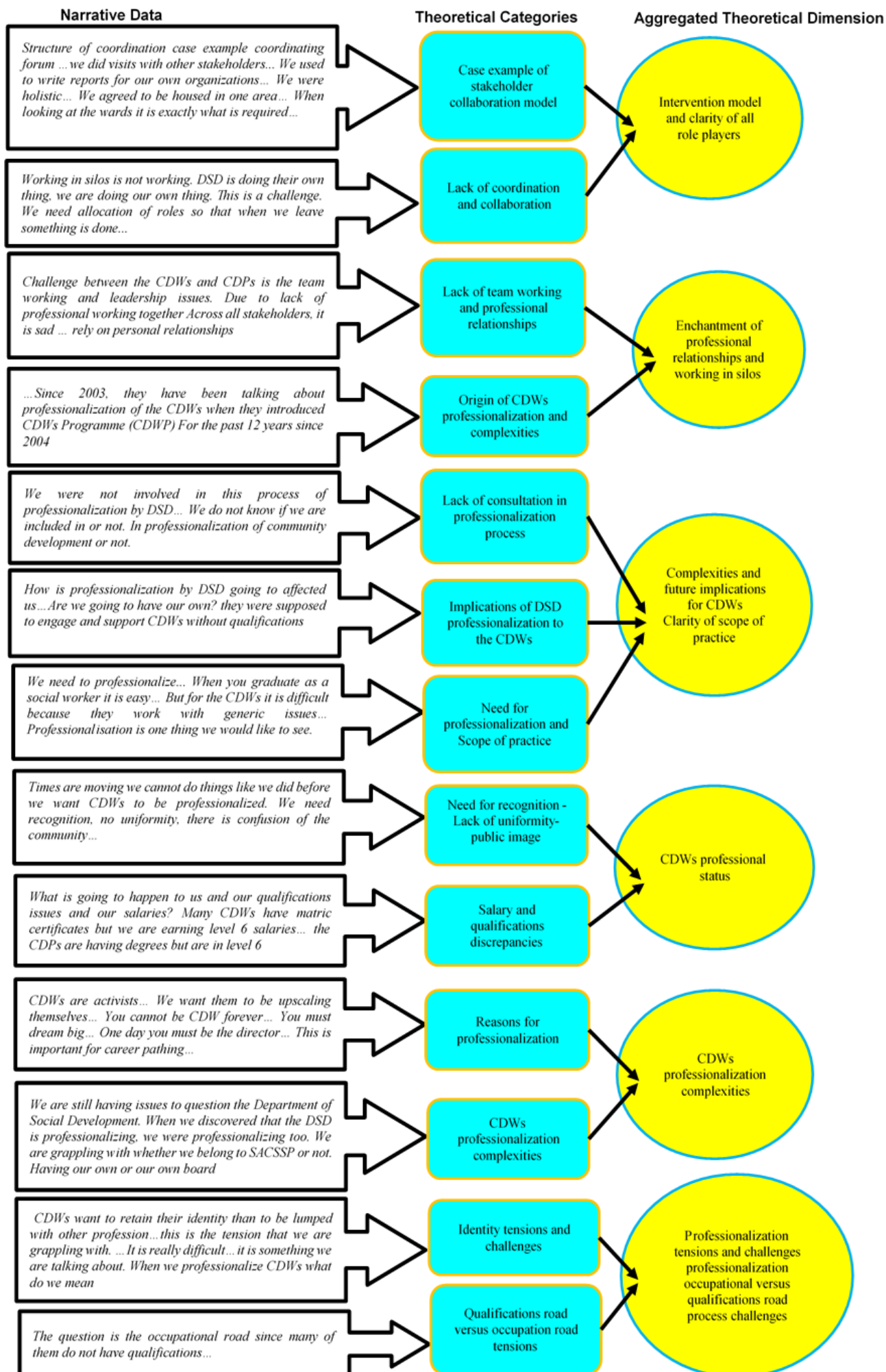
The researcher used focused coding for advancing, sifting, sorting, synthesising, condensing, and sharpening tentative theoretical directions in this study. The following tables below show focused codes generated in this case. The interview excerpts and the corresponding codes portray professionalisation and ethical complexities in this case.

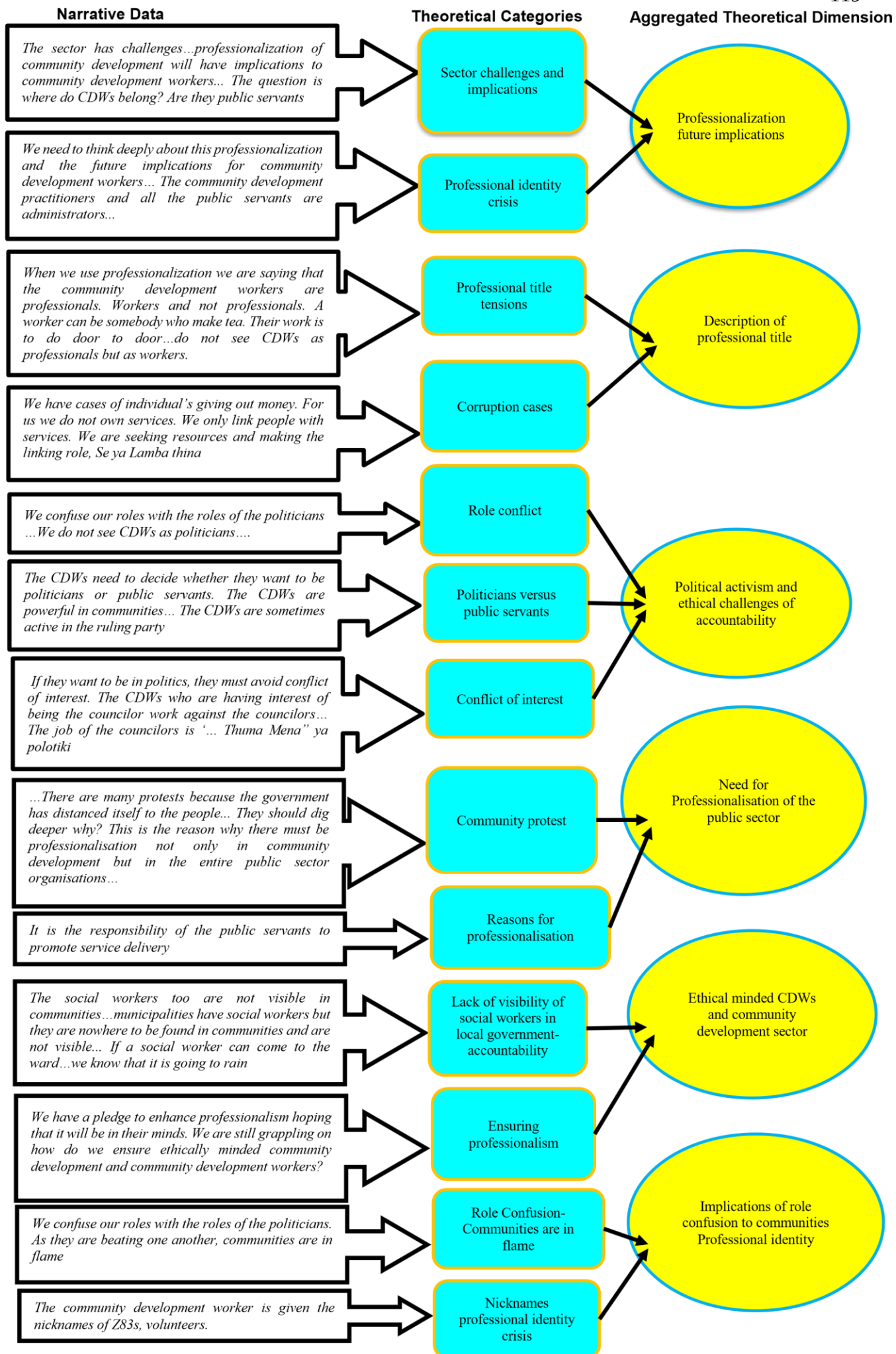
5.4. Case 2 Theoretical Categories and Aggregated Theoretical Categories

Theoretical coding follows the codes created through focused coding (Charmaz, 2014). Figure 5.1. shows theoretical codes generated in this case and depicts the relationship between categories. The coding process assisted to theorise data.

Figure 5.1. Case Two Theoretical Categories and Aggregated Theoretical Categories







revealed that for the past twelve years, CDWs have been talking about professionalisation. A reason for supporting professionalisation is its value for instilling professionalism. The study found that when the DSD started with professionalisation, CDWs were already professionalising. These findings showed a lack of engagement, coordination, consultation, and collaboration among government departments involved in the professionalisation process. Hence the CDWs indicated that they do not know how professionalisation by DSD is going to affect them.

Additionally, a vital feature of the case was that the CDWs have issues that need to question the DSD. When they discovered that the DSD was professionalising, they were professionalizing too. The significant professionalisation complexities identified that the CDWs are grappling with include: whether they belong to the South African Social Service professions (SACSSP) or not; matters related to the establishment of the CDWs professional board; what professionalisation of the CDWs means, and what are they required to do; the option for the CDWs as an occupational role since many of them do not have qualifications; not being employed in terms of their qualifications; the sector has not yet redefined the role of the CDWs resulting in turf issues in the sector. Other concerns included lack of clarity on how to work together; when CDWs graduate, it is difficult because they work with generic issues; CDWs' desire to retain their identity than being lumped with other professions; and debates on whether CDWs are professionals or workers. The study suggested that CDWs are workers, not professionals and their work involved doing door-to-door visits. When we professionalise, the CDWs are taken to the next level.

Moreover, the case revealed that the sector has challenges that need to be addressed, and the professionalisation of community development will have implications for community development workers. The salient feature of the complexities is where CDWs belong: are they public servants, administrators, or professionals? CDWs, including the CDPs, are public servants or administrators when viewed from an administration point of view. Concerns have been raised that the CDWs need to think deeply about this professionalisation and the future implications for CDWs.

The Lack of coordination structures at all levels of government and stakeholders in the community development sector and social service professions is a challenge in the sectors. Reasons contributing to these coordination gaps were linked to turf issues, working in silos, and the sector's failure to develop mechanisms and structure of working together. In addition, the study has found that the CDWs were not consulted and engaged in the professionalisation process of community development by DSD. As a result, community development workers stated that they were not sure if they are included in the DSD professionalisation process or not. The study further revealed that CDWs in other government departments did specific functions related to the department mandate. For

example, in health, we have EPWs. In addition, in the NGOs sector, there are CDWs. The need for the CDWs and the CDPs to complement each other was raised. The role of the CDWs is stated as expert organisers, whereas the CDPs are said to be the implementers. The councilors are said to be the representatives of the political parties and were referred to be "*Thuma mina ya polotiki*" (in vivo codes). Therefore, CDWs were indicated to be the interventionists, and community development is developmental. A coordinated, collaborative, and structured model of community development intervention with all relevant stakeholders was proposed for effective community development intervention.

A final key feature of the case is the ethical complexities that need to be considered in the sector. Although there are internal mechanisms such as pledges which are used to promote professionalism for the CDWs, ethical complexities emanating from this case include lack of registration with the SACSSP; conflicts of interest and political activism; role confusion with the roles of the politicians, and turf wars that leave communities unattended.

The case demonstrated a lack of stakeholders' coordination, collaboration, and engagement in professionalisation. Although the CDWs are professionalising, they are grappling with issues of an identity crisis. The main challenge is to undertake professionalisation following the occupational path or the qualifications path since many CDWs do not have qualifications. The requirement for the employment of the CDWs is a matric certificate. The study found that many of the CDWs do not want to be lumped with another profession.

6.1. Introduction and case context

This chapter presents case three and within-case analysis. The third case is situated at the Gauteng provincial office and the National Office of the Department of Social Development. Chapter four presented an overview of all the cases, how the data gathering process, ethical considerations, trustworthiness, and data analysis process underpinning the multiple case study. The same protocol described in Chapter four was followed in gathering data and analysis of this case. The interviews took approximately 30 minutes to an hour. All the interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed. All the names and identifiers were removed to comply with ethical considerations. Analysis in constructivist grounded theory happened simultaneously with data gathering. In order to familiarise the researcher with the data, Charmaz (2014) suggests complete immersion into the data where the researcher must use a constant comparative method in data collection and analysis. Following theoretical saturation, the researcher retains categories that become the major themes of the analytical framework (Charmaz, 2014; Glaser and Strauss, 1967). The constant comparison method of data analysis was utilized during the data collection process and continued after data collection had ceased during cross-case analysis in this multiple case study research.

6.2. Description of case context

Participants, in this case, were selected from Gauteng provincial offices and the National Office Department of Social Development. Community development practitioners, in this case, are employed by DSD. These two departments are the employers of community development practitioners, with the majority of these CDPs being based at the Sustainable Livelihood Unit in various provinces. Purposive sampling and theoretical sampling were used in this case study research. Selection criteria included CDPs with more than three years of working experience, senior officials, task team, and steering committee members heading professionalisation processes of community development. The findings show that the National Department of Social Development is tasked to lead, coordinate, and oversee the professionalisation of community development. The SACSSP and the tasks team are also part of the team leading the process as revealed from the narrative extracts "*The DSD is leading the professionalisation project and coordinates it... We brought on board the SACSSP. The SACSSP falls within the ministry of social development*". The entry-level employment of the CDPs is at level 6. The Toolkit for Community Development Practitioners is used to implement community development programs organised into four pillars. The four pillars include skills development program, Bana Pele, poverty alleviation, and community and household profiling as revealed in the narrative extracts, "*My community development experience includes working with the government's programs four pillars such as conducting community profiling, school uniform, non funded NPOs, monitoring funded NPOs, and*

working with cooperatives, advice centers, skills development, social programs. Profiling falls under social programs."

The case findings show that the professionalisation of community development at DSD started only in 2012 as an in-house project. Later the skills audit was conducted and indicated a lack of uniformity in the standards of qualifications of the practitioners: *"lack of uniformity in qualification standards and job description"*

The study findings show that community development unit in Gauteng DSD was introduced in 2009 as revealed from the narrative extracts: *"DSD in Johannesburg introduced community development in 2009 when they introduced the OSD, the idea of community development was to relieve the social workers ... CDPs were a cohort of people identified by the government to steer community development... The government used social workers to drive community development strategies.*

In 2005; the unit was called community development planning and research. In 2008 it was changed and called community development and partnership. Now it is called Sustainable Livelihood Unit."

The supervisors of community development practitioners have been in supervisory positions since 2009, and there is no ladder of promotion. This case indicates that social workers are the senior managers of the community development unit. Many community development practitioners do not have relevant qualifications in community development. The majority of them have multidisciplinary qualifications, as indicated from the narrative extracts: *"social workers are the managers of CDPs...even people heading professionalisation do not have relevant qualifications in community development. The CDPs are branching out to study social work... I want to see myself as managers in future...I applied for supervisor position and did not qualify because it was said I do not have relevant community development qualification... Even though I have ten years' experience...am studying in order to move up to higher positions.... the complexities are historical"*

6.3. Case 3: within-case analysis: Initial phase coding

Coding is common to all grounded theory inquiry and general qualitative data analysis. In constructivist grounded theory, coding is data-grounded and the comparative unit or "analytic handle" (Charmaz, 2014, p. 113). The researcher audio-recorded each interview and transcribed and compared the transcripts to the audio recordings for accuracy, removed any identifying details such as names or references to anonymise data. The researcher used Atlas Iti qualitative data analysis software to engage in initial coding (word-by-word, line-

byline, or incident-by incident) with each of the interviews. Initial coding delves deeply into the material, "naming segments of data with a label that simultaneously categorizes, summarizes, and accounts for each piece of data" (Charmaz, 2014, p. 111). Initial coding is very focused on identifying actions in the data. Initial coding was the second explicit pathway into the data after conducting interviews. This focus on action "curbs our tendencies to make conceptual leaps" (Charmaz, 2014, p. 117), leads to the following levels of data collection, and helps one make conscious decisions and ask what the larger story is that the data is telling. Within initial coding, attended to *in vivo* codes (in life), which are shorthand or innovative terms used by participants to capture their experience and that "flag condensed but significant meanings" (Charmaz, 2014, p. 134). An illustration of the initial codes generated in this case are indicated in Appendix J.

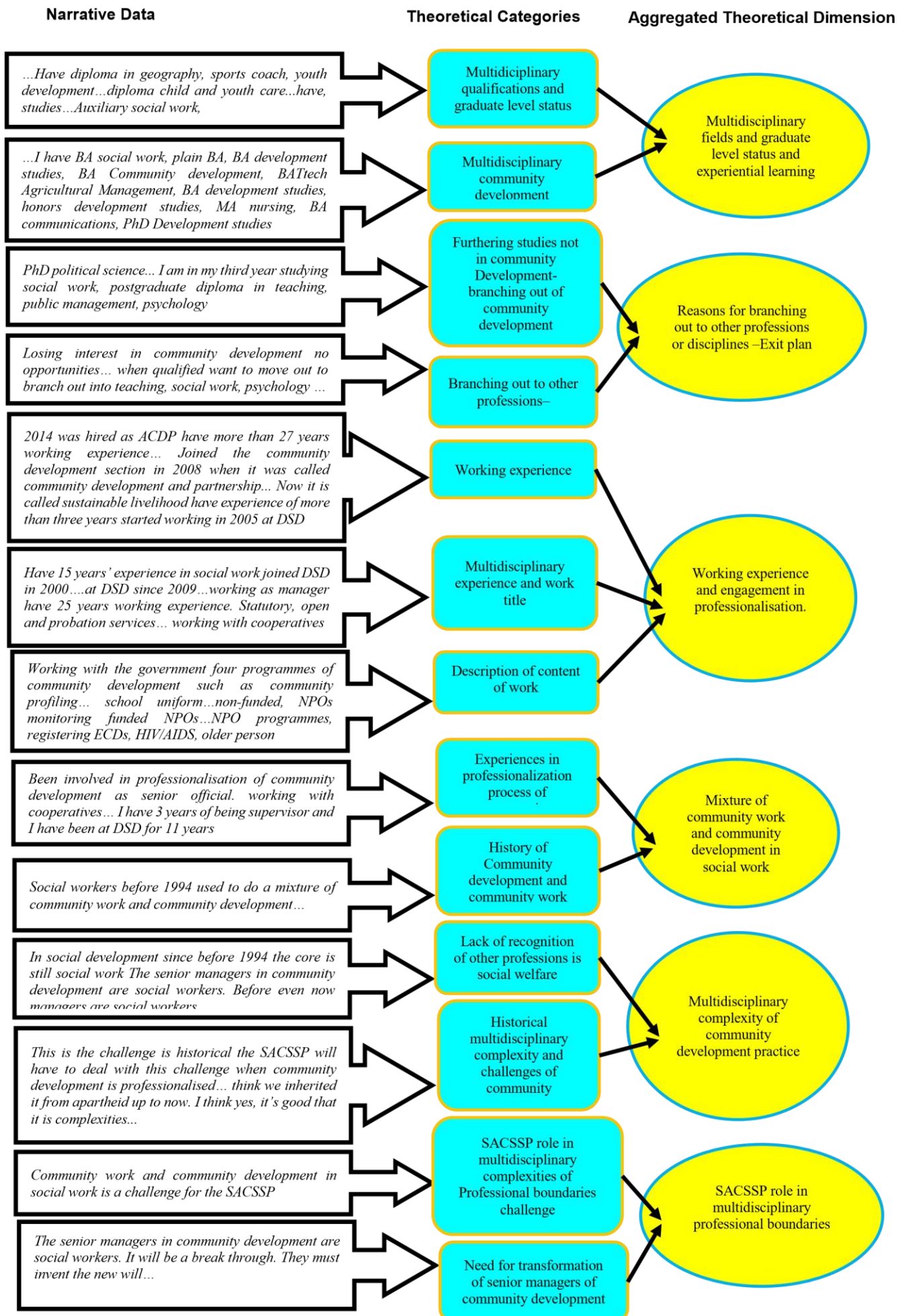
6.4. Case 3: within-case analysis: Focused phase coding

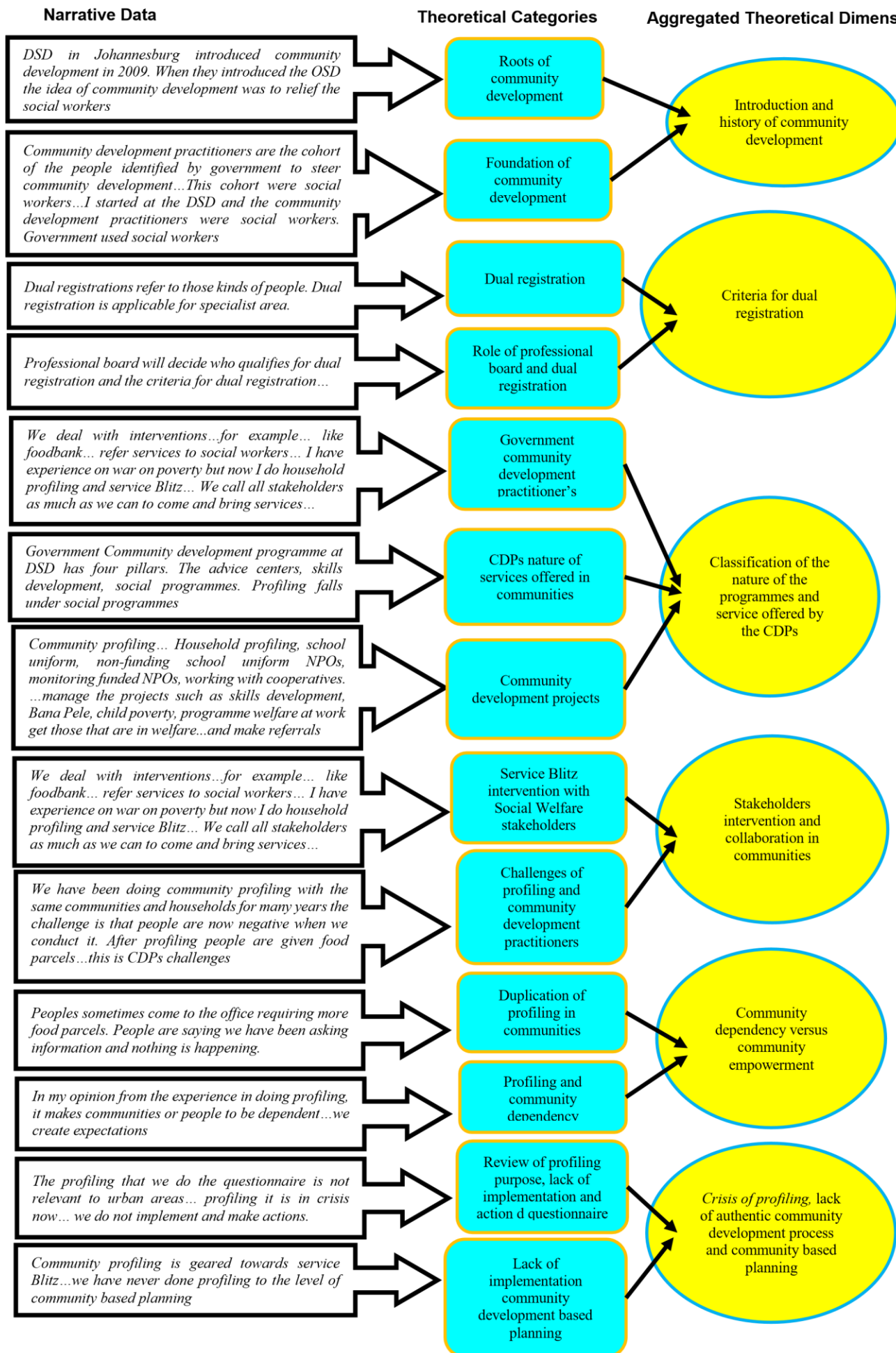
The focused coding phase followed the initial phase data analysis process. The researcher used focused coding for advancing, sifting, sorting, synthesising, condensing, and sharpening tentative theoretical directions. The telling codes were used. Charmaz (2014, p. 113) writes that "coding is the pivotal link between collecting data and developing an emerging theory to explain these data. Through coding you define what is happening in the data and begin to grapple with what it means." The focused codes helped to organise data and provided the skeleton of the analysis.

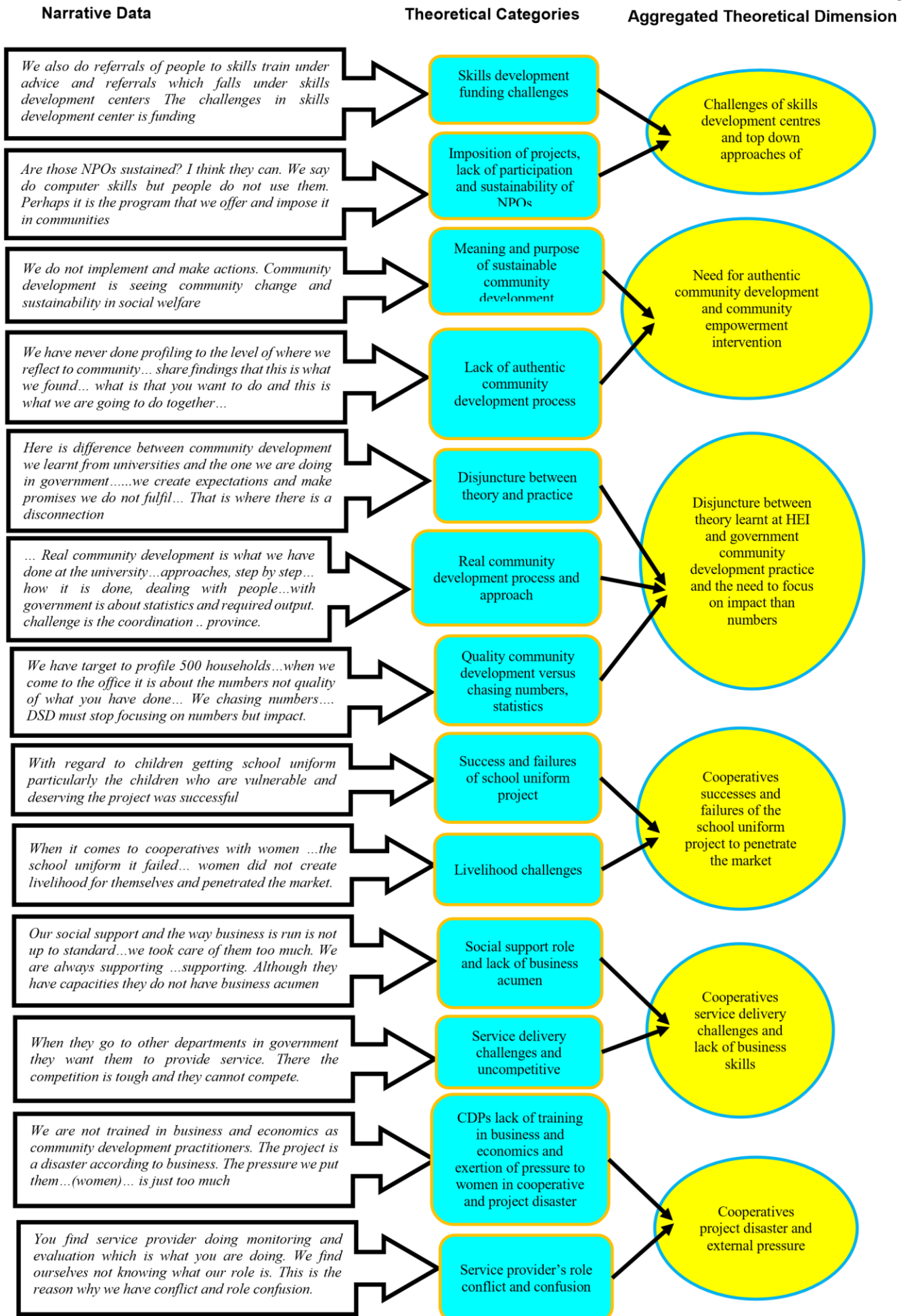
6.5. Case three heoretical categories and aggregated theoretical categories.

Theoretical coding follows the codes created through focused coding (Charmaz, p.150). Figure 6.1. shows theoretical codes generated in this case and depicts the relationship between categories. They assisted to theorise data and focused codes.

Figure 6.1. Case Two Theoretical Categories and aggregated Theoretical Categories



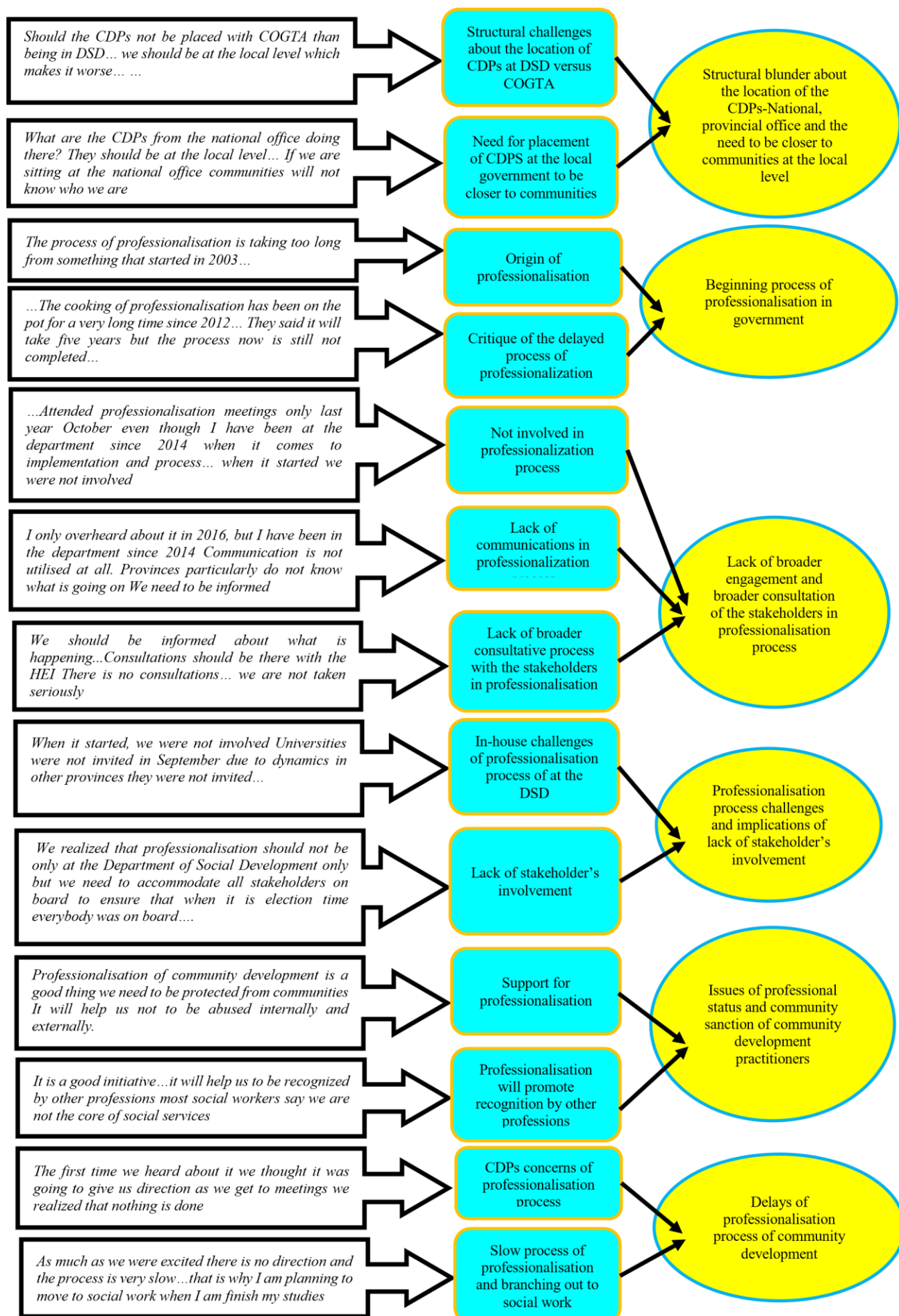


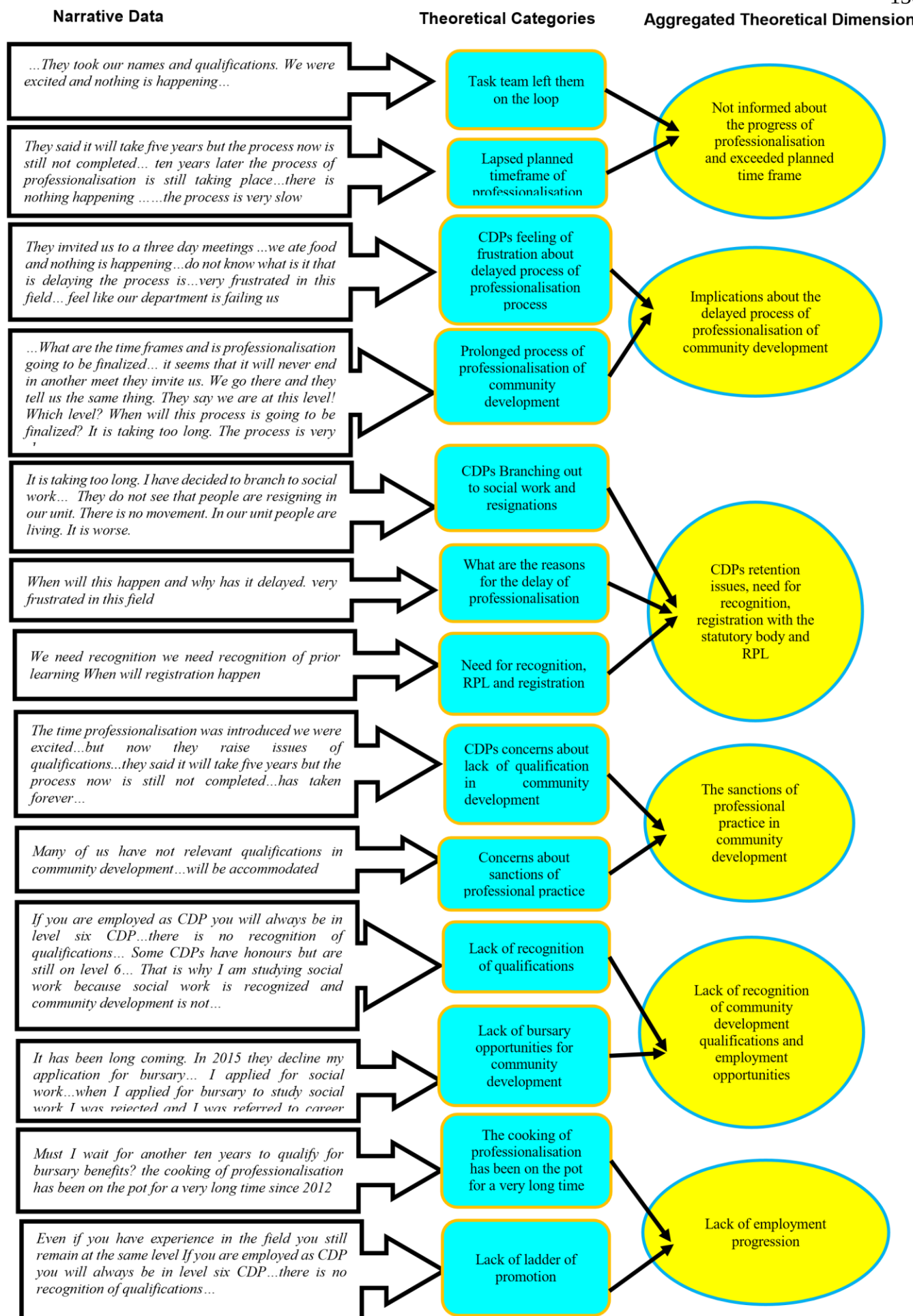


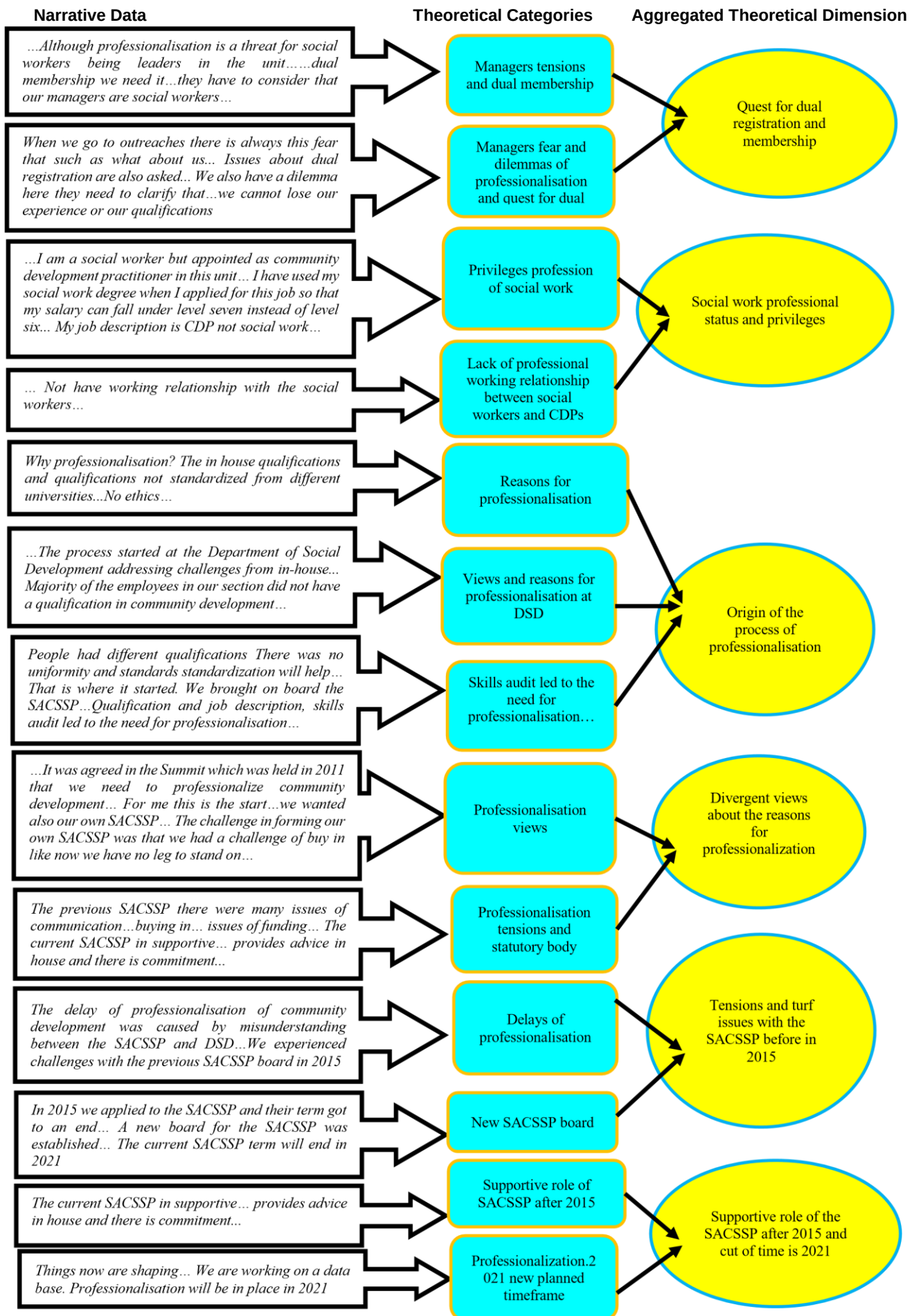
Narrative Data

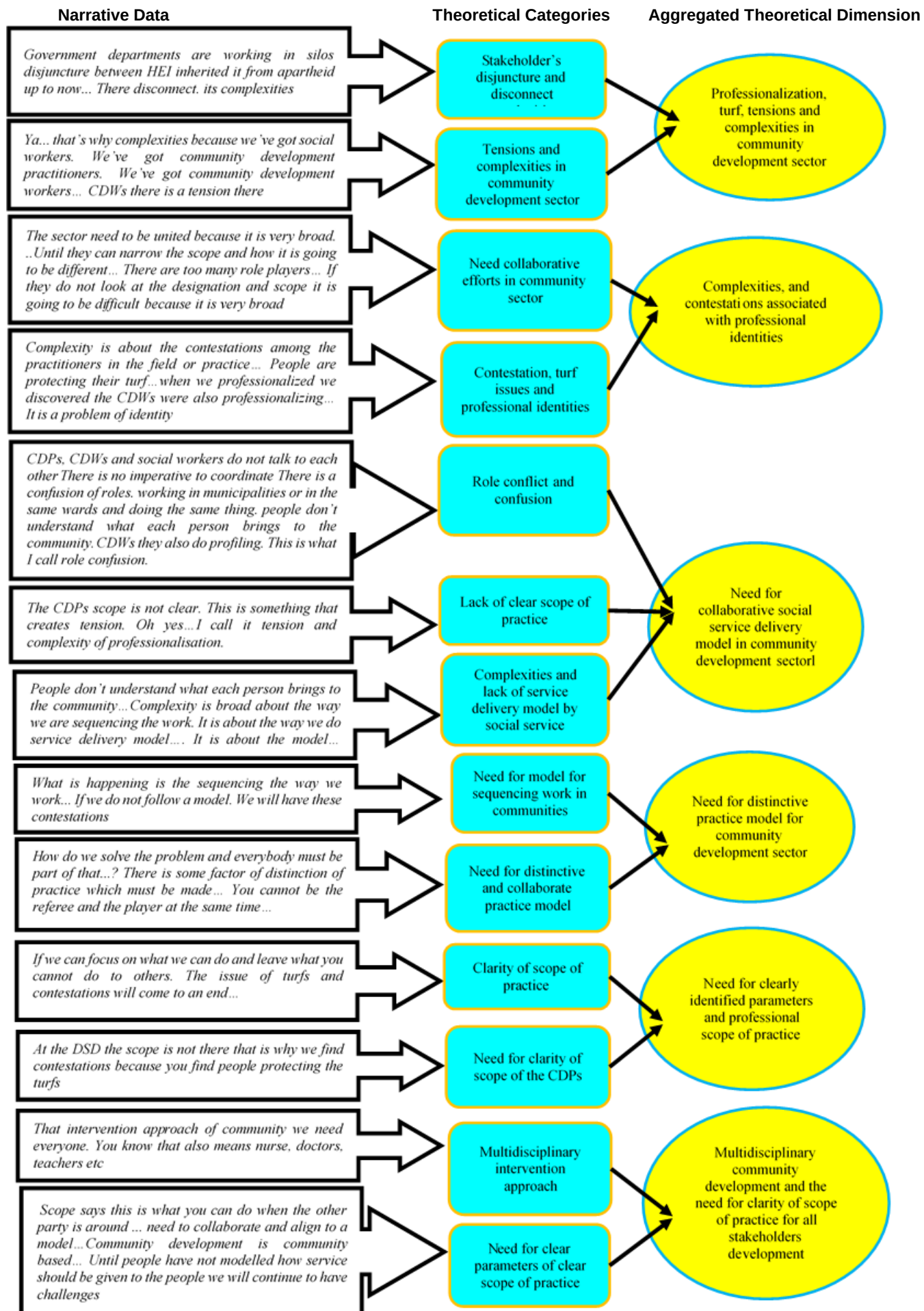
Theoretical Categories

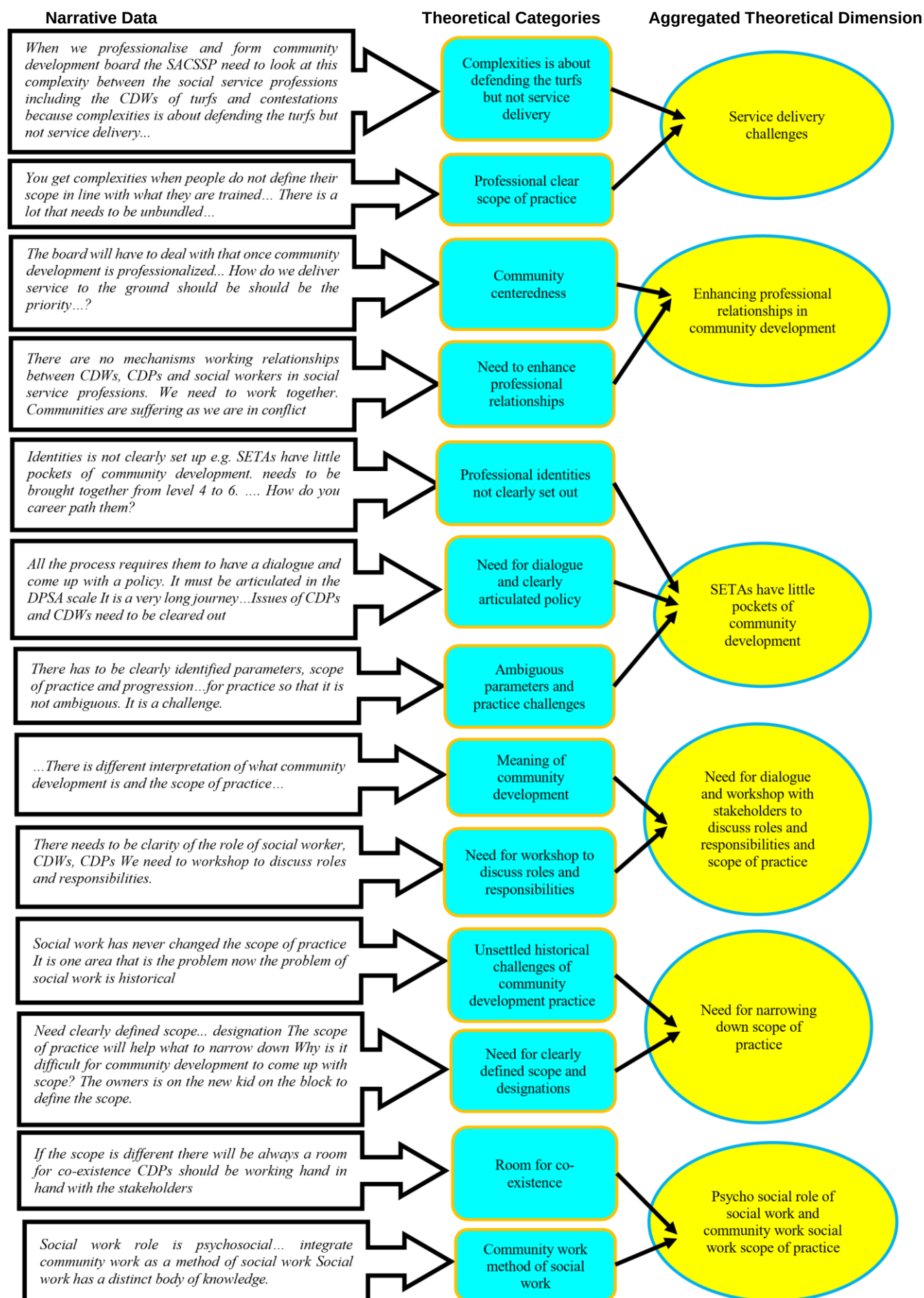
Aggregated Theoretical Dimension

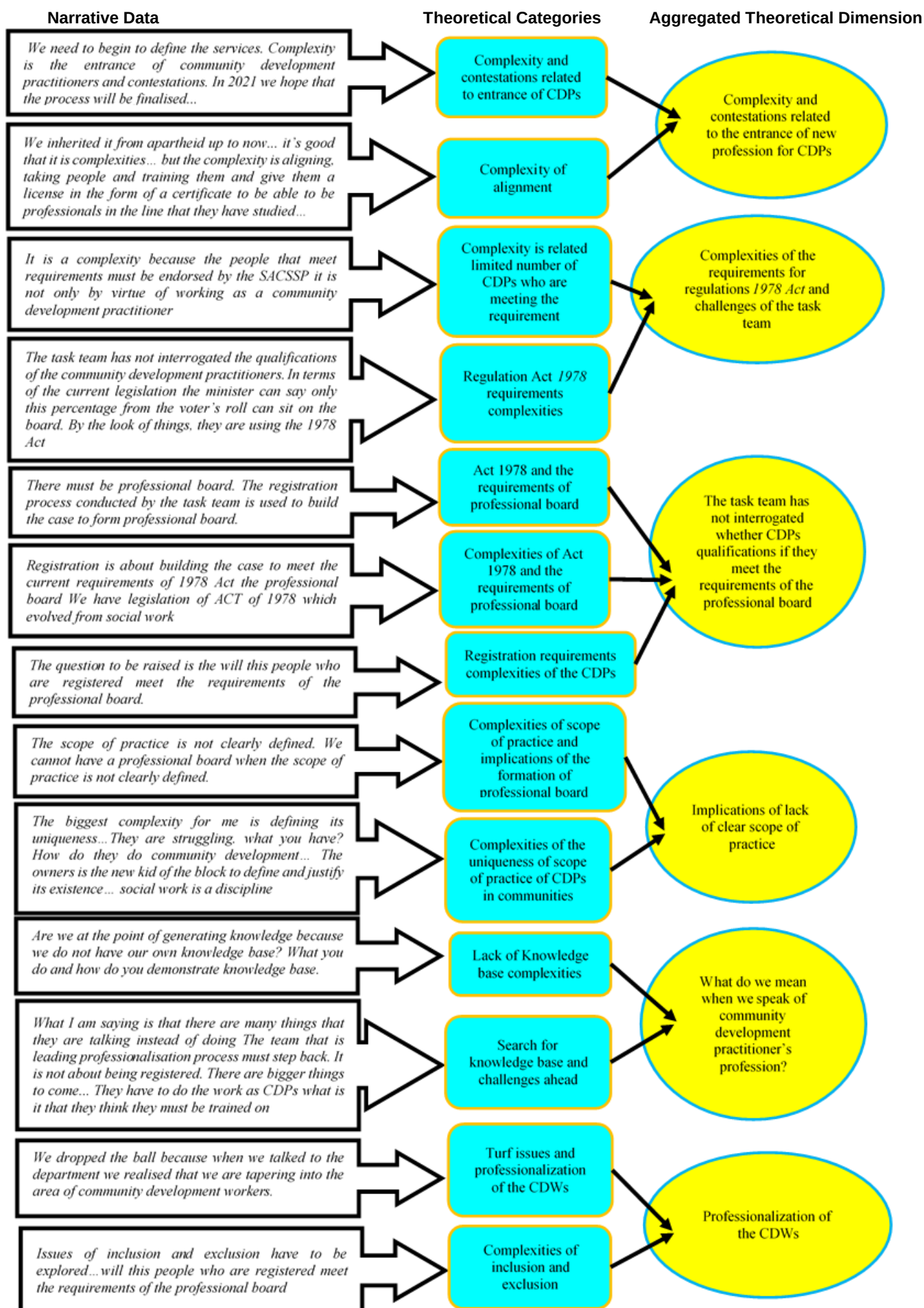


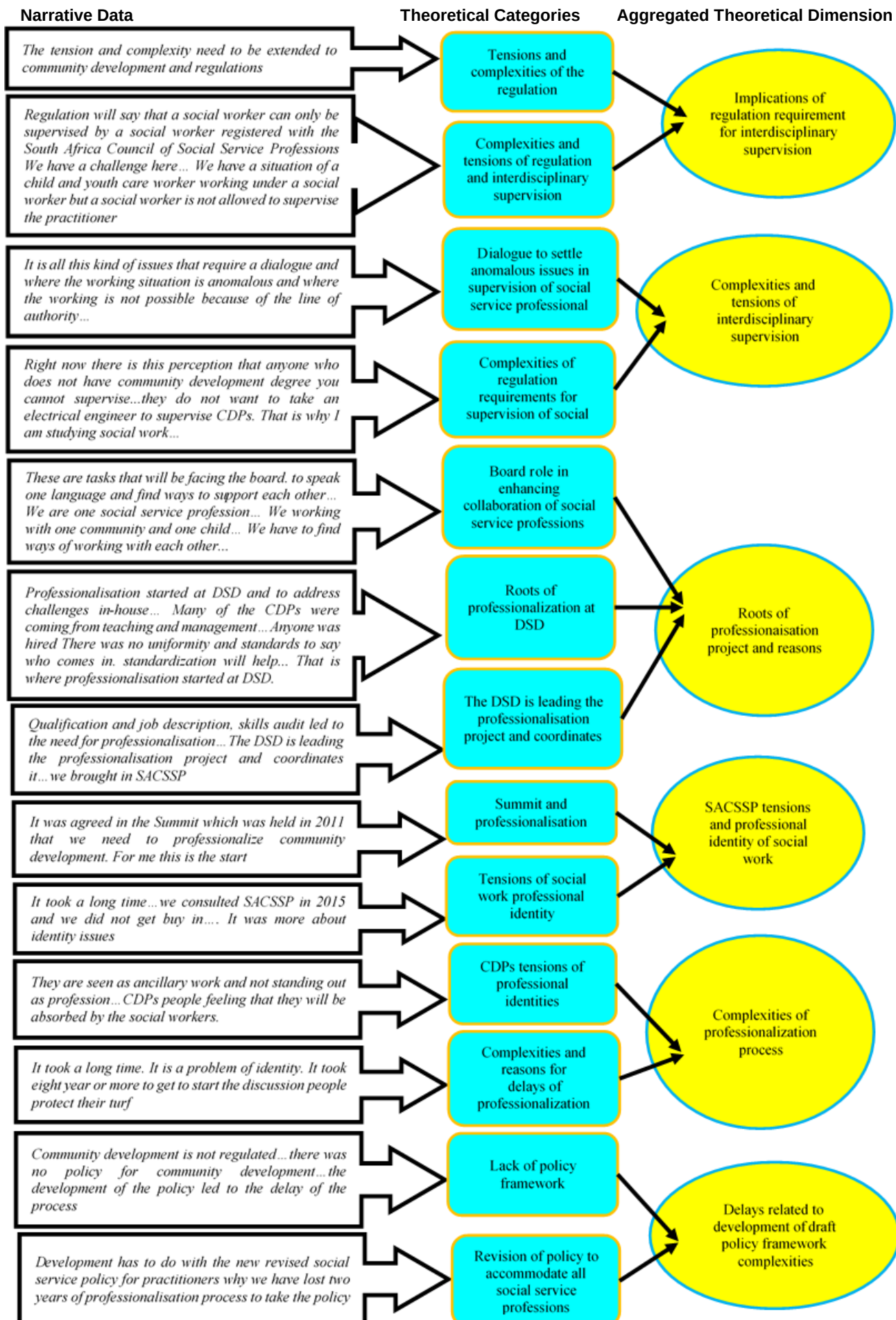




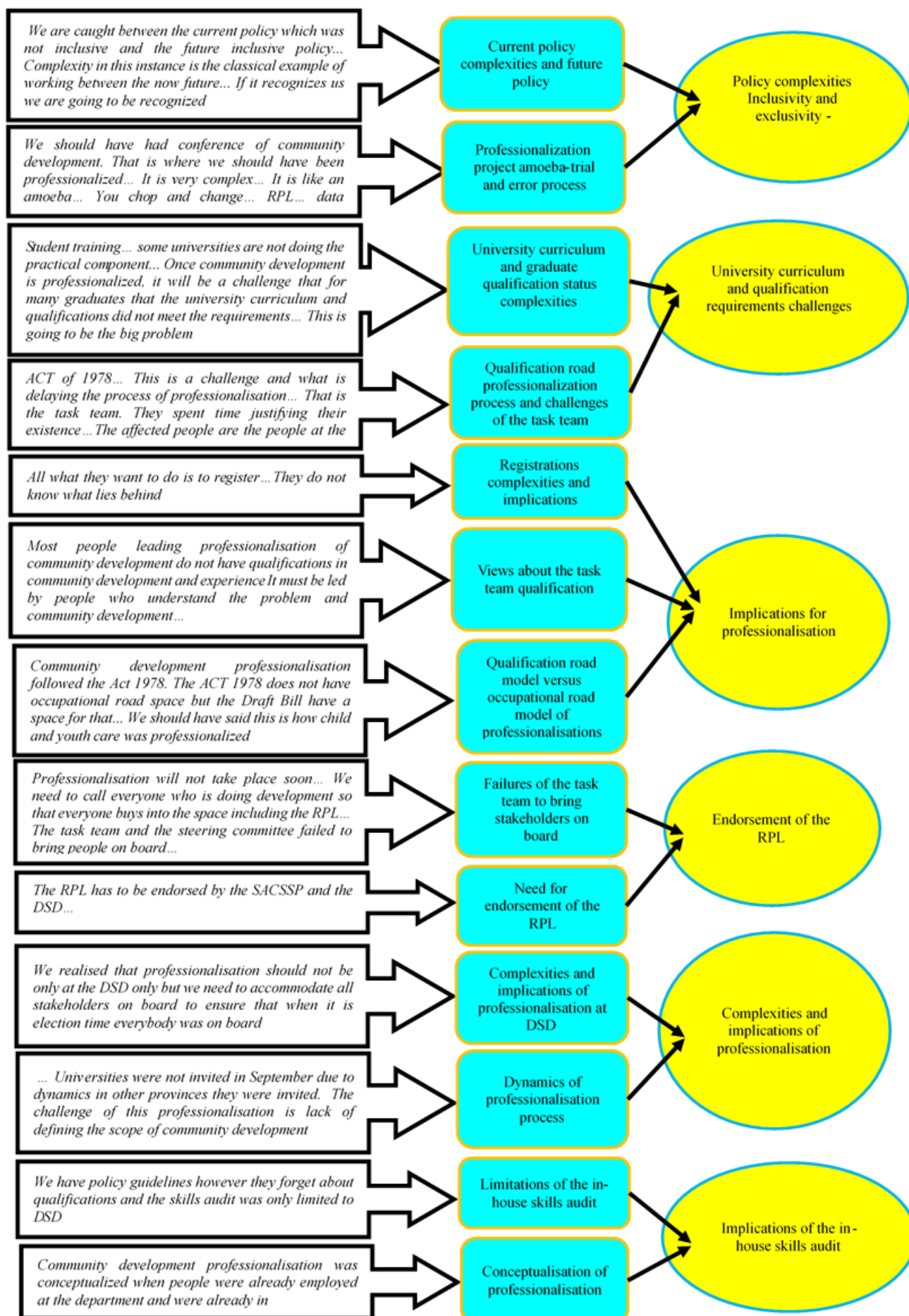


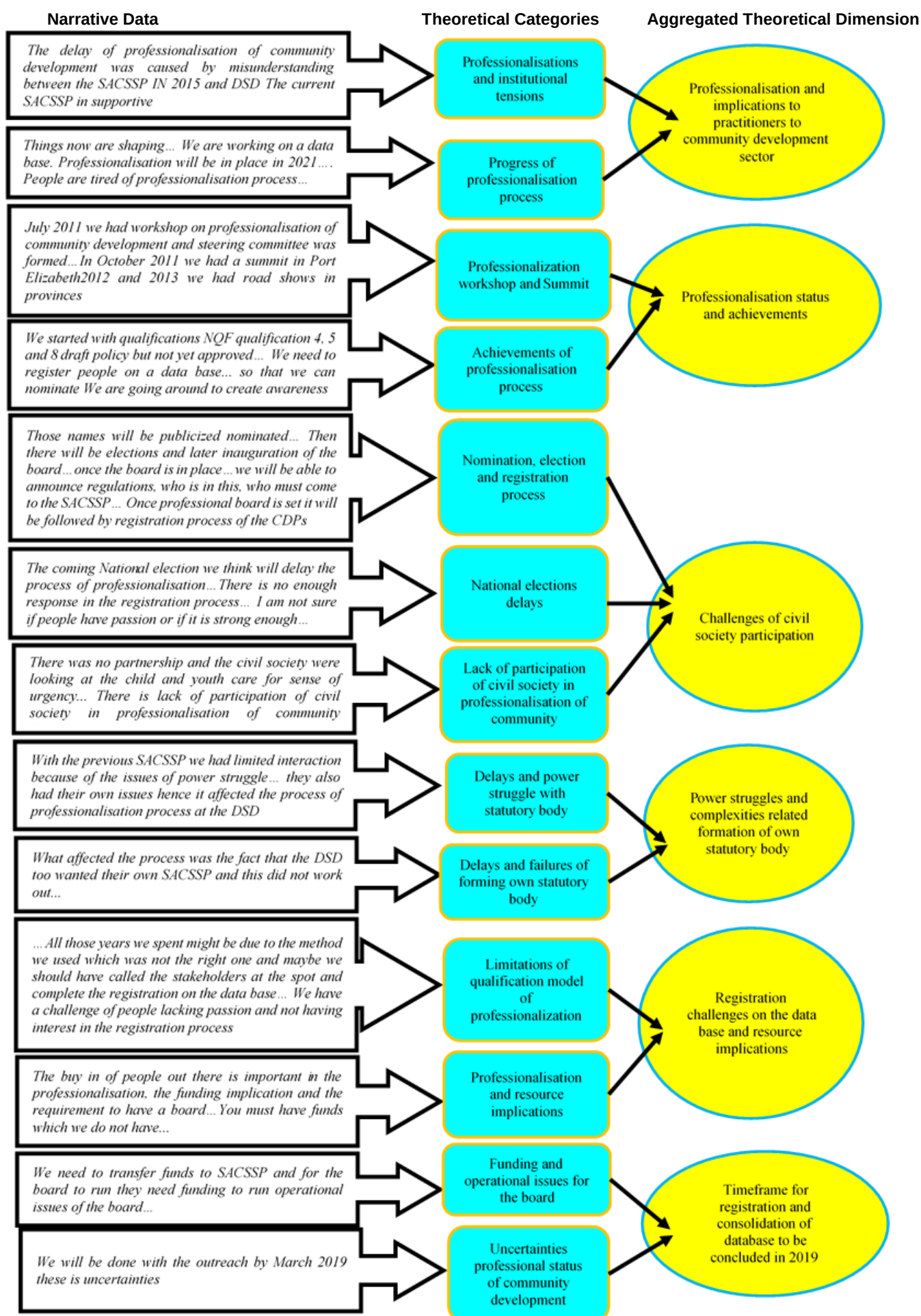




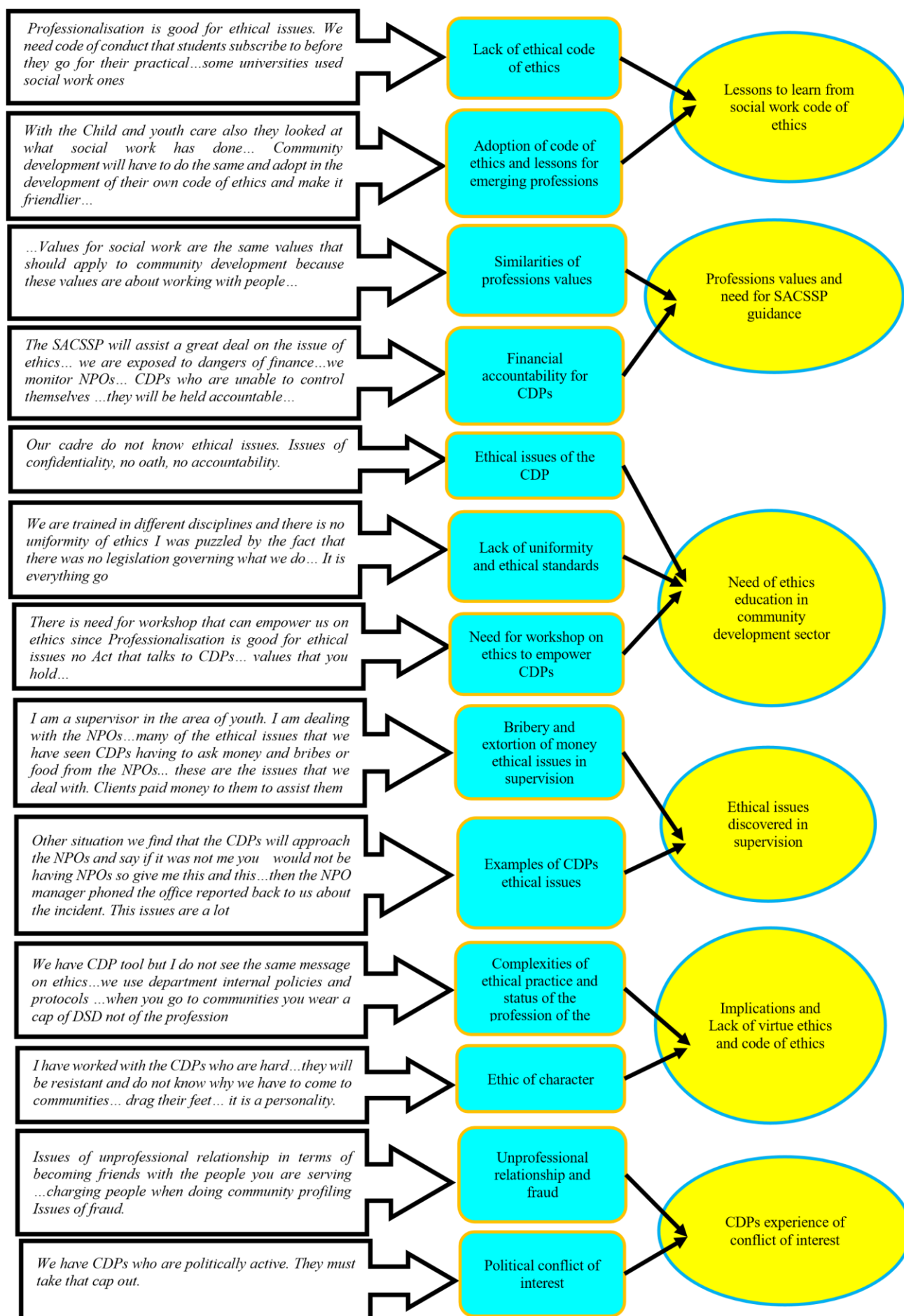


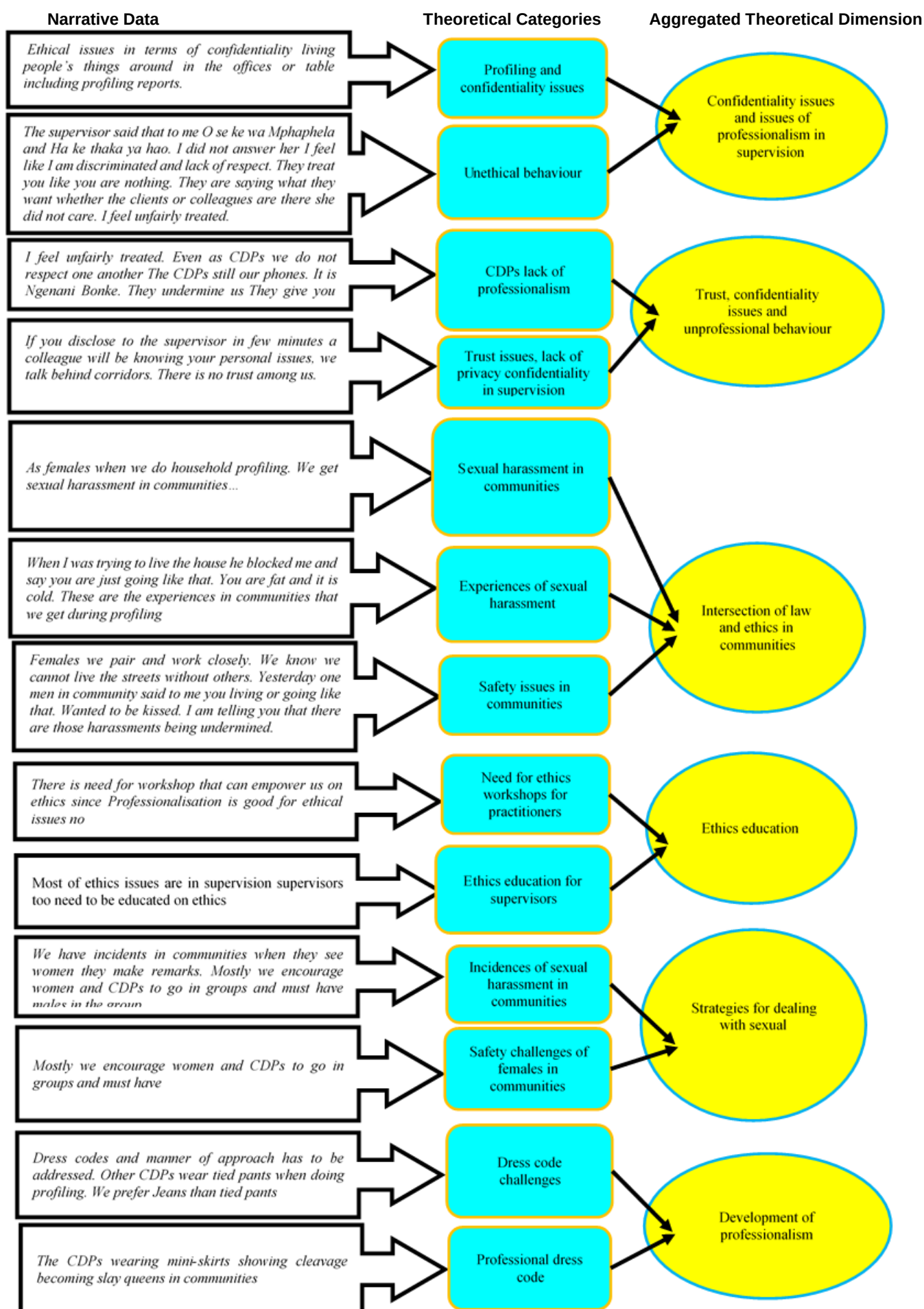
Narrative Data





Narrative Data





6.6. Case Summary and Key features

This case illustrates the complexities of professionalisation and ethics of community development from CDPs from the Department of Social Development at the Sustainable Livelihood Unit. Community development in South Africa before 1994 was a multidimensional and multidisciplinary field. Social workers used to do a mixture of community work and community development as the core profession, which was only recognised in social welfare as explained in the following narrative extracts: *"volunteers mainly did community development...social work was the only profession recognised in social welfare...the NGOs, churches and political organisations played an essential role in assisting the marginalized communities...Before used to do a mixture of community work and community development...we inherited it from apartheid up to now. it is complexities...After 1994, community development was introduced at the DSD in 2009, as explained in the narrative extracts. The DSD in Gauteng introduced community development in 2009. CDPS were a cohort of social workers. The government used social workers to drive community development strategies. Later included other professionals from various disciplines to date in this government department.*

The case findings indicate that the Department of Social Development is heading and coordinating the professionalisation project, which started in 2012 as revealed by the following narrative extract: *"The DSD is leading the professionalisation project and coordinates it... We brought on board the SACSSP...The cooking of professionalisation has been on the pot for a very long time since 2012. They said it would take five years, but the process now is still not completed.* In addition, the study found that professionalisation started at DSD to address challenges in-house challenges from the findings of the skills audit conducted in this department, which revealed: *"...lack of uniformity in qualification standards and job description, not standardised from different universities...No ethics...skills audit led to the need for professionalisation of community development".*

Furthermore, the findings show that when DSD started the professionalisation process of the CDPs in 2009, the CDWs at the local government was also professionalising. The professionalisation process of the CDW started in 2003, as stated in the narrative extract: *"when we were professionalising, we found out that the CDWs were professionalising since 2003. We dropped the ball because when we talked to the department we realised that we are tapering into the area of CDWs".* Concerning the qualifications and graduate's level status, the study indicates that community development practitioners hold qualifications from various multidisciplinary fields, such as diplomas in youth development, auxiliary social work, development studies, communication, social work, psychology, nursing, agriculture,

community development, and political studies. The level of qualifications of the practitioners ranges between diploma and doctoral levels, with the majority of the CDPs holding a threeyear degree and very few having an honours degree. A minimal number of CDPs obtained a degree in community development.

The working experience of the community development practitioners varies between three to twenty-seven years. Some participants joined the department before 2009 as explained from the narrative extract: *"I joined DSD in 2005 when the unit was called Community Development and Planning Research in 2005, I joined this department in 2008 when it was called Community Development and Partnership in 2008 later changed and now known as Sustainable Livelihood Unit"*. The CDPs are employed at this department and deliver government programs of community development organised into four pillars: skills development, Bana Pele, poverty alleviation, and community and household profiling. The failures and challenges of implementing these programs, including household and community profiling, school uniform project, capacity building at the development centers, and limitations related to lack of authentic community development intervention process, were reported. In addition, the location of the CDPs at the provincial and national offices has been questioned as explained in the narrative extract: *"Should the CDPs not be placed with COGTA than being in DSD... we should be at the local level. What are the CDPs doing at the national office? ... If we are sitting at the national office communities will not know who we are"*. Furthermore, the CDPs experienced challenges of role confusion, duplication of services with the service providers contracted not from the region to monitor and evaluate the NPOs as stated from the narrative extracts, *you find yourself not knowing what you do because you find duplication. Service provider are doing monitoring and evaluation which is what we are doing. We find ourselves not knowing what our role is. This is the reason why we have conflict and role confusion..."*.

In addition, although the CDPs are optimistic about the professionalisation of community development, they stated that the process was not consultative; they were not engaged due to the flawed communication process by those leading the professionalisation process. These concerns were raised when they said that though they have been employed in this department many years before its inception, communication has been a challenge: *"When it started, we were not involved, consulted, and taken seriously. only overheard about it in 2016, but I have been in the department before 2014. Communication is not utilised at all. Provinces particularly do not know what is going on. We need to be informed every month about what is happening. Consultations should be there with universities "*. In addition, the findings revealed that universities were not invited due to the dynamics in the

province, dynamics of professionalisation process, and lack of inclusiveness towards the stakeholders in the province, as shown by the narrative extract: *"Universities were not invited in September due to dynamics in other provinces. We realised that professionalisation should not be headed by DSD only, but we needed to accommodate all stakeholders and everybody on board for election time purpose"*

Furthermore, participants indicated that the only time they were consulted was when the task team was undertaking a record of the CDPs' qualifications and names. They said they were looking forward and very excited. However, they became apprehensive because of lack of progress: *"...They took our names and qualifications. We were excited, and nothing is happening...."* Participants were eager to know when the process of professionalisation would be finalised because they were told it would only take five years. However, it remains incomplete ten years later: *"...ten years later the process of professionalisation is still going on ... nothing is happening... Why has it delayed?"*

Moreover, the delayed process of professionalisation and lack of recognition of the CDPs' qualifications contributed to demotivation. The need for recognition of prior learning, entry level salary, lack of professional advancement left the CDPs with feelings of frustration, feeling let down, demotivated, and lacking interest in community development as shown in the narrative extracts: *"very frustrated in this field... there is no recognition of qualifications. We need recognition of prior learning.... These are uncertainties."*

The findings indicated challenges related to recruitment and retention issues in the community development unit associated with the delayed process of professionalisation and the challenges mentioned above. Participants stated that the CDPs are resigning in the community development unit: *"Why the recruitment process focuses on social workers when there are people who are trained in community development... Our managers are social workers."*

People are resigning and are not replaced. A supervisor at the department was in a supervisor position for thirteen years, earning the same salary for thirteen years. The same supervisor was acting for four years as a manager when that post was advertised; they hired a social worker. we are not recognised...."

In addition, the findings show that lack of recognition of qualifications of the practitioners, low salary level six, and senior positions are occupied by social workers. Moreover, the participants indicated lack of recognition of qualifications, opportunities and professional advancement as the other reasons contributing to branch out to other professions. Branching out is stated as an exit strategy to seek opportunities in other professions as shown by the narrative extracts:

"...am moving to social work... ...currently studying postgraduate diploma in teaching... public management...losing interest in community development no opportunities... when qualifying want to branch out to teaching... studying honours in psychology... The ACDPs are in level 4 and the CDPs are in level 6...This is important for salary level... opportunities only exist for social workers they are in level seven some of us have honours degree same as social workers. There is no recognition of our qualifications."

The study revealed experiences of the CDPs regarding the image of community development practitioners and the nicknames and stereotypes given by members of the community and other professions. The nicknames given are linked with lack of uniformity in qualifications, lack of recognition, professional identity, the status of the professional, and different segments of populations in communities always think they are social workers or government officials as seen in the narrative extracts:

"People are calling us fruit salads... Mixed Masala. Nobody knows us. Some say supporting staff, admin clerks and people assume that when you are from DSD we are social workers".

"...we are sub profession of social work. Some say extension to social work or step sisters...that is how we feel. We are extension of social work. Sub profession means there are bigger professions than us...they existed before us. Community development is part of social work wing... It is one part of them.....we co-exist the difference is that the other one earns better than us...that describes us...the doctor and the nurse."

We are still treated as a stepchild of social work. Even in terms of offices, they will still move CDPs to accommodate social workers. Names like fruit salads, street children, step-cousin of social work, step-sister of social work. We feel it is unfair for us to be downgraded. We did not even have proper guidelines. I came in in 2012. It is not clear what criteria we are getting.

We are called Mickey Mouse, Takalani Sesame, so they say that we are playing we are Mickey Mouse. These are the names that they call us. We are given nicknames such as social work cousins, social work step kids."

We have a nicknames that is painful they call us Z83... it is the form you use for the government when applying for the job...even our former director used to call us Z83. They mock us a lot. You studied for a degree to do this. We are appointed because of the qualifications. One councilor MEC said to communities Z83 to keep writing notes and not to make changes. We are seen as ancillary work and not standing out as a profession."

The findings above indicate that the CDPs wanted to know why the process failed to be completed as planned. The findings show that the professionalisation process would be finalised in 2021 when the professional board is established and before the end of the

current SACSSP board as explained by the task team: *"Things now are shaping... We are working on a database. Professionalisation will be concluded in 2021 and by March 2021 the board will be established just before the end of the current board of the SACSSP".*

In addition, the findings show that the reasons contributing to the delay of professionalisation include the turf issues and issues of professional identity. Other issues are connected to the challenges with the statutory body of the social service professions, including the qualifications model the task team followed in contrast to the occupational model of professionalisation. Other contributing factors included lack of clear scope of practice, the regulatory requirements of the legislation Act 1978, the review process of the draft policy, the 2019 national elections, and the challenges of the registration of the CDPs on the database as revealed in the narrative extracts below:

"The delay of professionalisation of community development was caused by misunderstanding between the SACSSP and DSD...We experienced challenges with the SACSSP in 2015 their term ended...The current SACSSP board is supportive.... We started the process from 2011. The current SACSSP term will end in 2021... So that when it ends the CDPs must be registered. Their term is five years... ..The previous SACSSP had many issues of communication...buying in... issues of funding... .. There was no partnership and civil society was looking at the child and youth care for a sense of urgency... There is lack of participation of civil society in professionalisation of community development."

"...With the previous SACSSP we had limited interaction due to power struggle... they also had their own issues hence it affected professionalisation process... DSD too wanted their own SACSSP and this did not work out."

"It is a problem of identity people feeling that they will be absorbed by the social workers. "

"...legislation Act of 1978 which only covered social work revision of the social service policy to accommodate other social service professions contributed to the delay of...but now the newly revised Social Service Policy for Practitioners includes the designation of social work, community development and child and youth care...it is inclusive than exclusive... The draft policy now is ready and this is the reason why we have lost two years ...we were caught between the current policy which was not inclusive and the future inclusive policy... Complexity in this instance is the classical example of working between the now future... If the policy recognizes us we are going to be recognised... "

"We realized that professionalisation should not be only at the DSD we needed to accommodate all stakeholders to ensure that when it is election time everybody is on board... Universities were not invited in September due to dynamics in other provinces"

"Qualification model of professionalisation added to the delay: ...all those years we spent might be due to the method we used which was not the right one and maybe we should have called the stakeholders at the spot and complete the registration on the data base... We have a challenge of people lacking passion and not having interest in the registration process."

"...We started not understanding it. It is a big issue but we did scoping with SETA. We developed three qualifications, NQF level 4, 5 and 8. When we realized that professionalisation was a bigger problem we brought other stakeholders like Institutions of Higher Education. We realized it was bigger we brought in these stakeholders...."

"The coming 2019 National election we think will delay the process of professionalisation... The reality is that we are having the shortest parliamentary hearing and it might take us again another two years... this will be the shortest cabinet year... the draft policy documents will reach parliament the next two years. Until then we will be talking about professionalisation There is not enough response in the registration process... I am not sure if people have passion or if it is strong enough"

The findings of the study revealed that the emerging profession of community development does not have the value base system and ethical codes of what ought to be done in professional practice as shown by the narrative extracts: *"...I was puzzled by the fact that there was no legislation governing what we do. It is everything goes. It was a situation where you work but are guided by anything—no Act talks to CDPs values that you hold. We have a CDP tool, but I do not see the same message on ethics...we used internal department*

...social workers wear cap...nurses wear caps community development is always politicized. " In addition, participants stated that although professions' values are not unique to the profession, they resorted to using internal policies in their institutions and profession of social work in the absence of these. The study further illustrated complexities of professionalisation related to challenges of professional authority, professional identity, lack of clear scope of practice, ethical issues, and challenges from practice and supervision community development practitioners. Ethical issues such as fraud, bribes, confidentiality, conflict of interest, and sexual harassment of practitioners in communities are revealed in this study.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CASE 4 PRESENTATION AND FINDINGS

7.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the case four data analysis process, encompassing Higher Education Institutions (HEI) participants as stakeholders in the professionalisation process. The HEI plays a pivotal role in the qualifying education and training standards of community development practitioners. According to SAQA's requirements, since 2006 all qualifications and standards in South Africa were legally obliged to be formally registered with SAQA on the National Qualification Framework (NQF). The SAQA Act of (1995) and its Regulations (1998a:17) make provision for the establishment of Standards Generating Bodies (SGBs) to develop standards and qualifications (SAQA, 1995). Participants consisted of lecturers, supervisors of students, and expert informants in the community development field.

7.2. Case description

Participants, in this case, were selected from higher education institutions. The development of knowledge, skills, and attitudes form the more significant part of professional socialisation. Purposive and theoretical sampling was used in this case study research. Selection criteria included lecturers with more than three years of teaching experience in community development and experts. In achieving this professionalisation process, DSD, in partnership with the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA), developed and approved Community Development Qualifications for the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) levels 4, 5, and 8. Thus professionalising an occupation requires regulation of the norms and educational standards of practice. In this context, the SACSSP is in the process of establishing a Professional Board for Community Development under the SACSSP. An individual wishing to register as a Community Development Practitioner (CDP) will need a four-year BCD endorsed by the said Board under the SACSSP. The study's finding revealed that currently, two of the prospective eleven HEIs offer this 4-year professional qualification: The University of Free State, and the University of the Western Cape and honours and master's degree at the University of Johannesburg.

The Bachelor's degree in community development is offered in the higher education system. Performing professional tasks requires acquiring expertise knowledge and skills which can be attained through professional socialisation and education. The findings, in this case, indicated that community development is a multidisciplinary field as explained: "*Community development is not what social workers do only... other professions such as nursing...teaching and other different professions are using the notion of community development to promote social development... There should be a synergy...*". Despite universities being key role players in professional socialisation, this case showed that there was no broader consultation in professionalisation as explained: "...we were not consulted

about professionalisation process and it was not communicated to us... It needs to be a consultative and negotiated effort... we need clear directives...". Community development practice is rooted in multidisciplinary fields, social and political transformation, and empowerment of people and groups in society. Professionalisation of community development has been quite controversial, especially concerning its history and the professional model of education.

7.3. Case 4 within-case analysis: Initial codes

In this multiple case study research, initial coding is the first explicit pathway into data analysis according to the constructivist grounded theory data analysis process adopted in this study. In constructivist grounded theory, coding is a data-grounded and comparative unit or "analytic handle" (Charmaz, 2014, p. 113). The researcher audio-recorded each interview, transcribed and removed all the identifying information. The researcher used atlas.ti—qualitative data analysis software to engage in initial coding word-by-word, line-by-line. As Charmaz (2014, p. 111) states, initial coding delves deeply into the material, "naming segments of data with a label that simultaneously categorises, summarises, and accounts for each piece of data." Initial coding is very focused on identifying actions in the data. The codes generated during analysis were reworded for accuracy to make them fit with the data and capture the participants' meaning. *In vivo* codes from participants were attended to. For example, codes such as *"Professionalisation leads to a breakaway profession of social work," "professionalisation of community development leads to divorce in social work profession," "professionalisation leads to fragmentation of social work profession"* were coded. The initial codes generated in this case are found in Appendix K.

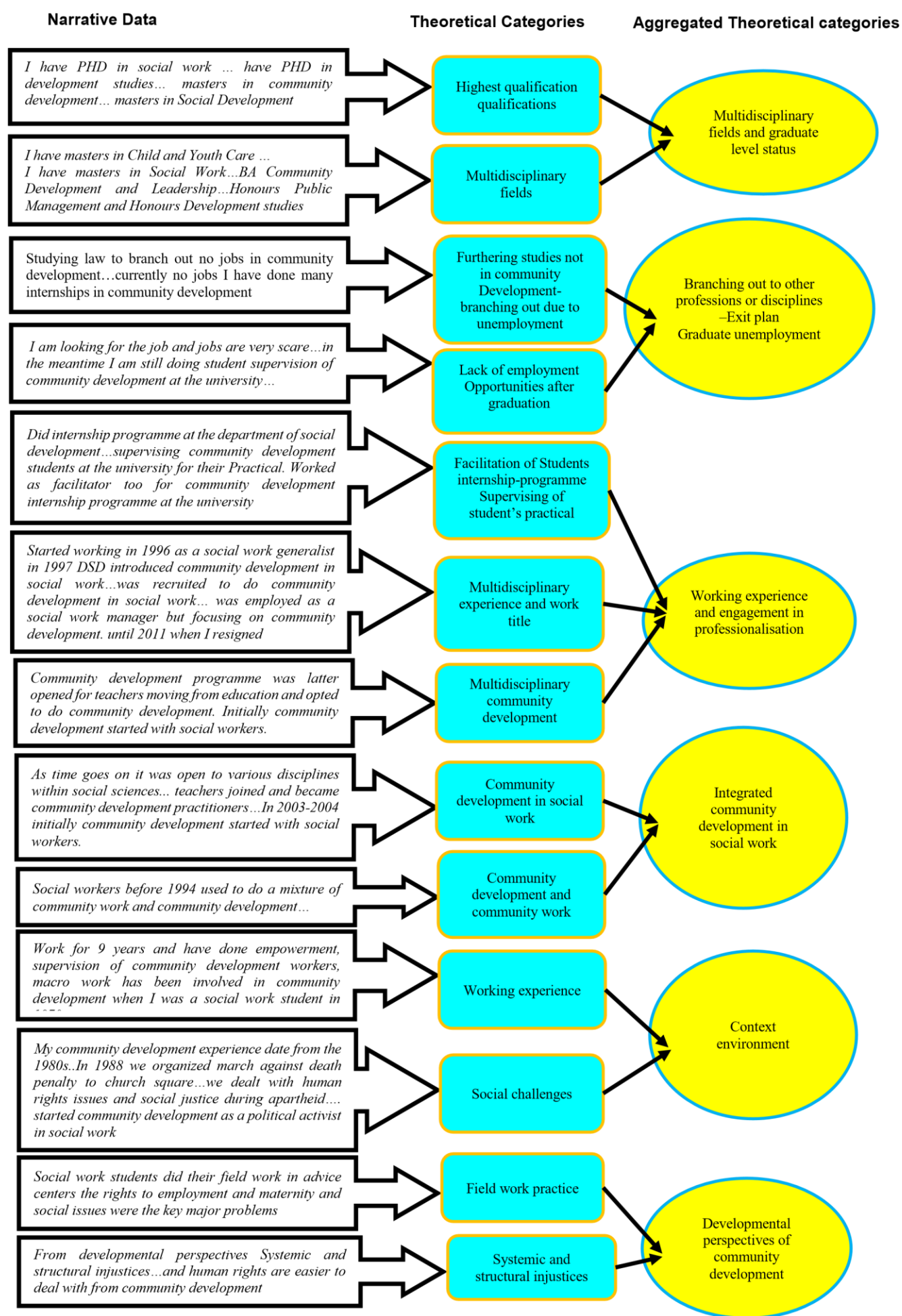
7.4. Case 4 within-case analysis: Focused code

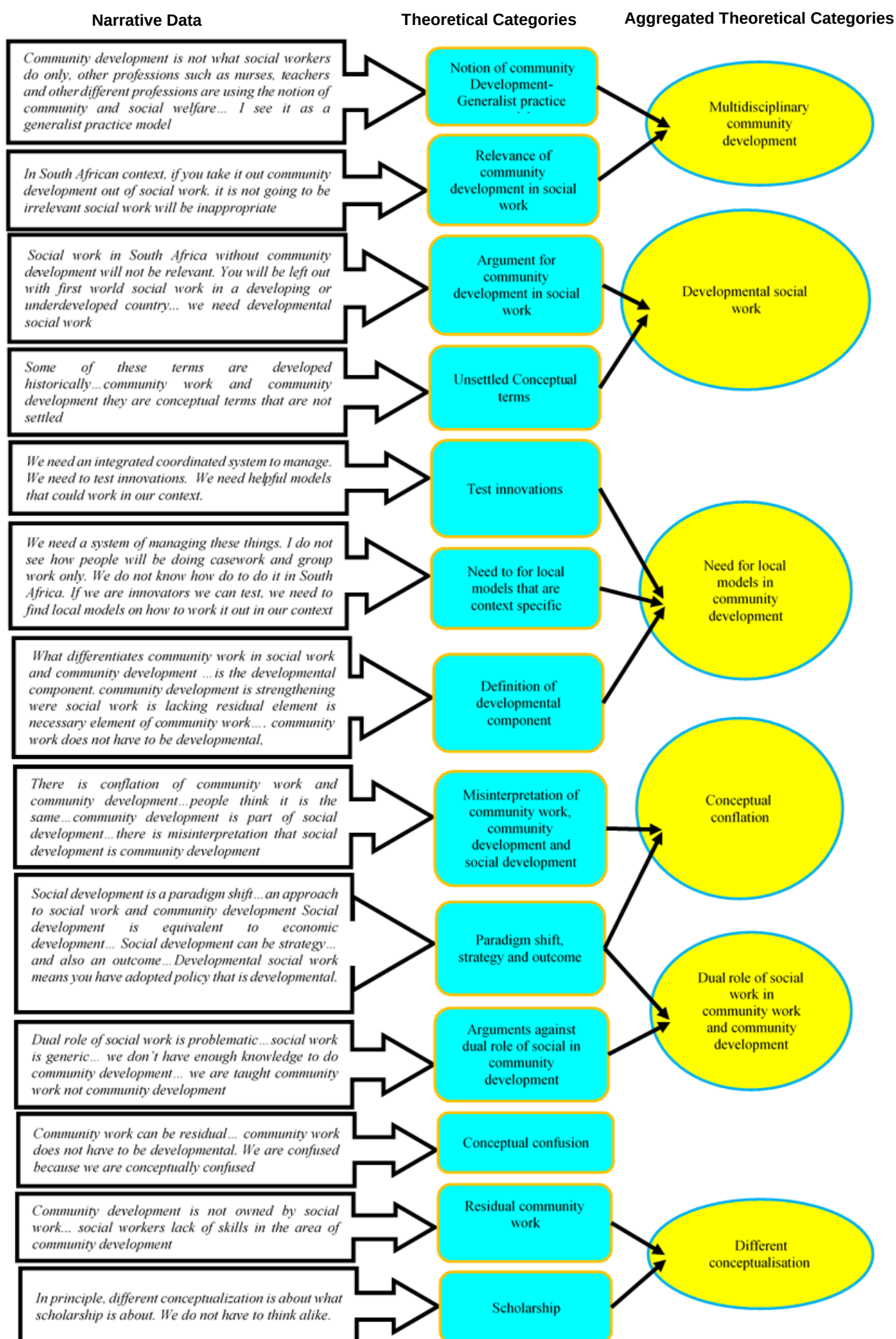
Focused codes are a matter of studying and assessing the initial codes. The researcher focused on what they meant, and the codes developed were compared to determine how they account for data. Therefore, as coding became progressively more abstract, the eminent focused codes were used to advance sifting, sorting, synthesizing, condensing, and sharpening tentative theoretical directions: "Coding is the pivotal link between collecting data and developing an emerging theory to explain these data. Through coding you define what is happening in the data and begin to grapple with what it means" (Charmaz, 2014, p. 113). The focused codes helped to organise data provided the skeleton of analysis. The following tables below show focused codes developed in this case.

7.5. Description of theoretical categories and aggregated theoretical categories

Theoretical categories were developed from data and were then compared against large batches of data to identify variations within and between categories. The development of theoretical categories was saturated when the researcher found no properties of these categories and ensured that the properties accounted for data patterns. Figure 7.1. summarizes data analysis process of coding, broader theoretical categories, and aggregated theoretical direction.

Figure 7.1. Data analysis process of coding broader theoretical categories and aggregated Theoretical Categories

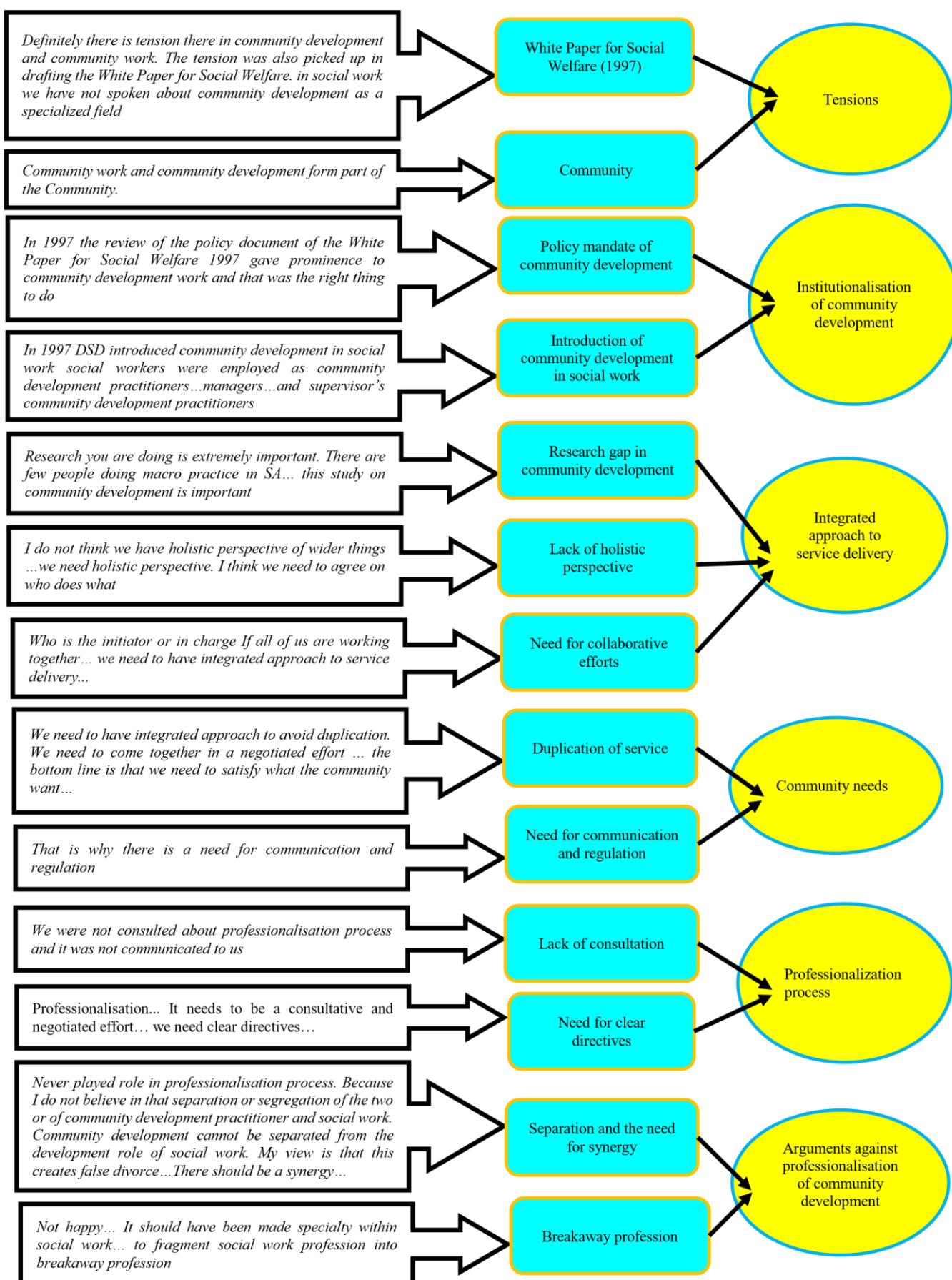


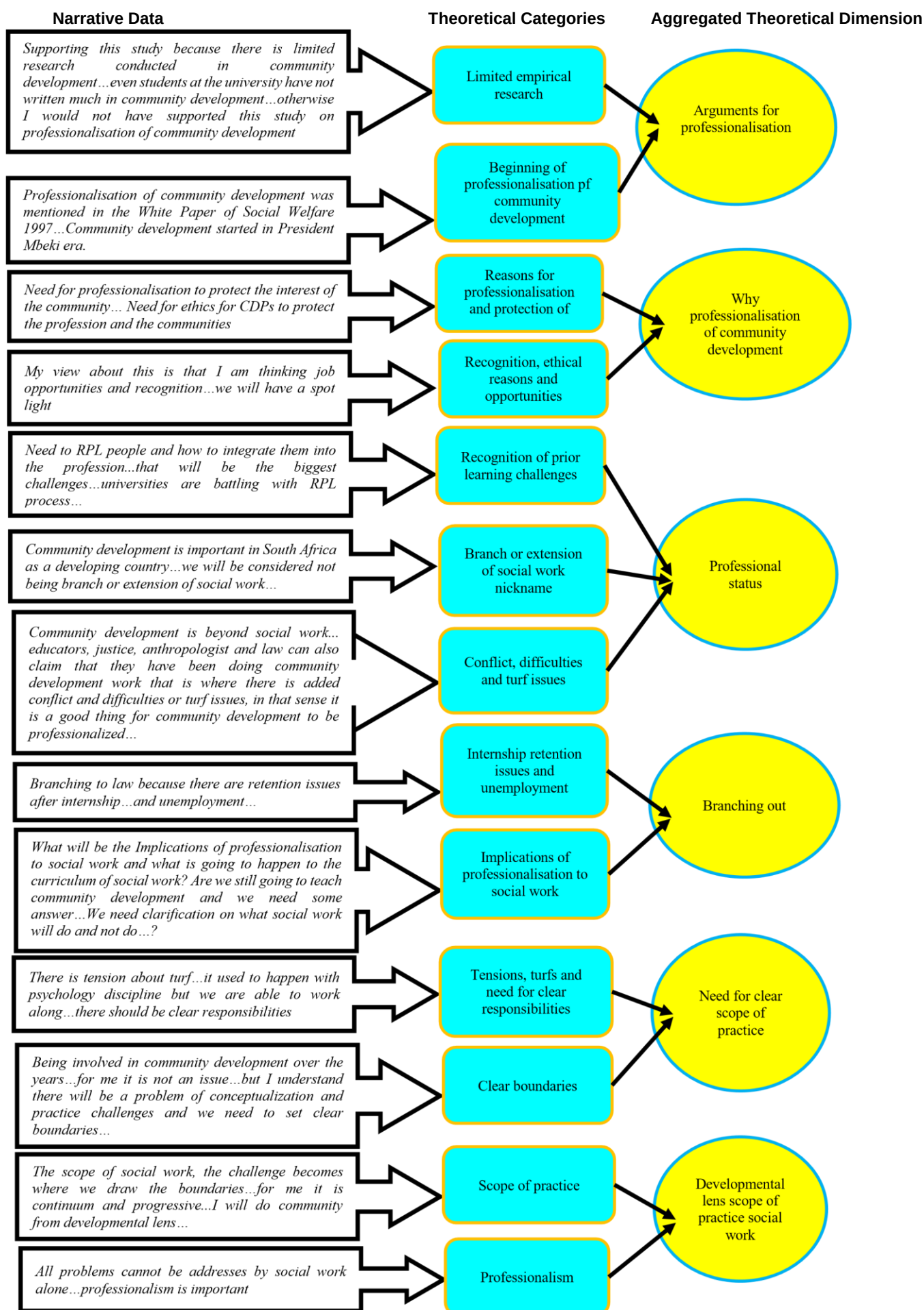


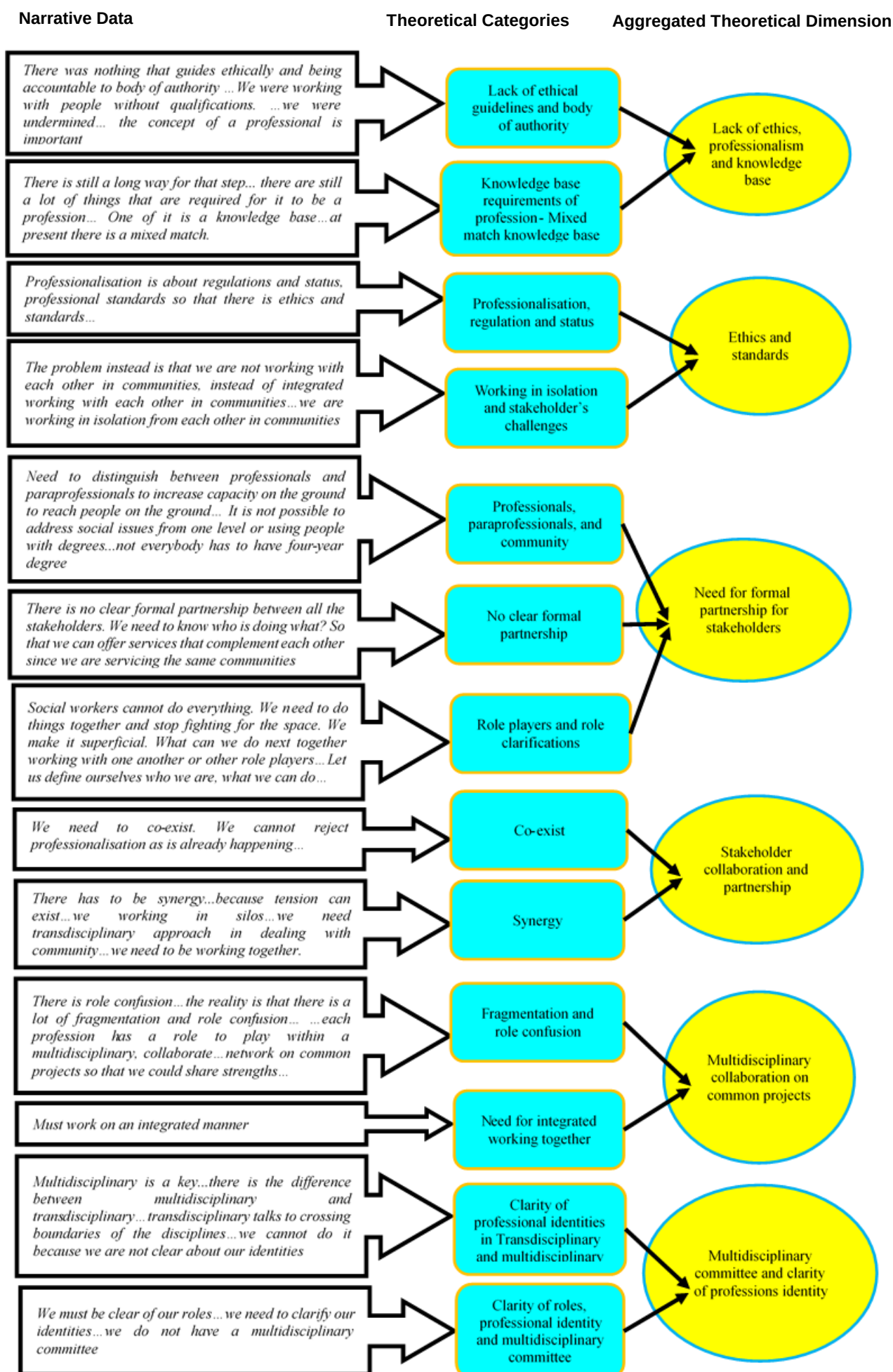
Narrative Data

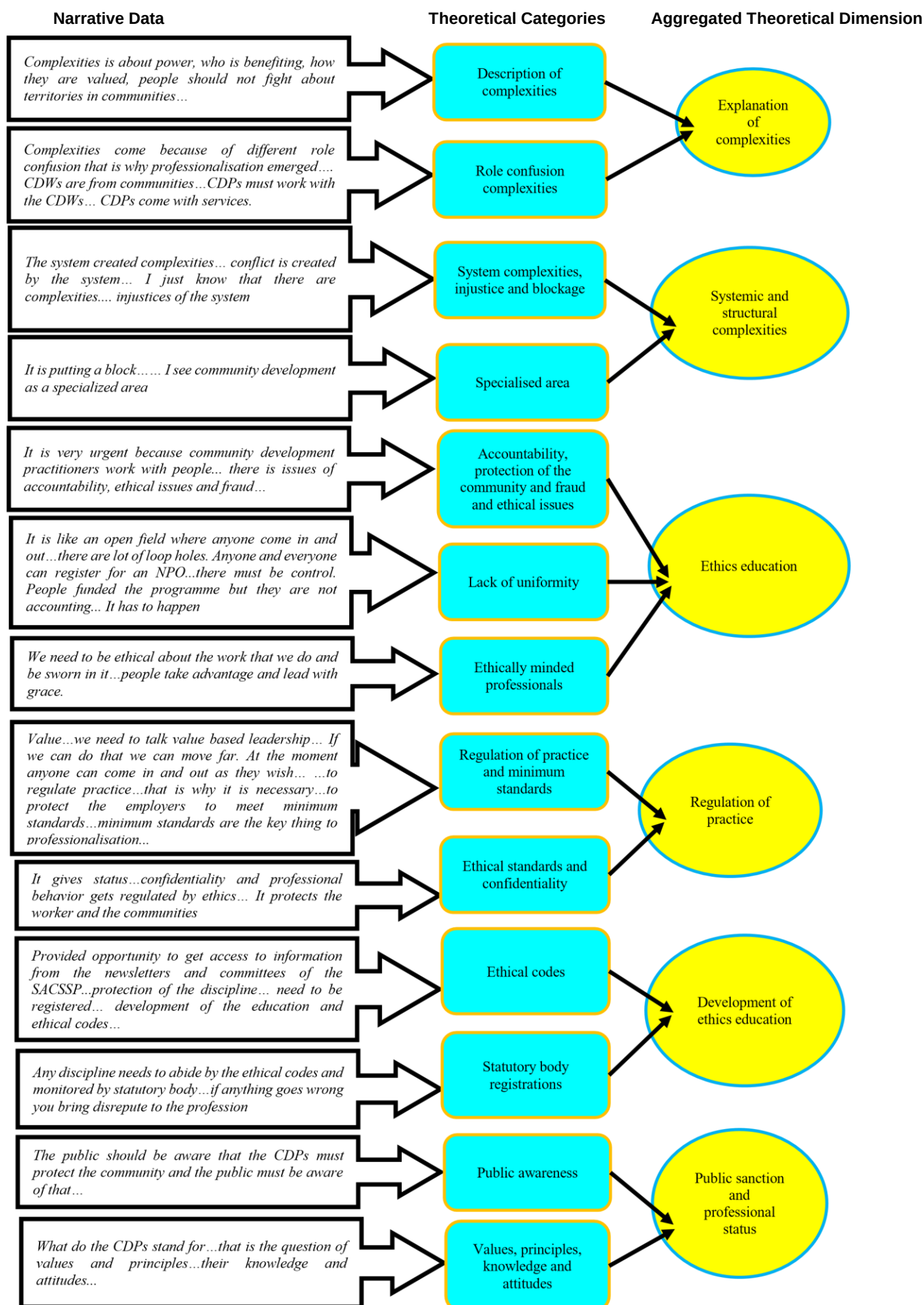
Theoretical Categories

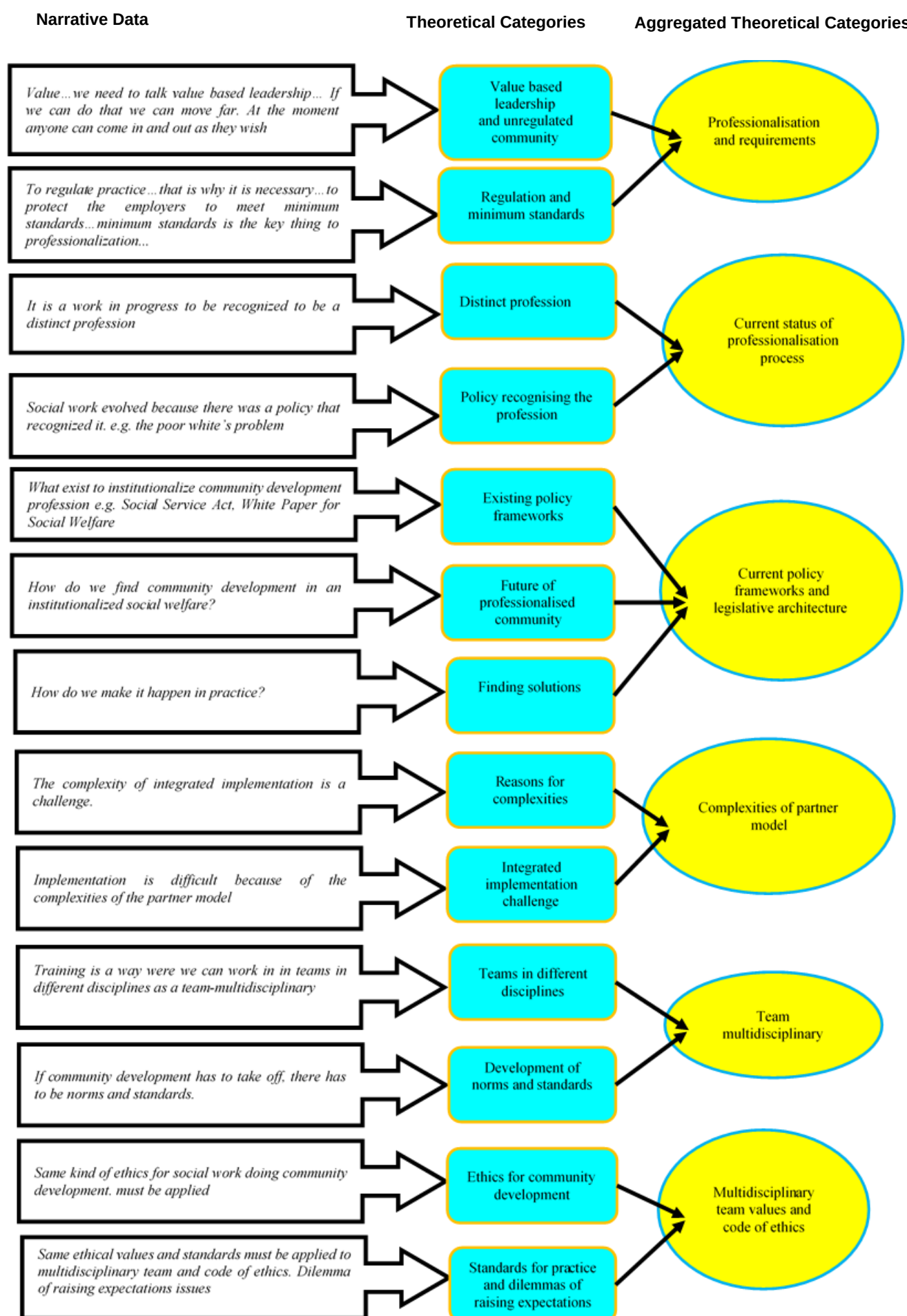
Aggregated Theoretical Dimension











7.6. Case Summary and Key features

The unique feature is the higher education teaching community development under the discipline of social work. The lowest graduate qualification level is an honours degree, with the majority holding master's degrees and Ph.D. qualifications in social work and development studies. The central feature of this case is the social work profession connection in the education and integrated multidisciplinary practice in community development as revealed by the narrative extracts: *"Community development is not what social workers do only, other professions such as nurses, teachers, and other different professions are using the notion of community and social welfare...."* The case findings show that the social work profession been practicing community development and community work before 1994 to address issues of human rights and social justice in South Africa, as seen from the participants' narrative extracts: *"Social workers played an important role in community development and educating people about their rights ...the rights to employment and maternity and social issues were the key major problem.... Even though social work education was clinical orientation, we were all working to improve people's lives in communities"* The study revealed that although community work is the method of social work, there are specific challenges in the society that require social workers to adopt developmental approaches. Participants indicated that it is easier to work better when dealing with systemic and structural injustices in communities through community development, as shown from the narrative extracts: *" I see it as part of doing integrated practice.... The bulk of the clients have social problems. ...human rights are easier to deal with from community development."*

In addition, other reasons which pushed social workers to practice community development are connected to the clinical orientation of social work as revealed by the participants' narrative extracts: *"Social workers were imprisoned and actively involved in community development... social work education was clinical in orientation..... I cannot see how you can do only casework intervention in South Africa? The majority of welfare agencies are doing casework... Community development is crucial as part of welfare agencies. Community work is part of integrated social work, and community development is an integrated inter-disciplinary. Community development is not what social workers do only."*

Moreover, participants argued that community development is the best method of addressing systemic and structural injustices in society, such as poverty, human rights, and unemployment. Social work without community development will render the profession

inappropriate and irrelevant, as seen from the participants' narrative extracts: *"In SA if you take community development out of social work the profession will be irrelevant and inappropriate. You will be left out with first-world social work model in a developing or underdeveloped country. We need developmental social work."* In addition, the study revealed that community work and community development in social work are conceptual terms that are historically left undefined as indicated from the narratives extracts: *"Some of these terms are developed historically...and conceptual terms that are not settled."*

The findings of this case indicate that community work and community development can coexist in social work, and there is a need for integrated local models of intervention in community development as revealed by the narrative extracts: *"...We need an integrated coordinated system and to test innovations. We need helpful models that could work in our context. We need a system of managing these things. I do not see how people will be doing casework and group work only. If we are innovators we can test, we need to find local models on how to work it out in our context."*

Additionally, a vital feature of this case is that the social workers are opting for an integrated approach in community work and community development in social work. The study further revealed disagreements among the participants regarding an integrated approach to community work and community development. Participants who hold divergent views foresee duality as a problem and indicate that social workers cannot deal with everything. Community development must be left out to be practiced by other professionals. Social workers must focus on their scope of practice.

The findings of the study revealed that professionalisation of community development was institutionalised through the White Paper of Social Welfare (1997) as indicated by the narrative extracts: *"In 1997 the review of the policy document of the White Paper for Social Welfare 1997 gave prominence to community development work and that was the right thing to do..."* The findings of this case also indicate that social workers were the first cohort to be employed in community development unit. The study revealed tensions with regard to the professional practice of social in community work and community development. Social workers were the first group to be employed as CDPs in 1997 as stated in the narrative extracts: *"Many of us were employed as managers in this unit...definitely there is tension between community development and community work. The tension was also picked up in drafting the White Paper for Social Welfare."*

The findings have shown a gap in the intervention model for social service stakeholders in the social service profession. This case indicates a need to invent an integrated model for

stakeholders in the sector in multidisciplinary community development as revealed by the narrative extracts: *"Implementation is difficult because of the complexities of the partner model. If community development has to take off, there has to be norms and standards."* The significant professionalisation complexities identified in this case include:

"The professionalisation of community development originated from the transformation of social welfare in South Africa after the democratic government was elected in 1994 and was institutionalized in the White Paper of Social Welfare 1997". "The professionalisation started during President Mbeki's era, but the lack of broader consultation and communication with the HEI practitioners in the sector was a significant challenge... should have been a negotiated effort with a clear directive". Furthermore, the findings reveal that community development should have been made a specialty in social work or development role in social work. Thus, the professionalisation of community development is viewed and perceived to be creating separation, segregation, and false divorce, fragment the social work profession into a breakaway profession. The division between the community development profession and the social work profession creates false divorce. Despite these complexities, participants supported the need for synergy in the social service professions.

Participants revealed that professionalisation is necessary because it will develop the minimum standard set for education and practice, code of ethics for professional behavior, and practice regulated by ethics. Ethical issues have been raised as a challenge in the sector. The study participants have supported the professionalisation of community development because they stated that it would address ethical issues such as fraudulent behavior, accountability, and confidentiality in the sector. It is also anticipated to promote value-based leadership, enhance and promote the professional status, and ensure registration with the statutory body. Tensions and turf struggles between social workers and CDWs have been raised as the primary concern. This has been linked to a lack of clear professional roles and responsibilities, a lack of clear scope, and limited collaboration. In addition, participants indicated that there is no transparent formal partnership to enable the two sets of professions to know each other and know who is doing what to offer services that complement each other since they are servicing the same communities. Terms such as the need for co-existence and synergy were raised. The role of professionals and paraprofessionals was emphasised to increase capacity and reach people on the ground. The participants stated that it is impossible to address social issues from one level or to use people with degrees, and not everybody needs to have a four-year degree. The need for a transdisciplinary and multidisciplinary approach in dealing with communities emerged.

Fragmentation and role confusion has been seen as a significant challenge. Each profession has been indicated to have a role to play within a multidisciplinary approach to collaborate and network on joint projects so that all professions can share strengths and work in an integrated manner. CDWs have been stated as expert organisers, and social workers are considered experts in the social field component of development, and the ecological approach has been stated as the knowledge base of social work. The knowledge base, *values, principles*, skills, multidisciplinary challenge, the establishment of the professional body, and international recognition are the challenges facing the evolving profession of community development.

CHAPTER EIGHT: DOCUMENTARY ANALYSIS

8.1. Introduction

This chapter presents an analysis of the documents, procedures followed, and the results of the analyses of selected documents to explain the object under study. The use of documentary analysis was secondary to triangulate the method of data collection and were central to the constructivist grounded theory data analysis process underpinning this study. Detailed account information about conceptualisation of this study and how the research was conducted is provided in Chapter three of the study and the preceding chapters of the case presentation. Charmaz (2014) identifies the extent documents and elicited documents as two significant forms of documents distinguished in analysing documents. Public records documents were the type of documents related to the phenomenon under study. The researcher used the summit newspaper reports, community development policy documents, and SAQA to supplement data gained through interviews. The rationale for using document analysis in this study lies in the role of documents as method of collecting data for triangulation purpose and its value in providing the data context for the case study research and phenomenon under study. The documentary analysis data source was used to supplement interviews, provide case study context, corroborating evidence, and also as a means to provide "valuable additions to a knowledge base" (Bowen, 2009, p.27). Document analysis as a research method of collecting data is predominantly relevant to qualitative case studies as intensive studies that produce detailed descriptions of a single phenomenon, event, organisation, or program (Stake, 1995; Yin, 1994). Wharton (2006, p. 79) describes documentary analysis as a detailed examination of documents produced across various social practices, taking various forms from the written word to the visual image. Macdonald (2008) suggests that documents are socially produced and are not always objective, paying attention to authenticity, credibility, and representativeness to mitigate the disadvantages of secondary documents analysis. Atkinson and Coffey (2004) refer to documents as "social facts." Intensive interviews and documentary analysis were the two primary sources used for collecting data in this study, as stated in Chapter three of the methodology section.

Interviews were the primary method of collecting data. Document analysis was used as a means of triangulation. As Eisner (1991, p. 110) note, by triangulating data, the researcher attempts to provide "a confluence of evidence that breeds credibility." The researcher used document analysis to corroborate findings across data sets to reduce the risks associated with potential biases in a single source study. The thematic data analysis technique was adopted to analyse documents and organise them into codes, categories, and theoretical

clusters. Similarities and differences between batches of data were identified. The following section outlines techniques and documentation procedures undertaken in this study.

8.2. Documentary analysis analytical procedure undertaken in the study

Document analysis as a complementary data collection procedure in support of triangulation and theory building. The study triangulated interviews with document analysis, adhering to the constructivist grounded theory data analysis (Charmaz, 2014). The researcher reviewed these documents and placed them in context, and coded them for analysis. The nature and types of documents used as a source of empirical data included reports on community development professionalisation workshops, conferences, Summit reports, Community Development Skills Audit, Community Development Workers' Toolkit, Community Development Practitioners' Toolkit. CDWP (2004), The White Paper for Social Welfare 1997, White Paper for Local Government, and the Republic of South Africa 1994. Only a few documents were made available at the research sites. These documents served a vital part and were rich sources of data as part of this study undertaking. The documents from which the researcher mined data were selective, in that only the positive aspects about the need for professionalisation and qualifications developed were documented. Nevertheless, documents helped offer explanatory clarity about turf issues, tensions, and conditions that impinged upon the phenomena currently under investigation. Furthermore, as Merriam (1988, p. 118) points out, documents of all types can help the researcher uncover meaning, develop understanding, and discover insights relevant to the research problem.

Bryman (2008, p. 40) notes that the methods for analysing documents include content analysis, discourse analysis, and critical discourse analysis. Riessman (2006, p. 186) distinguishes four different narrative analysis types: “thematic analysis, structural analysis, interactional analysis, and performative analysis”. Document analysis yields data excerpts, quotations, or entire passages that are organised into major themes or categories (Bowen, 2009). Thematic analysis was adopted. Data yielded was organised into codes and categories to identify similarities and differences between batches of data.

In analysing the documents mentioned above, the researcher used guidelines and questions proposed by Charmaraz (2014, p. 45.) as follows:

- What is the purported purpose of the document? Might it serve another unstated or assumed purpose? Which ones?
- How were the documents produced? By whom? For which intended audiences?

- How does the document reflect its authors' assumptions? Which meanings are embedded in its form? In its content? How do those meanings reflect particular social, historical, and perhaps organisational contexts?
- What is the structure of the document? What can you glean from these categories? Do the categories change in sequential documents over time? How so?
- Which realities does the document claim to represent? How does it represent them? What and whose facts underlie this document?
- What, if any, unintended information and meanings might you see in the documents? What is glossed over or left out? Who has access to the facts, records, or sources on which documents rest?
- How is a language used?
- Which rules govern the construction of the documents? Can you discern them in the narrative? How do these rules reflect both tacit assumptions and explicit meanings? How might they be related to other data on the same topic?
- What kind of comparison can you make between documents? Between different documents on the same topic? Similar documents at different times, such as organisational annual reports?
- Who benefits from the documents? Why? Who knows about the documents?
- How do various audiences interpret the document and act on it? When and how do they act on or ignore the document?

The nature and the type of the documents selected, including data analysed, are illustrated in Table 8.1. The documentary data were analysed to merge cross-cases analysis in the ensuing chapter to follow. The review of documentation in the study provided background information that helped the researcher understand the sociocultural, political, and economic context in which community development practice and professionalisation of the community development sector were conceived and implemented. The documentary data served to ground the research in the context of multidisciplinary community development-related phenomena being investigated in this study. The researcher compared data emanating from documents to validate similarities, contradictory efforts, and vice versa. The comparison between interviews data sparked insight about the relative congruence or lack of it between the words and deeds. Some interviews revealed a lack of legislative framework for the community development sector. Documentation validated the findings of the interviews.

Documents selected	Data analysed
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Republic of South Africa 1996. Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. Pretoria: Government Printers.	Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) (Republic of South Africa, 1996 outlined the roles, rights, and responsibilities of communities
The White Paper for Social Welfare (1997)	The policy framework describes community development as a multi-sectoral and multidisciplinary approach, reorientation of developmental social welfare programs
The Republic of South Africa. Department of Social Development. 2009. Skills Audit Report for Community Development Practitioners – National Report. Pretoria. Government Printer.	Training current CDPs, bridging courses, Developing Community Development Qualifications, RPL for CDPs, Bursaries, and Scholarship.
Steering Committee & Task Team Outputs Towards Community Development Professionalisation (2012-207)	Mandated to lead professionalisation process of community development
Inaugural Summit for the Professionalisation of Community Development “Building sustainable, equitable and vibrant communities” 26-28 October 2011	The three-day Inaugural Summit for the Professionalisation of Community Development in October 2011 commitment was made to professionalise community development work. The Inaugural Summit was the first step of this process of professionalisation of community development. At this Summit, an Association of Community Development Practitioners was launched, and the need to form established as a professional body.
South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) and the National Qualifications Framework (NQF)	Accredited Community Development Qualification frameworks (NQF Levels 4, 5 & 8) developed between 2009-2011. South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) developed and approved Community Development Qualifications for the National Qualifications Framework (NQF)
Community Development Practice Policy Framework 31 August 2014	Outlines the expectations of community development practice and articulates the values and principles of community development adopted internationally

Table 8.1. A Sampling of Documents and Data Analysed

The researcher mined and analysed data from documents as part of theoretical sampling—that is, "sampling on the basis of concepts that have proven theoretical relevance to the evolving theory" (Charmaz, 2014; Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 176). The researcher reviewed line, phrase, sentence, and paragraph segments from the documents to code the data. The

initial coding of the content of the documents was based on three groups of search terms: professionalisation of community development, community development values and community development practice, nature, and activities in the sector. The constant comparative method (Charmaz, 2014) informed data analysis to identify patterns and discover theoretical properties in the data. Codes developed were clustered into substantive categories, and these category codes were categorised. Categories were compared with each other in line with the constant comparison method. Categories developed were then compared across interview transcripts. The researcher compared coded data and categories by asking questions outlined above adopted from Charmarz (2014). The researcher was able to identify similarities, differences, and general patterns (Bowen, 2008). Documentation analysis was helpful in refining ideas, identifying conceptual boundaries, and pinpointing the fit and relevance of categories (Charmaz, 2014). Data from documentary analysis confirmed the results from the findings, which validates the results from the interviews. Examples of the documents selected and the data analysed are given in Table 1. The documentary data were analysed together with data from interviews so that themes could emerge across.

8.3. Findings of the documentary analysis

The interviews indicated that the social work profession before 1994 was the only key role player recognized in social welfare. Contributions made by other social service professions such as community development, child and youth care services were not recognized. The findings further revealed that with the transformation of social welfare, policies and legislations were developed, such as the South African Constitution of 1996, the White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997, and the White Paper for Local Government, 1997. The White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997, institutionalised the professionalisation of community development to recognise the contributions made in this sector. Similarly, the need for recognition is one of the reasons why CDPs supported the professionalisation process of the community development work. The need for recognition was validated by the findings emanating from the interviews as seen across the four cases underpinning the study.

8.3.1. Cross case context: Documentary Analysis

The findings of the interviews are in agreement with the findings of the documentary analysis and revealed that the introduction of the CDWP stems from President Thabo Mbeki's office.

The main vision of this program was captured in President Thabo Mbeki's State of the Nation Address in February 2003, when he stated that the "government will create a public service echelon of multi-skilled CDPs who will maintain direct contact with the people where these masses live. We are determined to ensure that government goes to the people so that we sharply improve the quality of the outcomes of public expenditures intended to raise the standards of living of our people" (Baaitjies & Hinstra, 2005:10; DPLG, 2004). The participants clearly stated the linking expert role of CDWs. Their role involved acting as the catalyst between the government and communities to address community needs, service delivery gaps, and solutions to the identified needs by working together with the local, provincial, and national government structures.

Regarding the role of CDPs, there is a consensus in the interview data that their role is unclear, and this is the area that will need to be clarified after the establishment of the professional board. Although there are empirical studies conducted for CDWs, there is a dearth of literature and empirical studies conducted on CDPs. The interview findings revealed that this gap contributes to contestations, tensions, role confusion, conflict, and duplications in community development work. No literature was found on the jurisdiction of a domain of practice on professionalisation in community development.

8.3.2. Contestations and complexities of the professionalisation process

The report of the Inaugural Summit for the Professionalisation of Community Development outlined the three processes towards the professionalisation of community development: the establishment of a Community Development Association, the creation of a Professional Body of Community Development, and the establishment of a Council for Community Development. This report states that the inaugural Summit was the first step undertaken for the professionalisation process of community development. This finding is not in agreement with the interviews' findings, indicating that professionalisation of community development started with introducing the CDWP in 2004. Lack of shared consensus about the beginning process of professionalisation is also stated by the participants when they indicated that professionalisation of community development started in-house at the DSD and was followed by Skills Audit Report conducted in 2008. The disagreement was also revealed when other participants indicated that the professionalisation process was started by a cohort of social workers who were first employed at DSD as CDPs. These findings show the contested nature of professionalisation, complexities, and contradictions and the actions undertaken with the transformation of social welfare in South Africa after 1997. These initiatives reflect the actions not only contributing to a removal of the service delivery gaps

and development challenges following apartheid government policy and legislation in developing the community development work approach in South Africa, but they represent the action undertaken for community work in South Africa. Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) (the Republic of South Africa, 1996) outlined the roles, rights, and responsibilities of communities. The White Paper for Social Welfare 1997 institutionalised the professionalisation of community development. Based on the findings, this was the findings step towards the professionalisation of community development. The findings of the interviews indicate that the professionalisation of community development was motivated by the need for status recognition. These findings corroborate the profession of community development and corroborate with the Inaugural Summit report for the Professionalisation of Community Development.

The findings of the interviews revealed that community development is a multidisciplinary field. These findings corroborated with the documentary analysis of the Draft Community Development Practice Policy Framework of community development (2014). They revealed that "community development should be viewed as an occupation with a multidisciplinary character to which other disciplines could subscribe when required (Development Practice Policy Framework of community development, 2014, p. 38). On the subject of the ethics and values of the evolving profession, the study participants indicated that the community development evolving profession does not have values and ethics guiding the profession. Participants indicated that practitioners rely on internal institutional policies; hence, the quest for professionalization is supported to instill professionalism. However, Chapter 4 of the Draft Community Development Practice Policy Framework of community development (2014) states that the values and ethics of community development in South Africa have been dispersed from the international context. This influence and ascendancy evoke debate and controversy about their relevance. Efforts have to be made to indigenise community development values within the South African context, to recognise diverse cultural, economic, political, and the context in South Africa. However, lessons can be learned from the international values to inform practice. Community development values should encapsulate the context of South African society.

8.3. 3. Community development professionalisation milestones

Before 1994, social welfare in SA was fragmented and organized on racial grounds. The profession of social work was the key role player. Community development after 1994

changed with the newly elected ANC democratic government, which resulted in the transformation and reconstruction of social welfare. The formulation saw this of the White Paper for Social Welfare and the Reconstruction and Development Policy. Before 1994 the profession of social work dominated social welfare. The transformation of social welfare and structures of society after 1994 led to the formulation of the White Paper for Social Welfare. It acknowledged the professionalisation and recognition of other social service professions like community development, probation service, and Child and Youth Care. Policies and legislations were developed, such as the South African constitution of 1996, the White Paper for Social Welfare 1997, the White Paper for Local Government 1997. The White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997 institutionalised professionalisation of community development. 2009 marked the start of community development professionalisation. In 2010, there was the registration and program accreditation of community development qualifications NQF Level 8 and Bachelors of Community Development, SAQA. In October 2009, the Department of Social Development conducted a skills audit for CDPs. The critical gaps identified included the need for training of the CDPs, the need for bridging courses, developing community development qualifications, RPL for the CDPs, and bursaries and scholarship opportunities. In July 2011, a community development qualification roll-out and stakeholders meeting was held, and the Community Development Professionalisation Steering Committee (CPSC) was formed at this meeting. During the consultative meeting, the stakeholders agreed that a consultative summit must be held to discuss professionalising the practice for community development in South Africa.

A Community Development Professionalisation Steering Committee (CDPSC) was established to organise the Summit. The three-day Summit was held at the Vulindlela Village in Coega, Eastern Cape, 26-28 October 2011. At this Summit, the DSD was given the mandate to lead the professionalisation process of community development work. Professionalisation was supported to address the recognition of the status of the profession of the community development field. In June 2013, an HEI and stakeholder workshop onfield practice, mentoring, and supervision of community development students was held. Registration of CDPSC as an NPO was made in partnership with the Department of Social Development on the roll-out of the professionalisation process. In May 2014, registration of the

CESM sub-category was made to Development Studies. In November 2015, QCTO NQF Level 4 & 5, NQF Level 4, Further Education and Training Certificate, SAQA NQF Level 5 was formalized. In July 2016, a meeting was held between CDS and the IACD October 2016

saw the establishment of a community development task team. The National Consultative Forum on community development professionalisation was held on 30-31 October 2017 to give feedback about the process with the SACSSP. The purpose was to mobilise, engage and consult with the CDPs regarding the roll-out process until registration of community development practice. In this meeting, the community development steering committee and community development members of the working group shared the progress made by the CDPSC and the task team. The SACSSP and SACSSP ETD explained its role, functions, responsibilities, and requirements for the professionalisation process.

9. Summary

The analysis of the documents above and the interviews conducted in this study validate the professionalisation endeavor in community development work and field projects in government departments such as COGTA and DSD. The professionalisation of community development was institutionalised in the White Paper of Social Welfare (1997) with the transformation of social welfare in South Africa. The findings showed that community development professionalisation started with CDWs when CDWP was introduced in 2004. The reason for professionalisation was motivated by the need for recognition of the community development field. The analysis of the documents further indicates that the professionalisation of community development at the DSD started in 2012. The DSD was mandated at the Summit to lead the professionalisation process. Although these documents validate aspirations for professionalisation, the gap identified in these documents shows the complexities of professionalisation and the ethical challenges in the community development sector related to the phenomenon under study.

CHAPTER NINE: CROSS CASE FINDINGS

9.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the cross-case findings arising from the four case studies underpinning the phenomenon under study. Stake (2006) advocates on case analysis that

focuses on each case as outlined in the preceding chapters and then on the cases as a whole. The practice of showing the individual case studies within multiple case reports is common (Stake, 2006, p.82; Yin, 2014). Although the cases were analysed separately, as indicated above, concepts emanating from all the cases influenced subsequent cross-case analysis in this chapter. Within case and cross-case analysis in this chapter combined answers the research questions of the study. The relationships between the cases and the object under the study are the focus of cross-analysis. The methodology outlined in chapter one and chapter three of this study informed the data analysis process: initial coding and focused coding data analysis generated codes, core categories, and theoretical categories. Conceptual categories stemming from the four case studies were compared and contrasted. Conceptual categories enabled the researcher to develop a clear link between theoretical categories and draw implications. The iterative analysis process followed the coding process and generated theoretical categories that emerged in the study.

9.2. Reporting on cross-case analysis and theoretical categories

Charmaraz (2014, p. 150) describes theoretical categories as a “sophisticated level of coding that follows the codes that the researcher has selected during focused coding”. Glaser (1978, p. 72) introduces theoretical codes as conceptualising how substantive codes relate to each other as a hypothesis for integration into a theory. Other scholars (Strauss, 1987; Strauss and Corbin, 1998) present axial coding as the third type of coding to relate subcategories to categories. Axial coding has received some endorsement and extensive criticism. Proponents of axial coding such as Corbin and Strauss (2008) conceive it as another form of coding and systematic. It relates subcategories to subcategories to synthesise, organise large amounts of data, and bring it together in a new way. However, Charmaraz's (2014) approach differs from axial coding in that the analytical strategies are emergent rather than procedural applications. An emergent theoretical code develops subcategories of the categories to show links between them (Charmaz 2014).

In this study, theoretical codes assisted the researcher in identifying relationships between categories developed during focused coding. The researcher allowed data to speak for itself, avoid preconceived fads and trends, and force data into old boxes. How the researcher finds which theoretical codes fit remains ambiguous, and they can “reproduce old knowledge or new knowledge” (Charmaz, 2014, p.153). Glaser (1978, p. 72) states that the researcher must know many theoretical codes to be sensitive to rendering the “subtleties of the relationships in data” explicitly. By sticking to data and allowing it to speak for itself, a wide range of theoretical codes allowed the researcher to identify relationships between them. This enhanced emergent theoretical codes. Emergent concepts were tied directly and

closely to the data gathered, analysis to a higher level of abstraction, and conceptual meaning. The theoretical codes developed in this study represented the foundation of the theory developed in the study as outlined in subsequent chapters in this study. Figure 9.1 below illustrates the cross-case categories and the findings of the cross-case analysis.

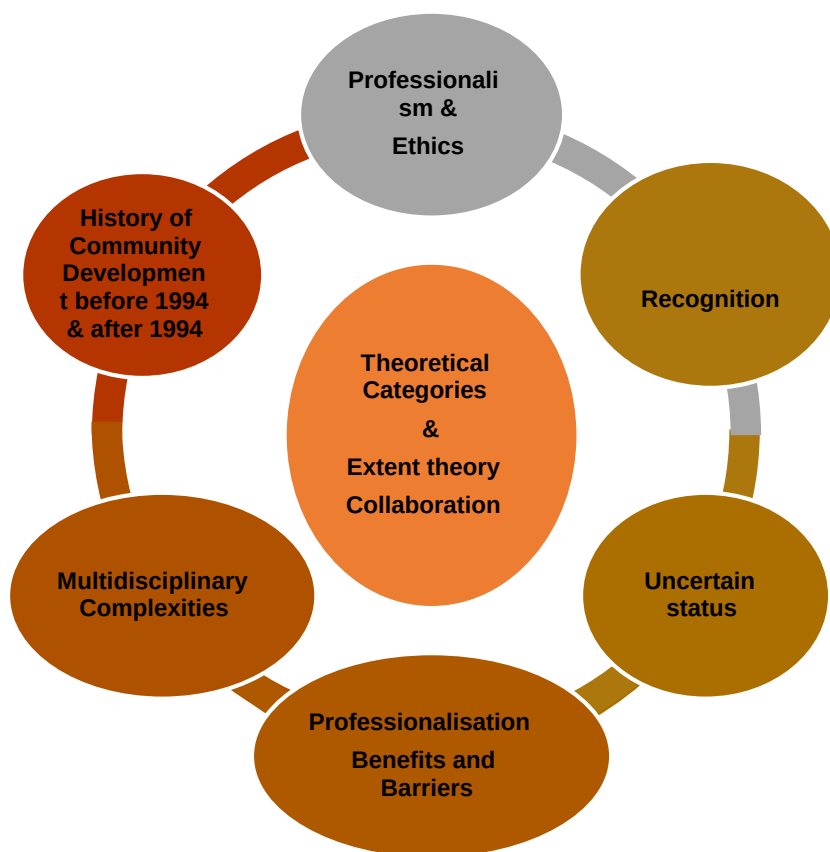


Figure: 9.1. Cross case Theoretical Categories

9.2.1. The Complex Context of Community Development in South Africa

Context is an essential element of case study design because the boundaries between the context and case in many situations are not clear. Contexts are the boundaries of an inquiry. Hence understanding the meaning of the phenomenon under study requires the context in which it happens. Yin (2003) argues that case study design is a unique design form because the context is crucial to the research. In constructivist grounded theory, emergent concepts are tied directly and closely to the data gathered, analysis to a higher level of abstraction,

and conceptual meaning. Three main themes portray the abstract categories stemming from community development: Context of community development between 1950 to 1980, community development between 1980 to 1994, and community development after 1994. The discussion below provides the analysis and abstract categories about the roots of community development during these periods.

Community Development between the period of 1950 and 1980: Analysis revealed the social and political historical context and community development challenges in this country. Participants referred to the constraints of the apartheid government legislative framework, which led to the formation of political organisations and unjust forceful removals and communities' challenges regrouping. The findings of the present study confirm the findings of the previous studies by (Debeer et al. 2012; Dithake, 2020; Patel, 2005). The history of community development in this country is closely interconnected with the struggle against colonialism and the apartheid government. Resonating with this history, community development in western countries emerged as a political and social reaction against the detrimental effects of industrialisation. Figure 9.2 illustrates abstract categories of the context that framed radical community development in South Africa between the 1950s and 1980.

Participants stated challenges such as *"strikes of 1921, forceful removal of communities, Sharpeville Massacre of the 1960s, strikes of 1973, the strikes of 1976, political imprisonment, the struggle for human rights and social justice"*. This finding shows how community development emerged here as a political and social reaction against the detrimental effects of the apartheid system. These findings also reveal how systemic and structural challenges affected the vibrant fiber of communities and marked the beginning of radical community development in South Africa. The repressive and dehumanizing apartheid repressive system eroded the social and economic prospects.

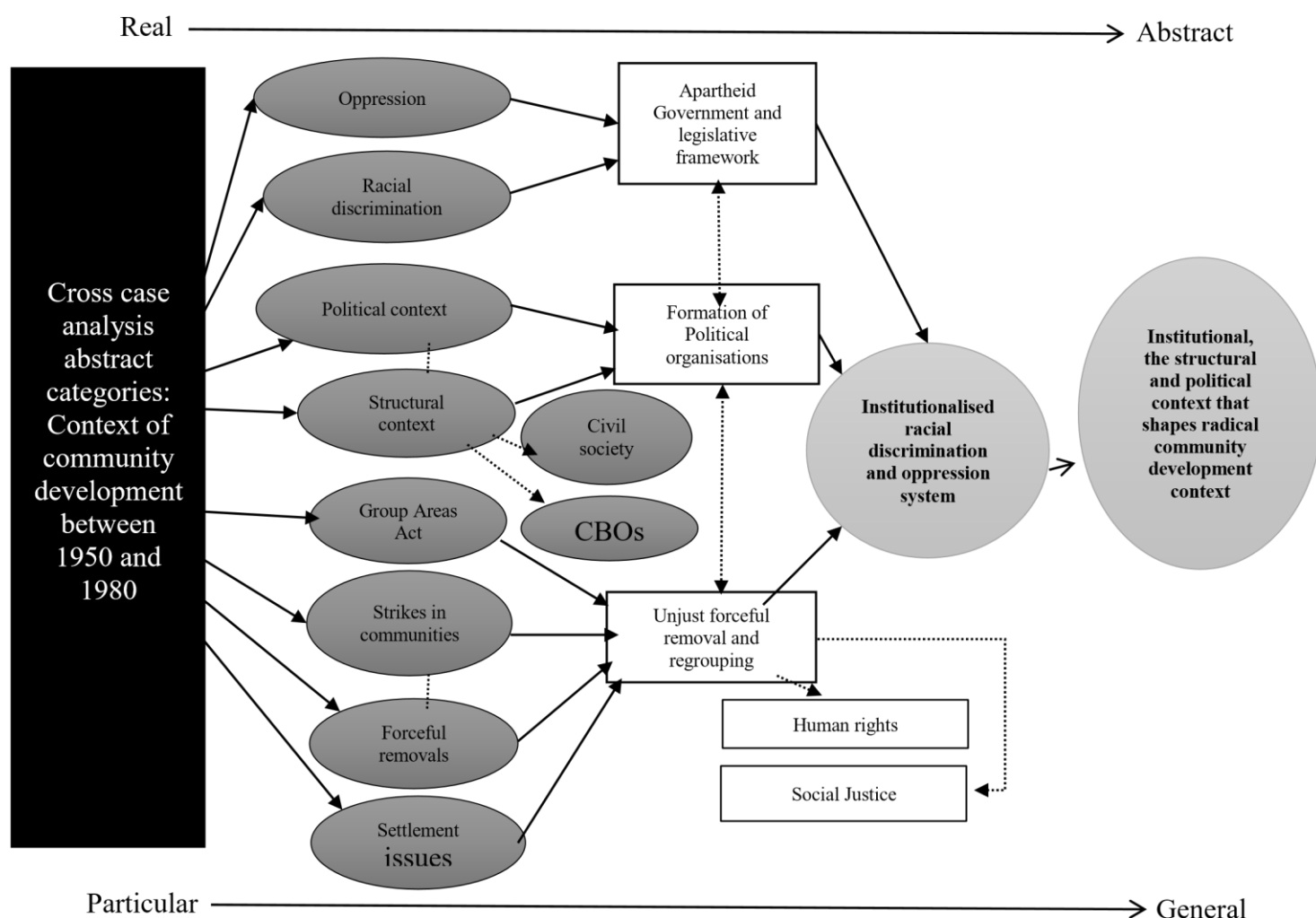


Figure 9.2. Cross case analysis and abstract categories: Complex context of community development 1950 to 1970

All the cases shared similarities in the context that shaped the history of community development and how institutional oppression reinforced the structural and institutional policies. Institutionalised apartheid policies and legislation were said to be an active destroyer of communities. Hence the challenges facing communities in the 1960s were about regrouping and resettlement. These points are captured well in the following narratives extracts:

“Community was exclusively racially grouped... Community development was a manifestation of apartheid and racial discrimination regarding Whites, Blacks, Indians, and Coloreds. The effect of forceful removals tore apart those vibrant communities. Communities settled in Kliptown, Fitus, Sophia town, and others. the challenge of the 1960s was about regrouping....” The strikes and community protests addressed problems experienced by communities in the broader social context of structured inequalities, discrimination and

exploitation, and socio-political concerns. These were some of the fundamental parts of radical community development and anti-discriminatory practice. The following narrative extract exemplifies community protests and strikes: *"You can talk about the community protest...there were strikes of 1921 the rand strikes...the strikes of 1973...the strikes of the 1976 and the Sharpeville Massacre of the 1960s...these were the history of South Africa's strikes in communities ...these should reveal community organization...despite the sadness of the people who were affected and many lives were lost."*

The findings of the present study confirm the findings of the previous studies by Bernstein (1985, p 9) that the most "devastating aspect of apartheid has been the programme of mass removals, the uprooting, and relocation of people through forced evictions in order to achieve the territorial segregation of the population according to the policies of apartheid". Moreover, cases one and four explicitly specified that the apartheid struggle was for human rights and social justice. Civil society and non-governmental organisations played a critical role in the struggle for promoting social justice and the human rights of people in communities. De Beer and Swanepoel (2012, p. 4) point out that community development in South Africa has a "strong radical flavor firmly based in civil society of the apartheid era," and NGOs played a pivotal role in transformative agenda (Habbib & Tailor, 1999). The following narrative extract captures this point well: *"In the 1960s and 1970s focus was building political organisations and trade unions. The challenge was about regrouping. People were imprisoned. we addressed issues of rights to maternity leave, human rights, and social justice...."*

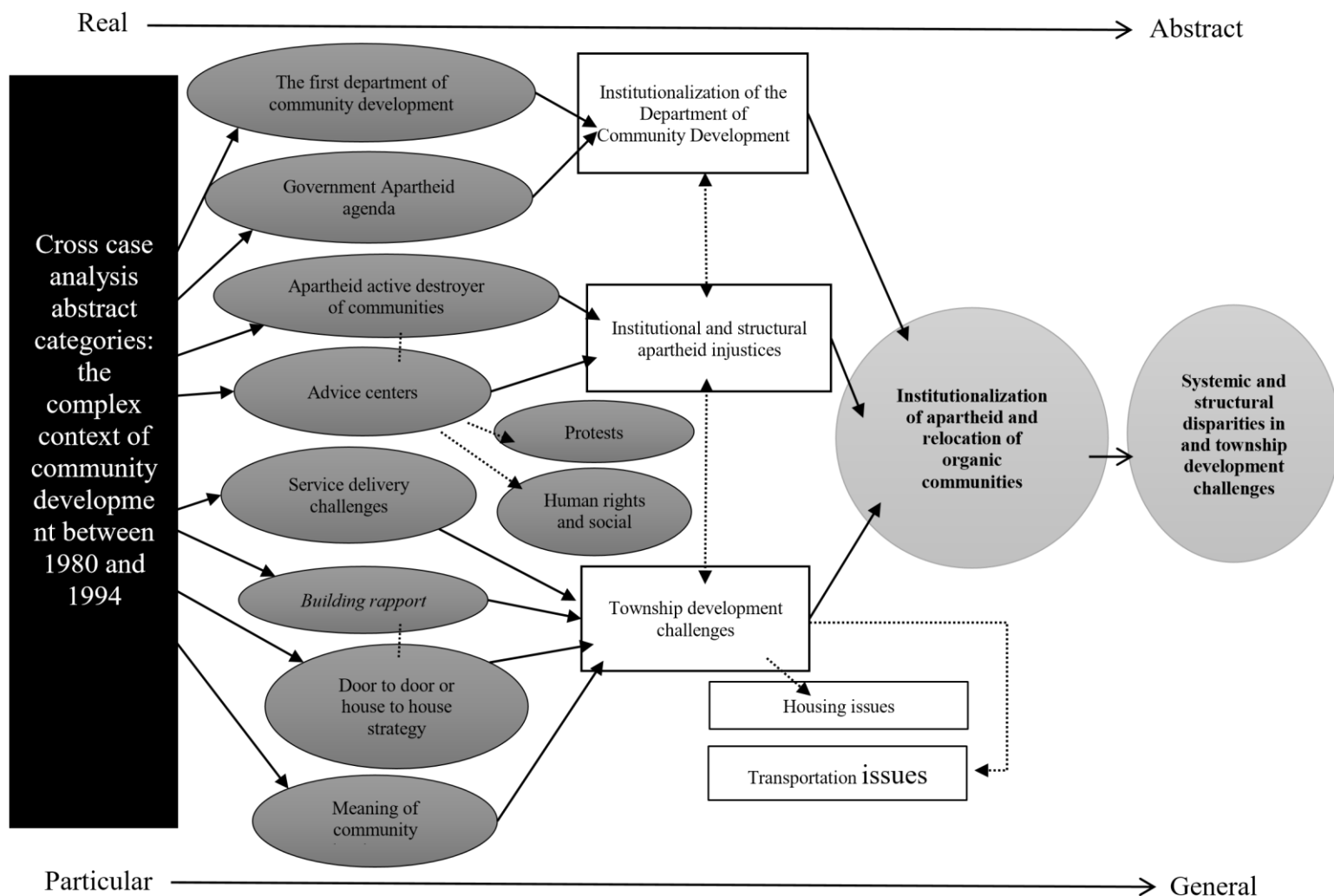
During this period, radical community development in South Africa drew attention to institutionalised oppression and racial discrimination. The structural and political challenges of radical community development hinge on oppression, discrimination, human rights, and social justice. A similar observation is made by Patel (2005), who pointed out that social development in South Africa aims to achieve social and economic justice through strengthening people and their communities' livelihood capabilities (Patel, 2005). Human rights align with the African Charter on Human and People Rights (African Union, 1981). The context provided insight into the dynamics that shaped the history of community development and the emergence of radical community development in South Africa. Hence it is imperative that this emergent professionalisation of community development field must be located within the contextual circumstances informed by the value of human rights and social justice which aligns with the history of community development in this country.

9.2.2. Complex context of community development between the period of 1970s and 1994

Community development between the period 1970 - 1994: The findings from cases one and four have shown that in 1980, the Department of The establishment of community development department in the 1980s, and its purpose was to promote apartheid agenda as explained by participants: "*There was a person who was appointed as a community development worker to drive apartheid agenda...*". The findings from documentary analysis validated this. As De Beer and Swanepoel (2012, p. 6) note, the South African government introduced a community development department during this period. The intention was a "top-down approach to win the hearts of people" and promote the apartheid agenda. Case two and three did not indicate community development during the apartheid era that was unjust and racially prejudiced slant. The institutionalisation of community development started with establishing the Community Development Workers Programme (2004) at COGTA; years later, in 2009, the DSD introduced a community development practitioners program under the Sustainable Livelihood Unit (Department of Social Development, 2010). Context matters in community development because it provides events that shaped the history of radical community development and has implications for education and practice. The first Department of Community Development in 1980 provides an account of the institutionalisation of apartheid systems and institutions of social welfare structures and how this department was used as a vehicle to drive the apartheid agenda. Cross case findings between 1980 and 1994 theoretical categories include establishing the Department of Community Development, systemic and structural apartheid injustices, and township development challenges. Figure 9.3. below illustrate abstract categories of the context that framed the radical community development community in South Africa between the 1980s and 1994.

Figure 9.3. Cross case analysis and abstract categories: Complex context of community development between 1980 and 1994

Additionally, institutionalised racial discrimination and institutional structural injustices such as township development housing challenges which include leaking roofs, poor electrical connections in houses, issues of water and transportation, were some of the service delivery challenges of community development as explained in the following narrative extract:



"Communities were paying rent, but nobody came to fix things.... It was all kinds of material issues." Case one, case two, and case four findings have show that the struggle for social justice and human rights intensified during the 1980s as explained: "...Advice centers were established in communities to assist people with legal advice. During the 1980s, the struggle intensified. It was a struggle for human rights and social justice...."

"The Department of Community Development was the most active destroyer of community development... What they considered community development was a manifestation of apartheid. It implemented the Group Areas Act, forceful removals, and relocation of organic communities. It promoted apartheid in its way...."

"Group Areas Act tore apart organic fiber in communities. Community development is about belonging together. When they regrouped, they were threatening too. A huge part of community development was the identification of a large part of people in communities. The effect of forceful removals tore apart those vibrant communities. Communities settled in Kliptown, Fitus, Sophia town, Lanisia."

"When we were mobilising for political support, we used to go house to house to mobilize people for political support. Building rapport at that time was important, and people were able to share their challenges. This mobilisation was first a political agenda by African National Congress (ANC), trade unions, United Democratic Front (UDF), NGOs and other political organisations gave rise to community development. Trusting people is important."

This finding shows that a wide range of political organisations such as The ANC, trade unions, UDF, NGOs, and civil society organisations play a critical role in community development works in servicing the poor and the marginalised communities. The importance of the political environment and socioeconomic community development was an anchor point for radical combating social problems and the struggle against apartheid injustices. As De Beer et al. (2012, p. 6) note, the civil society organisations were involved in "local struggles around forceful removals and peoples desire to participate in decisions about where they should live." Community development strategies, mobilisation for political support, and solutions to addressing social problems were politically motivated. The involvement of people in matters that affect them shows the bottom-up approach, which opposes the top-down approach central to the ABCD approach (McKnight & Kretzmann 1993; Schenck et al., 2010). These findings show the social and political radical community development, and the spirit of community development was the involvement of people in decision making and gaining control of their lives (Govender, 1987). The ABCD framework

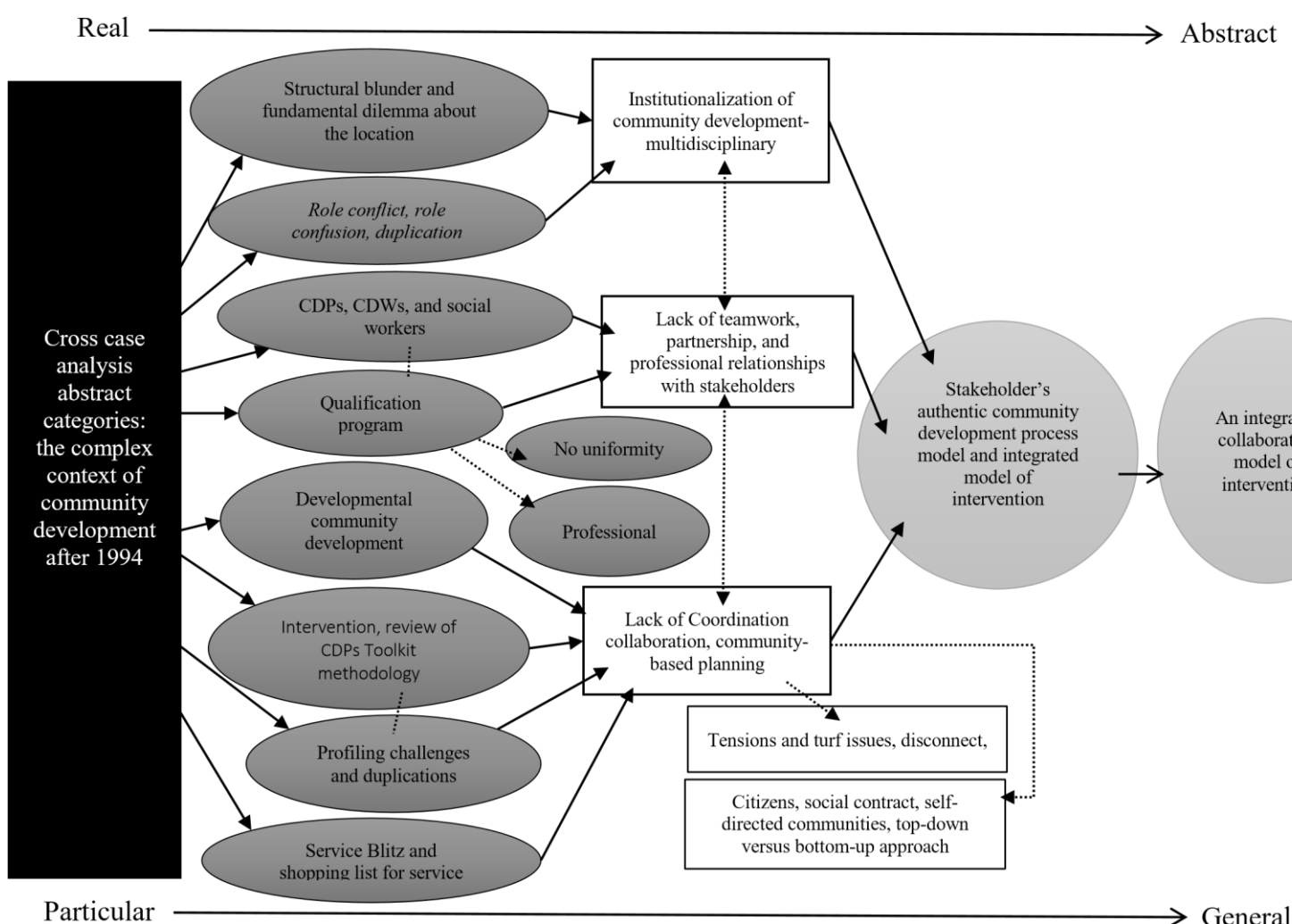
recognises the importance of local community, enhancing resources and the interaction between the natural, cultural, human, social, political, financial capitals (Flora et al., 2004; McKnight & Kretzmann 1993; Schenck et al., 2010).

Community development in this country emerged as a reaction against apartheid racial disparities and the detrimental social and adverse political effects. Hence the agenda for community empowerment rested on the goodwill of the political system.

9.2.3. The complex context and community development after 1994

Cross case findings of the status of community development indicated that community development practice in South Africa is multidisciplinary.

Figure 9.4. Cross case analysis and abstract categories: Complex context of community development after 1994



development. Case one and case four interview data indicate that the apartheid government institutionalised community development in 1980. Case three interview data indicates that community development was institutionalised after 1994 through the White Paper on Social Welfare (1997). Case two revealed that the transformation of social welfare after 1994 led to establishing the national Community Development Workers Programmes, *aimed at addressing service delivery gaps at the community level is corroborated by documentary analysis as explained " President Thabo Mbeki initiated the National Community Development Programme (DPLG, 2004) and it was subsequently launched in 2005... He had stated that there was a need for "multi-skilled community development workers (CDWs) who will maintain direct contact with the people where the masses live. So that we sharply improve the quality of the outcomes of public expenditures intended to raise the standards of living of our people" (Mbeki as quoted by Community Development workers Programme (2004))"*.

"CDWP was established in 2004 to address service delivery challenges in poor communities between 1994 and 2004, highlighted in a government report entitled "Towards a Ten Year Review: Synthesis report on Implementation of Government Programmes (Republic of South Africa, 2003)".

These findings show some differences regarding the institutionalisation of community development in government in this country. These findings contradict each other, but they are also in conflict with the findings from the documentary analysis, which reveals that the department of community development existed before 1994. In 1962 the Minister of Community Development was Mr. P. W. Botha, as revealed in the documentary analysis. The Minister of Community Development, Mr. P. W. Botha, during the 1962 parliamentary session, made a policy statements regarding community development: *"The whole idea of community development has become a modern trend throughout the world, and numerous other countries are giving attention to that. South Africa is actually in the lead with regard to the creation of machinery in this field."*

This study reveals that the apartheid government institutionalised community development in 1980 to destroy communities' vibrant fiber and promoted the apartheid agenda. This development is indicative of the transformation and restructuring process in the community development field rather than the beginning process of institutionalisation of community development. The findings of the historical context provide a fascinating overview of the history of community development in South Africa before 1994. Community development was used to drive the apartheid process and was the active destroyer of communities. As

shown above, it destroyed the vibrant fiber of community development by applying the Group Areas Act and Apartheid Legislation principles.

For this reason, this department was notorious for implementing apartheid grand plan and destroyed many communities. In this study, the researcher contends that the government's community development institutionalisation in 1980. However, after 1994, there were transformation and restructuring processes in social welfare to make community development policies and programs more inclusive. The transformation of social welfare policy and social structures of society fits with the developmental agenda outlined in the (White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997) and commitment to empowering the majority of people to meet the social and economic challenges. As Tailor (2018) notes, the National Social Welfare and Development Plan spelled out the developmental transformation agenda. It also aligns with South Africa's Constitution (Act 108 of 1996). Hence the roles of community development workers and community development practitioners were reformulated to tackle existing gaps in post-apartheid government and the emergent contextual issues at a community level.

The context and complexities of multidisciplinary community development practice

after 1994: The findings above indicate that community development is a multidisciplinary field, and its foundation is embedded in the historical roots of the civil society movements and trade unions' social and political transformation. There is a consensus in all the cases that community development in this country is multidisciplinary. It has its traditional mission in political, social transformation and the empowerment of the vulnerable people and groups in society as shown in the narrative extracts: “*. Community development is not what social workers do only; professions such as nurses, teachers, and others are using the notion of community development to promote social development*”.

Additionally, the findings of the documentary analysis of the skills audit report conducted in 2008 at DSD validate the findings of the interviews as revealed from the narrative extracts: “*...People have different qualifications. There is no uniformity and standards to say who comes in.*”

These findings indicate that community development is a multidisciplinary field and poses a challenge to the professionalisation process connected to a lack of uniformity in norms and qualifications standards.

Structural blunder about the location of the CDPs and multidisciplinary practice of community development: Case one and case two raised concerns and dilemmas about the location of the CDPs at the DSD as revealed in the narrative extract: “*DSD and COGTA*

committed structural blunder about the location of the CDPs at DSD...This presents a fundamental dilemma."

"I have doubts whether community development is well situated in DSD and what is the mandate of the DSD." ... "What are the CDPs doing at the provincial and national offices?"

"Municipalities have social workers but are nowhere to be found in communities and are not visible. Suppose a social worker can come to the ward at the local communities. We know that it will rain... Government must have proper guidelines"

The findings indicate that the CDPs must be located at the local government. They need to focus on development in the local communities rather than at the national or provincial office. The location of the CDPs at the provincial and national offices explains why it is said to pose the structural and fundamental dilemma about community development at the provincial and national departments of social development. The multidisciplinary community development, lack of clear policy guidelines, lack of collaboration, coordination, and uniformity contribute to the tension with social service practitioners in their joint mission of local social transformation and empowerment of vulnerable people and groups in society. Social work is perceived as the core profession and thus seen as the privileged profession. The findings from case three revealed that the CDPs doubted the location of the CDPs at the provincial and the national office at the DSD, which inhibited their ability to pursue the mission of community development and authentic community development practice. A similar consensus is shared by case two participants and indicated that the CDPs are not visible in their wards, including the social workers. The findings from case two agree with this and state that the government committed a structural blunder about their location. The structural blunder contributes to the marginalisation of the practitioners and community development not receiving the necessary attention. The findings point to the need to learn lessons from other countries like Botswana, which have developed a mechanism of stakeholders working together at the local level.

Tension and turf issues are shown in case two between the CDWs and the local councilors appointed at the municipalities as explained: *"There is an issue of the CDWS not wanting to account to the councilors. Lack of accountability is due to the issue of turfs and lack of understanding. Sometimes people fight for nothing...."*

The findings across the four cases showed a lack of professional working relationships among social workers, CDWs, and CDPs, as a result this leads to role conflict, duplication of service and role confusion at the community level as indicated in the narrative extracts:

"Due to lack of professional working together... .. There is a lack of inward teamwork and professional relationships... no memorandum of understanding or partnership relationship with stakeholders. We have personal networking but not a departmental one. Duplication of service is the reason why we have conflict and role confusion".

These findings show the need for dialogue, collaboration, and coordination of activities, including enhancing professional relationships and proper guidelines in community development work. A dialogue will aid in addressing challenges of collaboration, coordination of community development activities, turf issues, role conflict, role confusion, and duplication of services in the community development field.

Moreover, duplication of profiling is said to contribute to the disconnection and lack of coordination. The CDPs in case three independently conduct household and community profiling, and the CDWs in case two also conduct their community profiling with the same communities as revealed in narratives extract: *"We profile for no reason... communities are profiled many times... there is a crisis of profiling... It creates expectations and promises we do not fulfil."*

These findings indicate a lack of collaboration and coordinated efforts between the CDPs and the CDWs. Hence duplication of community profiling and the crisis of community profiling in communities in crisis shows the level of disconnection. In addition, when the CDPS conducts community profiling, it is geared towards service delivery and also called "Blitz" rather than delivering authentic community development process as revealed in the narrative extract:

"...community profiling is geared towards service Blitz...we have never done profiling to the level of community-based planning...That is where there is a disconnection."

The findings from case one and case three share a similar consensus regarding the challenges of community profiling and its role in fulfilling targets and service Blitz as shopping list for service delivery. This contradicts the traditional the empowerment purpose, self directed community and the authentic community development process as indicated from the narrative extracts: *"We have a target to profile 500 households...the same communities have been profiled for many years and it has reached crisis"*

"The shopping list for service delivery does not work. It says we are going to do things for ourselves. Engagement must be what they need. People are citizens but not service recipients. Citizens imply a social contract. A basket of service delivery creates

disempowerment " ... "There is a need to look at self-directed communities. CDPs must be given space in the process that has the integrity of processes of local people...."

"Pressure is the community from the top. They are told what they must develop. They have no place and time to do community development."

The findings of this study confirm that of previous studies by Shaw (2001) and Meade (2001) absome debates associated with the professionalisation of community development; debates that centre on its reputation as a "bottomup" or "participatory" strategy. The bottom-up approach to community development represents a people-centered and participatory approach to social and economic change. Active community participation is the vital goal of the collaborative partnership efforts to empower the community and address vulnerable community sectors. Some debates associated with the professionalisation of community development, centre on its reputation as a "bottomup" or "participatory" strategy.

These findings raise questions about the role of community development practitioners in addressing social issues at the community level, including the government financing community development programmes by setting targets. In this instance, the government dictates what community development practitioners are accountable for in their work. The findings also show that community development practitioners and community development workers do not search for sponsorship. They are assured of funding as government officials, which can be associated with a privilege. The targets set by government policy and its resources determine how the CDPs and the CDWs engage with the local people. It defines how the local community perceives them as government officials rather than as agents of social change. The topdown approach reflects the failure to follow an authentic community development process that has the integrity of the process of local communities. Depending on the targets articulated by the government and its programmes reflect the topdown approach ultimately defines how the CDPs engage with the people at the community level. Hence the top-down approach affects the CDP's ability to build stable relationships to engage with people at the community level. These findings confirmed the previous studies by McKnight & Kretzmann (1993) and Schenck et al. (2010). They emphasised the importance of embracing a top-down approach and leveraging cultural explanations of social reality (Flora et al. (, 2004), which can best be addressed by utilising more ABCD framework. It also shows how their intervention is different from the traditional foundation and community development mission in this country. That over-reliance on external support creates dependency, thus raising questions about the lack of people-centered and empowerment. Lack of authentic community development process is seen by case two participants as a

privilege because they do not have to go around and search for resources as indicated above. These findings indicate the need for community-based planning that considers respect for the integrity of the community development process to promote authentic community development.

Furthermore, the findings show that fundamentally community development is about the process. The challenge of community development practice in South Africa is said to be related to the failure to follow an authentic community development process of actions, participation, and decisions that improve a community's situation. Hence the disconnection between the theory that the practitioners have learned from the university and practice. The disjuncture is evident in the following narrative extracts: *"There is a difference between community development we learned from universities and the one we are doing in government...the real community development is the one we have done at the university...approaches, step by step."*

Many participants pointed out that government community development programmes are about quantity rather than quality. Participants indicated that they must reach the target and fill the statistics form with the number of households and communities they have profiled. Participants reported that the Toolkit for community development and top-down approach left no room for quality and a broader approach to local support and understanding the community. The following narrative extract from the participants shared that sentiment:

"...with government is about statistics, numbers, not quality".

"The tool kit for CDPs is used to fulfill targets...Pressure is the community from the top. We get told what we must develop. This is one of the biggest challenges from the provincial offices...." Toolkit needs to be reviewed to include the broader approach to local support... It must be used as a tool to understand communities. We need to make it work for us. ABCD is one step back from sustainable livelihood...".

As the quotes above indicates, gauging the practitioner's intervention based on numbers instead of quality is a big challenge towards realising the means and ends to community development among the CDPs. Overburdened with meeting the targets, a broader approach would also re-examine the government approach to better support community capacity and a strong functioning community. Including a bottom-up or participatory approach that fosters confidence among the CDPs to establish community rapport, promote quality, and a more collaborative

framework beyond household and community profiling. This amplifies the pivotal function of the CDP in the bottom-up approach in the community development process and explains the importance of a participatory process that can empower people and communities. The findings show that lack of community engagement, involvement, and communities are conceived as, voiceless subjects from the deficit perspective. Hence McKnight & Kretzmann (1993, p. 3) and pointed out that although the “needs-based strategy guarantees only survival, and can never lead to serious change or community development,” the needs base approach “must be regarded as one of the major courses of the sense of hopelessness.”

9.3. Cross case findings and theoretical categories: Views of professionalisation process

Cross case findings of the theoretical categories about views of community development professionalisation include the following: Reasons for professionalisation of community development; lack of engagement and broader consultative process; professionalisation and community development elitism; the need for recognition and the status of community development; the need for recognition of the qualifications and need for a clear ladder of promotion. The findings below on the complexities and the view of community development reveal that community development is multidisciplinary and multidimensional. The quest for supporting the professionalisation of community development, including tensions and arguments raised in support for and against, reveals inherent contestations. Figure 9.5 illustrates the theoretical categories generated on the views of the professionalisation process.

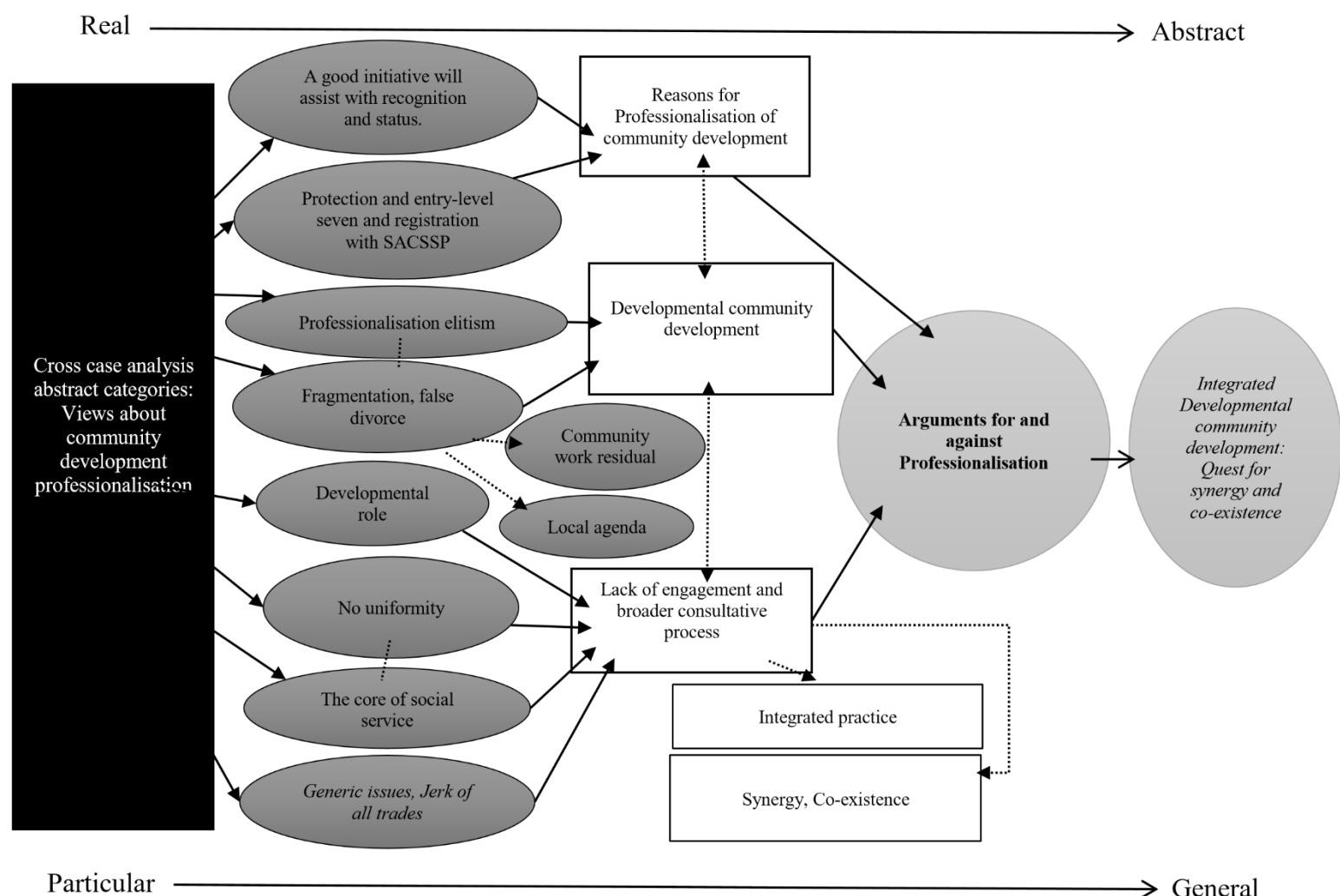


Figure 9.5. Cross case analysis abstract categories: Views about community development professionalisation.

The benefits of the professionalisation process of community development: The findings across the four cases support the process of changing the occupation of community development to the status of the profession as indicated by the narrative extracts: *"Professionalisation of community development is a good thing. When one graduates as a social worker, it is easy. However, for the CDWs and CDPs, it is difficult because they work with generic issues...Being a jack of all trades can be problematic. It will help us to be recognised by other professions...."*

The findings show that the quest for professionalisation of community development in this country was motivated by the need for status recognition. The sociological classical explanations of the process of elevating an occupational group to the profession's status and to gain jurisdiction over the field of work are described as professionalisation processes

(Abbott, 1988; Flexner, 1915, Freidson, 1994; McDonald, 1995, Wilensky, 1964). Professions must be highly specialised and must apply abstract knowledge in practical matters (Abbott, 1988). The findings from the documentary analysis indicate that professionalisation of community development was institutionalised through the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) to promote recognition and the contribution made by the community development field in social welfare in this country. This finding also corroborates the findings of the Inaugural Summit for the Professionalisation of Community Development report, as indicated in chapter eight of this study. Additionally, other reasons for supporting professionalisation as indicated above include the following:

"We need recognition, no uniformity, and there is confusion at the community...We need to be protected. It will help us not to be abused internally and externally, and we need to register with SACSSP, and our entry-level must be changed from level six to level seven compared to social workers...we cannot open our practice."

These findings show that the concerns voiced persistently by participants are the lack of recognition of the community development field and by the public. The requirement to gain professional recognition includes identified professional knowledge base, professional authority, community sanction, and professional culture (Abbott, 1988; Friedson, 2001, Greenwood, 1957). The findings indicate that the absence of recognition is observable in the remuneration differences compared to other professionals with similar qualifications. Given this regard, the benefits and opportunities associated with becoming a professional are perceived to yield monetary value linked to salary increase and socio-economic well-being of the professionals. The registration to the professional statutory body is indicated to provide opportunities for practitioners to conduct private practice, better job opportunities, and conditions of employment. These views reflect the practitioner's devotion to self-interest rather than compliance with "service ideals" (Wilensky, 1964) or the interest of the community they serve. Abbott (1988) note that professions must be highly specialised and must be able to apply abstract knowledge in practical matters. Lack of uniformity reflects a considerable diversity in which community development education and credentials are offered. These findings highlight the benefits of elevating an occupation to the profession's status and social recognition. Hence certification and accreditation are *necessary* for creating opportunities and protecting the CDPs and CDWs internally and externally from established professions or related fields. Parsons (2010, p.6) hold a different view and argues that professionalisation for community development must emphasise "leadership" and "competence" must be what matters, which can be "opted both by field- (non-

institutionally) trained candidates, and by candidates institutionally trained in other fields and after all, that's proof-of-the-pudding; not ingredients." As crucial as this view, the findings show that participants are more concerned about registering with the professional body. The registration system with the recognised professional body would assure the public that a qualified professional provides community development interventions and would also advance the recognition of community development as a profession. Although this finding indicates that registration with the professional body will benefit the practitioners, these findings also suggest that practitioners fail to understand the purpose and role of a professional body in regulating entry into the profession, community sanction, and the protection of the community members from unprofessional conduct.

Professionalisation and community development elitism: Although many participants favor the professionalisation of community development work as revealed above, case one and case two provided contrasting and conflicting views. The process of changing an occupation to the status of the profession is said to lead to community development elitism. Elitist community development implies only expert professionals will be allowed and sanctioned to practice as explained in the narrative extract:

"We should not lead this thing to elitist. Professionalism will not hurt... Community-driven needs must be considered first. Local agenda needs to take precedence...."

The findings show that community rapport and local agenda before 1994 influenced the community development process. Interestingly, there is a noticeable shift in community development practice after 1994, reflecting depoliticising community development and displacement of political activists as agents of change, rather than being reduced to service delivery, chasing targets, or household and community profiling statistics. The findings show that professionalisation has the potential of disconnecting community development from its reformist roots of political and social transformation and empowerment of the vulnerable, disadvantaged people and groups. Ife (2002:277) contends that the "Ideas of skill sharing, empowerment, and the "community knows best" are considerably not compatible with a professional model of practice". These findings concern the precarious legitimacy of the community development field. Shaw (2011, p.129) stated that community development should be subjected to an "irony check." This implication and tendencies have been framed by (Turner 2007) to dismantle the social welfare state. (Gaynor, 2011) stated as a participatory society and coopted service (De beer et al. (2012), Hence changing an occupation to the professional's status can promote a top-down approach to community development by

expert professionals, depoliticising community development from its social and political history of transformational development agenda. These findings confirm what Ife (2013) note that the "professional model" is anti-thetical" to the community development field and the idea of the CDWs and CDPs work.

Contestations and tensions about professionalisation and mixture of community work and community development in social work: The findings across the four cases show contestations and tensions about the professionalisation of community development work in the social work profession. Social work before 1994 has been practicing community work and development. Participants who support community development professionalisation stated that community work is a method of social work. Therefore, community development falls outside social work as explained: *"Community work is a social work method. They were imported from British colonialism. Community work is residual...with the history of apartheid in South Africa...it is easier to deal with structural and social justice issues through community development. and social structural*

"It is an unnecessary division of social work from community development. I do not think of social work without community development. "I work in an integrated approach" I cannot work on an individual basis when I deal with structural injustices in communities."

The findings show that the social work profession has predominately dispersed from developed to developing countries. The practice of community development in social work originates from the history of colonialism and apartheid in South Africa. Social work in this country mirrored colonial rule, and it is what Midgley (1981) calls professional imperialism. The findings show that social work is a contextual profession, and community development was perceived as relevant and applied to the prevailing environment in which they work. The findings show that social workers employed community work as a method of social work and community development, a multidisciplinary field. An important point to note is that social work's traditional individual and community work methods had limited relevance in a country grappling with poverty-related problems, human rights, social and economic injustices. This finding shows that the dual focus in social work is historical and was informed by the prevailing South African context. The social workers were grappling with poverty-related problems, human rights, social and economic justice. With the professionalisation of the community development field, social work in community development raises issues of tensions, contestations, and professionalisation process complexities for social work and community development discipline. The findings show that professionalisation complexities for social work and community development are historical complexities related to social

work's contextual profession of social work. Hence professionalisation and control of entry have the potential of leading to the breakaway profession of social work, in particular for social workers working from a developmental approach as depicted in the following narrative extracts:

"I do not believe in separation or segregation of the two.... These create false divorce, a breakaway profession of social work and fragmentation of social work profession."

Other participants voiced their concern that they cannot imagine social work without community development and suggested the need for synergy. The participants had the following sentiments:

"We can co-exist. There is a need for synergy if you take out community development from social work. Social work will be irrelevant to the SA context."

The findings show that community work and community development controversies have contributed to professionalisation complexities. Hence professionalisation dilemmas for a social worker working from the developmental stance in their intervention in community development. These findings have a bearing on the relevance of social work in a developing country. Hence social workers working from the developmental framework find the community development approach relevant to addressing social justice issues and societal structural challenges. The findings show a need for synergy and co-existence because social work has incorporated structural and systemic perspectives to challenge systemic and social issues. This indicates a commitment to human rights, social and economic justice for the empowerment of people in communities. With the professionalisation of community development, this is the area that will need to be addressed by the task team and the professional body of social work.

9.4. Cross Case Findings Theoretical Categories: Complexities of professionalisation process and multidisciplinary community development

The findings across the four cases indicate that community development in South Africa is a multidisciplinary profession, where community development is claimed both as a form of social welfare or social development intervention and of grassroots political activism from the history of colonialism and apartheid South Africa. The findings from case two and case three revealed that both CDPs under the DSD and CDWs under COGTA are professionalising. Figure 9.6 below illustrates the multidisciplinary and multidimensional nature of community development.

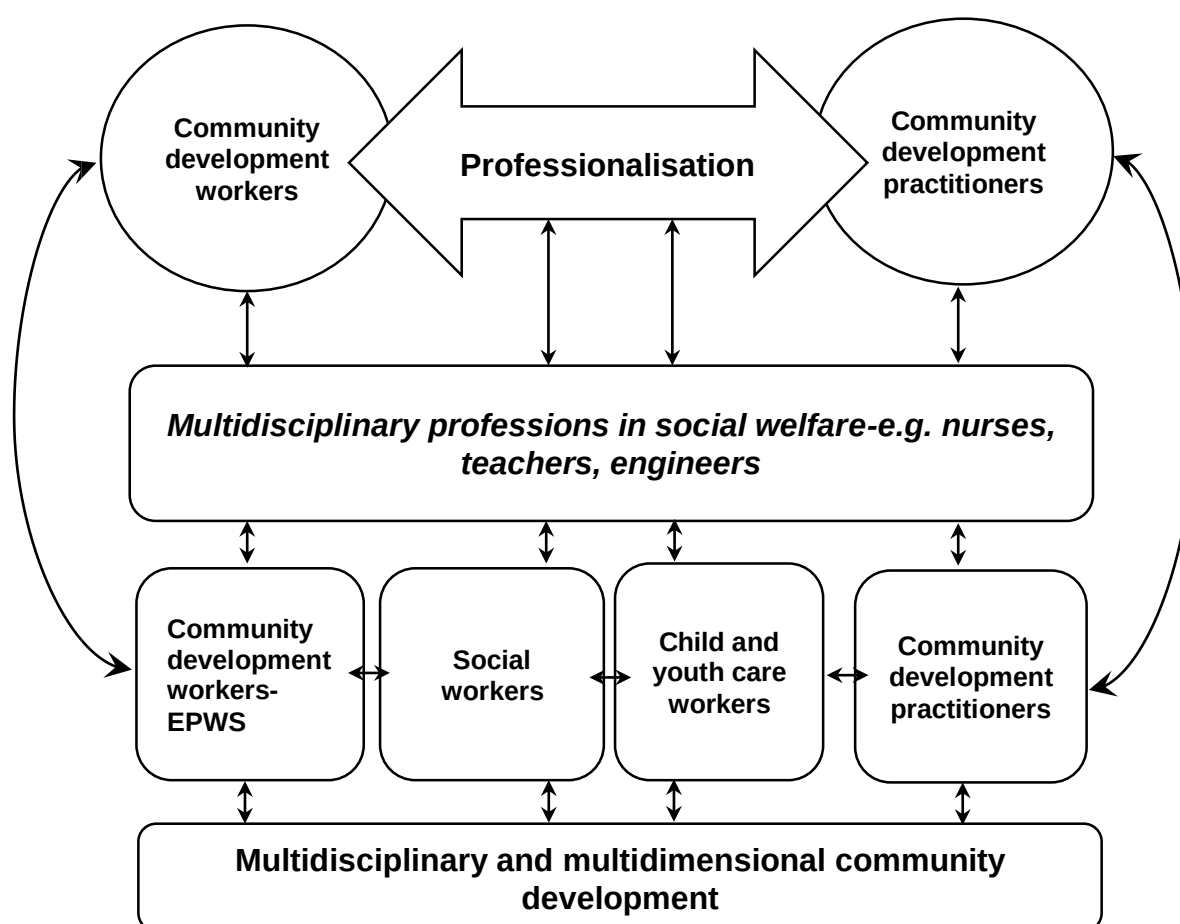


Figure 9.6. Cross case analysis abstract categories: Complexities of multidisciplinary community development Complexities of multidisciplinary community development field: The findings from the interview data across the four cases revealed that one of the complexities associated with the professionalisation of community development is the multidisciplinary nature of community development as explained: *"That is why complexities because we have social workers... CDPs. CDWs working with the very same people and anybody can develop the community...."*

"Complexity is the entrance of the CDPs and contestations."

"Complexities is about defending the turfs and professional identity but not service delivery. There is some factor of distinction of practice that must be made. One cannot be the referee and the player at the same time. How do we deliver service to the ground should be the priority? There is the need for a model...."

The above findings show that the complexities of professionalisation are multidisciplinary, as depicted in the above quotes of the history of community development in South Africa and as stated and recognised by the recent Community Development Practice Policy Framework (2014:38). The multidisciplinary complexities result from overlapping roles,

professional boundaries, turf issues, power struggles, and engendered contestations in community development work. The findings show a lack of dialogue, coordinated efforts, and a lack of a model for collaboration in working with stakeholders at the community level. Hence professionalisation seems to be a complex matter.

Complexities of lack of uniformity of qualifications: The findings show that complexities of multidisciplinary professionalisation are connected to lack of uniformity in educational qualifications and the knowledge base of the practitioners. The participants' working experience range from 3 to 27 years. The multidisciplinary fields and qualifications include social work, psychology, development studies, political studies, nursing science, youth development, and lack of uniformity in qualifications of the practitioners in the sector, as shown in Figure 9. 7. The findings on multidisciplinary qualifications show a lack of uniformity in terms of qualifications of the practitioners and that the knowledge base of community development is built on various disciplines. This raised tensions about the professionalisation of community work since many practitioners do not have relevant qualifications.

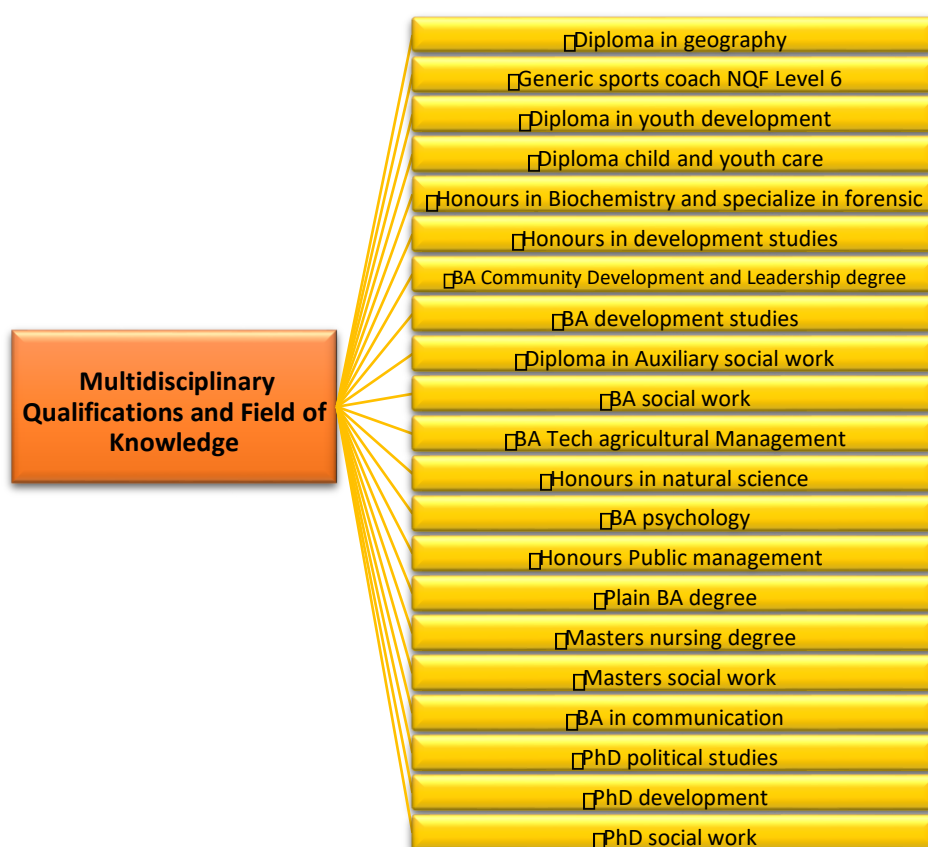


Figure 9.7. Theoretical categories of the multidisciplinary knowledge base and qualifications

Many of the CDPs and CDWs were worried about what would happen to them with professionalisation in the sector. In particular, practitioners raised concerns about the implications of professionalisation concerning practitioners without relevant qualifications in community development as explained in the narratives extracts below: *"What are they going to do with us?... I do not think any of my qualifications allow me to be in the space...."*

"I have no matric certificate, and with this professionalisation, what is going to happen to us who are having fifteen years of working experience but without university degrees...."

"The most considerable complexity is defining its uniqueness... we do not have our knowledge base? People who are heading the professionalisation process do not have the basic qualifications in community development. The employment requirement for CDWs is a matric certificate."

The findings show that there are CDWs employed with only standard eight highest qualifications or without matric certificate. Lack of qualifications poses a challenge to practitioners without qualifications. Knowledge base and qualifications are usually part of the requirements of a profession. Accountability is to the body regulating standards and entry rather than to the community served by profession. The specialised knowledge base, defining the uniqueness of the profession within a multidisciplinary context, poses the most major complexity. The question of relevant qualifications for employment in the community development field is a perennial one and affects workforce employment requirements, depicting diversity and the uncertain professional status of the emerging profession. However, it is within this multidisciplinary diversity that the community development field will find its identity, its meaning, and essential definition.

9.5. Complexities of the professionalisation process

Theoretical categories generated about the complexities of professionalisation and subcategories include multidisciplinary community development complexities, complexities connected to tensions, turf issues and professional identity, complexities, and delayed professionalization process. Figure 9.8 below illustrates abstract categories of the complexities of the professionalisation process.

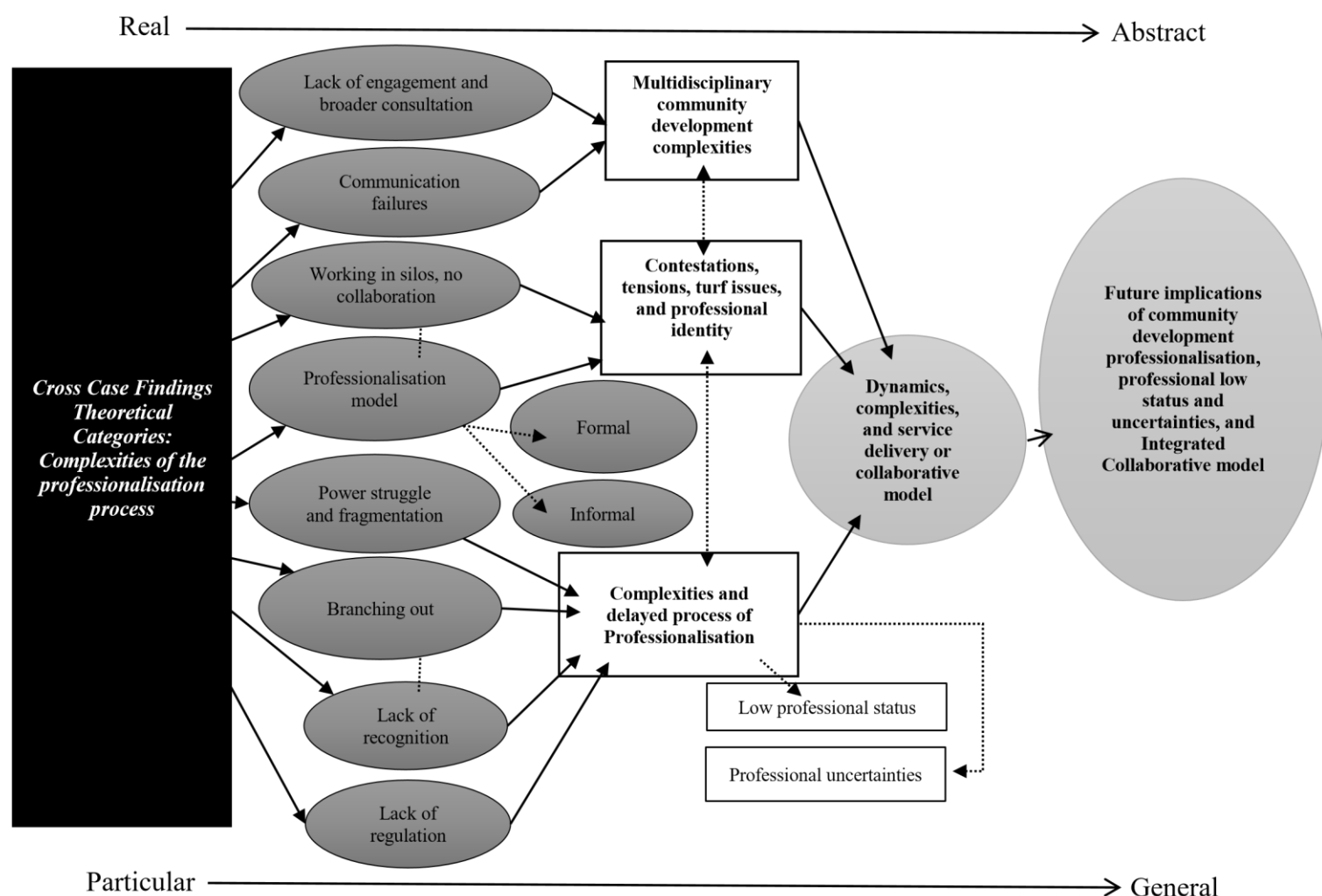


Figure 9.8. Cross case analysis abstract categories: Complexities of Professionalisation

Complexities of professionalisation: Tensions and turf issues: The findings revealed that CDWs and CDPs are professional. Working in silos is contributes to the tensions and turf issues between the CDWs and CDPs.as stated in the narrative extracts: *“When we discovered that DSD is professionalising we were professionalising too....”*

“We dropped the ball because when we talked to the CDWs, we realised that we are tampering into the area of CDWs”

“Ya, that is why complexities because people protecting their turf complexities is about defending turfs....”

Additionally, tensions and turf issues left practitioners in a state of confusion about professionalisation process and have resorted to work in isolation as revealed in the narrative extract,

"The DSD is doing their own thing; we are doing our own thing...working in silos is not working... We were not involved in this process. We do not know if we are included in the professionalisation at DSD. Whether we are roping with CDPs or not, we do not know...."

The findings show that the CDWs and the CDPs in the community development sector are engaged in a separate professionalisation process and are working in isolation. These findings indicate a lack of communication, engagement, coordination, working in isolation, and consultation in the professionalisation process of the community development sector. These dynamics resulted in turf issues and tensions in the community development field. Hence challenges of power struggle. Tampering with professional boundaries is bound to contribute to tensions and turf issues, but working in isolation is not helpful or giving up the ghost.

Professional identity complexities: The findings across the four cases indicated that professionalisation complexities are prochallenges related to the protection of the professional identity. However, to understand professional identity, it is important to first understand what constitutes a profession. Although, there is no universal definition of what constitute a profession (Abbott, 1988, Crook, 2008; Ezioni, 1969; Freidson, 1994; Greenwood, 1957; Johnson, 1972; Macdonald, 1995), professional knowledge generally distinguishes a profession from occupations. This implies three aspects – formal education, legal status, and self-regulation. The findings show that professionalisation process complexities of community development field are related to professional identity is aptly demonstrated by the need for status recognition as depicted in the as explained in the narrative extracts:

"...The CDWs want to retain their professional identity than to be lumped with other professions. It is a tension that we are grappling with. it is tough. It is something we are talking about. we are grappling with whether we belong to SACSSP or not...having our council and baord...this is what we are grappling with...."

"The option we have is to professionalise using occupational roads since many CDWs do not have qualifications"

"We approached is SACSSP before 2015 when we started professionalising... it was a struggle for professional identity of social workers and power struggle. this was the challenge... we were not welcome..."

The findings show that the professionalisation of community development, including the roles, responsibilities, and professional standing, is evolving. The findings reflect the crisis

of status recognition. The crisis is demonstrated in four ways. Firstly, CDWs from COGTA are opting to professionalise following the occupational road. Secondly, professionalisation headways made for the CDPs headed by DSD are following the university-level accreditation or qualification road. Thirdly, opting to have their professional council and board and not wanting to be part of the existing statutory body of the social service professions (SACSSP). Finally, and most importantly, professional identity crisis and the crisis of professionalisation status recognition. These findings suggest that professionalisation process complexities are connected to status recognition, professional identity crisis, power struggles, and restricting entry. These findings show a lack of coordination and collaborative efforts, the silos approach, and have implications for the community development sector. The preceding is depicted in the following narrative extracts:

"The CDWs are required to have matric, and many of them have standard eight. When we introduced the CDW program, we wanted people coming from the communities where they live. We needed people who are known in communities...The CDWs are not employed in terms of their qualifications...for the standards, they will do that... but for public servants, they have their policies..... CDWs are placed in level 6...they are considered the new category for public service servants who will work with the masses...."

"The sector has challenges...Professionalisation will have implications for CDWs...The question is, where do CDWs belong? Are they public servants' administrators... we need to think deeply about this professionalisation and the future implications for the CDWs ...the CDPs and the public servants are administrators..."

The professionalisation of community development for the CDWs raises critical issues. Addressing the professionalisation process raises fundamental dilemmas about the occupational road model of professionalisation and the qualification model of professionalisation that can only be managed and not resolved. Hence, they are opting for the occupation model of professionalisation because many do not have community development qualifications. The employment requirement for the CDW is a matric certificate. The CDWs want to opt for an occupational road model of professionalisation to retain their professional identity and the scope of practice and make the process more user-friendly and inclusive for the CDWs. The occupational path to professionalisation will have advantages for the CDWs mainly because most do not have qualifications. Contrasting to the DSD, they undertook a professionalisation process via the university level of accreditation. Hence merging with the DSD ongoing professionalisation path will pose major problems to the

CDWs workforce. This path to professionalisation will require the CDWs to have qualifications instead of the matric certificate requirement for the workforce. The CDW's aspirations for selecting an occupational model explain why the CDWs do not favor the qualifications path professionalisation process. Hence, they prefer the occupational path to professionalisation to protect their identity and minimise tension for the CDWs. The university level accreditation of expanding community development profession will not only lead to the displacement of the CDWs, but also the displacement of the historical political activism in community development, the exclusion of paid and unpaid volunteers in community development sector.

Turf issues and professional identity issues with the professional body: Case three revealed similar tensions and turf issues as above with the professional body of the social service professions in 2015. As revealed in the narrative extract, *"Professionalisation was supposed to be done immediately in 2003. In 2015 we went to the SACSSP and said these people must be registered...they didn't take it kindly...they said whoa, don't come here... They chased us away... people protect their turf...."*

"...We experienced challenges with the previous board SACSSP...There were identity issues but the current SACSSP board is supportive, there is commitment..... We started the process in 2011...With the previous SACSSP we had limited interaction because of the issues of power struggle... they also had their own issues hence it affected the process of professionalisation process... there were many issues of communication...buying in..."

These findings indicate power struggles and professional identity challenges. Including the tensions, turf issues, misunderstandings, and lack of support are the challenging issues that contributed to complexities and delays in community development.

Complexities of professionalisation - Lack of engagement and broader consultative process: The findings across the four cases indicated that professionalisation was not a consultative process. Participants in case one were unaware of the professionalisation of community development work as shown in the narrative extracts: *"Professionalisation I do not know.... This is the first time I hear that... No one came to the communities to tell us what it is all about... we were never invited to professionalisation meetings...."*

In addition, case two participants indicated that they were not aware of the professionalisation process headed by the DSD and indicated that they are not sure how it is going to affect them as revealed in the narrative extracts: *"We are not sure whether we*

are roped in or not... the DSD were supposed to have involved us or engage us... and how it is going to affect us Are we going to have our own?"

Furthermore, case three shared a similar consensus and indicated that although they are aware of the professionalisation of community development. However, there is a lack of communication, engagement, and disconnect with the practitioners on the ground as explained: *"... Communication challenge. Provinces do not know what is going on... attended professionalisation meetings only last year October even though I have been at the department since 2014... when it started we were not involved...."*

These findings indicate a lack of broader consultation, communications, and engagement of the practitioners affected professionalisation in the community development sector. Furthermore, a similar consensus is shared by participants in case four as revealed in the narrative extracts: *"...Consultations should be there with the HEI...."*

However, lack of consultation and inclusive process is among the reasons universities were not involved, as explained: *"...Universities were not invited in September due to dynamics in other provinces... were not invited.....We realised that professionalisation should not be only at the DSD only but we need to accommodate all stakeholders on board to ensure that when it is election time everybody was on board...."*

These findings indicate challenges of the broader consultative approach process in the professionalisation process and the failures of the task team to engage stakeholders in the community development sector. Thus, it raises issues of lack of inclusivity in the professionalisation process.

Delayed process of professionalisation: The findings in case three indicated that professionalisation has been going on for a long time, and there was no clarity on what was delaying the process as revealed in the narrative extracts: *"...The cooking of professionalisation has been in the pot for a very long time since 2012. They said it would take five years... ten years later, and professionalisation is still taking place. Nothing is happening "we need RPL"*

"...do not know what is it that is delaying the process we very frustrated in this field... department is failing us... I am not motivated to do masters in community development... I am demotivated...."

These findings indicate that professionalisation at the DSD has been an ongoing process ever since 2012. Hence a feeling of marginalisation, demotivation, and diminishing interest due to the delayed process of professionalisation's. The findings show that

participants are eager to get recognition of prior learning. Other concerns voiced by the practitioners includes conditions of employment, lack of recognition of their qualifications, and limited career development opportunities for the practitioners, as indicated from the findings above.

Branching out to other professions: **Branching out to other professions:** The findings show that participants are branching out to other professions to seek opportunities for career growth. The findings show that the CDPs are studying social work and other related fields as an exit plan as depicted in the following quotes: *"... moving to social work... studying public management..... after qualifying I want to branch out into teaching, psychology... This is important for salary level... opportunities only exist for social workers in level seven... Some CDPs have honours the same as social workers but are still in level 6...There is no recognition of qualifications...studying as an exit plan..."*

The findings reveal that the CDPs are branching out to another profession due to the insurmountable conditions of employment and lack of recognitions qualifications similar to other sister professions. The findings show a lack of career ladders that permit the CDPs to advance to full professional status or promotion. Hence branching out to other professions is considered as an exit strategy.

Retention and recruitment challenges: The findings show that practitioners are resigning in the community development unit and when some posts are not replaced, as revealed from the narrative extracts: *"When it comes to the issue of posts people are resigning and they are not replaced. The spirit of work is very low. Why recruitment process focuses on social workers when there are people who are trained in community development...."*

"Our salary is on level 6 ...There is no career advancement... We are not well paid like other professions...."

The findings show that due to low morale and lack of career advancement, the CDPs are branching out to other professions and resigning from their employment. The lack of legislation and policies that recognise community development work as a distinct profession, inadequate practitioners' remuneration, salary disparities, challenges in recruitment and retention of CDPs, the absence of a clear promotion ladder, and staff turnover reflect frustrations in the community development sector. The challenges of conditions of employment signify the relatively low professional status of community development in the hierarchy of professions. Recruitment and retention challenges point to the uncertain professional status. These findings further show poor working conditions, the unattractive

image of the profession, and the professional status challenges the profession is due to face in the future. These findings show the need for a more comprehensive agenda that will reexamine existing demotivation, recognition of frustration, low morale to better foster community the CDPs confidence. Addressing these challenges raises fundamental dilemmas such as the profession's development versus professionalism and professional status.

Reasons for the delay process of professionalisation: The reasons for the delayed process of professionalisation process as explained by participants included: *"We started not understanding it... is very complex...It is like an amoeba...You chop and change... We did not have guidelines for going about the process of professionalisation."*

"...we wanted to have our own council as our statutory body... It was a big issue..."

"The challenge is that I am wondering if we (DSD) are the ones who should be professionalising community development...."

"...There are many things that they are talking instead of doing... ...We are dealing with people's gut feelings...professional jealousy...."

It took eight years or more to start the discussion and get to a point where they have peace. It was more about identity issues, people feeling that the social workers will absorb them.

"There was no national community development policy..... the development of the policy led to the delay of the process ...we then developed a policy that talks about social service professions"

" The policy was revised to include other designations of social service professions. Before we had legislation Act of 1978 which only covered social work...but now the newly revised Social Service Policy for Practitioners includes the designation of social work, community development and child and youth care...it is more inclusive than exclusive..... this is the reason why we have lost two years of professionalisation process because we are caught between the current policy which was not inclusive and the future inclusive policy... Complexity in this instance is the classical example of working between the now and the future... If the policy recognises us we are going to be recognised...."

The findings show that the planned timeframes for the professionalisation were initially planned to take five years by the task team of the professionalisation process. However, due to the complexities of the professionalisation process and the context circumstances of community development practice, and ten years later, the process is still ongoing to

formalise community development as a distinct profession. Freidson (2001) and Abbott (1988) suggested that the term profession was based on independent practice, self-auditing processes, knowledge base, values and skills in its work, monopoly and service to the public. The findings show that all these features present complexities to the community development sector. Among the reasons cited for the delay includes a lack of knowledge in the implementing professionalisation process by the task team. Hence, they were chopping and changing pr trial and error professionalisation processes. Other reasons cited are that professionalisation is a complex process, and the review of the legislation to include other designators of social service professions delayed the process. The turf issues, professional identity, and power struggle with the statutory body led to the delayed process, including the need by the community development sector to have their own statutory body had added to the delayed trajectories.

Furthermore, the lack of broader consultation and participatory democracy with stakeholders in the sector has contributed to the delays of professionalisation and thus complexities. Hence community engagement, consultations, and community sanction in professionalisation are major limitations. Include how professionalisation in the community development sector will benefit or affect them. Community sanction will have implications for the trust and acceptance by the members of the community. These concerns indicate challenges of collaboration, inclusion, and exclusion.

Complexity relating to the lack of clear scope of practice development: The findings show that complexities are compounded by the overlapping roles, working across professional boundaries, and a lack of formalised scope of practice in the multidisciplinary community development sector, as depicted in the following quotes:

"...Ya, that's why complexities because we've got social workers. We've got CDPs. We've got CDWs. "If the scope is different there will be always a room for co-existence ... The scope of practice will help what to narrow down...."

"...There needs to be clarity of the role of social workers, CDWs and CDPs ... We need to workshop to discuss roles and responsibilities...."

"...The sector needs to be united because it is very broad...there are too many role players...this is a challenge... Identities are not clearly set up."

“...At DSD the scope is not clear for CDPs ... the owners are the new kid on the block to define and justify their existence....”

These findings show that the complexities of multidisciplinary community development work are connected to the diversity of the stakeholders, lack of unity, unclear scope of practice, overlapping roles and responsibilities in the community development sector. Hence a room for co-existence, dialogue, and workshops for all stakeholders involved in the community development sector. Lack of democratic participation and consultations depicts the failures of the Task Team and Professionalisation Steering Committee in fostering engagement, consultative process, and resolving the jurisdiction of the practice. The findings depict a need to engage and consult the stakeholders in the sector to settle the challenges. These challenges have implications for the evolving profession of community development. The question of distinctions of practice will need to be re-examined. The community development professional field will continue to face this challenge until it is resolved. The new board for community development and the SACSSP will need to look at these complexities to unite.

Complexities and issues of inclusion and exclusion: The findings reveal that professionalisation raises complexities related to risks of inclusion and exclusion as explained:

“...Issues of inclusion and exclusion have to be explored.... Professionalisation is going to harm those without qualifications. We need recognition of prior learning (RPL)....”

“Recognising the gap that we are not educated but we have experience. We should not lead this thing to elitist community development practice....”

“We need dual registration as social work managers in community development unit...we cannot lose our experience and being leaders in the unit....”

“...The task team and the steering committee failed to bring people on board....”

The findings show that the community development practice in South Africa is not formally acquired only through formal education. The practitioners acquired knowledge through experience in the community development sector. Hence the findings show that the professionalisation process has pros and cons, connected to recognised qualifications, working conditions, and entry points to the profession—many are paid or unpaid volunteers and practitioners without qualifications in community development. Hence issues of the inclusions and exclusions are said to have implications for the community development

practitioners without pertinent qualifications of community development. Therefore, they indicated the need for RPL. The findings show that the complexities of inclusion and exclusion affect the CDPs and the CDWs and social workers who are senior managers of the community development unit. Hence, the social workers who are senior managers indicated the need for recognition of prior learning. Hence the need for dual registration and that they cannot lose their experience of being leaders in the unit. The findings show that it is for the reasons of the inclusions and exclusions that the CDWs are aspiring for the occupational model of professionalisation to protect their professional identity. The findings show that it is precisely in this disciplinary diversity that the professional practice of community development will identify and define its basic definition and practice.

Low and uncertain professional status: The findings show that community development has a low professional status compared to other occupational groupings. Altruism, a unique body of knowledge, self-regulation and code of ethics and several traits are considered important in achieving professional status (Greenwood (1957). In addition to these traits, it is also recognised that public perceptions are important in the process of becoming a profession (Freidson, 2001). The nicknames given to the CDWs and the CDPs in communities indicate low professional status, as revealed in the narrative extracts:

"...We have the nicknames.... we have one that is painful; they call us Z83. It is the form you use for the government when applying for the job."

"...we are sub profession of social work. Some say extension to social work or step sisters...that is how we feel. We are an extension of social work. Sub profession means there are bigger professions than us...they existed before us. Community development is part of social worker wing... CDPs are poor cousins of social workers...."

"...we co-exist... the difference is that the other one earns better than us...that describes us...the doctor and the nurse... We are seen as ancillary work and not standing out as a profession...."

"...We are called Mickey Mouse, Takalani Sesame... so they say that we are playing ... Social work cousins, social work step children..."

"Names like fruit salads, street children, step cousin of social work...People are calling us fruit salads. People think when you are a CDP you do not have qualifications or we have different qualifications so we are Mixed Masala. Nobody knows us. Some say supporting staff, admin clerks and people assume that when you are from DSD we are social workers."

"CDWs are called poitjie koos approach... for example if bust pipes occur in a community... we advise where community need assistance...Re bo Maphanda, we are hasslers...."

"...few people understand, unlike when you are a doctor. People do not ask what a doctor is. ...even a young child at crèche knows what is a doctor? A child would say I want to be a doctor so that I can help people who are sick. As a youth worker people ask you what you do with them? ... for us as youth workers it is like you are giving yourself an identity that people do not understand... People do not recognise us..."

"...To talk about community development professionalisation is to talk about community development in the context of uncertainties. Where do CDPs end up after qualifying?"

"...What you do and how do you demonstrates knowledge base...The team that is leading professionalisation process must step back...There are bigger things to come ... All what they want to do is to register...They do not know what lies behind...."

The findings indicate that nicknames were given to the CDWs, and the community members' CDPs are based on their function in society. Practitioners' nicknames and name-calling show a lower professional image and lower social standing of community development work. They also indicate that community members do not understand the professional function of community development work, roles, and responsibilities in their intervention with communities. Limited knowledge about the professional function of community development points to the need for social dialogue with communities about professionalisation and the emerging profession of community development. The diversity of the knowledge base derived primarily from other disciplines contributes to the status problem of the profession. Therefore, a multidisciplinary knowledge base contributes to the challenge of the profession's knowledge base and uniqueness. Hence the practice knowledge of community development is internally inconsistent and incoherent. The findings show that the community development emerging profession needs to advance a systematic empirical validation of its practice strategies. Knowledge and skills are required to expand beyond the knowledge base from other disciplines and to strive towards a standalone profession that is autonomous and integrated within the social development sector. The dissemination of evidence-based community development practice and community support will continue to shape the foundations of the emerging profession of community development towards professional status.

The need for an integrated and collaborative model of intervention: The findings of the study reveal that there is a lack of collaboration in the community development sector and social service profession, as explained in the narrative extracts:

"...There is no close relationship between CDPs, CDWs and social workers... social workers are not visible in communities...The problem is that we have not worked out on how to work together...The key issue is collaboration with the government departments both COGTA and DSD...."

"...The most important challenge is how we ensure that everybody is involved in working with the communities so that communities take charge of their development.... We are one social service profession..."

"...The sector needs to be united... it is very broad... All the process requires us to have a dialogue and come up with a policy... We are working with one community and one child. We have to find ways of working with each other... As we are beating one another, communities are in flames."

"The CDWs should bring stakeholders together...The CDWs and the CDPs need to complement each other. There is a need for integrated community development...intervention approach of community we need everyone...."

"we need to collaborate and align to a model...Community development is community based... if people have not modelled how service should be given to the people we will continue to have challenges...."

Furthermore, complexity has been stated to be arising from the way the social service professionals sequence their work and service delivery model *"...It is about the model... Complexity is how we deliver service to communities...."*

"...There is some factor of distinction of practice which must be made...You cannot be the referee and the player at the same time...."

"There will be always a room for co-existence. ...The biggest complexity is defining its uniqueness...They are struggling."

These findings show that lack of collaboration and a model for sequencing work among the social service professions is the major stumbling block in the community development sector. These findings indicate the need for dialogue and collaboration to formalize an articulated scope of practice and practice model in practice execution to ensure that everybody is involved in working with communities.

Complexities and progress made towards professionalisation: The findings show that there is some progress and headways which has been made in the professionalisation process as explained:

"The DSD is leading the professionalisation project and coordinates it... We brought on board the SACSSP. The SACSSP falls within the ministry of social development...."

Achievements made include the development of the qualifications as explained:

"We did scoping with SETA. We have developed three qualifications, NQF level 4, 5 and 8...."

The findings show that the professionalisation process of community development adopted the formal professional model of the process of professionalisation. The qualification, and three qualifications, at NQF levels 4, 5, and 8 have been developed, which coincide with the professionalisation process of community development. However, although the recognized qualifications have been developed, universities and FETs have been providing professional education and training programmes at NQF levels 4 and 5. However, there are limited universities accredited to offer NQF level 8. The findings show the need to expand the number and the scope of university, including the professional endorsement of the education and practice of the community development to ensure uniformity in the offerings.

Moreover, professionalisation process complexities are linked to the revision of the Social Service Professions Legislation Act of 1978 led to the development of the inclusive new policy for the social service professions as stated in the narrative extracts,

"We had Social Service Professions Legislation Act of 1978 which only covered social work...This legislation Act of 1978 evolved from social work... We have revised it to ensure that it includes other social service professions...."

"The new Social Service Policy for Practitioners now includes the designation of social work, community development and child and youth care...we are caught between the current policy which was not inclusive and the future inclusive policy...Complexity in this instance is the classical example of working between the now future...."

Although the team-leading professionalisation started without understanding, as indicated in the findings above, revision of this policy to accommodate other designators in social service professions is one of the achievements of the professionalisation process:

"Everything has been approved in principle. Policies have been approved...they will remain in a draft status until the board is established in 2019...."

However, despite these achievements, the findings show that there are some challenges that the professionalisation process of community development that will be face ahead of becoming a profession. This include the complexities associated with the multidisciplinary nature of the field as explained:

"...Funding, policy, partnership and multidisciplinary are the key complexities of professionalisation...."

"The task team has not interrogated the qualifications of the CDPs"

Additionally, the registration of the practitioners on the database has been stated to be the key challenge as explained,

"The reason for the delay was that we could not bring everyone on board... it did not go as planned"

The reasons and uncertainties for registering the practitioners on the database has been explained as follows,

"The registration process conducted by the task team is used to build the case to form professional board... to meet the current requirements of 1978 Act"

"... The question to be raised is will these people who are registered meet the requirements of the professional board...Once the voters' roll has been finalised next it will be the national elections and professional board elections...."

Furthermore, registrations and qualifications requirements are the challenges to be faced by the new professional board in future as revealed in the narrative extract,

"Once community development is professionalised many graduates might not meet the requirements, the university curriculum and qualifications may not meet the requirements... This is going to be the big problem... they forget about the draft Bill that it is in the future...."

The findings reveal that the community development professionalisation process and status of the profession in South Africa is still a work in progress. It is a process for searching for the jurisdiction of practice and control to practice. The findings show that the lack of policy framework and the newly revised inclusive policy contributed to the delays and complexities of the professionalisation of community development and the development of the newly revised policy. The Social Work Legislation Act of 1978, as amended, did not make provisions for other social service professions. This policy was not inclusive of other designators in the community development sector. The development ad the review of this

policy is said to be the achievements of the professionalisation process. These findings show that the approval of the draft policy, registration of the practitioners in the database, and the professional board's development in 2019 are outstanding matters to formalise the profession of community development. Although some progress in the professionalisation process is implemented and done, the study established that there are challenges that the emerging profession will need to address. These include interrogation of the qualifications of practitioners, lack of uniformity, graduates, students training, the university curriculum, qualifications to meet requirements, registration of practitioners in a professional body, and RPL complexities. These challenges reflect the professionalisation process, and professional status is a work in progress in the community development sector. Until the profession is formalised and a well-articulated scope of practice and jurisdiction of the domain of practice is clarified. The challenges will continue to exist. The multidisciplinary complexities will need to be resolved to avoid fragmentation and the silos approach in the community development sector. Community development practice and education would need to be supported by theoretical knowledge, professional authority, community support, entry to the university requirements, professional knowledge, skills, and values for practice, and systematic empirical validation of practice strategies. These challenges will continue to contribute to the low status of the emerging profession.

9.6. Ethical complexities

Theoretical categories generated about ethical complexities and subcategories include Unregulated practice and instilling professionalism, bribes, extortion of money and fraud, dual relationships, nepotism and political conflict of interest, ethical misconduct, and malpractice in supervision. Figure 9.9 illustrates abstract categories of the ethical complexities.

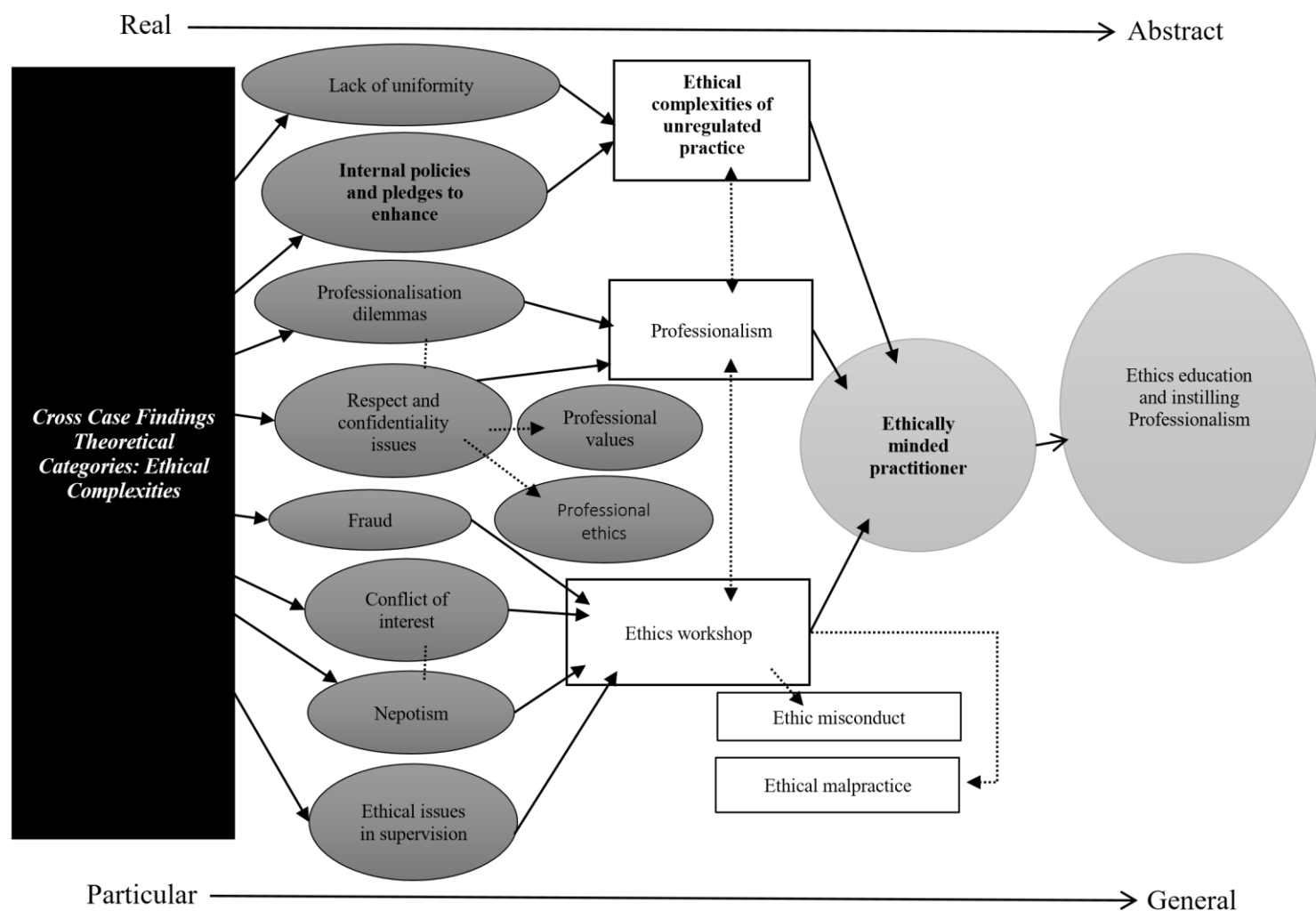


Figure 9.9 Cross case analysis abstract categories: Ethical complexities and Professionalisation

Unregulated practice and instilling Professionalism: The findings show that community development is not regulated, and there are no professional values and codes of ethics that guide practitioners in practice as explained:

“Puzzled by the fact that there was no legislation governing what we do. It is everything goes. values that you hold. We have CDPs toolkit but I do not see the same message on ethics. We use department internal policies such as integrity working with money, departmental protocols...gifts to accept and how much....”

*“...institutions use their own code of ethics that their students subscribe to
“Professionalisation we support... it will instill professionalism we are still grappling with how do we ensure ethically minded practitioners”*

"...However, we have a pledge to enhance professionalism hoping that it will be in their minds."

These findings indicate that the benefits of professionalisation will include fostering the development of professionalism in the community development sector. However, the findings show that community development in South Africa started with practice experience. The professional code of ethics to guide practice will follow later since the professionalisation of community development is a work in progress. The findings indicate the need for a regulatory framework and the code of ethics to provide ethical guidance and ethically minded CDPs and the CDWs. Hence, there is a need to provide the CDWs and the CDPs with the knowledge and tools to address the ethical issues they encounter in community development.

Dual relationships: Dual relationship is a form of conflict of interest which entail a clash between the responsibilities of the professional role and the potential for personal gain (Reamer, 2009). A dual relationship is an unprofessional behavior that involves a violation of boundaries. This may take many forms, including exchanging gifts, social contact, and becoming intimately involved with clients (Banks, 2012, Corey et al., 2011, Reamer, 2009) and colleagues or community members. The findings show that there are ethical issues of multiple or dual relationships and that professionalisation will add value to the community development sector in terms of enforcing values and ethics as described in the narratives:

"... Professionalism will not hurt, e.g.; they are involved in relationships...regulation will not hurt. We do not know if it will lead to good impacts. This is my dilemma that I perceive...."

"...Issues of unprofessional relationships in terms of becoming friends with the people you are serving... When you have to make them to account it becomes difficult to handle...."

The findings show that unprofessional relationships challenges of accountability are the forms of multiple or dual relationships and are examples of boundary violations in the community development sector. Hence effective practice is dependent on a clear delineation of professional boundaries.

Case examples of bribes, extortion of money, and fraud: The findings show that the other form of conflict interest as an ethical challenge in the community development practice include bribes, extortion of money, and fraud as described in the the following narrative extracts:

"We as CDPs we are exposed to bribes and it is easy for us to fall into the traps ... People become greedy... take money. Someone said do you want me to sew a two-piece and even said I did sew it for free for some practitioner's children and families."

"Issues of fraud. There are CDPs who would raise allocations at schools so that they are given something in turn."

"There is a someone who was contracted by service provider who charged the community during profiling and promised them that they will be assisted to get food parcels...."

The findings show the ethical problems that are common in community development practice.. Bribes, fraud, and the extortion of money reflect a clash between the responsibilities of the professional role of the CDPs and the potential for personal gain. In addition, the other type of conflict of interest as an ethical challenge in community development practice is the maladministration of funds and resources in the NGOs as described from the following narratives of the participants:

"... misuse of funds and food donated to the NGO. We need to raise the standards of ethics in the NGOs. ...This is a big challenge...there is no accountability and there is a misuse of funds in NGOs...."

"For example, the National Lottery sometimes tells you your application has been approved even though you have not applied. It is up to you to sign and they will want a portion...."

The findings show that corruption and fraud are common ethical issues in the community development practice as described in the following narrative extractss:

"...Our cadre do not know ethical issues. Issues of accountability...Lack of commitment and time management...."

"...There is need for a workshop that can empower us on ethics since we are trained in different disciplines...."

The findings show that the practitioners are grappling with ethical issues of professional conduct related to accountability, time management, and lack of commitment in their work. The findings suggest a need for ethics education and workshops to instill ethically minded professionals and guide practitioners in making informed ethical judgments. The code of ethics is proposed to guide practitioners to stay clear from conflict of interest that might prevent them from making professional judgments for the public good.

Nepotism and political conflict of interest: One type of conflict of interest pervading in community development practice involves nepotism and political as described in the following narrative extracts :

“Conflict of interest and political interference... We have practitioners who are politically active. They must take that cap out...”

“Some relatives are appointed and later you will discover by someone getting favors that they are relatives...The criteria for belonging to the programme is unfair. It closes opportunity for others...Some open NGOs not to help communities but for self-interest... Some take the same services of NGOs and open a new one...”

The findings show political interference as a form of conflict of interest that arose from assuming more than one or multiple roles, which interferes with the practitioner’s ability to do their work. These findings show a conflict of interest by blending the professional role and the nonprofessional relationship such as the CDWs or the CDPs and the affiliation to the political party. Hence the need to take the cap out in community development practice.

Case examples of ethical misconduct and malpractice in supervision: The findings show ethical issues in the supervision of the community development practitioners includes a lack of respect, unfair treatment, confidentiality issues and disclosure of personal information as described in the following narrative extracts:

“Issues of confidentiality... If you disclose to the supervisor in a few minutes a colleague will be knowing your personal issues. Even before I get to my office already some colleagues will be knowing what you have disclosed to the supervisor. In some situations, an intern will undermine you in communities...We had an incident last week. If you report you will be sabotaged... You will not be allocated work....”

“...Ethical issues for us comes from supervision. I had a medical condition and hospitalised. While still at the hospital...It was a song at the office...” The whole office knew my illness the kind of medication and treatment...the supervisor undermined me... If you fight back... you get into trouble...everyone complains about supervision...they are personal to us....”

“I have been treated badly in my office... I was having a meeting with the interns and a supervisor and a CDP were making noise in the corridor. When I tried to tell them to cut the noise level down, the supervisor said that O se ke wa Mphaphela and Ha ke thaka ya hao (undermining attitudes). I did not answer her. She gave the message to the interns that I am nothing. I feel like I am discriminated and disrespected. They treat you like you are nothing. They are saying what they want whether the clients or colleagues are there she did not care.

I feel unfairly treated...Even us CDPs we do not respect each other...They go behind your back... Stealing of cellphones is a problem."

In addition, to ethical issues in supervision, the findings show ethical issues related to the confidential information collated in community profiling by the CDPs, as stated in the narrative extract:

"Ethical issues in terms of confidentiality... leaving people's things around in the offices or table including profiling reports."

The findings show ethical issues involving supervisors to their colleagues, including lack of respect, confidentiality or disclosure of private information by the supervisor to other colleagues, lack of support, and unfair treatment. The ethical issues that pervade in the professional task in the context of state community development practice must be premised on the principle of social justice and public good (Banks, 2012; Corey et al., 2011,). These findings show the supervisor's professional misconduct and malpractice in the supervision of the CDPs, lack of collegial relationship, injustices in supervision, a lack of promotion of greatest good, and the violation of trust and boundaries by disclosing private matters to other colleagues without due regard of confidentiality. These findings have implications for the development of professionalism in community development practice and the need for instilling ethically-minded supervisors of the professional community development practitioners.

9.7. Cross case summary

The historical context of social welfare and community development and the community development sector's professionalisation informs the study's four cases. In line with the case study design, contexts are the boundaries of an inquiry. This multiple case study illustrates historical tensions, service gaps, the early development stages of community development, and how the professionalisation initiative unfolded. Through political organisations, civil society organisations, such as trade unions, community-based organisations, and non-governmental organisations, are a central part of South African history and the history of community development. The periods in history illustrate social movements' social and politically transformative role in addressing social justice issues and a multidisciplinary community development originating from colonialism and Apartheid South Africa, rather than attributes of a profession. The findings show that community development professionalisation in this country is evolving. Context is an essential element in a case study

design, and it helps to understand the landscape in which the professionalisation of community development happens. In line with constructivist grounded theory, emergent concepts were tied directly and closely to the data gathered, and analyses were made to higher levels of abstraction and conceptual meaning. The abstract categories stemming from community development are portrayed by three main themes: multidisciplinary community development, role confusion and conflict, tensions, and contestations.

The findings revealed that professionalisation in the community development sector started in 2003 and 2004 by introducing a community development workers' program. Professionalisation at DSD started the process of professionalisation of CDPs in 2012. These findings show a lack of collaboration. Other views were raised that professionalisation in the community development sector should not lead to community development elitism. Although the task team has made progress, the process is evolving. The findings indicated that the reasons contributing to the delay and professionalisation process complexities included lack of engagement and broader consultation, turf issues, power struggle issues, professional identity issues, the crisis of status recognition, contestations in the multidisciplinary community development, a lack of unity, the unclear scope of practice, diversity of the stakeholders, overlapping roles and responsibilities in the community development sector. Hence a room for co-existence, collaborative model for community development sector, a dialogue with all the stakeholders, and workshops for all stakeholders involved in the community development sector. Ethical issues of conflict of interest, professional misconduct, and malpractice are raised as the major challenge. The need for instilling professionalism and ethics workshops was recommended for the community development sector.

CHAPTER TEN: MULTIDISCIPLINARY COLLABORATION AT THE COMMUNITY LEVEL: A SUBSTANTIVE THEORY OF DEVELOPMENTAL COMMUNITY-DRIVEN DEVELOPMENT.

10.1. INTRODUCTION

The chapter presents a substantive theory of collaborative multidisciplinary developmental community development grounded in data, drawing on multiple case study designs and data sources. This study used the constructivist grounded theory method of data analysis, including constant comparative analysis and coding. The results revealed that community development professionalisation complexities are linked to the multidisciplinary nature of community development work, and practitioners in this field are working in isolation. Thus there is a lack of a collaborative approach model among various stakeholders at the community level. Community development in South Africa is a multidisciplinary field, and the professionalisation of this occupation was institutionalised through the White Paper for Social Welfare (Department of Social Development, 1997). The substantive theory

developed is grounded in data, drawing on the multiple case study design and constant comparative analysis. This aims to address the identified gap.

Existing models of multidisciplinary collaboration in this country often include common elements and characteristics in education (Treadwell & Havenga, 2013) and forms of Private-Public Partnerships (Davids, 2005; Grossman, 2012) and health programs Waggie & Laattoe, 2014). However, many do not specify the procedures and the contributions required from each partner. Another noticeable gap is the interprofessional collaborative efforts and partnership model in the community development field. As explained by Glaser & Strauss (1967: 32), comparative analysis generates two basic kinds of theory: "substantive" and "formal." The substantive theory developed in this study is grounded in data. In this study, the substantive (empirical) area of inquiry was the silos approach and lack of partnership collaborative model for stakeholders in multidisciplinary community development. In contrast, the formal (conceptual) area of inquiry was multidisciplinary field developmental community development, community participation, stakeholder involvement, and collaboration. With a substantive theory of multidisciplinary collaboration at the community level for developmental community development, six emergent themes became the significant concepts indicated by data and categorized to yield a theory. The nascent themes are related to the purpose of this article. The theory developed consists of six stages that emerged from the study. The stages that arose from data are (1) Negotiating community entry, community mobilisation, and the social contract (2) collaborative household and community profiling. (3) Community dialogue, identification of problems and community priorities, (4) Community-based planning, (5) implementation and collaboration (6) Monitoring and evaluation underpinned by enabling sustainable environment. The underlying multidisciplinary involvement theory posits that collaboration promotes an integrated approach, community participation, respect for the integrity of community development processes and creates the environments for an authentic community-driven process and development planning. Community-driven development is a developmental process of intervention at a community level. Multidisciplinary teams must foster community participation, collaborative, integrative, professional relationships, and developmental interventions at the community level.

10.2. Community collaboration and multidisciplinary partnership in community development

Community development has been defined in numerous ways in the literature (Christenson,

Fendley, & Robinson, 1989; De Beer and Swanepoel, 2013; Hutchison & Nogradi, 1996; United Nations, 1955; Weyers 2011). Despite these diverse meanings, the fundamental element of all community-development initiatives is about people helping people improve their living conditions by addressing common interests. Pedlar (1996) points out that community development is about a change process that others might facilitate but is self-determined by the community. Pedlar (1996, p. 13) further argues that "community development in its purest form incorporates flexibility, negotiation of social interests, redefinition of power relations, and a realisation that the process is in itself valuable." About the process, community development is centrally concerned with education, teaching, and facilitating the part of the community development worker, learning and doing for oneself on the part of the individual or community. Thus, the concern is with assisting individuals and groups to initiate a process of helping themselves. The current scourge of social problems in South Africa, such as poverty, health, unemployment, alcohol abuse, and many others, cannot be solved by one profession. The notion of community development as a process is closely aligned with capacity building. It suggests building on the strengths of a community and developing the skills, knowledge, and leadership in a manner where people, groups, community-based organisations are capable of identifying assets, strengths, solving community problems, and ensuring socio-economic rights (Frank & Smith, 1999; Goodman, Speers, McLeroy, Fawcett, Kegler, Parker, Kirk & Shutte, 2004; Simpson, Wood, Daws, 2003). These demand new levels of thinking, practice intervention, and community development collaborative models to avoid fragmentation in community development. The central tenet of the community-development approach is community collaboration, participation, and the involvement of all citizens in community matters.

There has been considerable interest and in-depth exploration of normative process models on applying a community-development approach in the South African literature (De Beer & Swanepoel; De Beer, 2013; Schenck, Nel, & Louw, 2010; Weyers, 2011). Although there has been much written about community development approaches, there is an overabundance of research that examined multidisciplinary collaboration and conceptual frameworks for multidisciplinary collaboration of stakeholders in community development. This study's findings showed that community development is multidisciplinary and that there is a need for multidisciplinary collaboration for stakeholders in community development. The study's findings established that multidisciplinary collaboration for collective action in community development is hindered by lack of coordination, working in isolation, lack of teamwork, and professional relationships. The complex interplay of these challenges

threatens the viability of community development and the opportunity to enhance the quality of life at a community level, which is often the driving force for community development activities. Participants expressed the need for a multidisciplinary collaboration theoretical framework for community development empirically grounded in practical intervention. International research studies have extensively examined collaboration and partnership initiatives in community development (Eversole, 2015; James, 1999; Thibault & Harvey, 1997). Scholars on partnerships do not appear to have reached a consensus on using one term to discuss partnering, and many terms are used interchangeably. Whatever the terminology used to encompass linkages, alliances, or collaboration (Eversole, 2015), scholars emphasise knowing how to develop, manage and evaluate successful partnerships (James, 1999; Thibault & Harvey, 1997). While partnering has been defined in many ways in the literature and research studies, there is no consensus on using this term, and many terms are used interchangeably. In this study, the partnership will be used to describe "an ongoing arrangement between two or more parties, based on satisfying specifically identified mutual needs" (Uhlir, 1995, p. 14). This definition implies that needs are identifiable by partners and capable of being understood for the benefit of the community. This research contributes to knowledge by linking multidisciplinary collaboration partners' conceptual framework of community development to address the complexities of socioeconomic challenges in communities that often overlook a fundamental principle of community participation and multidisciplinary collaboration in community development.

10.3. SUBSTANTIVE THEORY

10.3.1. Community collaboration and multidisciplinary partnership for community development

The developmental approach to community development and intervention is an integrated process of development that is community-centered in collaboration with various multidisciplinary stakeholders. The underlying theory posits that community engagement, participation, and collaboration increase authentic community-driven development planning intervention programs and the desired results of planned change. It creates a necessary and sufficient condition for the bottom-up community development process as contemplated in a developmental state anchored on a participatory and community-driven paradigm. The top-down initiatives that ignore community needs have not succeeded in sustaining community development participation. In addition, participants have lamented the lack of

respect for the integrity and authenticity of community ownership of the development processes and collaboration among stakeholders. The bottom-up approach to community development represents a people-centered and participatory approach to social and economic change. Communities are treated as citizens and leaders in capacity building for community development of projects and programs that address social, economic, and community concerns. Multidisciplinary involvement, therefore, is a critical element of integrated community development collaboration. The findings show a lack of engagement, uncoordinated efforts, fragmentation, duplication of service, isolation, lack of collaboration, lack of clear scope of practice, and the need for a stakeholder model to enhance community-driven development to promote authentic community development process and practice.

The contribution to knowledge in this study is informed by, and derived from, these findings. The substantive theory of multidisciplinary collaborative community-driven development is the knowledge contribution of this study. The theory developed consists of six stages that emerged from the study. The stages that emerged from data are (1) Negotiating community entry, community mobilisation, and the social contract: (2) Collaborative household and community profiling: (3) Community dialogue, identification of problems and community priorities: (4) Community based planning: (5) Implementation and collaboration: and (6) Monitoring and evaluation underpinned by an enabling sustainable environment. For each stage, theoretical codes were used to identify, compare, contrast, and collapse their generation, employing constructivist grounded theory iterative process. These overarching stages represent themes that speak to data collected. These six stages of the community may coexist and as illustrated in figure 10.1. below.

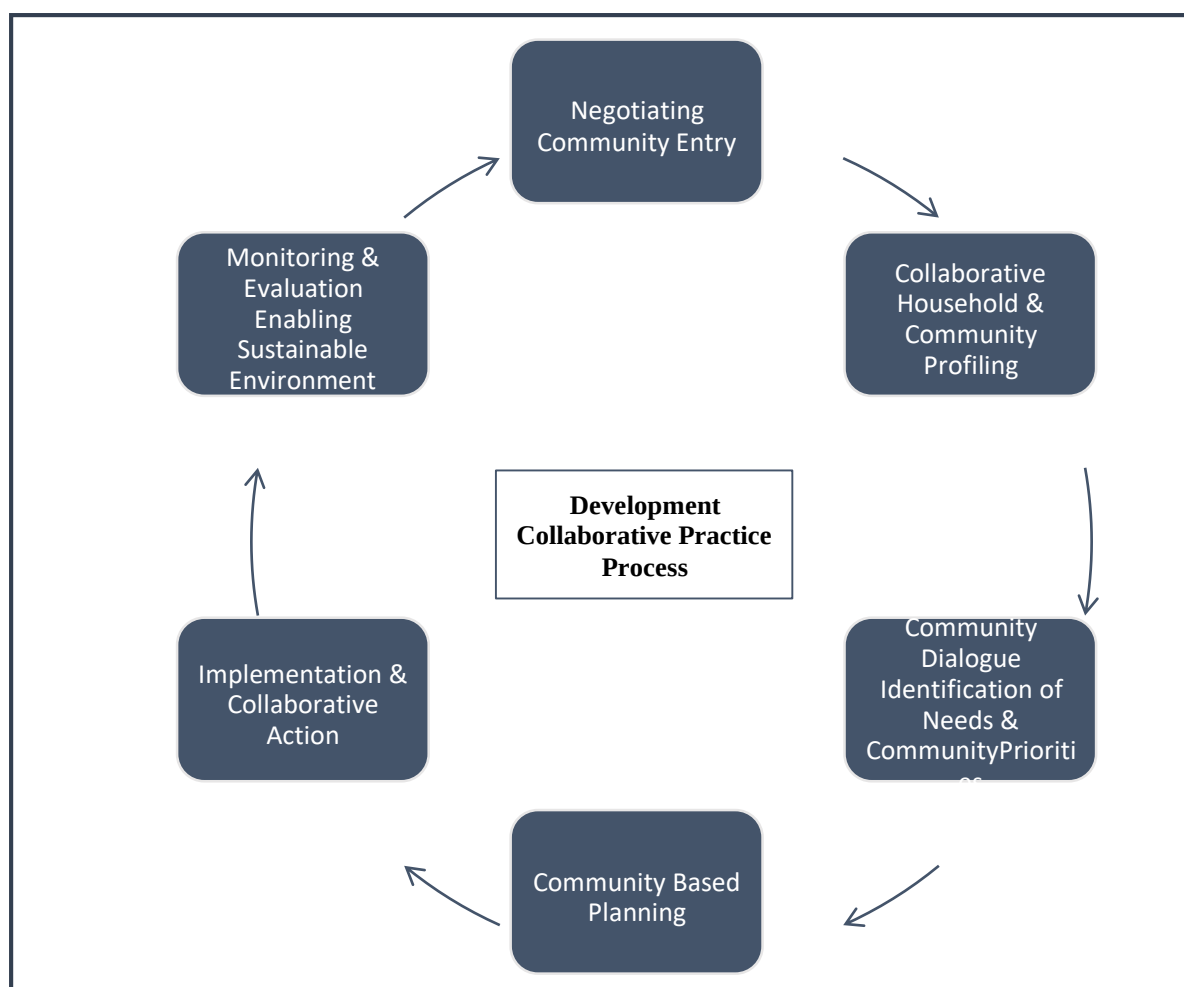


Figure 10. 1: Substantive theory

10.3.1.1. Stage one: Negotiating community entry, community mobilisation, and the social contract

At the initial stage, the stakeholders from the community development sector, including government, private sector, and social service professions, enter the community to negotiate entry with the gatekeepers, which include the catalysts in communities, local councilors, ward-based community development practitioners, and leaders of the community.

Collaborative leadership in communities varies depending on whether the area is rural, citybased, or a township. Leadership in this instance is both formal and informal. The (CDW) from within the community, as a catalyst, plays a pivotal role in taking the first step needed to mobilise community members, introduce stakeholders, create interest, linkages, and support, and identify appropriate community partners and initiating action. The CDWs are well connected, recognised, and known in the community. Encouraging community participation and stakeholders from various stakeholders is imperative to promote discussions among community members and commitment to action for community

development. Community collaboration and community participation are essential at this stage. At this stage, members of the community are also engaged, identified, and brought together to find common ground.

10.3.1.2. Stage two: Collaborative household and community profiling

The second step includes conducting a needs assessment, including resources available in communities, identifying everyday needs and potential partners for collaboration. To avoid duplication emanating from different stakeholders profiling the same community many times, stakeholders need to collaborate, plan and conduct joint profiling. For example, an array of socio-economic issues emanating from the study includes unemployment, crime, alcohol and drug abuse, and youth unemployment. At this stage, a partnership proposal can be developed to articulate the purpose, objectives, and intended outcomes of proposed interventions. CDWs linking stakeholders from the ward play an essential role in enabling a collaborative planning process. The role of the CDWs cannot be underestimated. They are needed to facilitate the identification of suitable community partners and to initiate action in the community. They are enablers in communities in promoting discussions among community members and generating interest. Partnerships and collaborations add to the complexity of the community development process, including governance structures that must be clearly articulated and well-defined roles and accountability parameters. The benefits, challenges, expertise, and resources to be shared and the protocols for ethical practice need to be discussed and agreed on at this stage.

10.3.1.3. Stage three: Community dialogue, identification of problems, and community priorities

At this stage, community collaboration is essential, including the catalytic role of the wardbased CDW. Community members are identified and brought together to find common ground through social dialogue on matters that affect the community. Community collaboration is described inclusively to include all the representatives from individuals, groups, professionals, organisations, and institutions at the community level. For example, this might include street committees, religious organisations, educational institutions, youth clubs, sports clubs, schools, social service institutions, and others. The key stakeholders and role players are brought together around the negotiation table of the community social dialogue. The needs, strengths, assets, skills, and indigenous knowledge are identified and prioritised through community dialogue and collaboration.

10.3.1.4. Stage four: Community based planning

Community action groups are formed to develop an action plan from the identified needs and priorities. The informal and formal leadership roles are clarified, and appropriate stakeholders are identified in individuals and community-based groups, organisations, and institutions. Community-based planning is a bottom-up approach to planning development intervention and collective action plans for the community development process. This bottom-up approach emphasises self-directed community empowerment, and people are treated as citizens rather than recipients of services. This approach upholds the integrity of community development to achieve an authentic community development process based on the needs identified by the community. Citizenship and collaborative, participatory approach is recognised, in contrast to the top-down basket approach to service delivery. Plans are also made for stakeholders in terms of their roles and responsibilities. Before putting plans, roles, responsibilities into action, the scope of practice of the partners needs to be clarified to define who does what. Clarity of scope will be helpful to avoid tensions, turf issues, and professional identity challenges. Decisions about the action plan need to consider resource requirements, method, process, and the planned change's tangible outcome. At this stage, the partnership agreements are formed and managed.

10.3.1.5. Stage five: Implementation and collaborative action

This stage is about working together and putting plans into action. Here, resource requirements and allocations happen, activities are specified, the implementation method, including the desired outcomes of the action plans, are signed off. In working together, the appropriate stakeholders, relevant members of the community, and the critical role players put plans into action. Initiating action plans are prioritised, establishing a memorandum of understanding, which includes roles and responsibilities agreed upon. At this stage, the partnership relationship with communities is defined in terms of what they share or offer. Accountability issues for organisations are discussed, including what they can share in the form of resources. The scope of practice for social service professionals has to be clarified to avoid duplication of services and enhance working relationships when working together. It is imperative at this stage that the professional scope of practice for CDWs, social workers, and CDPs are clearly defined and well-articulated, and the scope and role of CDWs as a catalyst is well-developed and embraced. These also require community members' involvement and active participation in implementing community development initiatives on matters that affect them.

10.3.1.6. Stage six: Monitoring and evaluation - enabling a sustainable environment

Community development is based on the premise that social change is a process, and community sustainability can be enhanced gradually in a self-reliant action-oriented way. The social benefits of community collaboration include trust-building, community empowerment, a sense of shared purpose among community members as citizens, and collective action in promoting the community's standard of living. The monitoring and evaluation should be embedded within the principle of the bottom-up approach, based on respect, equality, and inclusivity of a collaborative process and mutual responsibility for creating, planning, executing and evaluating the planned collective action and change. In this instance, monitoring and evaluation tools and a framework must be developed and integrated within the implementation action plan to ensure that challenges are identified earlier and remedial action instituted timeously to address them. This stage is about foolproofing the action plan to enhance its prospects of success.

10.4. Conclusion

The study has drawn attention to some critical dynamics of multidisciplinary complexities of community development. It has generated a substantive theory of multidisciplinary stakeholder's collaboration stakeholder that focuses not on the normative process of community development but instead on collaboration explicated by the theory. This study goes beyond the ambit of professionalisation of community development to provide a theory of collaborative community development in a multidisciplinary field for collective action and change. The findings of the study, as encapsulated in the theory of collaborative multidisciplinary paradigm, advocate for community and stakeholders' collaborative efforts, which have the potential for building trust, enhanced professional relationship, empowerment of people in communities, a sense of shared purpose, and collective action in promoting the standard of living of people in communities.

CHAPTER ELEVEN: MAIN FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AMGD RECOMMENDATIONS

11.1. Introduction

In this chapter, informed by constructivist grounded theory data analysis, the researcher presents an overview of the major findings and conclusions emerging from the study. The study aimed to explain the phenomenon of the complexities of professionalisation and the ethics of community development. The thesis is underscored by understanding the opportunities, challenges, tensions, and complexities associated with professionalising community development as an emerging profession and how practitioners understand these challenges in terms of professionalisation. It is vitally important to understand the ethical challenges confronting practitioners and how they deal with them within community development practice. Case study design underpinned the study within-case analysis, and cross-case analysis was undertaken in line with multiple case study designs. Results from in-depth interviews and documentary analysis inform the multiple case study undertaken on the phenomenon under study. Data were analysed using Charmaz's (2014) constructivist grounded theory data analysis, a constant comparative process. The abstract categories that frequently appeared logically and consistently in the data were developed into theoretical categories. The abstract categories thus developed embodied the foundation of the theory developed in Chapter ten, representing the study's original contribution.

Theoretical categories developed from data inform the discussion in this chapter.

11.2. MAIN FINDINGS

The summary of the main findings is presented according to the objectives that the study sought to address.

11.2.1. Views, challenges, tensions, and complexities in professionalisation of community development work in South Africa.

The findings showed complexities of the contextual nature of community development rooted in the social and political transformation agenda and the dilemmas of professionalisation that distinguish the professional from the non-professional practice of community development.

The study established that community development after 1994 in South Africa has been transformed into public service. Government is the employer of CDPs and CDWs. The provincial and national government heads the professionalisation agenda of community development in the DSD and CDWs employed by local government at the municipality level. Participants in the study stated that the government committed a structural mistake regarding the location of CDPs across government structures. Questions were raised about what CDPs were doing at the provincial and national offices. There was a view that they should be in the communities promoting development. These dynamics shape the context of community development practice and what practitioners must undertake. For example, the study's findings show that government determines how practitioners engage in the communities, provides resources, and sets targets that practitioners must fulfill in community profiling. These findings show that practitioners are restricted and trapped in service delivery defined and pre-determined by the government, primarily framed around targets. Hence the findings revealed a lack of authentic community development, and communities are reduced to service recipients rather than active citizens. Citizenship has been referred to in this study as a social contract between the governed and the governors. These findings question the legitimacy of the professional practice of community development.

Lack of recognition and status: The findings revealed the lack of recognition of community development practice. Hence, the quest for professionalisation was supported to enhance aspirations and promote the status of the developing profession of community development. Participants indicated that community development's professionalisation would help them

be recognised by other social service professions and the community level. It was revealed that community members perceive the practitioners as government officials or civil servants and often confuse them for social workers. The study's findings also show that other professions do not perceive them as part of the core profession in the social welfare sector, and this lack of recognition and status undermined their confidence. These findings thus call for explicit recognition of a status lens to professionalisation. Furthermore, the findings show that participants perceive the benefits of professionalisation to be associated with salary increase in terms of socio-economic well-being and opportunities for inclusion into the professional statutory body that will allow the practitioners access to conduct practice.

Need for registration with the professional body: The study findings shows participant views on the process of professionalisation and yielded several insights and potential benefits of professionalisation. Firstly, licensing and registration were seen as the best possible option to offer practitioners the opportunity to register with the professional body and be recognised as professionals. Secondly, practitioners will be protected from communities and assure the public that they conform to the highest standards as qualified professionals. Thirdly, they will be recognised by other social service professions. Fourthly, it will enhance uniformity in terms of the standards of education and practice. Lastly, registration with the professional board will open up opportunities for practitioners to establish a private practice. Hence the findings showed the need to register with the professional body.

Lack of engagement and broader consultative process: The findings yielded some concerns about community development professionalisation and consultation process of the practitioners in the broader community development sector. Participants stated that the process was not consultative and failed to include many stakeholders and practitioners. Firstly, the study findings showed that participants were not invited to professionalisation meetings even though they have been working for the DSD for many years and only discovered after many years that it was happening. Secondly, participants in the NGOs indicated that they were not aware of the professionalisation process. Thirdly, the findings indicated that some universities were only invited to some meetings after the task team discovered that they would need universities to train the practitioners. The reasons given were that the professionalisation task team was running the process by trial and error. This was confirmed by the participants stating that when they started the process, they did not know what it would entail. Fourthly, participants indicated that they only became involved in

the process long after it had started. In many meetings they attended, they would be given the same information repeatedly. Lastly, participants indicated that the process of professionalisation of the CDPs started only in 2012. In later years, when they consulted the CDWs at the local government about their professionalisation, they discovered that the CDWs were also professionalising. The study's findings show that the professionalisation of community development workers started in 2004 by introducing CDWP at the local government level. The study's findings further show a lack of engagement, communication, collaboration, and an ineffective broader consultative process.

Professionalisation dilemma and community development elitism: The study unveiled concerns about the qualifications-based professionalisation model, which does not sit well with the nature and practice of community development. The key issue raised was the fundamental dilemma of transforming the practice into an elitist cycle or community development elitism resulting from the professional model. There were fears about making community development a professional and exclusionary practice. Secondly, there were concerns about the narrowing effect of creating unequal status, power issues, and exclusion of semi-professionals or voluntary organisations from community development practice. Thirdly, the professional model was said to have the potential of promoting a top-down approach as opposed to a bottom-up approach to the community development nature of the practice. Fourthly, the top-down approach was deemed to have the potential for imposition about who should decide on the process of change and how change should happen in community development. At the same time, several participants indicated that the main purpose of professionalising community development is to attain inclusion and exclusion by clearly stating community development professional competencies. Thus, only professionals will be seen as experts, with knowledge and skills seen solely as exclusive domain and only limited to the developing profession of community development. These findings suggest that professionalisation in formalised education, professional standards, and exclusive expertise does not resonate well with the transformative practice of community development. It creates the fundamental dilemma of community development elitism and transformative practice.

Dual registration tension: The participants also expressed concern about several potentially harmful effects of professionalising community development. There was consensus that the exclusionary narrowing effect could occur through registration and certification for social work managers in a community development unit; hence, the need for dual membership and registration with two professional bodies, i.e., both social work profession, and community development. Participants suggested that the

professionalisation task team consider that managers in the community development unit are social workers. Therefore, social work managers cannot afford to lose their experience or qualifications. Hence there is a need for clarity on dual registration and how social work managers will be affected by professionalisation. Participants highlighted that it is essential that the process offer multiple avenues as the profession evolves.

Unclear scope of practice: The findings showed that the unclear scope of practice creates tension and complexity for professionalisation in the shape of role conflict, role confusion, and duplication of services. For example, the study established that both CDPs and CDWs work in municipalities at the same wards and conduct community profiling, essentially doing the same thing. Data findings indicate that lack of coordinated efforts, the absence of professional working relationships, isolation, and collaboration contribute to tension and role conflict due to lack of scope of practice.

Moreover, the findings revealed that social workers practice a mixture of community work and community development, fueled disagreement and tensions related to the scope of practice. The data findings indicate that the scope of practice for social work is community work. Social workers, who are not in favor of community development practice in social work, saw duality as problematic. Social workers practicing community development indicated that if community development is taken away from social work, professionalisation will create divorce, fragmentation, and breakaway of the profession from practicing community development. For the latter group, this will mean that the social work profession will not be relevant and appropriate in a developing country like South Africa. Participants raised concerns that practicing social work without community development will implement the 'first world' model in a developing country. Community development in social work was seen as relevant in addressing social justice issues in communities rather than community work. The study findings indicate that the dual practice of social work was perceived to be a historical problem that remains unresolved. These findings point to the complexities of the professionalisation tension relating to the scope of practice and multidisciplinary practice of community development.

Multidisciplinary complexities and jurisdiction contestations and tensions: The study's findings revealed some concerns about the unintended consequences of professionalisation of the multidisciplinary field of community development and restrictions against other professions entering the field. The study established that working across professional boundaries poses a challenge in determining the scope of practice, resulting in complexities related to professional identity, tensions, contestations, and turf issues.

Participants highlighted that these complexities are compounded by different factors, including the duplication of service, the unclear scope of practice, thus needlessly implementing similar activities in communities working with the same people. The study established that the multidisciplinary community development practice evolved from the history of community development in South Africa in addressing social justice and human rights issues against the apartheid government and racial discrimination. This history explains why community development is rooted in multidisciplinary fields. The practitioners in this field come from an array of different professions with different work experiences. The multiple actors in the community development workforce include community development practitioners employed by the DSD, CDWs employed in local government's municipalities who are ward-based, community-based paraprofessionals or volunteers, community development workers from non-governmental organisations, and social work professionals with different roles, functions, competencies, and skills working in the community development sector. The study established that the challenges in the community deployment sector are compounded by lack of consultation and engagement, poor coordination, duplication of efforts, fragmentation, lack of teamwork, poor communication, lack of professional relationships, and lack of collaboration. The study suggested that some distinction factors must be made to understand 'who brings what' to the community and that a clear model for community development practice will help in sequencing work when various disciplines are working together. In the words of one participant, "one cannot be the referee and the player at the same time... you get complexities when people do not define their scope in line with what they are trained for".

There is a lot that needs to be unbundled. The study established that the professional board will have to deal with that once community development is professionalised. While professionals and paraprofessionals protect their turf and professional identities, "communities are in flames," in the words of one participant. These findings suggest a clear identity lens to professionalisation. Additionally, participants highlighted many service gaps in communities, such as unemployment, poverty, and other social issues in communities. How professionals deliver service on the ground should be the priority. The findings on documentary analysis revealed a gap in the literature of professionalisation. No literature was found on the jurisdiction of a domain of practice on professionalisation in community development. Friedson (2001) identified the ability to organise a judicial discourse over practice execution as a feature of professions. The study established that this is one area that is the problem now with the professionalisation of community development. There is a

need for an integrated service delivery model in communities and judicial discourse over practice execution.

Inclusion and exclusion tensions: The study shows that the complex relationship between inclusion and exclusion should be considered in the professionalisation activity of community development. Professionalisation activity and its potential for exclusion of others are seen as a central problem. The study established that the majority of the practitioners and paraprofessionals do not have relevant qualifications in community development, and others lack matric certificates. The participants highlighted this as a palpable tension in that they stand the risk of being excluded. In order to manage the implications related to the inclusiveness and exclusiveness tension of professionalisation and challenges of qualifications requirements, the CDWs have no choice but to adopt the informal model of professionalisation. It is also known as the occupational model of professionalisation. Participants highlighted that the occupational model of professionalisation would yield potential benefits for CDWs. Overall, the practitioners want to retain their professional identity, and the majority of them do not have educational qualifications. These findings show that the core professionalisation activity is viewed as foregrounding collective identity and that inclusion matters profoundly. These findings were validated by the skills audit report, which indicated that a section of practitioners does not have qualifications, and many of them come from multidisciplinary fields. Here, inclusion becomes the goal to ensure justice and recognition of prior learning in the construction of the emerging profession.

Additionally, the study established that inclusivity and exclusivity are an oversight on the task team heading professionalisation. The participants highlighted that the task team failed to interrogate different qualifications and graduate-level status of the practitioners. Participants in the study stated that this presented complexities because most of the practitioners registered on the database do not meet the requirements to sit on the professional board as stipulated by the Social Service Professions Act, 1978 (Act 110 of 1978) the professional board. Hence to qualify to be a member of the professional board, working as a CDPs is not considered. Practitioners will be required to have relevant qualifications. These findings point to the professionalisation tensions and complexities, including barriers to entry to the profession and barriers to fuller integration of practitioners without qualifications. The findings suggest that the professionalisation task team needs to consider the inclusion and exclusion of practitioners to ensure that the boundaries and entry into the profession are permeable. The study's findings on inclusion and exclusion point to contestations related to

jurisdiction, protecting the profession 's identity, inclusion, and exclusionary into an entry to the profession.

The branching out to other professions: The study's findings have shown that the majority of the practitioners are moving out of the community development field to other professions. The study has established that practitioners study psychology, teaching, social work, and other professions as an exit plan to branch out to other professions. Participants highlighted the following reasons for branching out: lack of recognition of the qualifications for practitioners who already have honours qualifications and those relevant qualifications in community development; lack of ladder of promotions; low salary scale level six; and salary disparity as compared to professions like social work. The study established that lack of recognition of the profession led to a feeling of demotivation, dissatisfaction, lack of interest in the community development field, and that the government has failed them by employing them without a clear purpose. The study has established that the majority of the practitioners are branching out to the social work profession because social workers are senior managers of the community development unit, and social work is recognised as the core profession in social welfare. As a result, many practitioners are studying social work because they want to see themselves as managers in the community development unit.

Lack of uniformity in educational standards and practice

The findings revealed a lack of uniformity in standards of education and the fieldwork of community development. The study established that different universities teach curriculum standards of education in different things in preparing the students. Participants highlighted this as a dumping zone and that some universities are not offering a practicum component in their programs. There is a lack of uniformity, with a limited number of universities accredited to offer a four-year degree. The data further show that there is no recognized legal framework for community development. Institutions and organisations rely on internal policies and codes of ethics from other professions such as social work as a guideline for practice, resulting in a lack of uniformity in terms of the standards of education and practice. These findings highlight complexities related to the lack of a regulatory framework for community development practice, professional legitimacy, and the prestige of the emerging profession.

Furthermore, the study reveals that the norms and standards of education at NQF Levels 5, 7, and 8 are significant achievements of the professionalisation process. However, many universities offer only a three-year degree as opposed to a four-year degree in community

development. These findings suggest that lack of uniformity in educational standards contributes to the low status of the emerging profession of community development.

Low professional status and stereotypes: The study shows that practitioners have attracted nicknames or stereotypes given by community members or other professions due to lack of recognition and low status. Names given and the stereotypes reveal the low professional status and standing of community development in communities. Some of these stereotypes are identified as follows:

- "...We are called Mickey Mouse, Takalani Sesame (pre-school children educational programme), social work cousins, social work step children" by other professionals in the field.
- People think when you are a CDP, you do not have qualifications, or you have different qualifications, so we are Mixed Masala (mixed cooking curry). Nobody knows us. Some say supporting staff, admin clerks, and people assume that when you are from DSD, we are social workers."
- "We have one that is painful they call us Z83, it is the government application form for employment. They mock us a lot... " We are called mixed salads, poitjie Koos (Afrikaans term meaning stew) approach for example, if bust pipes occur in a community. We advise where the community needs assistance; also, if there are protests, repossession of houses by banks, refer for legal assistance. We integrate all the stakeholders. That is what we are doing. We do profiling.
- Nobody knows us. Some say supporting staff, admin clerks, and people assume that when you are from DSD, you are social workers."
- "Re bo Maphanda (we are go-getters and survivalists), we are hasslers. The CDP s are privileged professionals, they come with services. They only bring services and tell us about the budget they have."

These are ways in which people in communities and other professions stereotype the CDPs and CDWs and their functions in different communities. Hence the need for uniformity in the standards of education and practice, that will enable the CDPs and CDWs to be accredited with the qualification that will enable them to apply specialised knowledge in practical matters.

11.2.2. Complexities and the delayed process of professionalisation of community development work in South Africa.

- **Delayed process of professionalisation**

The study shows that the process of professionalisation has been moving very slowly. Professionalisation of community development was institutionalised by the White Paper on Social Welfare 1997. Within the sector of community development, professionalisation started first in 2004 during President Thabo Mbeki's tenure. This was the time the sector was debating and talking about the need for professionalisation. The CDWP was then introduced in 2004 when community development workers were introduced in government as the new cadres of government officials. Their function was to identify gaps in communities and liaise with the government and communities to promote service delivery. In 2009 the DSD introduced community development and employed a cohort of social workers who called themselves community development practitioners. It was then that professionalisation of community development started at the Department of Social Development. This explains why many stakeholders are not aware of how professionalisation of community development came about.

The professionalisation project of community development is coordinated by the Department of Social Development at the national level. During the study, the central question that came out was this: when will professionalisation happen, and why is the process delayed? The findings also revealed that the process is not yet complete, and plans are underway to complete professionalisation by 2021 when the current SACSSP board ends its tenure. The 2021 target is mainly because the previous SACSSP was responsible for the delayed process of professionalisation. The current SACSSP is viewed as supportive.

The plans are targeted so that when the current SACSSP board ends, the process of professionalisation must be finalized. The reasons for the delays are stated as follows:

- Limitations of the Social Service Professions Act, 1978 (Act 110 of 1978), which only accommodated one social work profession and excluded other designators;
- Lack of consultation and engagement of the stakeholders in the sector;
- Lack of support from the previous board of the SACSSP before 2015 and power struggle and protection of "turf";
- We reviewed the process of the current policy and the future inclusive policy to recognise other social service professions. Professionalisation of community development followed legislation Act of 1978 of social work and associated professions. This Act did not accommodate other professions. Professionalisation was delayed by reviewing this Legislative Framework to include ECD, community

development, and other social service professions. The review took two years. It implies that the Steering Committee lost two years of the professionalisation process.

- New policies such as the Draft Bill ensure that regulations meet the requirements.
- Time constraints linked to parliamentary hearings and the national elections of 2019 and were associated with the shortest cabinet year. It is anticipated that the draft policies submitted will only reach the cabinet in the coming two years. Until then, the process of professionalisation will not be finalised.
- Registration challenges of practitioners in the database.

11.2.3. Ethical challenges, issues, and complexities in community development practice and how they are resolved

The findings on ethical complexities addressed ethical issues and challenges of professionalism, including principles such as professional accountability, respect, dignity, and confidentiality that prevented professional identity formation, the image of the professional, and uncertain professional status.

- **Lack of professional code of ethics**

The four cases showed that the absence of a code of ethics is a weakness in awareness and enhancing professionalism and was challenging for enhancing professionalism. It weakened the professional identity. This absence resulted in stakeholders resorting to departmental internal rules and procedures to deal with unprofessional behavior. The participants across the four cases indicated a lack of professional norms, which produced challenges such as a lack of professionalism as a professional obligation and the lack of respect in interpersonal and inter-professional conduct. These gaps in norms and values in inter-personal and inter-professional included five theoretical categories:

- **Nepotism and political conflict of interest**

The study reveals a conflict of interest related to political activism. Participants stated that this often happens with the actively involved practitioners in political organizations and are motivated by inspiration to assume leadership positions as councilors in their municipalities. For example, political or conflict of interest was also revealed when it was stated that some practitioners go to work wearing a T-shirt or regalia of their political party. In addition, nepotism was another form of conflict of interest, which included unfair employment of relatives, discrimination, and unfair treatment based on language and ethnic group. Overall,

the findings revealed that professionalism would help engender ethically-minded practitioners.

- **Bribery, extortion, corruption, and fraudulent behavior**

The findings revealed ethical issues such as bribery and extortion, which include asking for money, receiving gifts in the form of money for assisting service providers to speed up the applications for NPOs, asking service providers for food, and making demands that their hunger is addressed. *For example, the practitioner will say, "... if it were not me, you would not be having NPOs, so give me this and that...then the NPO manager phoned the office reported back to us about the incident. If you want quick service, you need to pay ten rands.* In addition, the findings reveal that the practitioners are exposed to this situation, and it becomes easy for them to accept the bribes as revealed from the findings of the study *"...it is easy for us to fall into the traps of bribes...people become greedy...Someone said do you want me to sew a two-piece. I did sew it for free for so and so child and families"* The ethical issues of fraud and corruption also happened when practitioners raised more allocations to schools in exchange for payments. These findings point to conflicts of interest and challenges of virtue ethics.

- **Dual relationships**

The findings showed unprofessional relationships, developing personal relationships instead of having a memorandum of understanding with other professionals and community members instead of professional relationships. These are revealed from the participant's narrative extract *"...Issues of unprofessional relationship in terms of becoming friends with the people you are serving... When you have to make them to account it becomes difficult to handle..."*. These findings show dual ethical issues of misconduct and malpractice.

- **Lack of accountability and confidentiality issues in supervision**

The study has revealed a lack of time management and commitment. Participants indicated that practitioners drag their feet when they have to go to communities. The ethical issues in supervision included unprofessional behavior of the supervisors disclosing private and confidential information to colleagues, lack of respect, discrimination, unfair treatment, gossiping in corridors, and lack of trust and crime related to stealing phones from each other. Other forms of ethical misconduct mentioned included alcohol consumption at work, lack of accountability, and work ethic. These findings reveal ethical misconduct, professional misconduct, and lack of accountability and role models in supervision or ethical leadership in the community development sector.

11.2.4. Community development practice theory

The contribution of this study to the existing body of knowledge is theorized inductively from data by using Charmaz's (2014) constructivist grounded theory data analysis and constant iterative process as sketched in the previous chapters. Findings from the cross-case analysis of data herein are the focal point and central to the contribution of knowledge in this study. Given the current contextual nature of the multidisciplinary field and broader community development sector, the study revealed tensions, contestations, and 'turf' issues leading to fragmentation in delivering services to communities and community development initiatives. It is evident from complexities connected to the lack of a broader consultative and engagement process of professionalisation, communication barriers, lack of coordinated efforts, lack of collaboration and working in silos, absence of professional relationships, role conflict, duplication of service, multidisciplinary complexities, regulation, and registration. Participants raised potential disadvantages of professionalisation and indicated that it would lead to further divorce, fragmentation, and breakaway professions. These complexities are compounded by the field's multidisciplinary nature, the unclear scope of practice, professional identity issues, and lack of practice models for stakeholders in community development. Hence the findings showed a need for some factors of distinction that must be made in practice and the need for cooperation, collaboration, and co-existence across the community development sector to promote authentic community development while respecting the integrity of the process. These findings show complexities of professional legitimacy of community development work and jurisdiction over the execution of practice and the need for an integrated collaborative model for all stakeholders in community development following constructivist grounded theory data analysis and constant comparative process. The main categories were compared to explore how different contexts and processes varied across cases. Theoretical categories from the within-case analysis were identified and compared across the cases to distill common theoretical categories. The

theoretical categories that emerged include professional practice linked to state involvement, regulation and registration, uncertain professional status, synergy, coexistence, working in silos or isolation, lack of coordination and collaboration, need for collaboration model of practice for execution of practice, synergy, community development, integrated approach, professional identity, turf issues, tensions, role confusion and conflict, multidisciplinary complexities, social welfare, history of community development, social development, social justice, legitimacy of community development field, scope of practice and jurisdiction of practice, integrity of community development process and whose interests are prioritized in community development, authentic community development, disconnect of community development from its reformist roots, community development ideologies, social and political community development, duplication of community proofing, community development elitism, instilling professionalism, ethical issues of misconduct and ethical malpractice, the need for virtue ethics in community development and ethical decision making framework for making ethical judgements.

After allowing data to speak for itself during the comparative data analysis process, the findings pointed to the need for a collaborative model of practice for community development. Although this model is developed in this study, other articles for publication will be generated emanating from this study. The researcher developed a substantive theory for the practice of community development for stakeholders in the social service profession and community development sector. Collaborative community development is the substantive theory developed by the researcher based on the study's findings, aimed at contributing to the systematic empirical validation of practice strategies for the execution of authentic community development practice. The theory developed in the study was discussed in Chapter ten of this study.

11.3. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Practitioners view the most significant potential benefits of professionalisation as registration with the professional body, protection from communities and other professions, recognition for the field, public trust, recognition of qualifications, clear professional identity, and status. These sentiments were stronger about the attractiveness of professionalisation of community development than was observed in previous desktop work (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2012); skepticism about co-option by the government (Hart, 2012) and normative process of professionalisation process (Maistry, 2012). Until early 2012 relatively little literature on the professionalisation of community development existed. A scholarly

tradition is beginning to develop in this area, and much remains to be written. It raises a new challenge for community development practice and has implications for the integrity of the community development process and authentic community development practice under the context in which they operate.

Community development in South Africa emerged as a political and social challenge against apartheid South Africa and social movements played a key role. A similar consensus is shared by De Beer and Swanepoel (2012, p. 4), who state that community development in South Africa has a solid radical flavor, firmly based on civil society organisation. The study established that community development has since been transformed into public service in South Africa. The study showed that the government heads professionalisation endeavors. Questions about government as an anchor of community development have been raised. Concerns raised are about whose interests the practitioners and community development workers are serving.

As the main actor in the provision of service at a community level, the government has been criticized for its inclination to implement top-down community development strategies and approaches. This criticism links to the historical conjectures of community development. As a result, the legitimacy of the professional practice of community development has been questioned. In South Africa, De Beer (2011) and De Beer and Swanepoel (2012) remark that in professionalising community development in South Africa, we might be at risk of falling into the trap of being restricted to service delivery and a co-opted sector. Shaw (2011) and Dally (2008) acknowledge the risk in terms of the professionalisation of the community development field. International studies are explicitly quite equivocal in their criticism about the professionalisation process. Authors such as Gaynor (2011) and Turner (2009) are critical of community development, from local transformative empowerment practice to public service. This shift has been associated with standardisation (Hart, 2012; Van der Plaat & Barret, 2006), depoliticising local development issues (Gaynor, 2011; Scott, 2001), and the educated outsider expert (Kenny, Fanny & Rahayu, 2013). Central to these findings is the inherent tension about depoliticising community development from a transformative approach. Official recognition of community development as a profession does not sit well with the roots of political practice in this field. The professionalisation dilemma has implications for the developing profession of community development. Mowbray (2010) says, "in, with or against the state." Thus, it is imperative to emphasize the political practice and the professional practice of community development in conceptualising community development. The vital role and contribution of civil society organisations have to be

acknowledged. The evolving profession will need to protect its practice from too much government interference.

The findings of the complexities of the historical conjecture of community development and the challenges experienced by practitioners raise questions about the precarious legitimacy of the professional practice of community development. The study established that the professionalisation agenda of community development is headed by government public service, and participants acknowledged the potential risk and the professional challenge that comes with the professionalisation of community development. As the practitioners and community development workers are employed by government departments at the provincial, national and local levels at municipalities., there were concerns about the lack of authentic community development practice. The integrity of the process of community development is not being respected. Participants raised questions about the lack of recognition and professional legitimacy of community development and community development work. These findings have implications for the professional legitimacy of community development and how practitioners relate as professionals. Legitimacy theories (Suchmann,1995; Tilling, 2004) and professionalisation theories explain how professions can gain acceptance in society (Abbott, 1988; Freidson, 2001).

There is a running debate about community development professionalisation in the scholarly community development literature. This deliberation concerns the precarious legitimacy of the field of community development. Many scholars in the field (Ife, 2013; Gaynor, 2011; Kenny, 1992; Meade, 2011; Mowbray, 2010; Scott, 2011) document a more pervasive loss of professional legitimacy of community development. Shaw (2011) states that much of the ability of the professional community development work to pursue an agenda of community empowerment rests on the goodwill of the political system. Shaw (2011, p.129) refers to it as "requiring irony check"- this question doubted the ability of the practitioner in community development to pursue the traditional mission of local transformation and empowerment of the vulnerable groups in society. The tendency of localisation framed in South Africa in terms such as co-opted sector, (De Beer & Swanepoel's (2012), and internationally as new professionalism (Chambers,1993; Evetts, 2011; Kenny, 1992), bottom-up community development (De Sylva, 2018; Turner, 2009), community turn (Shaw, 2006;), Active citizenship (Gaynor, 2011) enabling state and the similar consensus is revealed in the study which showed that there is a lack of self-driven communities, authentic community development processes, and active citizenship. Community development's fundamental dilemma of elitism or an elitist cycle remains a major concern. These findings represent an

acknowledgment of the community development roots to promote social and political transformation through, for example, human rights and social justice. The implications of the professional model relate to the profound structural problem of the government's approach to community development with its endeavor of professional legitimacy.

The participants' views about the potential benefits of professionalisation include wealth potential for salary increase in terms of socio-economic well-being opportunities for registration with the recognised statutory body to protect them from the community and other professions, as well as advancing opportunities to conduct private practice. In this instance, the South African Council for Social Service Professions (SACSSP) will be the professional body that the practitioners will be required to register with if the profession is to be self-regulated. Although registration is seen as a potential benefit, the findings show that practitioners lack an understanding of the purpose of registration with the professional body. There is consensus in the literature that registration results in external behaviour restrictions, enforces or controls entry to the profession, punishes unwanted outcomes or self-interest by those deemed unruly (Grey & Webb, 2010). Similar sentiments are held by Freidson (1994) and Greenwood (1957) who refer to this as community sanction in studies of professions. Consideration needs to be made that no qualification or professional registration can guarantee an individual's proficiency. The onus lies with practitioners to be accountable in terms of the quality of their work, meeting the standards of training, maintaining public trust and protection of the interests of the service users. The system of registration will have implications for the practitioners since many of them do not have relevant qualifications in community development. Evidently, the same cannot be said about ethical malpractice, and ethical misconduct. With regard to these, the practitioners' track record is weaker. The study revealed that the practitioners would register with the South African Council for Social Service Professions (SACSSP). More research is needed to understand how professionalisation and registration will advance recognition and improve public trust and protection.

Participants view the most significant potential benefits of professionalisation as recognition of the qualifications of the practitioners both at the undergraduate and post-graduate level of study, which participants considered to be currently under-recognised. For example, data shows that the entry salary level of practitioners with honours qualifications at level six was lower than the social workers in the hierarchy of professions at the same honours level. Social workers' entry level salary is at level seven, and higher than that of community practitioners. There is no uniformity of qualification as compared to a social worker at the

same honours level; and there is no clear ladder of promotion. Community development practitioners' positions are not filled with trained professionals without relevant qualifications in community development work. Managers of the community development unit are social workers.

Additionally, practitioners come from various backgrounds (e.g., social work, development studies, political studies, agricultural science, extra social work, psychology, teaching, child and youth care). Hence the study established that many practitioners are demotivated and losing interest in the community development field, resigning and branching out to other professions in search of better opportunities. These findings show concerns voiced persistently by the participants regarding internal tensions and the uncertain professional status of the community development field. This lack of professional status determines which practitioners can obtain recognition and reward for their activities.

The profession of community development will first have to address the problems it currently faces. Relatively low status in the hierarchy of professions is a challenge for the professional legitimacy of the field. This will have to be a key policy issue for the professional mandate of community development practitioners as part of a broader attempt to achieve the status recognition and aspect of community development field reform. However, there is still a long way to go before the status of community development can be fully recognized. The next decade will offer an opportunity to address these challenges and to improve the professional status of the community development profession. These sentiments are consistent with the sociological theory on the power control approach, which indicates that authority and monopoly are indicators of professional status and prestige (Abbott, 1988; Burrage *et al.*, 1990; Evettes, 2011; Freidson, 2001; Macdonald, 1995).

The participants also expressed concern about the disadvantages of professionalisation model and voiced concerns that they will need recognition of prior learning. They fear being excluded from professional practice and entry into the profession. These findings agree with the theories of community. Various authors such as Ife (2013) and Thompson (2007, p.29) are skeptical about the over-emphasis on technical competence ideological debate. Community Workers Cooperatives (CWC, 1990, p. 154) refer to their explanation of professionalisation as an anathema to practice and challenge the appropriateness of the professional model, arguing that it is antithetical to community development (Shaw, 2004; Mead & O'Donovan, 2002, p.8; Mayo, 1998, p. 164). Stated clearly, professional education and competencies are the goals of professionalisation. To address redress issues and enable access for semi-professionals, I believe that flexible policies should be an integral

element of professionalisation if they are successful. The issue of inclusion and exclusion will need to be addressed to avoid the unintended consequences of professionalisation. Gibson (1977, p.37) says, "... from a pragmatic perspective, if the the field is not yet clarified enough, and it may never be, to provide a basis for determining who is 'in' and who is 'out' " (Gibson, 1977, p. 37). The purpose of the Recognition for Prior Learning (RPL) policy, which emphasizes the recognition of knowledge and skill acquired informally, enables access, progression, and access at the workplaces (Congress of the South African Trade Unions (COSATU, 2000; SAQA, 2013a; 2015c). In recognising the importance of RPL, Parsons (1978, p.9) emphasised the importance of exerting "leadership" and applying the "*process of certification based on the observation and documentation of performance, alone*, which can be opted both by field- (non-institutionally) trained candidates, and by candidates institutionally trained in other fields and that it is *competent performance*, after all, that's proof-of-the-pudding; not ingredients!"

The study shows that the complexities of professionalisation are compounded by the multidisciplinary nature of community development, including community development workers, community development practitioners, social workers, and other stakeholders in the discipline of education, health, and others. There is a gap in the literature on community development in multidisciplinary community development. There is consensus in the related studies on multidisciplinary teams that a multidisciplinary team brings cross-discipline expertise in a coordinated way and recognises the importance of collaboration and team working (Atwal & Jones, 2007; Wilson, Pirrie, 2000).

This study shows a lack of coordinated efforts and collaboration among the stakeholders in the community development sector. Participants indicated that the professionalisation of community development was not a consultative process. They expressed uncertainty about whether they would be roped in and how the professionalisation process will affect them. Participants in the non-governmental organizations were not aware of professionalisation in the community development sector. The study established that there are turf issues, role confusion, contestations, and tensions in the professional practice of community development. Hence lack of clear scope of practice, collaboration, and coordination contribute to role conflict, lack of professional relationship, duplication of services, and role confusion in community development professional practice. Studies in multidisciplinary teams recognize that lack of communication, role confusion, and misunderstanding of professional roles hinder successful multidisciplinary teamwork (Borrill, 1999; Taylor, Lamb, Strickland, Vincent, Green, 2013; Iliffe, 2008).

Sociological theories succinctly consider professional jurisdiction as a professional feature (Abbott, 1988; Carr-Saunders & Wilson, 1933; Evetts, 2006; Freidson, 2001; Greenwood, 1957; Larson, 1977). This suggests that professional jurisdiction complexities have implications for the boundary definition of the professional practice of community development professional legitimacy. The study suggests that complexities arise due to a lack of discretionary space over the execution of practice owing to the multidisciplinary field of practice. There is also a lack of professional exclusivity, which limits the chances of claiming professional status and causes confusion about professional identities. This is compounded by the lack of a partner model in multidisciplinary working.

The collaborative model of intervention developed in the study is the contribution to knowledge. Through complementary skills and commitment to a shared purpose, crossdiscipline expertise from various disciplines would share what they are doing for community development. Through coordinated efforts toward developmental community development and with the collaboration of all stakeholders and members of the community working for the good of the community, multidisciplinary teams can be successful and respect the integrity of the process to achieve authentic community development practice. The study findings showed that community development as a multidisciplinary field does not know its own. Its knowledge base is primarily derived from various fields.

Sociological theories suggest that knowledge base is the defining feature of the profession (Abbott, 1988; Carr-Saunders, & Wilson, 1933; Evetts, 1999; Freidson, 1994; Greenwood, 1957; Larson, 1977; Macdonald, 1995). Abbott (1988, p. 103) argues that when task areas are open to jurisdictional claims by so many groups, each extending its abstractions and claiming to cover the whole field, content is emptied. The sociological theorist, Bernstein (2000), refers to the above phenomenon when knowledge areas are open to jurisdictional claims regarding the regionalisation of disciplinary knowledge fields. The professional legitimacy of community development is viewed as having failed the trial of occupational control over its knowledge base about the multidisciplinary field. Lack of its knowledge base has implications for professional status and professional jurisdiction, as shown above.

Professions, where the body of knowledge is too wide-ranging in terms of its disciplinary backgrounds, face a weakened professional jurisdiction, and in our case, this indicates that community development practice knowledge is internally inconsistent. Lack of knowledge

base contributes to the status problem of the profession. It is compounded by the fact that social problems and development challenges are not exclusively reserved for only professional community development to address. Other disciplines from multidisciplinary community development may claim a say in these problems.

Given these circumstances, it is unsurprising that the multidisciplinary team in the community development field has not united around any standard body of knowledge which they collectively perceive to be essential for the profession of community development. This finding shows that community development does not have solid professional jurisdiction, professional authority, and monopoly over the provision of services which are the core tenets of the profession. One way of clarifying this situation could be through the profession claiming a monopoly over community development work in the field and social welfare social service professions. These sentiments are consistent with the sociological theory on the "power control approach," which indicates that authority and monopoly are indicators of professional status and that the lack of professional jurisdiction threatens professional status (Abbott, 1988; Freidson, 1994; Larson, 1977).

The study findings show that the professionalisation process in the community development sector has taken a long time. Participants wanted to know the reasons for the delayed process of professionalisation. The study established that professionalisation in community development started in 2004 by introducing the Community Development Workers' Programme. Close to fifteen years have passed since this moment. The reasons identified for the delayed process of professionalisation process include complexities related to the review of the Legislation of the Social Service Professions Act, 1978 (Act 110 of 1978), which only accommodated one social work profession and excluded other designators, turf issues, and tensions related to the protection of professional identities, contestations, power struggle issues, lack of collaboration, consultation and engagement challenges of the stakeholders in the sector and registration challenges of practitioners in the database.

These findings have implications for the professional legitimacy and jurisdiction of the domain of practice, as indicated above. There is no doubt about unregulated and multidisciplinary complexities; the community development sector is very broad due to its multidisciplinary nature and lack of collaboration of stakeholders, as indicated from the above. It is expected that the jurisdiction of a domain of practice does not exist. The literature searches on the professionalisation of the community development field did not discuss jurisdictional aspects, formalised boundaries, or discretionary space, which set apart

multidisciplinary professionals. International scholars in community development, as indicated above, are skeptical about the professionalisation of community development and hold the view that formalised boundaries in the profession would indeed strip practice from its social and political connotations (Ife, 2013; Kenny, 1992; Meade, 2011; Shaw, 2011). Policy considerations will need to take the challenge of identity construction seriously and consider how community development can be transformed into professional practice to secure the legitimacy of professional practice of community development field. Due to multidisciplinary complexities, a model of professional practice is necessary for the execution of the practice. Hence the collaborative model for developmental community practice outlined in Chapter ten of this study is the knowledge contribution in this study.

The study shows that the professionalisation process will aid in instilling professionalism in community development professional practice. Similar sentiments emerge in the literature on community development professionalisation in South Africa (Hart, 2012). Although this finding considers professionalism as part of the professionalisation process, the sociological theory lens yields a different view and does not consider professionalism a reliable indicator of the professional model. Sociological research studies distinguish professionalisation from professionalism. The former describes structural attributes that define professions, including a systematic body of knowledge, professional authority, community sanction, code of ethics, and professional culture (Abbot, 1988; Burrage *et al.*, 1990; Evettes, 2011; Freidson, 1994; Macdonald, 1995). The latter describes the attitudinal or psychological attributes of those who are considered to be or aspire to be considered professionals (Evetts, 1999, p. 22; Freidson, 1994). The study established cases of ethical misconduct and ethical malpractice in community development practice, such as conflict of interest, fraud, corruption, disclosure of personal information in supervision, extortion, and bribery. Participants indicated that these ethical challenges are compounded by a lack of ethical standards for community development. In the absence of ethics, the practitioners use institutional and organisational policies. The literature search did not discuss ethical issues in community development and the ethical framework values in reaching a professional judgment. Sociological studies on professions identified knowledge, expertise, and ethics as the distinguishing feature of the profession (Abbott, 1988; Carr-Saunders, & Wilson, 1933; Evetts, 1999; Freidson, 1994; Greenwood, 1957; Larson, 1977; Macdonald, 1995). In philosophy, the most established ethical theories are deontology, utilitarianism, consequentialism, and virtue ethics (Grey *et al.*, 2010). In the profession of social work, the literature and studies on ethics and values are found for the professional practice of social work (Banks, 2012; Brill, 2001; Corey *et al.*, 2007; Grey & Webb, 2010; Loewenberg & Dolgoff, 1992). The theory of ethics in social work

is influenced by deontology, derived from the notion of duty (Kant, 1948). These findings raise some questions about ethical inquiry in community development.

The question to be asked is what does morality say about what practitioners should have done in situations? How do they justify their choice or moral decision over another? Ethical decision-making remains a challenge in community development and has implications for the developing profession of community development. Unsurprisingly, these findings tell us something about issues of morality, the dearth of professional values; and they serve as a reminder of the pressing relevance of ethics in the developing profession of community development. Values and ethics in community development constitute an under-explored terrain. Practitioners face situations of moral challenges and conflict between what seem to be the right courses of action. Ethical decision-making and ethical framework remain a gap. The significance of ethics and activities of community development practitioner's rests on common human good or what studies on ethics in social work call virtuous professionalism? (Bank, Grey, & Lovat, 2007; McBeath & Webb, 2002). By instilling professionalism, practitioners will benefit from the ethical inquiry in the standards of education and training on ethics, which will provide an opportunity to reflect on the complexity and content of professional ethics related to virtue ethics and ethics of care.

11.4. CONCLUSION

In some important ways, the study engages with the complexities of professionalisation and the ethical challenges in developing the profession of community development. The study results indicate that the complexity of the professionalisation of community development is connected to the multidisciplinary nature of community development. It is clear from this research that in the community development sector, practitioners come from an array of backgrounds, such as social work, community development practitioners, community development workers, and various other disciplines, as well as experienced practitioners who acquired knowledge and skills informally in the workplace. Nevertheless, the existing literature on professionalisation and empirical studies still privilege codified and disciplinary knowledge versus less codified and informal knowledge in ensuring practice improvement. It is imperative to capture this diversity of standpoints as community development becomes more established as a profession. Thus, further discussions on professionalising community development should clarify whom, why, and under what circumstances a professionalisation arrangement is desirable. Due to the multidisciplinary nature and complexities of the field, the study demonstrates that there are tensions, "turf" issues, professional identity issues, lack of professional working relationships, working in isolation, role conflict, and confusion,

lack of clear scope of practice, duplication of service, fragmentation in service delivery resulting from lack of consultation, communication, and collaboration. Hence there is a need for dialogue and some factor of distinction that must be made. The collaborative community development theory developed in Chapter ten of this study is the knowledge contribution of the study to address this gap for social service professions. The theory developed is in line with the constructivist grounded theory data analysis process underpinning the study, and the data was allowed to speak for itself (Charmaz, 2014).

The study indicates that the professionalisation of community development is an ongoing process. Due to complexities related to retaining professional identity, community development practitioners and community development workers are professionalising. For the most part, practitioners have considered professionalising community development as a worthwhile and viable option. Views on the quest for professionalisation are motivated by the need to recognize qualifications, the reputation of community development and clear professional identity, recognition by other professions and members of the community population at large. It is clear from the findings that practitioners perceive potential benefits being associated with professionalisation. However, there is also consensus that this process was not consultative; there was a lack of engagement, effective communication, and involvement of members in the sector. The lack of practical collaborative efforts shows a lack of input from many relevant stakeholders in the sector. Future research should expand on these findings to include the voices of other stakeholders to develop a deeper understanding of how best to develop the emerging profession of community development further and enhance its positive developmental impact on South African society.

The study's findings indicate that the professional model in community development can have unintended consequences of excluding practitioners without qualifications and those who have acquired experiential knowledge and skills informally in the workplace, leading to community development elitism. Further, inclusion needs to capture a range of practitioners as the profession becomes more established. It is clear from the findings that practitioners perceive some disadvantages associated with professionalisation and erosion of community development activism rooted in its history. Furthermore, some concerns professionalising community development will have unintended negative consequences that could restrict social workers from practicing community development. The social work profession has been practicing a mixture of community work as a method of social work and community development. The findings indicate that professionalisation will lead to divorce, fragmentation, and breakaway of the social work profession because it will restrict social

workers from entering the field. This will render social work irrelevant and inappropriate in a third world developing country like South Africa, whose social justice and development challenges are better handled through the community development approach.

The study finds that the professionalisation of community development was motivated by the need for status recognition. The community development field has a relatively low status in the hierarchy of profession of social service professions. The lack of recognition of the profession resulting in poor working conditions leaves much to be desired by the practitioners. Challenges include lack of a clear ladder of promotion, resignations and retention issues, exit plans and branching out to other professions, low salaries, and senior management positions being held by social workers. These conditions, coupled with the stereotypes or nicknames, hinder good professional practice and recruitment and retention of community development workers. The findings point to the lack of uniform standards for educational preparation and a delineated curriculum enforced by statutory regulation. The data findings indicate that although progress has been made in the professionalisation process, the low status of the developing profession of community development is compounded by a lack of its own body of knowledge. These findings illustrate how the status of this developing profession compares to other occupations, with implications for its credibility and professional standing. The development of empirical research, development of its knowledge base, and the evaluation of practice to validate practice strategies remain urgent tasks for the future profession of community development.

The study suggests that the benefits of professionalisation include instilling professionalism in the community development sector. The study indicates that there are issues of professional misconduct and malpractice. Political conflict of interest, fraud, bribery, extortion money, corruption, disclosure of personal information in supervision, and lack of confidentiality are some of the ethical challenges in community development practice. Empirical studies and evaluating the literature on values and ethics in community development is a terrain that remains unexplored.

Despite the urgent support for professionalisation and putting some measures in place to professionalise and legitimise the practice of community development, practitioners are faced with a complex array of ethical issues. Professionalism can be imparted by introducing a set of rules and regulations: instilling and cultivating moral values remains a priority. This study suggests that emerging professionals will need to enhance the practitioner's professionalism and increase professional prestige and status to address uncertainty. The

developing profession will need to address the conditions, tensions, and complexities identified above.

11.5. Future implications and agenda for the emerging profession of community development

The case illustrations have shown a complex mix of issues such as the need for recognition, uncertain professional status, ethical misconduct, and lack of professional identity. In the light of these issues, the critical question is: what do professional community development practitioners need to keep in mind as the profession evolves?

First, future community development professionals will be required to be vigilant in their continued examinations of what it means to be professionals. The values which the professions uphold and how they should be involved in ethical decision-making and judgment are essential. The implications for the profession concern the extent to which community development practitioners and community development workers will retain their fundamental commitment to community development through the historic and continuing concern for the poor and social justice to the most vulnerable communities. Community development professionals need to examine the nature of the profession's values and how they shape the profession's priorities. This is a never-ending journey. To revitalize the profession, enhance the professional status, and invigorate the emerging profession's sense of purpose, community development practitioners and community development workers must continue to debate the merits of this trend, particularly regarding its implications for the core value of this trend social justice. Students and practitioners should be taught the history of community development, changes over the years, and contemporary debates about community development professions in the future. It would be imperative to engage the practitioners in an ongoing examination of the profession's priorities. The same can be said concerning the specific subject of ethical misconduct and professional malpractice as revealed from the findings.

The literature on ethics in community development covers limited scholarship on ethics and ethical decision-making about the subject of ethics. Consideration will need to be made for education programs to devote attention to the subject of ethics. The emerging profession has a long way to go to address ethical behavior and professional malpractice adequately. Community development will require them to incorporate these topics in their curricula and outcomes more deliberately. The study suggests that lessons can be learned from the established professions and social service professions like social work.

11.6. RECOMMENDATIONS

The study findings show that the value base of social justice is rooted in community development's historical link to social movements and political activism. In its attempt to professionalise and regulate the practice, the emerging profession is constrained by this legacy of social activism on the one hand and government. The study suggests that lessons can be learned from the established social service professions like social work, given their historical legacies of apartheid and the challenges of social transformation.

The findings suggest the need for training workshops on ethics to enhance professionalism in the community development sector. Regulatory bodies, universities, institutions, and organisations need to make deliberate attempts to place professional values and ethics education high on the agenda and priorities. The Professional literature and empirical research on community development contain limited scholarship on ethics, ethical dilemmas, ethical issues in community development, and ethical decision-making models. To strengthen the field's focus on these diverse issues, community development education and training programs will require focusing on ethics subjects at the undergraduate and postgraduate levels. In establishing and maintaining reasonable standards of professional practice, members of the profession, students, and practitioners should be systematically exposed to debates about community development professional values, ethical dilemmas in community development. The strategies for ethical decision making, the problems of professional misconduct and professional malpractice, the relevance of codes of ethics, ethical decision-making models remain a challenge. To avoid professional, ethical misconduct, and professional malpractice to optimally intervene in community development, practitioners must monitor their behavior. Institutions and organisations should commit to providing practitioners with education on professionalism throughout their careers. Regularly scheduled ethics education will provide a valuable opportunity to continually remind practitioners in the sector about the importance of professional values, ethics, and the implications of the decisions they make in the course of community development practice. Practitioners must contribute to the scholarship of professional values and ethics. Anything less would deprive practitioners of sound professional practice in the face of complex ethical dimensions, new insights and understanding, and to engage in an authentic professional of practice.

At the center of the multiple cases, study illustration is the complex set of issues involving values, ethics, and difficult decisions about the basic set of values that ultimately shape the

professions' missions and its practitioner's priorities. Considerations need to be made about the following:

- The value base of the profession of community development;
- Ethical decision making in community development;
- Ethical Framework in community development
- Ethical dilemmas in community development practice; and
- Practitioners ethical misconduct and malpractice in community development
- Professional identity formation and professionalism

Future initiatives should explore ways to support and enhance professionalism at the individual, organisational and institutional levels. The lack of institutional and organisational support to mediate the challenges facing professionalism in community development practice will negatively impact the profession. Avoiding conflicts of interest, fraud, nepotism, bribery, professional malpractice, and ethical misconduct requires individual practitioners to inspect and monitor their behavior. Institutions of higher education and organisations should commit to providing practitioners with education on professionalism throughout their careers.

Recommendations for future research

Any research suggests possible areas for additional exploration. The advantage of constructivist grounded theory research is that it generates different exploration concepts rather than hypotheses. In addition, it has specific benefits and functions of inquiry into areas that are not evident. Although many headways have been made professionalisation of community development work, a weak knowledge base of the community development profession contributes to the status problem of the profession as revealed from the documentary analyse and interviews data. The body of knowledge is primarily derived from other disciplines. The findings revealed that the practice knowledge of community development is inconsistent and incoherent. Firstly, there is a need for systematic empirical research to validate practice strategies. Empirical research, ongoing evaluation, and theoretical development are integral to community development. It remains one of the critical tasks for the emerging profession in years to come.

The findings revealed that community development has a relatively weak status in the hierarchy of other professions. There is a lack of recognition, level six entry salary, recruitment and retention issues, unclear ladder of promotion, professional misconduct, and professional

malpractice. It would be fruitful to explore the implications of these findings in terms of professional status.

The development of empirical research and validation of practice strategies remains an urgent task for the emerging community development profession. The findings revealed a dearth of literature and research studies on the history of community development, development of professionalism for CDWs and CDPs, ethics, ethical issues, and ethical decision-making models in community development for education and practice in government and the NGOs.

Secondly, recommendation for further research is suggested on the formation of professional identity and the development of professionalism. Community development as an emerging profession; there is little empirical research on how professional identity is formed for community development students and seasoned practitioners in the workforce.

Furthermore, to contribute to the body of knowledge in this field, there is a need to investigate the role of professionalism in developing professional identity. In addition, further studies need to explore how community development students form their professional identities across different levels of study at higher education institutions and how their experiences at universities influence this process. Research in this area will be helpful to understand elements that play an essential role in the development of identity and the transformation of a person's professional identity. Thirdly, an ethical framework in community development needs to be investigated, mainly because community development education aims to impart the values, attitudes, and character of a good practitioner to community development students.

Lastly, further research is suggested that focuses on delineating the roles of health professionals in a multidisciplinary team working in community development to address team function, team relationships, and the team's potential to achieve authentic community development. Future research should expand on the study's findings to include the voices of other stakeholders in the community development sector to develop a deeper understanding of how best to develop the profession of community development further and enhance its positive impact in local communities and society.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Participant information sheet



Title of the study: Complexities of Professionalisation and Values of Community Development

Date:

RE: An invitation to participate in the study” Complexities of Professionalisation and Values of Community Development”

My name is Kefilwe Ditlhake and I am a Phd student at WITS University, School of Governance in Johannesburg. As a requirement of my studies I have to undertake research project. You are invited to take part in the study on Complexities of Professionalisation of Community Development in South Africa. The aim of this research project is to explain the complexities of professionalisation, ethical issues and dilemmas in community development; and how community development practitioners use codes of ethics in the resolution of ethical dilemmas in their day-to-day practice.

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary and you are not obliged to participate. Refusal to participate will not be held against you in any way, and if you do participate you can withdraw at any time without prejudice. You will not receive any direct benefits from participating and there are no penalties from participating in this study. If you are willing to take part in the study, you will be asked to take part in an interview. The interview will be completely confidential and anonymous. I will arrange an interview time and date at the place most suitable. The interview will take approximately one hour. The information you give will be treated confidentially and will not be disclosed to any anyone. With your permission I would like to tape record the interview. The recording of the interview and the transcribed data will be stored in a locked cabinet. You may withdraw from the study at any given time and you may refuse to answer questions that you feel uncomfortable answering. I have enclosed a consent form for participation in the study and tape recording of the interview for you to sign if you are willing to take part in this study

Please be assured that your name and personal detail will be kept confidential. The identifying information will not be included in the final report. Please feel free to ask any question pertaining to the study. I will answer them to the best of my ability. If you wish to contact me, I may be contacted on my cell phone or email. Thank you for taking time to consider participating in the study.

Yours sincerely

Researcher name: Kefilwe Johanna Ditlhake, kditlhake@uj.ac.za, 082 7451 555 or

Supervisor name: Dr Horacio Zandamela, Horacio.Zandamela@wits.ac.za, 0823652595 or

University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC Non –Medical).
Shaun Schoeman, shaun.schoeman@wits.ac.za, (011) 717 1408. Or

The Department of Social Development, Grace Malatsi, Grace.Malatsi@quauteng.gov.za, (011) 355-9200 to arrange for counselling and kindly note that you will follow the department internal intake process.

APPENDIX B: Participant consent form**Title of the study: Complexities of Professionalisation and Values of Community Development**

"I _____ hereby agree to participate to the study which explain the complexities professionalisation of community development in South Africa." The researcher has explained to my satisfaction the purpose and procedures of the study to me. Participation is voluntary and all responses will be kept confidential. I understand that I am free to withdraw from the study and may refuse to answer questions that I feel uncomfortable answering. The interview will be tape recorded and I agree to the recording of my interview. I also understand that the tape will be kept in a locked cabinet and will be destroyed five years after publication of the research report. I am aware there will be no direct benefits or rewards for participating in this study

Name of the participant: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW GUIDE

I am m interested in learning about the community development initiatives you are involved in and how you, as a community development practitioner you engage in community development on a daily basis, the complexities of professionalisation, values, principles, and ethical dilemmas of community development facilitation. Over the course of my interview with you, I am m hoping to gain an understanding of the following:

A: The background or context of the community development work or initiatives (professional training and years of experience) you are involved in at the Department of Social Development, COGTA, HEI, or Non -governmental organisation.

Q: 1. What is your educational qualification or professional training, and how long have you been working in the field of community development?

Q: 2. What is your understanding of community development, and how would you describe the history of the community development process that is built before and after 1994 in South Africa?

a) What are your understanding of community development, community work, and social development?

b) What is the history of community development before 1994, and why is it important? **Q: 2 (c)** What is the history of community development after 1994, and how has community development work changed over time?

Q: 3. What were the reasons, challenges, tensions, or complexities the emerging profession of community development had to deal with during the professionalisation process of community development?

- a) Why was it important to professionalise community development?
- b) What led to the professionalisation of community development?
- c) What processes were involved in the professionalisation of community development?
- d) How has the professionalisation of community development evolved, and the tensions, challenges, and complexities that the evolving profession of community development grappled with?

Q: 4. What are the ethical issues that you encounter in community development, and how are they resolved?

APPENDIX D: Request for permission -letter to conduct the study



Date:

Dear

RE: Seeking permission letter to conduct the study entitled” Complexities of Professionalisation and Values of Community Development”

I am a Phd candidate at WITS University, School of Governance in Johannesburg. My research project is entitled “Complexities of professionalisation and values of Community Development”. The aim of this research project is to explain the complexities of professionalisation, ethical issues and dilemmas in community development; and how community development practitioners employ codes of ethics in the navigation of ethical dilemmas in their day-to-day practice. This study will involve an in-depth interview with community development practitioners, lecturers at the institution of Higher Learning, officials at the Department of Social Development, civil society and Non-Governmental Organisations. Information gathered in this study could be used for education and training of community development in South Africa. This research project has obtained approval from the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC Non –Medical). Any questions or concerns about this study can be directed towards my supervisor or ethics coordinator.

FURTHER INFORMATION

At any time you can contact the principal investigator: Kefilwe Johanna Ditlhake, kefilwe.ditlhake@gmail.com, 082 7451 555, , the research supervisor, Dr Horacio Zandamela, Horacio.Zandamela@wits.ac.za, 0823652595 or Ethics Coordinator, Shaun Schoeman, shaun.schoeman@wits.ac.za, 011 717 1408. University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC Non –Medical). Yours sincerely Kefilwe Ditlhake

APPENDIX E: Ethics clearance



HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)
R14/49 Ditihake

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATEPROTOCOL NUMBER: H18/03/04PROJECT TITLE

Complexities of professionalisation and values of community development

INVESTIGATOR(S)

Mrs K Ditihake

SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT

Wits School of Governance/

DATE CONSIDERED

16 March 2018

DECISION OF THE COMMITTEEApproved
Permission letters are required before data collection can commenceEXPIRY DATE

12 April 2021

DATE

13 April 2018

CHAIRPERSON

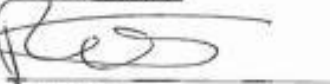
(Professor J Knight)

cc: Supervisor : Dr H Zandamela

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Secretary at Room 10004, 10th Floor, Senate House, University. Unreported changes to the application may invalidate the clearance given by the HREC (Non-Medical)

I/We fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to resubmit the protocol to the Committee. I agree to completion of a yearly progress report.


Signature

13 104 2018
Date

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES

APPENDIX F: letter of approval DSD Provincial office



Enquiries: Dr. Sello Mokoena
Tel: (011) 3557949
File no.: 2/9/92

MS KEFILWE JOHANNA DITLHAKÉ

Dear Ms Kefilwe Johanna Dithake

**RE: APPLICATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE GAUTENG
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT**

Thank you for your application to conduct research within the Gauteng Department of Social Development.

Your application on the research on "**Complexities of Professionalisation and Values of Community Development**" has been considered and approved for support by the Department as it was found to be beneficial to the Department's vision and mission. The approval is subject to the Department's terms and conditions as endorsed on the 16th of April 2018. In order for the department to learn and draw from the findings and recommendations of your study, please note that you are requested to provide the department with a copy of your dissertation/thesis once your study has been completed.

May I take this opportunity to wish you well on the journey you are about to embark on.

We look forward to a value adding research and a fruitful co-operation.

With thanks

Ms A HARTMANN
Deputy Director General: Support Services
Date: 26/4/2018

APPENDIX G: letter of approval DSD National office



social development

Department:
Social Development
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

Private Bag X901 Pretoria, 0001, 134 Pretorius Street, 45RRC Building, Pretoria Tel: +27 12 312 7994, www.dsd.gov.za
Private Bag X9150, Cape Town, 8000, Tel: +27 21 465 1257/1277, Fax: +27 21 465 6439, e-mail: directorgeneral@dsd.gov.za

Director General

Enquires: Michael Machubeng
Tel: 012 312 7839
Email: michaelm@dsd.gov.za
Ref: 8/4/1/2

Ms K Dithlake
Devereaux
Winchester
Hills
2091

Dear Ms Dithlake

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT DOCTORAL RESEARCH STUDY

The Department of Social Development wishes to inform you that your request for permission to conduct interviews with officials in fulfilment of your Doctoral research study has been granted.

We wish to inform you that the Department of Social Development will not bear any financial and legal liabilities that may arise from this Doctoral research study.

We further wish to bring to your attention that research ethics must be considered and adhered to in this regard.

You are kindly requested to advance us with the copy of the completed Doctoral research study.

We wish you all the best in your Doctoral research study.

Kind regards,

MR M TONI

ACTING DIRECTOR-GENERAL

DATE: 17/7/2018

APPENDIX H Case One C odes

CASE 1											
Highest educational qualifications	Multidisciplinary field	History of community development practice in the 1980s	Apartheid disparities	UDM political activist in communities	Grassroots community development and mobilisation	Value of community development	Concrete needs	Local Dynamics	Housing issues and land ownership		
Integrity of community development process	Issues of services and lack of services.	The importance of community development process	Formation of political organisations and trade unions.	Group Areas Act and the challenge of settlement and regrouping	Community development mean belonging together	Apartheid and challenges of settlement and regrouping	Political ideological differences	Conflict of interest	Formation of the Department of Community development		
Formation of the civic movement.	Promotion of Apartheid agenda and destruction of communities.	The importance of building rapport, trust and community ownership over the process.	External imposition of development agenda.	Expert professional dictates	Passive role of communities.	Passive role of community development practitioners.	Toolkit blue print manual.	School uniform project.	Project failures		
Beneficiaries of the state's services versus citizens.	Majority of Community development practitioners have no required qualifications	Tension between social workers and CDPs.	Social workers are privileged	CDPs have less employment benefits	Need for proper policy guidelines	Entrenchment and marginalization of CDPs minds.	Social workers are less knowledgeable on community development	Community development has poor function	CDP s spent time in offices rather in communities.		
Need for CDPs to spent time in communities.	Need for empowerment of CDPs to become advocates of communities	Ignorance and the institutional implications of the CDPs being out in communities.	Challenges and roles of CDPs	Paradigm shift from welfarerism	CDPs lack of energy due to repetition of work, targets and restrictions	CDPs Nickname	Need for paradigm shift from welfarerism.	Government agenda vs community agenda	Clarification of the role of government in community development process.		
One size fits all projects not working	Blueprint approach to projects not working.	Lack of national community development policy	Lack of qualifications among CDWs and CDPs	Political activism role and diploes and systemic and structural challenges	Tension between political dilemma and development community process	Failures of government projects.	Self-directed communities	CDPs and the need to be engage in community development process that have integrity of the local people.	The need for Community development process that have integrity of the local people.		
The need for Investment in empowerment of people	Funding support and challenges.	Institutional structural blunder by DSD and COGTA	Fundamental dilemma linked to empowered or resistant community.	Investment on people and communities in planning.	Challenges and repetition of community profiling.	Shopping list for service delivery creates dependency	Community engagement must begin with what people want.	Citizenship vs service recipients.	Empty promises	Nepotism	
Empowerment vs disempowerment of communities	Social challenges in communities.	Lack of successful projects.	Engagement of people in community development is project based.	Need to review project planning and implementation.	Empower people to have own voices and in implementation process of community development.	Funding challenges of NGOs	Lack of accountability among NGOs.	NGO challenges	Government challenges and community protest.		
The Coop's and NGOs accountability to the donors.	Community protest	Need for NGOs rooted in communities	Ethical issues	Recognition of indigenous knowledge and skill.	Institutionalization and coexistence CDPS and CDWs.	Role of CDPs vs CDWs.	Role confusion of CDWs and CDPs.	CDWs lack of qualifications.	Need for standards or education and regulation	Need for RPL	

Professionalisation of community development and the dilemma of elitism.		The need for professionalisation and challenges in community development.			Dilemma of regulation and perceived good impact.	CDPs and toolkit local planning. CDPs and CDWs in delivery of services.		Lack of collaboration between	Ethics of conduct between CDPS and CDWs	CDPs and CDWs conflicting roles and role confusion.	Sustainable livelihood	Need to review toolkit	Safety issues	
Role clarification of CDWs and CDPs.	Tokenism exercise captures fundamental contradiction.	Lessons from Botswana	Need for clear community development framework in South Africa	Sexual and physical abuse	The challenge of accountability issues among CDWs	Some CDPs do not know the existence of CDWS in communities.	Importance of this study on and the need for professionalisation of community development	Interrogation of government role in community development process versus citizens.		Citizens and social contract	The need for definition of the role of actors and role conclusion.		Lack of collaboration between CDWs and CDPs	
Questioning the strategic location of community development within the DSD versus Local government.			Lack of consultation	Questioning the mandate of the DSD	Community development not well resourced and given attention.	Treatment of communities as citizens.	role played by external agenda	local agenda priority	community driven needs	The link between project failures and lack of community driven needs.			Disempowerment of communities	
Exploration of the role of government in professionalisation	Policy framework defining the role of stakeholders.	Disempowerment of communities and the recipients of services or service delivery.		Community involvement in process.	Need for grassroots mobilization and active citizenship and promotion of social justice.	Need for major review of the community development practice or implementation		List for services and service delivery not working.		Changing culture of dependency in communities	Lack of developmental progress, resulting to dialogue or shopping.		Need for community development to be driven by broader agenda.	

APPENDIX I Case Two Codes

CASE 2																
BA in development studies and post graduate diploma in public management			Branching out to something else		Credit collection versus qualification		Studying BA accountancy		NQF Level 7		Matric certificate		Community development practice in social work		Community development in township	
Standard eight		Matric requirement for employment of CDWs		Many CDWs have standard eight		Introduction of community development programme		CDWs are known in communities		CDWs are recruited from communities where they live		Qualifications not requirement for CDWs		Matric certificate is a requirement for the CDWs		
CDWs are in level 6 rank		Category of public servants	CDWs work with masses	Internship placement	Working experience		Services offered in communities	DSD and food bank	No specific services for COGTA		COGTA is the employer for CDWs		Employment requirement for CDWs			
Community development programme is coordinated nationally		In essence COGTA is the employer of community development workers		C DWs are not office based	In government, we have those CDWs department specific doing different function related to the department mandate. For example, in health we have EPWs.			The councilors are the representatives of the political parties. The CDWs are the public servants if we look at this issue from the administration point of view			CDWs are not typical public servants	CDWs are based in various wards	CDWs identify gaps in services...bringing government service to the people...have 130 wards			
We have 130 wards		Community development in SA was introduced during Mbeki's The brain child of conceptualizing community development program in government				Batho Pele...	CDWs interface at all levels of government	Social challenges in communities	National, provincial and local government level		Responsibilities of DPSA and COGTA		Community protest			
Service delivery	Social problems in communities		Door to door house to house strategies		Identification of challenges in communities		DSD top down projects	Community development focus is developmental		Regulation of public policies by DPSA		CDWs role is to link people with services and resource		CDWs do not have one focus area.	CDWs are interventionists.	
Working with issues at the totality		Difference between CDWs and CDPs		We are "Poitjie Koos". We are called mixed salads, poitjie Kos approach			The job of the councilors is '... Thuma Mena" ya polotiki.		Community profiling	Integration of stakeholders		Community mobilization		Implementation and evaluation		
Promote service delivery	Political deploys.	Social workers lack of visibility	Role confusion	Go nale ba assuming ba dutsi, go nale ba confused and go nale ba seleng....			The CDWs program is at the right location	Political leadership	Stakeholders in communities	Integrated development	War room model, Setsokotsane.	CDWs should bring stakeholders together and the councilors should chair the meetings.				
How we ensure that everybody is involved in working with the communities so that communities take charge of their development			The key issue is collaboration with the government departments both COGTA and DSD working and leadership issues.			Lack of professional working together	Personal relationship	Ward committees	Challenge of personal relationship.	We end up trying to make all the means to meet the ends		... Re bo Maphanda, we are husslers...The CDP s are privileged professionals, they come with services		CDPs only bring services and tell us about the budget they have		
							Leadership challenge	lack of team working								
Community development practitioners are not doing their job		CDPs many of them you will not find them in wards. they are not visible across the board		Have not seen CDPs in this wards	The social workers too are not visible in communities	For the past 12 years they have been talking about it...professionalisation of the CDWs since 2004			...For the past 12 years they have been talking about it...professionalisation of the CDWs since 2004			We do not know if we are included in the professionalisation of community development or not.				
We roping with CDPs or not	We were not told about the process and we were not involved		There is nothing wrong with professionalisation		What is going to happen to us and our qualifications issues (RPL) and salaries?		We need recognition,	No uniformity	Confusion of the community and no uniformity		CDWs are activists	Times are moving we cannot do things like we did before we want CDWs to be professionalized.				
We are still having issues to question the Department of Social Development. When we discovered that the DSD is professionalizing, we were professionalizing too.				We are grappling with whether we belong to SACSSP or not. Having our own or our own board.		CDWs must dream big	Career pathing	upscaling	grappling with whether we belong to SACSSP		Need to retain CDW identity than to be lumped with other profession		This is the tension that we are grappling with		It is really difficult...it is something we are talking about	
When we professionalize CDWs what do we mean what we need to do...		We still fighting because there are challenges that the CDPs and the CDWs do things differently		The question is the occupational road since many of them do not have qualifications		The sector has challenges	Professionalisation of community development will have implications to community development workers		The question is where do CDWs belong? Are they public servant's administrators?		We need to think deeply about this professionalisation and the future implications for community development workers					
The community development practitioners and all the public servants are administrators...		When we use professionalisation we are saying that the community development workers are professionals.		When we use professionalisation are saying that the community development workers are professionals		We need to think deeply about this professionalisation and the future implications for community development workers			CDWs are workers not professionals		CDWs work is door to door	Maybe the reason for tension is that the CDWS put their fingers in everything				
No protocol for partnership and is a reason for chaos		In the absence of protocol and partnership everybody does the same thing.			In the absence of protocol and partnership there is duplication everybody does the same thing.			In the absence of protocol and partnership there is confusion		There is lack of coordination	CDWs use contract and pledge	Enhancement of professionalism	Instilling professionalism			

We are still grappling on how do we ensure ethically minded community development practice		We are still grappling on how do we ensure ethically minded community development workers?		The challenges that we face is that some of us were raped in communities		Legal issues and ethical issues	Community mobilization	Seeking support from colleagues	Calling community gathering in central place	
Lack of resources from government eg cars	We work like limited airline.	We use our own money for transport from one area to another.	Ethical issues cases of individual's lottery	Ethical issues cases of individual's giving out money	Limited ethical issues from the CDWs	Role confusion and ethics	Conflict of interest	Emergence of new political parties and conflict of interest	Ideological differences	
Ethical issues and politics	Conflict of interest and political interference	Accountabilities and ethical issues	Issues of turf and lack of understanding	People fighting for nothing	Responsibilities of the councilor					

APPENDIX J Case Three Codes

CASE 3

Matric certificate	Studied diploma in geography	NQF Level 6 generic sports coach NQF Level 6 diploma in youth development		Diploma child and youth care	ACDPs are level 4	Studying social as exit plan	Mental health and disability	Have been employed at DSD in 2014 to date	Restorative justice field experience	Planning to resign	Dual registration refers to this cohort						
BA degree	Honours in development studies		Diploma in youth development		BA Community Development and Leadership degree		Social workers are level 7	Plan is to use social work outside as a private		Worked as a social worker in the field of HIV/AIDS		Want to move up to higher positions	Experience working with children and adults	Apartheid laws and policies			
BA development studies		Diploma Auxiliary social work		BA social work	Honours in community development		Studying to move to higher positions	internship in 2013	Joined DSD in 2008 when it was called community development and partnership and now it is called Sustainable Livelihood				Have twelve years in working experience		25 years working experience		
BA Tech agriculture	BA psychology	BTech in agricultural Management		Plain BA degree	Social workers are managers of community development			Joined DSD IN 2005 and the unit was called community development planning and research			27 years working experience		Have 3 years of being supervisor	NPO programmes, registering ECDs, HIV/AIDS, older person's community development is my last station			
MA nursing degree	BA in communication		PhD political studies		PhD development studies		CDPs are level 6	Statutory work	Urban and rural area field experience		Have ten years' experience		Statutory, open and probation services.		Started working in 2005 at Mpumalanga as a community development practitioner for ten years	Managers are social workers	
Moving to social work	Studying social work(want to shift)		Studying post graduate diploma in teaching			Branching out to study social work		It is difficult to be a manager without social work degree		Joined DSD IN 2009	Have been working here for the past 3 years		Joined DSD in 2000	Detained and were unable to finish their studies		Advice centers, skills development, social programmes and profiling	
Studying public management	Losing interest in community development			Branching out to teaching		Lack of promotion to supervisory post		CDPs want to be managers		Background of social work is important most of the time		Worked as manager	Complexities is historical	Worked as supervisor	Break through and the need to invent the will		Professional board and its role in dual registration
Opportunities exist for social workers	lack of relevant qualification in community development		Have ten year experience in teaching		Studying honours in psychology		CDPs branch out to study social work to be managers		Realized that having social work degree at the Department of Social Development it is important		Have been at DSD for 11 years		Been involved in professionalisation of community development as senior official		Work with school uniform	In social development since before 1994 the core was social work and even now it is still social work	
. It is like when you are talking about hospitals you are talking about doctors and nurses...Before even now managers are social workers...The senior managers in community development are social workers we inherited it from apartheid up to now. Yes, it's good that the study is about complexities...these complexities is historical							My community development experience includes working with the government four programmes of community development...such as conducting community profiling... school uniform...non funding NPOs...monitoring funded NPOs...working with cooperatives					These boundaries between social work and community development profession need to be defined clearly. We need to know who is doing what?			Complexity is a challenge for the SACSSP...the SACSSP need to deal with this historical challenge and complexities of social work		
Social development since post 1994 the core is still social work			Community development practitioners were the cohort of the people identified by government to steer community development						My experience of community development before 1994 was that many young people were actively involved in politics				Education was affected because of apartheid racial discrimination and policies			Dual registration refers to specialized area	
This cohort were social workers...community development was started at the Department of Social Development and the community development practitioners were social workers					Criteria for dual registration	Community based planning ii the document collecting dust	Experience on war on poverty	Foodbank	Community dialogue	Government used social workers to drive community development strategies	DSD in Johannesburg introduced community development in 2009	When they introduced the OSD the idea of community development was to relief the social workers					
								House hold profiling	Service Blitz								
Stakeholders mobilization	Division of communities into commissions		Community based planning		Scope of community development practitioners		Social problems e.g. unemployment, alcohol and drug abuse		Profiling raises community expectations		CDPs deal with intervention	Community negative attitude towards profiling because we do not implement and make actions.			Real community development		
Government programme of community development community profiling, school uniform, non-funding NPOs, monitoring funded NPOs, working with cooperatives			Manage the projects such as skills development, Bana Pele, child poverty, programme welfare at work get those that are in welfare.			Repletion of household and community profiling with the same community		We only give food parcels which does not sustain communities instead it makes them dependent...		Profiling information is recorded into NISAS data base and detects services needed		Four pillars of community development programme	Profiling and dependency	Community profiling is geared towards service Blitz	Questions on profiling are not relevant for urban areas		
Challenges in skills development centres is funding	We have never done profiling to the level of community based planning		Meaning of community development	Step by step community development		Need for development of livelihood and growth for women in cooperatives		The model of development center puts us in trouble because communities does not need computer training skills), We force that to communities				Community change	Reasons for failures of cooperatives	Community development approaches	Social development		
				Profiling target								Universities				Social welfare	
Chasing numbers	Vulnerable children and school uniform		Success of school uniform		Livelihood for women on cooperatives		Projects imposition of computer skills		CDPs are not trained in business and economic issues		Failures of cooperatives	Department must stop focusing on numbers than impact		Quality versus numbers	Cooperatives projects	Service provider's challenges	
Externally contracted service providers lack knowledge		Cooperative projects are project disaster according to business		Challenges with linked to contracting service providers for cooperatives			Externally contracted service providers as opposed to the region		CDPs are limited and not capacitated		CDPs lack knowledge of community development process and how to approach communities		Service delivery protests in communities and social challenges		Community fear of criminals and this affects working with households		There are no police man escorting the CDPs in communities
Unemployment	Criminal posing as officials in government				Gangs in communities		Violent communities		Lack of community safety for official			CDPs must be at the local government			Have twelve years in working experience		

Professional identity crisis of the CDPs	Experience in statutory work and child abuse	Community development unit now is called Sustainable livelihood unit	Question about the location of the CDPs in COGTA versus the Department of Social Development			Worked as assistant community development practitioners (ACDPs)		Joined government in 2005 the unit was then called community development planning and research						
Worked for five years before social worker in the field of HIV/AIDS...dealt with mental health and disability both in urban and rural area worked with children and adults			CDPs sitting at the National office of the Department of Social Development are far from communities contributes to the lack of identities of community development practitioners			Experience in NPO programmes, registering ECDs, HIV/AIDS, and older person's community development is my last station			Joined community development section in 2008 when it was called community development and partnership)		Experience in statutory, open and probation services			
Have 3 years as supervisor and have been at DSD for 11 years		Have experience of more than three years	Have more than 27 years working experience	Have 15 years' experience in social work	Worked as manager	Have ten years' experience	Have 25 years working experience	Worked as supervisor	Want to move up to higher positions	Have been at DSD since 2009 and have working as manager				
Started working in 2005	Worked as a community development practitioner for ten years	Have been employed at DSD in 2014 to date.	Work with school uniform	Been involved in professionalisation of community development as senior official	My community development experience includes working with the government four programmes of community development...such as conducting community profiling... school uniform...non funding NPOs...monitoring funded NPOs...working with cooperatives				Have youth development experience and women empowerment government flagship programme					
Have been working here for the past 3 years	Community development was done in social work	Apartheid policy did not allow for the practice of community development outside government	Social work was the only profession allowed to practice in social welfare field	Community development was done by volunteers and activists	Community development was done by anybody and people without matric that is the reason why now it was professionalized	Social workers before we used to do a mixture of community work and community development		In social development since before 1994 the core was social work and even now it is still social work	Senior managers in community development are social workers and this is inherited it from apartheid up to now					
These complexities are historical	Job opportunities before 1994	Lack of transformation in social welfare	It's good that the study is about complexities	In the area of social work and development and universities the complexities is historical			Job opportunities after 1994	In social development since and post 1994 the core is still social work.		DSD in Johannesburg introduced community development in 2009.				
When they introduced the OSD the idea of community development was to relief the social workers		It is like when you are talking about hospitals you are talking about doctors and nurses.	Community development was started at the Department of Social Development and the community development practitioners were social workers		Before even now managers are social workers. In few years ... will be living. It is work in progress.		After 1994 few social workers do now work as community development practitioners and do community development		This complexity is a challenge for the SACSSP...the SACSSP need to deal with this historical challenge and complexities of social work		My experience of community development before 1994 was that many young people did not go to school due to apartheid challenges.			
After 1994 community development practitioners are the cohort of the people identified by government to steer community development.....This cohort were social workers			Government used social workers to drive community development strategies		Dual registrations refer to those kinds of people that is cohort of social workers.		In social development since before 1994 the core was social work and even now it is still social work...		Dual registration is applicable for specialist area.	Professional board	Who qualifies for dual registration and the criteria for dual registration	Service Blitz		
Intervention work	Foodbank	War on poverty	Household profiling	Community challenges	Community based planning	Community dialogue	Stakeholders engagement for service delivery			Social challenges and problems				
Dividing communities into commissions		Community based planning is done after dialogue because this falls outside our scope.		Unemployment alcohol and drug abuse	Community based planning falls outside the scope of CDPs		Community based planning is a document on the person's desk collecting dust			Household profiling	Non-funded NPOs	School uniform project	Profiling challenges	
CDPs are working with the government programmes of community development...such as community profiling, school uniform, non-funding NPOs, monitoring funded NPOs, working with cooperatives. ...manage the projects such as skills development, Bana Pele, child poverty, programme welfare at work get those that are in welfare				Community profiling	Community profiling and households profiling of the same community for many years		Community negative attitudes towards profiling	Food parcels distribution after profiling		Food parcels causes community dependency		Community development programme has four pillars. The advice centers, skills development, social programmes. Profiling falls under social programmes		
Profiling it is in crisis now		NISAS detects services communities need	Profiling was designed with the people and communities in rural areas		Referrals of people to skills training	Advice and referrals falls under skills development centers		The challenges of skills development center is funding		Profiling makes communities or people to be dependent		information about household income and family situations.		
Profiling creates expectations		Community profiling is geared towards service Blitz	We have never done profiling to the level of community based planning and we do not know why		We have never done profiling to the level of where we reflect to community and share findings that this is what we found... what is that you want to do and this is what we are going to do together				After profiling information is recorded into NISAS data base		The profiling that we do the questionnaire is not relevant to urban areas.		People are negative when it comes to profiling. Because we do not implement and make actions.	
There is difference between community development we learnt from universities and the one we are doing in government			Community profiling and community development practitioners profiling problems		Community development is seeing community change and sustained in social welfare		Social development policies	The need for authentic community development	Real community development is the one we have done at the university...approaches, step by step		Government community development is about statistics and required output.		CDPs are chasing numbers	
Successes of the school uniform	CDPs have target to profile 500 households in profiling	CDPS focus is about the numbers not quality of what you have done		Reasons for the failures of cooperatives projects		CDPs over supportive role in cooperative Lack of business skills	Failures of the cooperatives projects	Social support role of the CDPs	Lack of business acumen	Cooperative project came with lot of pressure for women.		Health issues and some are sick and others have passed on.	Community development practitioners are not trained in business	Sewing skills
Bureaucratic challenges of budget and transfer to cooperatives is a headache		Service providers monitoring and evaluation of the cooperatives challenges		Bureaucratic challenges of budget and transfer to cooperatives		Challenges of timeframe in cooperatives	Cooperative project is a disaster according to business.		Health issues of women in cooperatives	Pressure of women in cooperatives	Imposition of computer skills project	The model of development center puts us in trouble because communities does not need that (computer training skills).		We force projects that to communities.

Glitches of bureaucratic challenges of budget and transfer to cooperatives affects confidence of community development practitioners				Challenges of the service providers not contracted form the region Drastic changes and challenges related to service providers				Community development practitioners are limited and not capacitated.			Role confusion between community development practitioners and service providers contracted from other region			Role confusion in monitoring, evaluation and capacitation of the NPOs.			Duplication of service with the service providers		Role conflict and confusion with the service providers					
The challenge with the service provider is that you end up not knowing what you do because you find duplication.				Service provider doing monitoring and evaluation which is what we are doing.				We find ourselves not knowing what our role is.		Reasons why we have conflict and role confusion		Need to accommodate all stakeholders on board for election		CDPs are sub profession of social work		We co-exist the ...that describes us...the doctor and the nurse		We need professionalisation of community development because we need protection						
Non-sustainability of NPOs.		Red tape and restriction.		Resignation challenges of the community development practitioners				Coordination of community development challenge in the province				Being jerk of all trades can be problematic		CDPs r roles should be clear		CDPs are hired without clear purpose and this defeating the purpose			CDPs are extension to social work					
Community development practitioners profile for the sake of profiling		Profiling for no reason		Communities are profiled many times		Profiling create expectations and make promises we do not fulfil		Sub profession means there are bigger profession than us...they existed before us. Community development is part of social worker wing... It is one part of them				Professionalisation is a good initiative to help us to be recognized by other professions				We need professionalisation because there is confusion and frustration			CDPs are step sisters of social work					
Disconnection between profiling and addressing community needs			Profiling disconnection		Service delivery protests		Community safety		Professionalisation is a good thing		We need professionalisation to be protected from communities		We need professionalisation because we cannot open our own practice		Professionalisation is a good initiative			CDPs are not registered						
High unemployment		Should the CDPs not be placed with COGTA than being in DSD			The process of professionalisation is taking too long from something that started in 2003				The cooking of professionalisation has been on the pot for a very long time since 2012			Professionalisation will help us to be recognized by other profession			We need to register with SACSSP		Most social workers say we are not the core of social services							
Professionalisation was supposed to take five years but the process now is still not completed				Attended professionalisation meetings only last year and have been at the department since 2014				Lack of involvement of the CDPs in the implementation and process		Lack of communication in professionalisation of community development		The reason why we need professionalisation is that we need to be protected that is why we need professional board and we need to be recognized				Community development entry level must be changed from level six to level seven			Our department is failing us					
The provinces particularly do not know what is going on with the professionalisation process			Lack of consultations with the HEI		When will registration happens and why has it delayed.		There were no consultations and we are not taken seriously		Professionalisation will help us not to be abused internally and externally because people can come across abusive			We need professionalisation for protection of officials so that there can be compliance		The task team took our names and qualifications. We were excited and nothing is happening			Decided to branch to social work							
National must push provincial so that things must get going		Confusion about roles and responsibilities of the provincial office and the national office in professionalisation process				Universities were not invited in September due to dynamics in other provinces		We realized that professionalisation should not be only at the Department of Social Development		Professionalisation process is very slow...they invited us to a three day meetings ...we eat food and nothing is happening			Ten years later the process of professionalisation is still taking place			The process of professionalisation is very slow.								
What is delaying professionalisation process we very frustrated in this field		What are the time frames and is professionalisation going to be finalized... it seems that it will never end?				We need recognition of prior learning		Retention and resignations		No recognition of qualifications		There is no progression		Studying social work to qualify for supervision post		Became supervisor in 2009 and I am still now a supervisor		Professionalisation is a threat for social workers being leaders in the unit		...although professionalisation is a threat for social workers being leaders in the unit				
The task team invited us to a three day meetings we eat food and nothing is happening. In another meet they invite us. We go there and they tell us the same thing. They say we are at this level! Which level? They do not see that people are resigning in our unit.								When will this process of professionalisation is going to be finalized? Professionalisation process is taking too long				In supervision, they do not want to take an electrical engineer to supervise CDPs, that is why I am studying social work			Managers are social workers it is tough for getting leadership positions		Issues about dual registration are also asked		As social work leaders in the unit we need dual membership					
There is no movement in professionalisation		In our unit people are living and It is worse.		Many resignations of the CDPs		The time professionalisation was introduced we were excited		Complex situation in terms of professionalisation of community development is that majority of community development managers and supervisors are social workers				Studying social work		Dual membership		Need for collaboration		We have to find ways of working with each other		Issues of CDPs and CDWs need to be cleared out		They must build a hub		
The task team now raise issues of qualifications		Planning to move to social work when I am finish my studies		If you are employed as CDP you will always be in level six CDP		CDPs are managed by someone from different profession		Constant clashing in supervision due to lack of knowledge of community development		We cannot lose our experience or our qualifications		We do not have bursaries to further our studies		We working with one community and one child.		We are one social service profession		Lack of working relationship with the social workers		Career pathing		Community work		
Lack of bursary benefits and opportunities		Lack of employment progression		Lower salary		Lower status		Lack of promotion to senior positions		Most of the people considered in terms of senior jobs and qualifications is social workers.		Managers are social workers		Used my social work degree for this job so that the salary can fall under level seven instead of level			The sector need to be united because it is very broad		Narrow the scope		There are too many role players		We have two boards at the SACSSP for social work and for child and youth care	
Demotivation of the CDPs		Continuation of hiring social workers instead of community development practitioners			Continuation of hiring people with development studies qualification instead of community development qualifications				Recruitment of community development focus on social work		The task team have to consider that our managers are social workers for the purpose of dual membership			Social worker but appointed as community development practitioner in this unit		If they do not look at the designation and scope it is going to be difficult			There has to be clearly identified parameters					
The spirit of work is very low		When there are vacant posts they hire social workers in senior positions			Professionalisation is taking long. We have only one person in level 7 who has a degree in public relations. But those with relevant qualifications and honours are in level 6				We also have a dilemma here for example we have some people who are trained in social work and are holding management positions working in the space of community development					Studying social work due to lack of opportunities in community development			Bursaries at the department are only for social workers and we do not							

											qualify...this explains why many of us are studying social work
There is no recognition of qualifications	Opportunities only exist for social workers they are in level seven	Branching to social work for supervision purpose	Supervision of community development practitioners by qualified practitioners.	Scope of practice and progression	Scope of practice challenges	Clear scope of practice so that the practice is not ambiguous	Need for dialogue and development of a policy	Articulated in the DPSA scale	Professionalisation is a very long journey	Integrated and collaborative efforts for transformation is an agenda for all of us	
Professional identities are not clearly set up e.g. SETAs have little pockets of community development	We have one strategic objective that talks about integration in SACSSP	The two boards looked at integrated management and even taking it down to ordinary members in the ground	How to encourage our constituents to work in collaborative fashion?	Social work knowledge base of community development	Multidisciplinary fields of community development	Community development practitioner's qualifications is from teaching and management	Lack of community development knowledge base				
They have to identify who they collaborate with and parameters	Disjuncture between the practice which the department is supporting and the education part of it.	Disjuncture between our higher learning institutions and what government wants to do.	What is the scope of practice of community development practitioners?	RPL those people with rich experience without any formal qualifications. They know work and they are excellent. It is a long journey but we are in the right direction.	Community development	Community development has pledged money with the treasurer					
There is a very disconnect inherited it from apartheid	Complexity is aligning, taking people and training them and give them a license in the form of a certificate to be able to be professionals in the line that they have studied	Infights among academics	There is always us versus them	Community is shared... How do they do development as done by social work and community development workers? As they do it how do they do it? Knowledge generation	Professional registration means and norms and standards must be developed and this is non-negotiable	Social work is not developed					
We need to make sure that there is indigenous knowledge.	We do not want to see the sector elitist.	It was agreed in the Summit which was held in 2011 about the need to professionalize community development	when we inaugurate there should be enough people to pool financial	The SACSSP give guidance in terms of the requirements process and to say to the emerging profession this is what you are required to do	Need to have a startup financial capital to mobilise the sector	Role of the SACSSP is to provide support in terms of norms and standards					
We need a body of knowledge that can define this cadre.	Ya, that's why complexities because we've got social workers. We've got community development practitioners. We've got community development workers. Working with the very same people	The task team is in a process of establishing a working committee with the universities, private sector and other government departments...	Social work role is psychosocial and our role is capacitating the youth when doing developmental work, this is a tension and complexities	we are Mixed Masala... Nobody knows us... Some say supporting staff... admin clerks and people assume that when you are from DSD we are social workers...	Regulation will say that a social worker can only be supervised by a social worker registered with the South Africa Council of Social Service Professions						
Role confusion	CDPs scope is not clear	Tension of professionalisation	Intervention approach of community we need everyone.	Complexity is about the model	Norms and standards are universities offering	Protecting turfs					
Contestation about the role of community development practitioners or the role of community development worker in community comes when people don't understand what each person brings to the community...	Complexity is broad about the way we are sequencing the work.	Complexity It is about the way we do service delivery model	We need to workshop to discuss roles and responsibilities	Complexity is the entrance of community development practitioners and contestations	Social work has never changed the scope of practice. It is one area that is the problem now	Social work scope must be directed, they cannot do everything					
Complexity is how we deliver service to communities...	What is happening is the sequencing the way we work	If we do not follow a model, we will have this contestation	Because of the contestations the questions are how do we solve the problem and everybody must be part of that	The seed money must be made available for those employed to run the process	Need to have startup capital to finance the sector	The sector emerging must proof beyond reasonable doubt and everything is there tomorrow	There must be the demand for community development service in the sector				
Complexity is some factor of distinction of practice which must be made...	There is some factor of distinction of practice which must be made	You cannot be the referee and the player at the same time	Department of Social Development is leading the professionalisation project and coordinates it	The task team brought on board the SACSSP.	Standardization of community development will help	CDPs are supposed to link with economic development	The SACSSP falls within the ministry of social development	Where do you draw the line in terms of what community development practitioners do?			
If you learn to inject you inject	Doctors can inject and nurses can inject but the scope says this is what you can do when the other party is around	At the DSD the scope is not there that is why we find contestations because you find people protecting the turfs	Professionalization started at the Department of Social Development to address in-house challenges	The scope of practice is not clearly defined	Service delivery						
Issues of turfs and contestations	Contestations is caused by lack of clear scope of practice	There is the need to collaborate and align to a model	Alignment with the model	Need to be inclusive	There should be career pathing.	Lack of uniformity	Political agenda	Responsibilities are confused	Defending the turfs	There must be professional registration	
Need for collaboration	Community development is community based	Until people have not modelled how service should be given to the people we will continue to have challenges	Community development board and SACSSP need to look at this complexity between the social service professions including the CDWs of turfs and contestations because for me complexities is about defending the turfs but not service delivery	There is different interpretation of what community development is and the scope of practice	The tension and complexity need to be extended to community development and regulations						
How do we deliver service to the ground should be the priority...?	When we professionalise and form community development board the SACSSP need to look at this complexity between the social service professions including the CDWs of turfs and contestations because for me complexities is about defending the turfs but not service delivery	Some of the things we should be doing as CDPs should be working hand in hand with the stakeholders developing IDPs that speaks to community	The scope of practice at entry for ACDPs, CDPs supervisors and specialization and at what level essentially will guide the process.								
The sector need to be united because it is very broad.	Narrow the scope	Need clarity of the roles	Professional board	Knowledge base	We need a healthy dialogue	Lack of standards	Issues of inclusion and exclusion	Emerging profession	The process of professionalisation	The sector must be sustainable	The sector must be registrable
If the scope is wide and not directed, you cannot measure	The problem of social work is historical.	We need to look at the scope of practice and if it is realistic it will pay	The scope of practice will help what to narrow down	Social workers integrate as a method of community work	We co-exist the difference is that the other one earns better than us...that	...The owners are the new kid of the block to define and justify its existence...	What will happen to us with development studies?	If the scope is different there will be always a room for co-existence. Social workers integrate a method of community work.			
Need clearly defined scope	Designation	Scope of practice	If the scope is different there will be always a room for co-existence.	Is the CDP name going to stick?	People confuse CDWs and CDPs	We need to have special name	There is no integration...	The biggest complexity is defining its uniqueness, they are struggling.			
Need for setting data base, outreach, voter education, creating a registrable data base, professional registration	The registration process conducted by the task team is used to build the case to form professional board	Professionalisation is going to harm those without qualifications.	The key question to be raised is the will this people who are registered meet the requirements of the profession	The CDWs, CLO and other people without any form of certification that is the other thing for complexities who is going to be taken out and in.	CDPs role is to monitor funding, capacity building, brings stakeholders and monitor services.						

The task team by the look of things they are using the 1978 ACT	For us ACDPs it is hard. We need to further our studies.	Registration is about building the case to meet the current requirements of 1978 Act the professional board	Social workers do not recognize us	Feeling of discouragement	Feeling of unfairness	Downgraded	Lack of policy guidelines	ACDP have matric.
The ACDP s have matric but are not trained in NQF level 4. Working with communities is difficult we have to distil it and make it clear. I am happy about you are doing this research.		Supervision of community development	Development studies honours	With professionalisation recognition too will be better	Anyone who went to formal education you would want to earn respect and be recognized.			

With professionalisation resources, tools of traits and salary will be better.		Within the department things are not done the same compared to social work perhaps when we professionalise the SACSSP will assist, guide and provide support.			Even the salary has to match the start entry level and should be of a professional person. Social worker's entry level is 7 and CDP entry level is 6.			CDPs nicknames we are still treated as step child of social work even in terms of offices they will still move CDPs to accommodate social workers.			
Currently priority in terms of tools of trait is given to social workers.		For me it discourages me because we are doing more than what social workers are doing. We feel it's unfair for us to be downgraded. We did not even have proper guidelines. I came in in 2012 it is not clear what criteria we are getting				We CDPs are given nicknames such as Takalani, Mickey Mouse,fruit salads, street children, social work step cousins/sisters/ kids. The implication being that we are playing.		Professional jealousy	Expanded public works programme (EPWPC)	OSD was created for the CDPs. The OSD level seven	
It (professionalisation) took a long time due to the problem/issues of Professional identity		Lack of support from the previous SACSSP	Identity issues people feeling that they will be absorbed by the social workers. They are seen as ancillary work and not standing out as profession.		It (professionalisation) took eight year or more to get to start the discussion and a point where they have peace.		It (professionalisation) is not so complex in the professionalisation per se	It (professionalisation) is that people protect their turf....	We are tapering into the area of community development workers		
Non-developmental	Lack of registration	Regulation.	No policy for community development		Community development in government		Community work in social work		Establish professional board		Social development...
Ensure that regulation meet the requirements	The development of the policy led to the delay of the process of professionalisation		We developed policies for community development policy	Developed a policy that talks about social service professions	The policy was revised to include other designation of social service professions and social service practitioners		The draft policy was drafted to include the ECDs and community development.		The draft policy now is ready and this is the reason why we have lost two years of professionalisation process to take the policy		If it recognizes us we are going to be recognized
Professionalisation task team.	Doing legislation for SACSSP to exist	Legislation of ACT of 1978 which evolved from social work		Policy inclusiveness versus policy exclusiveness	Revision of Legislation of ACT of 1978 to ensure that it includes other social service professions			Before we had legislation ACT of 1978 which only covered social work		Complexity in this instance is the classical example of working between the now future	
One of the reason that contributed to the delay of the process of professionalisation of community development has to do with the new revised social service policy for practitioners.			Complexity because The task team has not interrogated the qualifications of the community development practitioners.		Complexity in terms of the current legislation the minister can say only this percentage from the voter's roll can sit on the board.		Now the newly revised Social Service Policy for Practitioners includes the designation of social work, community development and child and youth care		There are many things that the task team are talking instead of doing	Professionalisation involves development of the norms and standard, ethical code of practice, registration	Demonstrate knowledge base. The child and youth care too explains itself too using social work...
It is a complexity because the people that meet requirements must be endorsed by the SACSSP it is not only by virtue of working as a community development practitioner.		Now we will be having the 2019 national elections and this will be the shortest cabinet year and the draft policy documents will reach parliament the next two years. Until then we will be talking about professionalisation.		The future is the policy and the draft Bill The reality is that we are having the shortest parliamentary hearing and it might take us again another two years.	This is the reason why we have lost two full years of professionalisation because we are caught between the current policy which was not inclusive and the future inclusive policy		Missed opportunity to register community development as part under social development maybe even under social work... They didn't...		Complexity because the SACSSP will have to establish occupational committee. By the look of things, they are using the 1978 Act.	Community development practitioners what is it that they think they must be trained on... Let's talk frankly for community development to be a profession it will have to do this	
Why is it difficult for community development to come up with scope?		The team that is leading professionalisation process must step back... It is not about being registered... There are bigger things to come			The task team need to behave as if there are no social workers in South Africa they have to do the work as community development practitioners		We are dealing with people's gut feelings (task team)	Everybody who came to the space is saying that social work is useless	We need a body of knowledge that can define this cadre...	Everything that the practitioners have spent at the university is thrown out of the corridor	
We should have had conference of community development. That is where we should have been professionalized... It is very complex... It is like an amoeba... You chop and change			People do not understand social work profession	The problem is not social work but the space social work is working in	People who are heading professionalisation process do not have the basic qualifications in community development... In the same way as different disciplines...			The environment at the department of social development is killing the profession		Recognition of prior learning (RPL)	Data base
Once community development is professionalized, it will be a challenge that for many graduates that the university curriculum and qualifications did not meet the requirements... This is going to be the big problem			People who think they understand but they do not understand (task team)	The reality is the biggest challenge...what is it for them?	Student training and some universities are not doing the practical component	Most of them reason for themselves or their university	Let's talk about ACT of 1978... This is a challenge and that is what is delaying the process of professionalisation... That is the task team. They spent		They (Task team) forget about the draft Bill that it is in the future.		time justifying their existence
They must put relevant people in senior position who have qualifications in community development not social workers		The unit of community development must be led by people who understand the problem and community development...		The affected people are the people at the ground i.e. the community development practitioners... All what they want to do is to register			They do not know what lies behind. Also (name and qualification of the person removed for ethical reasons) has qualifications and does not know anything about this... (name removed) task team is responsible for the mass.			We want the quick fix and this is the challenge.	
We should have said this is how child and youth care was professionalized		The RPL has to be endorsed by the SACSSP and the DSD ...	Community development professionalisation followed the Act 1978.			The ACT 1978 does not have occupational road space but the Draft Bill have a space for that		Professionalisation of community development will take place but not now soon		Sub directorate done skills audit.	
We need to call everyone who is doing development so that everyone buys into the space including the RPL		The task team and the steering committee failed to bring people on board...	We realised that professionalisation should not be only at the Department of Social Development		Only but we need to accommodate all stakeholders on board to ensure that when it is election time everybody was on board		Skills audit was only limited to the Department of Social Development...		Universities were not invited in September due to dynamics in other provinces they were invited.		The qualifications

Community development professionalisation was conceptualized when people were already employed at the department and were already in		The challenge of this professionalisation is lack of defining the scope of community development and to say this are the requirements		The findings of the skills audit were that community development practitioners need to be capacitated		We needed to do in-house training, qualifications and toolkit		Community development professionalisation addressed problems in-house because people came from different fields		We developed three qualifications, NQF level 4, 5 and 8.		
We have policy guidelines however they forget about qualifications		We started professionalisation not understanding it.		Professionalisation is a big issue but we did scoping with SETA.		People had qualifications such as, degree in teaching, financial management, human resource		It was agreed in the Summit which was held in 2011 that we need to professionalize community development that is the start				
When we realized that professionalisation was a bigger problem we brought other stakeholders like institutions of Higher Educations.		Universities is one of the stakeholders. We realized it was bigger we brought in these stakeholders...		Why professionalisation? The in house qualifications and qualifications not standardized from different universities.		White Paper for Social Welfare it places community development at the center. we have is NQF Level 4, 5 and 8...		There were issues but at least now we have the current SACSSP on board		The current SACSSP term will end in 2021... So that when it ends the CDPs must be registered. Their term is five years...		
No ethics	Ethics need to protect the employer and the employee			Recognition and attitudes		No code of conduct	Policy is not yet approved		We need to register people on a data base		provinces they were invited...	
Anyone was allowed to apply as community development practitioner	The process of professionalisation started at the Department of Social Development addressing challenges from in-house			Majority of the employees in our section did not have a qualification in community development		There was no uniformity and standards to say who comes in. standardization will help... That is where it started.		We brought on board the SACSSP...Qualification and job description, skills audit led to the need for professionalisation...		The previous SACSSP there were many issues of communication...buying in ... issues of funding		
We wanted also our own SACSSP and the challenge in forming our own SACSSP was that we had a challenge of buy in like now we have no leg to stand on		The delay of professionalisation of community development was caused by misunderstanding between the SACSSP and DSD				We experienced challenges with the previous SACSSP		We started the process from 2011.	In 2015 we applied to the SACSSP and their term got to an end		A new board for the SACSSP was established	
Professionalisation will be in place in 2021	The current SACSSP is supportive	SACSSP provides advice in house and there is commitment		Things now are shaping for professionalisation ... We are working on a data base.		Child and youth care workers have their board but not qualifications		People are tired of professionalisation process...		We started professionalisation with qualifications		
In July 2011 we had workshop on professionalisation of community development and steering committee was formed				We started with qualifications and we have NQF qualification 4, 5 and 8		The child and youth care sector have a board but no qualifications	The new regulations will tell us the kinds of qualifications we need		In October 2011 we had a summit in Port Elizabeth	In 2012 and 2013 we had road shows in provinces		
Roles of CDPs is in the policy	One of the key focus area in the policy is capacitation and it is a draft policy but not yet approved			We are going around to create awareness about registration		We are doing data base so that we can nominate people who are going to serve on the board		Those names will be publicized and those people will be nominated		Then there will be elections and later inauguration of the board		
Once professional board is set it will be followed by registration process of the community development practitioners...		We need to consolidate the data base	Verification will include the IEC, after that we need to publish the names of the people who have been nominated to serve on the board			Once the board is in place...we will be able to announce regulations, who is in this, who must come to the SACSSP		It will be elections and inauguration ...	There is lack of participation of civil society in professionalisation of community development		Not sure if people have passion or if it is strong enough...	There is no enough response in the registration process
With the previous SACSSP we had limited interaction because of the issues of power struggle		They also had their own issues hence it affected the process of professionalisation process and at the DSD		There was no partnership and the civil society were looking at the child and youth care for sense of urgency		All those years we spent might be due to the method we used which was not the right one and maybe we should have called the stakeholders at the spot and complete the registration on the data base						We have a challenge of people lacking passion and not having interest in the registration process...
We will be done with the outreach by March. 2019 What is left is the buy in by stakeholder, planning and budget. We need to consolidate the data base.		Once the board is also formed, we will be starting with articulation meeting	The DSD did not get guidance from the previous SACSSP... What affected the process was the fact that the DSD too wanted their own SACSSP and this did not work out...		Currently we are trying to check even an exit at NQF level 8 if a person wants to exit at second year level...		We have discrepancies in terms of salaries in terms of social work and community development practitioners... Social workers are at level 7 and community development practitioners are at level 6.		Professionalisation will help the Occupational Specific Designation (OSD)	Norms and standards will help to address challenges of resignations, budget cut, replacement of staff and posts		
There is fear.	We hope that SACSSP will assist with the values	There will be a need for universities to take people at second year level		The RPL is creating uncertainty especially	In this policy we it talks very little about values and principles		We visit provinces about professionalisation, norms and standards and implementation is a challenge				We started with comprehensive policy but it is a challenge	
We need code of conduct	Professionalisation is good for ethical issues	The plan is that they will be given time period to catch up.		If there is a misconduct you can be scrapped off the roll	Social work is professionalized and they have ethics		You need to respect	Dress code and identification is important		Our cadre do not know ethical issues	Issues of confidentiality	
Complexity is not the entrance of professionalisation of community development complexity is about the contestations among the practitioners in the field or practice.... People are protecting their turf...		What will follow is that there would be regulation stipulating who does not qualifications. They will have to cater for those without qualifications these is uncertainties. There will be dual registrations and I am trying to think what will be pushing that.				It is good for community development to be professionalized...we need ethics		Professionalisation of community development is supported to address ethical issues and currently there is no code of ethics for community development practice		Ethics are important because we work with people from different cultures		
Dress codes and manner of approach	In some cultures you are not supposed to wear a trouser as females like in Mpumalanga villages... CDPs must bring dresses		There is no code of ethics for community development at the moment	Child and youth care also they looked at what social work has done		until the board is in place institutions use their own code of ethics that their students will subscribe to before they go for their practical.		Community development will have to do the same and adopt in the development of their own code of ethics and make it friendlier				

CASE 4																										
BA community development	Working and studying MA community development		Honors public management	studying law due to lack of job opportunities		Internship experience at the Department of Social Development		Unemployment		Supervision of community development students		Job hunting			Internship at mining company											
Internship experience at the private sector in community development		University internship programme	Facilitator of community development practical programme for students		No opportunities for community development		Branching out to law due to lack of job opportunities		Internship programme in private companies		Facilitator internship programme	Lack of job opportunities and being absorbed in the internship programme is the reason for branching out to law			Studying law degree	No jobs in community development										
Completed community development degree in 2013		Working as a project manager at private university	Worked as manager of community development in 1997 as a social worker		Community development in social work	Employed as a social worker doing community development		Community development programmes at DSD includes poverty alleviation projects, income generating programmes, youth and women projects			DSD community development programmes under sustainable livelihoods		Community development programme was latter opened for teachers moving from education and opted to do community development			Initially community development started with social workers and when time goes on it was open to various disciplines within social sciences										
Many teachers joined and became community development practitioners		In 2003-2004 initially community development started with social workers.		Community development It should have been made specialty within social work though community development is for everyone		We were not reporting to the council. This was a confusion to social workers because they were registered with the council. We had four years' degree and we had to work with people and compete with people who had only matric certificates.				The salaries were not equal.	Social workers were asked if they want to go back to social work or remain. Many social workers opted to go back to social work but nothing happened.			BA social work in 1986 and have experience in victim empowerment		MA child and youth care										
Worked at department of social development for 20 years doing statutory work		Community development for more than nine years	Supervision of community development practitioners		Macro social work	community development in when I was a social work student in 1970		Lecturing position for 4 -5 years and worked at the NGO, DSD and private sector		Community development lecturer	my community development experience date from the 1980		In 1988 we organized march against death penalty to church square and we were hundred and seventy		Dealt with human rights issues and social justice during apartheid		Started community development as a political activist in social work		Have more than twenty years' experience in lecturing community development and also as a researcher in higher education							
Trained in community development as part of social work		Worked as community development worker	Done community development in my life and at my community	Promoting service delivery and improvement of the community.		1980 was editor for grassroots newspaper and involved community members in writing their stories and advocacy from community organisations		Joined UDF and done community development as a struggle for better life for all.		This fed my work into policy because community development does not make structural changes and that is where social policy is important		worked in the field of community development for more than twenty years		Played a role in formulation of the White Paper of Social Welfare1997.		Involved in community development when I was a social work student in 1970		Youth practitioner since 1994, started working as a youth worker at church worked		Done direct practice for four years and have more experience in research in social welfare policy since 2006-2018						
Have more than twenty years' experience in social work and came in late in the history and professionalisation of community development and association for social service profession and youth development sector...						Social work played key role in community development		Method of social work		Community development is standalone discipline		Emerged in 1980		Formation of the Department of Community Development in 1980		Community development driven by government		Community development driven outside government		Political organisation						
Community mobilisation		Human rights	Community development projects		Community development outside government		Advice centres	Social work field practice		Rights of people		Social work activists	Education on people rights		Conscientising people	Empowering people	Social problems	Advocacy work	Government lobbying	Role of political organisation		Professional association				
Active involvement in politics and community development		Volunteerism in 1970s		Clinical orientation of social work		Social protest	March against death penalty		Communities		Improvement of people		Role/link of politics in community development		Politics are ignored in social work education		Strategies to include politics in curriculum		Developmental perspective		Relevance of systemic and structural injustices		Broader approach of community development		Support of the policy framework	
Community development practitioner must have broader perspective White Paper of Social Welfare policy document mandated community development work and prominence of community development work						Community development was introduced in 1997 at DSD		Social workers recruited as community development practitioners		Social worker's employment as community development practitioner		Policy frameworks guiding developmental community development		Community development was about Implementing projects		Poverty alleviation projects and programmes										
Income generating type of projects		Food garden type of project		Employment social worker as managers of community development			Employment of social workers as supervisors of community development workers			Employment of social workers as community development practitioners			Dual role of social work in community development		Exertion of power by one professional to another professional in another profession											
Specialization and the need to have experience		Regulations of specialization		Specialization and active experience and capacity		What is the difference between community work and community development?		Community development id developmental		Conceptual conflation between community work and social development		Community development in social work		Community development work is broader than social work		Community development strengthen were social work is lacking		Community work is a component social work								

What is community work	What is community development	Community work is method of social work	Social work is British colonialism profession	Community work is residual	Residual element in community work is necessary	Community work is not developmental but residual	Community development is done in different profession	Community work promote community development
Community development is an approach in social work and social welfare		Community development is a generalist practice model	Community development is multi-disciplinary	Notion of community and community development in development		Community development is important in grassroots development and development	Community development is about development	Community development is about capacity building