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Ramasobana, Mokgophana

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Participants' Perceptions of the effectiveness of CLEAR-AA's Development Evaluation Training Programme in Africa

Mokgophana Ramasobana,

Student No: 541533

Wits School of Governance

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Keywords: evaluation capacity building, evaluation capacity development, training effectiveness,

Abstract

In the past few decades, monitoring and evaluation (M&E) capacity-building programmes and training budgets aimed at addressing the rising demand for M&E skills have been increasing. Over the same period, extensive research focusing on the broader evaluation capacity development (ECD) spectrum has been commissioned. However, insufficient research assessing the effectiveness of M&E capacity-building programmes has been conducted; therefore, their contribution towards building skills and knowledge is unknown. In this study, qualitative research aimed at assessing the effectiveness of the Development Evaluation Training Programme in Africa (DETPA), delivered by the Centre for Learning on Evaluation and Results – Anglophone Africa (CLEAR-AA), was used as a case study to begin to understand how Kirkpatrick's (1959) training effectiveness model could be applied to understand the DETPA training programme implemented in Africa. This is informed by DETPA's popularity in the region and plans to scale up and implement the programme on an annual basis. Therefore, conducting this assessment contributes towards the improvement of the programme. Using Kirkpatrick's model, semi-structured interviews were conducted aimed at assessing participants' perceptions on whether or not the DETPA programme has contributed towards building their individual capacities (skills and knowledge), influenced their individual behavioural change as well as organisational behavioural change. The interviews were also aimed at ascertaining their perceptions regarding the gaps of programmes such as the DETPA. This study focused on the participants of the 2017 programme, which also marked the launch of the DETPA. For the purpose of research rigour interviews with different categories of respondents were conducted as follows: ten (10) DETPA 2017 participants, one (1) DETPA facilitator, two (2) DETPA moderators and four (4) line managers of participants. The findings are not generalizable, as the purpose of the study was not to conduct a quantitative analysis of the perceptions of participants, but to better understand how individual participants personally experienced the potential effects of the DETPA on their individual and organisational capacities. Based on the participant's perceptions, the programme has been perceived to have the following effects: generally, the findings indicate that the overall programme was perceived by participants to have contributed positively to their M&E capacity development. It was specifically perceived to have contributed towards improving their skills and knowledge as well as to some extent to have contributed towards sustaining the transfer of skills. In addition,

there was mixed feedback on whether the programme has contributed towards improving participants' organisational performance. In terms of the perceived gaps in the programme, it was significant that participants proposed that CLEAR-AA should consider integrating the Made in Africa Evaluation (MAE) philosophy throughout the entire DETPA, as it is currently only included as a single module. This elevates the role of local or contextual approaches in understanding the effectiveness of training programmes delivered in the African diaspora. In conclusion, this study recommends that further empirical research should be conducted to better understand the mechanisms by which training influences skills and knowledge acquisition as well as organisational effectiveness in M&E, as well as to allow for the generalisation of these findings.

Keywords: Evaluation capacity development, Evaluation capacity building, Training effectiveness, Skills and Knowledge acquisition and transfer and Organisational performance

Declaration

I declare that this thesis/dissertation titled '*Participants Perceptions of the effectiveness of CLEAR-AA's Development Evaluation Training Programme in Africa'* is my own, independent work. I have documented and referenced all sources used and cited. This submission is in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Master of Management (Public sector monitoring and evaluation) at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. This report has not been submitted for any other degree or examination or any other institution.

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Mokgophana Ramasobana

Johannesburg, 27 February 2020

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS viii

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ix

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH 10

1.1 Introduction 10

1.2 Problem Statement 12

(i) Statement of the problem 12

(ii) The context 13

(iv) The rationale 14

(v) Purpose statement 15

1.3 Research Questions 15

Primary research question 15

Sub-Questions 15

1.4 Structure of the research report 15

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW 17

2.1 Introduction 17

2.2 Background of the Development Evaluation Training Programme in Africa 17

2.3 Contextualising Capacity and Skills Development Discourses in Africa 19

2.3.1 The emergence of New Public Management in Africa 19

2.3.2 Interlinking New Public Management initiatives and Human Resource Development 21

2.3.3 Overview of Human Resource Development theory 23

2.3.4 Applying HRD in an African context 27

2.4 Understanding the concept of organisational performance or change 29

Implementing the concept of organisational performance or change 30

Factors that advance or inhibit organisational change 32

2.5 Conceptualising Evaluation Capacity Building and Evaluation Capacity Development 38

2.5.1 Linking the role of training programmes to organisational change 40

2.5.2 The professionalisation of the evaluation field and related debates around relevant skills 41

2.5.3 The advantages and disadvantages of the professionalisation of M&E 43

2.5.4 Debates on the evaluation of M&E training programmes 47

2.6 Common Approaches to Measuring Training Effectiveness 50

2.7 Models for Evaluating the Effectiveness of Training Programmes 52

2.8 The application of Kirkpatrick's model in previous studies 56

Level 2: Learning 62

Level 3: Transfer 62

Level 4: Organisation 62

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY 63

3.1 Introduction 63

3.2 Research paradigm and strategy 63

3.3 Research design 64

3.4 Data and data gathering 65

3.5 Sampling 66

3.6 Data analysis 66

3.7 Validity and reliability 67

3.8 Limitations and delimitations 67

3.9 Ethics 68

3.10 Informed consent 69

3.11 Confidentiality and harm to participants 69

CHAPTER 4: DESCRIPTION OF RESULTS 70

4.1 Introduction 70

4.2 Participants' overall reaction to the DETPA programme 71

Primary research question 71

4.2.2 Key theme: Relevance of the DETPA programme 75

4.2.3 Key theme: Insightful and good use of participant's time 76

4.2.4 Key theme: Improvement in the skills and knowledge acquisition 77

4.3 Learning attained during the DETPA programme 78

4.4 Improved and sustained transfer of skills and knowledge 81

4.5 Organisation improvement 82

4.6 Proposed areas of improvements....83
4.7 Limitations....86
4.8 Conclusion....87
CHAPTER 5 ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS....87
5.1 Introduction....87
Framing the context in which the analysis of the study is conducted....88
5.2 Level 1 - Overall reactions to the DETPA programme....89
5.2.1 **The coordination of the DETPA programme**....90
5.2.2 **The curriculum content and the context in which it was implemented**....90
5.2.3 **Facilitator's role and their facilitation style**....94
5.2.4 **Skills, Knowledge and Trainee attitudes/attributes**....95
5.3 Level 2 - Learning....96
5.3.1 **Skills and knowledge acquisition**....96
5.3.2 **Increased trainee's evaluation technical, and cross-cultural competencies**....97
5.4 Level 3- Improved and sustained transfer of skills and knowledge....100
5.5 Level 4 – Improved organisational performance....103
5.6 Areas of improvement....107
5.7 Conclusion....110
CHAPTER 6 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS....112
6.1 Summary of the research report....112
6.2 Recommendations and future research....114
REFERENCES....116
APPENDICES....126
Appendices 1.1: Project information sheet....126
Part I: Project Information Statement....126
Aims of the Research....126
The Primary research aim:....126
Significance of the Research Project....126
Research Plan and Method....127

Part II: Information to ensure you of the research ethics considerations of this study.....128

Appendices 1.2: Informed consent form.....129

Appendices 1.3: Interview Guide.....130

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ACBF	The African Capacity Building Foundation
AUC	African Union Commission
CDSF	Capacity Development Strategic Framework
CLEAR-AA	The Centre for Learning on Evaluation and Results Anglophone Africa
ECB	Evaluation Capacity Building
ECD	Evaluation Capacity Development
EBDM	Evidence Based Decision Making
DETPA	Development Evaluation Training Programme in Africa
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
HRD	Human Resource Development
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus I- Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
MAE	Made in Africa Evaluation
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development (The African Union Development Agency)
NPM	New Public Management
RCT	Randomised Control Trial
ROI	Return on Investment
TOC	Theory of Change
TOR	Terms of Reference
IPDET	The International Program for Development Evaluation Training
IKS	Indigenous Knowledge Systems

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH

1.1 Introduction

In recent years, the demand for monitoring and evaluation (M&E) capacity building interventions have increased. This has led to the mushrooming of M&E short-course training programmes (Basheka & Byamugisha, 2015; Wao, Onyango, Kisio, Njatha, & Onyango, 2017). However, the effectiveness of these capacity-building initiatives has yet to be sufficiently evaluated (Wao, et al., 2017). Regardless of the global economic crisis impacting all sectors, but particularly constraining public sector finances, as argued by Sharma (2016), Russ-eft (2002) and Punia and Kant (2013), the delivery of short course training programmes is continually increasing (Wotela, 2017). As an illustration, a number of traditional universities, or Higher Education Institution (HEIs), have developed M&E short course training programmes which are very popular, particularly with public sector officials (ibid.). A web search shows that these include the University of Cape Town (South Africa), Stellenbosch University (South Africa), the University of Witwatersrand (South Africa), the Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration, Uganda Technology and Management University, as well as the University of Nairobi (Kenya). Short course programmes such as these are designed to meet the rapidly growing M&E skills demand (Abrahams, 2015; Basheka & Byamugisha, 2015; Wao et al., 2017). However, there is little empirical evidence attesting that these programmes are contributing to improving evaluation practice (Preskill, 2008; Tarsilla, 2014). This is corroborated by Surgery (2010), who acknowledges that the popular assumption that M&E training budgets leads to improved productivity remains untested.

Despite the increase in M&E capacity building programmes and training budgets aimed at addressing the rising demand for M&E skills, participants' perceptions on the effectiveness of short-course training programmes towards improving their skills and knowledge, and perceived individual and organisational behavioural changes has been insufficiently documented (Morkel, & Ramasobana, 2017; Wao et al., 2017). In the limited cases where assessments were conducted in Africa, Wao et al. (2017) argue that the curriculum of the training programmes offered is densely theoretical without practical components. In other words, the training is not tailored to respond to the participant's skills and knowledge needs. Others suggested that M&E courses are observed to be irrelevant and not useful (Rambau, 2005; Tonhäuser & Büker, 2016).

This is corroborated by a survey conducted by Morkel and Ramasobana (2017) intended to review the extent to which organisations in Africa assess the outcome of their capacity building or training programmes. According to their findings, only eight out of the thirteen organisations that were surveyed occasionally assess the outcome of training on knowledge acquisition. Therefore, their contribution towards improving the participant's skills and knowledge is unknown, which is a common refrain in other research of a similar nature (Preskill, Hallie, & Boyle, 2008; Tarsilla, 2014). This raises a question around the prevailing problem of capacity building initiatives and their contribution towards improving the participant's skills and knowledge as envisaged by the training providers.

In this study, the DETPA programme was used to examine participants' perceptions of the effectiveness of short-course training programmes. DETPA is an annual flagship short course training programme offered by CLEAR-AA, which was launched in 2017. The programme aims to build the capacity of M&E practitioners and scholars in order to strengthen evaluation practice across the continent (CLEAR-AA, 2018). The impetus for the two-week-long programmes is a response to the rapidly growing M&E demand for skilled evaluators to commission and implement evaluation interventions in Africa (ibid.). The initiative to capacitate evaluators is informed by the assertion that the majority of evaluators originate from the West (Cloete, 2017; Tirivanhu, Robertson, Waller & Chirau, 2017) and therefore, this programme aims to contribute to addressing the skills gap on the African continent. The programme is categorised into two tracks, known as Fundamentals and Advanced. The "Fundamentals of M&E" track is designed for new entrants to the M&E sector whilst the "Advanced Track" targets intermediate or advanced M&E practitioners. Over the past two years, the programme has attracted M&E practitioners and government officials responsible for developing and maintaining their national evaluation systems (NES), or those who have the authority to influence policy, planning, and evaluation cycles (CLEAR-AA, 2018). Thus, the DETPA programme has been envisaged to conduct training aimed at providing skills to practitioners in various sectors and government officials to optimally execute their duties.

However, there has been insufficient research undertaken aimed at determining whether or not the DETPA programme has contributed to building the capacity of M&E practitioners, government officials and scholars in order to strengthen evaluation practice as per its objectives. Therefore, whether or not the programme has assisted the target market to execute their duties remain largely unknown. Hence, the current study is useful in contributing to building a knowledge base around whether or not the programme has contributed to improving

participant's capacities in M&E. However, it should be noted that it is a perception study; therefore, more research would be needed to make further contributions to knowledge on this topic.

In the past 50 years, Kirkpatrick's (1959) training effectiveness model has been used as a benchmark for the assessment of training effectiveness (Alliger & Janak, 1989; Brown, & Reed, 2002; Chang, 2010; CLEAR-AA, 2013; Sharma, 2016). This model measures the effectiveness of training programmes on four levels: (a) the participants' reactions to the programme – Level 1; (b) an assessment of the content, or what the participants learned - Level 2; (c) the participants' performances on the job - Level 3; and (d) the impact of the training upon the organisation - Level 4 (Alliger & Janak, 1989; Jasson & Govender, 2016; Sharma, 2016). Owing to its simplicity and applicability to measure the effectiveness of short-course training programmes, Kirkpatrick's (1959) training model, which is described in detail in this proposal, was applied as the conceptual framework for this study.

The primary research question that this study addressed is: what are participant's perceptions regarding the DETPA 2017 programme as delivered by CLEAR-AA, and specifically has it been effective across the four components of Kirkpatrick's (1959) model? This study only focused on the 2017 cohort because the programme was piloted in 2017 and this research commenced prior to the delivery of the 2018 programme. Lastly, the study examined participants' perceptions regarding the gaps of the DETPA and how these gaps can be improved.

The following section presents the research problems that the study addresses. This entails discussing the statement of the problem, the context, the knowledge gap and the rationale for the study.

1.2 Problem Statement

(i) Statement of the problem

Various evaluation capacity building (ECB) initiatives by numerous higher education institutions (HEIs) in Africa have been designed to meet the M&E skills gaps (Abrahams, 2015; Basheka & Byamugisha, 2015; Wao et al., 2017). One such case, which is the focus of this study, is the CLEAR-AA DETPA programme. Over the past two years, the programme has trained 78 participants from 18 countries in Africa who represent 37 private and public organisations (CLEAR-AA DETPA Internal Report, 2018). Despite the significant interest

generated in the DETPA programme, which is evident in the number of participants from various African countries, private and public organisations represented and the enrolment rate, there is little empirical evidence for the reasons for the popularity of the programme. In addition, the effectiveness of the programme in terms of building the capacity of its participants – even at the level of perceptions - is yet to be examined. Therefore, the contribution of the DETPA programme towards building participants' individual capacities (skills and knowledge), their individual behavioural changes and organisational behavioural changes is unknown (CLEAR, 2018). This study addressed this gap by assessing the participants' perceptions of the effectiveness of the DETPA programme using Kirkpatrick's (1959) evaluation model as a framework. Furthermore, the study envisaged contributing to the general ECB community and CLEAR-AA, in particular, with insights into improving the conceptualisation, implementation and assessment of its training programmes. However, it should be noted that this perception study is not intended to generalise, rather it is intended to obtain a deeper understanding of individual's perspectives and experiences of the training programme and its contribution to developing their individual and organisational M&E capacities. The in-depth understanding of individual experiences of how programmes such as the DETPA contribute to ECB could pave the way for further empirical research geared to develop further understanding on this topic, and provide evidence to support future improvements in DETPA and similar CLEAR-AA programmes.

(ii) The context

According to Tarsilla (2017), short course training discourses have been dominated by western scholars. In Africa, the rising demand for M&E skills gave rise to the development of numerous training interventions, including the design of M&E short course training programmes by HEIs to address the M&E skills gap (Abrahams, 2015; Basheka & Byamugisha, 2015; Wao et al., 2017). However, not enough research has been conducted on the effectiveness of these training programmes in mitigating the skills gap or on improving organisational performance. Some scholars such as Alliger and Janak (1989), Jasson and Govender (2016) and Sharma (2016) have contributed to the discourse on assessing training effectiveness in general in the fields of hospitality and human resources. Their work contributes to our understanding of the development of short course training programmes and the extent to which their effectiveness has been measured. However, more research focusing on assessing M&E training programmes in particular still needs to be undertaken (Morkel & Ramasobana, 2017; Tirivanhu et.al., 2017; Wao et al., 2017). This study, therefore, contributes to building an understanding of the way in

which participants perceive how short course ECB programmes in Africa, such as the DETPA, affects M&E skills and knowledge acquisition, as well as individual and organisational performance.

(iii) The knowledge gap

Various research studies acknowledge that the effectiveness of short course training programmes is not documented (Morkel & Ramasobana, 2017; Wao et al., 2017). Thus, the contribution of the DETPA programme towards improving participants' skills and knowledge and the performance of individuals and organisations in M&E is unknown. On the other hand, CLEAR-AA plans to continue to implement the programme on an annual basis. Therefore, the current study is useful in contributing to building a knowledge base around whether or not the programme has contributed to improving participant's M&E capacities. In addition, this study contributes towards deepening scholars' understanding on how individuals perceive the effectiveness of short course training programmes in M&E, which may contribute to understanding how to better design and implement such programmes with the target audience's needs in mind.

(iv) The rationale

Kirkpatrick's (1959) model indicates that assessing the effectiveness of training programmes globally remains an important exercise. This is a relevant point of departure for the assessment of training programmes, such as the DETPA delivered in the African region. The effectiveness of the DETPA programme in relation to (a) participants' reactions to the programme – Level 1, (b) an assessment of the content, or what the participants learned - Level 2, (c) the participants' performances on the job - Level 3, and (d) the impact of the training upon the organisation - Level 4, is unknown. To this end, the return on investments, such as time and financial resources, provided by CLEAR-AA as well as organisations that sponsored the enrolment of their staff to the DETPA programme has not been accounted for. Therefore, this study contributes towards understanding whether there is a perception that short course training programmes, such as the DETPA, contribute to improving the M&E skills and knowledge gaps on all four levels of participants in Africa. The findings from the study provide the general ECB community and CLEAR-AA, in particular, with insights into improving the conceptualisation, implementation and assessment of its training programme interventions, based on the perceptions of some participants of the DETPA 2017 programme, and also provides the basis for further research in this area.

(v) Purpose statement

The primary purpose of this research study was to assess participants' perceptions of the effectiveness of the CLEAR-AA DETPA 2017 programme across all four levels of Kirkpatrick's model of evaluating training effectiveness: reaction, learning, transfer and organisational impact.

1.3 Research Questions

This study has one primary research question and five sub-questions.

Primary research question

What are participants' perceptions regarding the DETPA 2017 programme in terms of its effectiveness regarding Kirkpatrick's (1959) four levels of training effectiveness: reaction, learning, transfer and organisational impact?

Sub-Questions

(i) What are the participants' overall perceptions and reactions to the DETPA 2017 programme?

(ii) What are participants' perceptions on whether or not they have acquired new knowledge, skills and learning from participating in the delivery of the DETPA 2017 programme?

(iii) What are the participants' perceptions regarding their job-related performance in M&E after their participation in the DETPA 2017?

(iv) What are participants' perceptions regarding the impact of the training on their organisations, specifically in terms of M&E practice?

(v) What are participants' perceptions regarding the gaps of programmes such as the DETPA 2017 in building skills, knowledge, individual performance and organisational improvement and how they can be enhanced?

1.4 Structure of the research report

This report is structured in six main parts; following this introduction chapter is chapter two, which presents the literature reviewed and the theoretical framework applicable to this research study. This entails a review of the previous studies conducted by various researchers with the aim of understanding similar problems. This also includes various theoretical frameworks used, in order to justify the theoretical framework underpinning this study. Chapter three discusses the research design and methodology that this study is based on. Chapter four and five

respectively present the findings and analysis, and Chapter six concludes by providing a summary of the discussions, recommendations and prospective or future research areas.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the literature review that underpins this study on measuring the effectiveness of training programmes. The chapter begins by providing a background of the Development Evaluation Training Programme in Africa (DETPA) as a case and unit of analysis for this study. This chapter foregrounds capacity-building initiatives within the New Public Management (NPM) paradigm, which is linked to the upsurge in results-based management approaches in the public sector since the 1980s. This chapter further provides a distinction between the concepts of evaluation capacity development (ECD) and evaluation capacity building (ECB) as part of providing an introductory background to the concept of M&E training. Furthermore, the chapter presents selected theories on measuring the effectiveness of training across the globe, including the African continent. Since it is well known that training does not occur in a vacuum and is anticipated to contribute towards organisational performance, a broad discussion focusing on organisational development and organisational change concepts is presented. In addition, characteristics or determinants of assessing the evaluation of training programmes from the reviewed literature are identified, including their limitations. Lastly, the chapter provides the rationale for using Kirkpatrick's (1959) training effectiveness model as an appropriate conceptual framework for this study. This section also identifies themes and concepts that empower the researcher to answer the research questions and interpret the findings.

2.2 Background of the Development Evaluation Training Programme in Africa

As discussed previously, the Development Evaluation Training Programme in Africa (DETPA) is an annual flagship programme launched in 2017 and delivered by CLEAR-AA. This programme aims to contribute towards building localised M&E practitioners and scholars with apt skills as well as enhancing the evaluation field in the region. This serves as a response to the urgency to champion initiatives to increase the number of local practitioners and evaluation approaches and methodologies (Chilisa & Tsheko, 2014; Cloete, 2016). Put differently, these initiatives are envisaged to incorporate the nuances of the evaluation needs in Africa as well as explore contextually relevant approaches to evaluation. Hence, the "Made in Africa Evaluation" (MAE) agenda has been identified as an appropriate approach which underpins DETPA's ideological lens. This approach purports that context, culture, history, and beliefs are

critical to the way we shape evaluation in response to the diversity and complexity of development in Africa (CLEAR-AA, 2018).

Over the past two years, the programme has attracted M&E practitioners responsible for building their national evaluation systems, or those who are in positions of influence in terms of policy, planning, and evaluation (CLEAR-AA, 2018). The majority of these practitioners have received tremendous support in terms of financial and time allocations from their respective employers or organisations. To some extent, one could infer that the DETPA programme has received some level of legitimacy in the eyes of these individuals and their respective employers. On the other hand, it also forces the DETPA organisers to ensure that the delivery of this programme meets the expectations of both individual participants as well as the organisations that have invested resources towards supporting their employees in the programme. Kirkpatrick's (1959) model, which has been extensively used to understand how training influences individual and organisational levels of capacity building, is used as the conceptual framework of this study. This will be explained further in section 2.6 which discusses the conceptual framework used in this study.

According to the CLEAR-AA (2018) report, the content of the programme was divided into two parts. Firstly, the fundamental track was designed to cover elementary M&E concepts. This was designed as an awareness-building track, which densely described fundamental M&E concepts. It is envisioned that at the completion of this track, participants will be expected to champion the importance of integration of M&E in the programmes, projects and policymaking cycle. Secondly, the advanced track focuses on deepening participant's understandings of M&E concepts in line with their existing praxis's. At the completion of this track, the programme envisages that participants will be proponents of Afrocentric approaches to and methods of evaluation. This includes the linkages between M&E concepts and their contextual environments as well as their practices.

The DETPA programme forms an integral part of CLEAR-AA's broader theory of change around supporting M&E related capacity building initiatives anticipated to strengthen evaluation practice on the continent (CLEAR-AA, 2018). At a conceptual level, CLEAR-AA, aspires to contribute towards strengthening the capacities of African institutions to interrogate and use evidence for decision making. This is done via promoting homegrown or African theories and expertise which are purported to have higher probabilities of enhancing the M&E skills and knowledge sets of individual practitioners and their respective organisations (ibid.).

However, this study acknowledges there are some limitations associated with the DETPA programme. For instance, there is no selection criteria because the programme uses open enrolment (CLEAR-AA, 2018). However, it could be argued that the programme still uses the traditional training methods of teaching and learning. This traditional approach includes the use of face-to-face interactions, in a classroom setting.

2.3 Contextualising Capacity and Skills Development Discourses in Africa

Contextualising ECD in this section of the chapter is categorised into five main parts. Part One discusses the emergence of New Public Management (NPM) and interlinks the NPM and the growth of the Human Resources Development (HRD) approach in building public sector capacities. To do so, a summary background on NPM which contributed to the emergence and progression of the M&E sector in Africa is provided. This is followed by an in-depth discussion on HRD and how it applies in the African context. Part Two introduces the concepts of evaluation capacity building and evaluation capacity development. In addition, it discusses the growing demand for M&E capacity building programmes. Part Three presents common approaches to measuring training effectiveness, and provides a segue to Part Four, which presents the components of Kirkpatrick's (1959) model of Evaluating Training Effectiveness. Part Five summarises themes emerging from the reviewed literature, and concludes the framework within which the findings of this study are discussed.

2.3.1 The emergence of New Public Management in Africa

Africa's challenge of underdevelopment drove International Finance Institutions (IFI) and others to focus their attention on capacity building initiatives (Itika, 2011). As far back as the 1960s or the post-independence era, African states were classified to be in a dire financial situation and therefore needed some form of assistance from the Global North (Dzimbiri, 2008). This is often referred to as financial reforms. A big part of these reforms entailed issuing financial aid as bail outs to various governments in the region. Thus, a continent-wide financial loan regime was implemented with the expectation that these loans will be paid back with a reasonable amount of interest. This implies that a huge amount of financial resources with conditions were injected into Africa's public purse (Chipkin & Lipietz, 2012). In tandem, these

IFI's (and others) made strides to ensure that building governments abilities to account for their financial investments (loans) was part of the terms and conditions of these reforms (ibid.).

Fast forward to the 1980s, additional but different reforms focusing on the institutions, otherwise known as public reforms as opposed to financial reforms, were ushered in by multilateral and bilateral agencies. This is in synchronisation with the advent and popularity of the New Public Management (NPM) wave (Chipkin & Lipietz, 2012; Dzimbiri, 2008). This meant that most of the governments in the region executed NPM as an attempt to uphold the principles of accountability, governance and transparency. The NPM regime was envisaged to improve the efficiency and service delivery headed by public institutions (Cameron, 2009). Therefore, public institutions needed to apply and embed the cited efficiencies which elevated a need to employ public officials with skills to optimally manage or provide oversight to public institutions (Dzimbiri, 2008). As opposed to the 1960s era which instilled financial accountability, the NPM era steered accountability for non-financial resources, via promoting the efficiencies of public institutions (ibid.).

Both 1960s and 1980s were complemented by capacity building (CB) strategies focusing on achieving different capacity outcomes. For example, in the case of the 1960s, the majority of the training initiatives focused on enhancing public officials' skills to account for the finances allocated by the IMF (Chipkin & Lipietz, 2012; Dzimbiri, 2008). On the other hand, the 1980s witnessed the mushrooming of capacity building initiatives converging on bolstering public official's capacities to uphold the mandates of public institutions to effectively deliver services on behalf of the citizens (Pestoff, 2016). Put differently, capacity development initiatives in the 1980s were designed to build and hone the capacities of public officials to implement and sustain the NPM wave. In summary, the majority of capacity development (CD) initiatives were initially focused on accounting for the huge loans from the IMF (and others) and on providing skills to new administrations. Thus, the 1960s to 1980s CD was mainly focused around financial management, accounting and governance (Chipkin & Lipietz, 2012).

Considering the generous amount of investments aimed at financial and institutional reforms, multilateral and bilateral institutions, including development experts, agitated for the urgency to measure what works and does not work in Africa's development (Tarsilla, 2014). As such, the 1990s brought about the importance of grappling with whether or not these reforms were improving the lives of Africa and her citizens. Evidence produced by organisations such as the

African Capacity Building Foundation (ACBF) founded in 1991 pointed to a non-achievement of development outcomes (Leautier & Mutahakana, 2012). This instigated a shift from focusing on the financial and institutional reforms by asking fundamental questions around whose development and for whom (ACBF, 2016). Thus, evaluation as a systematic approach to delve into documenting lessons on what works and does not work in the programmes or interventions implemented in Africa gained traction (Tarsilla, 2014).

Understanding what works and does not work in development does not occur in a vacuum. This calls for competent public officials with suitable skills to carry out the task of commissioning evaluations (Podems, 2014). This illuminates the rapid growth of evaluation capacity development (ECD) interventions including M&E training programmes geared towards building and enhancing the skills of the technocrats (Morkel & Ramasobana, 2017). Human resource practitioners employed in various government institutions were bestowed with the mandate to adapt and champion the implementation of human resource development (HRD) policies as part of their job's responsibilities (Itika, 2011). Therefore, the emergence of NPM wave, which coincided with the growing popularity of HRD approaches in the public sector, are significant milestones in understanding the capacity development initiatives in Africa, including evaluation capacity development (ECD). The following section therefore presents a discussion on the interlinkages between NPM and HRD.

2.3.2 Interlinking New Public Management initiatives and Human Resource Development

Boyle and Harris (2009), Yeung (2009) and Pestoff (2016) concede that the wave of New Public Management (NPM) thinking has swept over the public sector all over the world, and particularly in Africa, over the past few decades. Broadly, accountability, transparency and democracy are the three principles underpinning the NPM concept (Cameron, 2009). Sabbi and Ayeko-kümmeth (2015) posit that the NPM is aimed at redressing the deficiencies of public institutions by decentralising the institutional arrangements of governments. At the practical level, the public sector either uses both or one of the two approaches, namely, either the process-oriented or the results-based approach which are aimed at increasing the public sector's efficiencies (ibid.). Tirivanhu et al. (2017, p. 230) adds to this discourse by succintly stating that NPM is primarily conceptualised as a way to improve government efficiencies in the delivery of services as well as to uphold accountability and transparency principles.

The birth and rise of HRD was ascribed to a scholar named Nadler (2008, p. 347). McLagan (1989) as cited by Beich, (2008, p. 27) defined HRD as an inclusive approach that assimilates three concepts which are (i) training and development, (ii) organisational development and (iii) career development. The author further asserted that training and development focuses on boosting individual abilities using a mix of methods, such as off-site training, on the job training, mentoring etc. Organisational development emphasises the bilateral relationship between individuals and groups and their conceivable systematic contribution to effecting change in an organisation. Lastly, career development focuses on building a pathway that recognises an individual employee's efficacy which are then utilised towards furthering the individual's career path which culminates in improving the proficiencies of their respective organisations.

Mehlape (2017) illustrates how NPM and HRD was pragmatically used to redress the deficiencies of public institutions and human personnel. They explain that HRD practitioners practising in the region were required to appreciate that bureaucratic deficiencies must be addressed in parallel with building a competent workforce to sustain the public institutions. The author further added that underscoring these approaches is the assumption that strengthening human capital or personnel would contribute to Africa's development (ibid.). Both public sector officials and private practitioners have explored new HRD approaches to upskill government employees, including the development of human resource policies (Mehlape, 2017, p. 108) in Africa. This has compelled managers and practitioners practicing in Africa to borrow HRD best practices, which were predominantly effected in the private sector (Itika, 2011).

Tirivanhu et al. (2017) contribute further by stating that the adoption of NPM by African governments introduced a new approach to policy making processes and government performance. In other words, as previously alluded by Itika (2011) results-based management or outcome-based principles, which were traditionally utilised in the private sector, were adapted and administered to maximise the functionality of the public institutions in terms of service delivery. Delivering services with a sense of speed and to the satisfaction of the citizens implied that government officials had to make decisions rapidly but grounded in scientific evidence (Dzimbiri, 2008). This, in turn, elevated the role of evaluation as a gateway to improving accountability and transparency via the collation and utilisation of evidence by local evaluators (Basheka & Byamugisha, 2015). This further recognises that these evaluations

continue to be conducted and commissioned by non-Africans, which contributed to the sentiment that Africans lack evaluation skills (Tarsilla, 2014).

As a response, various capacity-building initiatives aimed at capacitating local policymakers and evaluators with competencies to navigate the M&E profession are underway (Tirivanhu et al., 2017). Primarily these capacity building initiatives including training, referred to as ECD by Tarsilla (2014), are broadly aimed at entrenching evaluation as a useful tool towards improving decision making processes within the public sector. The focus of this study is not to comprehensively document the sequencing of all the factors that have contributed to the booming of ECD. However, this study acknowledges that other discourses such as SDG's and evidence-based decision making (EBDM) also contributed to the rise of ECD. In principle, there are many other factors that have directly influenced the emergence of the ECD field. The limitations of time and space does not permit the researcher to delve into those other factors.

Although the delivery of M&E related training has been commended, Tirivanhu et al. (2017) argue that the delivery of these training programmes should not only be demand driven but they also propose that it should use an outcome-based approach. In other words, these programmes should tally with the overarching principles of improving the efficiencies of service delivery in the continent. Therefore, they should be tailored to capacitate African practitioners and scholars to use information from locally commissioned evaluations to improve policies and programmes on the continent. Consequently, Tirivanhu et al. (2017) recommend that training providers of evaluations such as universities and think tanks should strive to deliver relevant training interventions designed to cater for non-homogenous evaluation skill sets.

Mbava and Dahler-Larsen (2019) raise a dissimilar but significant argument concerning part of the training programme design. They propose that training programmes delivered in Africa should adapt and embrace the trends of the 21st century. In practical terms, the scholars urge the training providers to fully integrate the use of technology when designing the training content of the training phase of these programmes. Therefore, the availability of internet is an opportune pathway to instil uniqueness to training interventions implemented in Africa.

2.3.3 Overview of Human Resource Development theory

HRD forms part of the conceptual framing for understanding the effect of the DETPA programme. This section presents the HRD concept as a way to provide the contextual framework of this study.

The HRD concept was introduced in the 1970s and has since gained popularity amongst researchers such as Aliaga (2005), Weinberger (1998) and Kumpikaite and Sakalas (2011) who credit Nadler (1970) as a pioneer who conceptualised the HRD theory. This author introduced a broader and more inclusive definition of the HRD concept than that from the western countries which acknowledged the growth of the HRD practice in other developing continents (Kumpikaite & Sakalas, 2011; Weinberger, 1998).

Nadler and Nadler (1991), as cited by Kumpikaite and Sakalas (2011. p. 41), argue that HRD is comprised of two objectives: training and organisational development. Firstly, these authors argue that training is primarily about the availability of resources and time invested to sharpen employee's skills sets. Organisational development focuses on the training initiatives pursued by the entire organisation, aimed at skilling employees as well as designing potential career paths to be followed by employees. Out of the two concepts, training seems to be the applicable to this study.

HRD is a multifaceted field of study, which has been studied using varied lenses. Scholars such as Brown, Lafond and Macintyre (2001), Kumpikaite and Sakalas (2011) and Weinberger (1998) use numerous theories or lenses such as economic, psychological, philosophical and systems theory to understand the concept of HRD. Various scholars reinforce the fact that there are different theories and approaches to understanding the concept of HRD. For instance, Nadler (1970), as cited by Weinberger (1998, p. 77), uses psychological theory to contend that HRD is a sequence of activities which are planned and implemented within a specified period, aimed at facilitating behavioural change via adult learning approaches. This was followed by Craig (1976), who combined both the psychological and philosophical theory to posit that HRD is preoccupied with improving human performance through creating opportunities for continuous learning (ibid.). These authors identify behavioural change, adult learning approaches and human performance as determinants of understanding the HRD concept.

This means that HRD can be used for multiple purposes such as to understand the economic effects of interventions popularly known as ROI. In some cases, HRD has been used by human resource practitioners to carry out research focusing on the human relations within various

workspaces. That said, it can be concluded that there are diverse definitions of HRD and therefore it is not homogenous (Weinberger, 1998).

Although there is a lack of consensus on the definition of HRD, there seems to be an acknowledgement of the fact that countries in the Global North were responsible for the genesis of this concept (Kumpikaite & Sakalas, 2011; Weinberger, 1998). This might explain the popularity and dominance of western scholars in the review of the HRD literature relevant to this study.

Nadler and Wiggs (1986) combined economic and psychological theory to argue that HRD is a comprehensive learning framework that is used to improve organisational performance. This definition suggests that a combination of theory-based and experiential- or practice-based learning contributes to organisational performance. In other words, Nadler and Wiggs (1986), as cited by Weinberger (1998, p. 77), recommend that organisations should consider supporting their employees (via funding and authorising time off work) to participate in training programmes designed to facilitate theoretical knowledge as well as to enable them to apply their newly acquired skills and knowledge in their workplaces. This, in turn, has the potential to contribute to an improvement in the performance of the overall organisation.

A book titled "*Fundamentals of human resource management*" (Itika, 2011) introduced two HRD sub-theories: institutional theory and organisational theory. This book elucidates that organisational norms, values, attitudes and employee perceptions are the institutional theory elements that determine the success or failure of an organisation (Itika, 2011, p. 5). In addition, organisation and employee confidence in learning are organisational theory elements that determine the performance of an organisation (ibid, p. 5). In other words, both elements of the institutional and organisational theories contribute to improving employee's job performances and organisational results.

Weinberger (1998, p. 77) posits that physiological and economic theories are some of the most prevalent theories in studying the HRD field. Most importantly, out of the two theories, the economic theory seems to be the most preferred theory (Nadler & Wiggs, 1986). In other words, the majority of the HRD studies have focused on attributing whether or not training, education and development initiatives have contributed towards improving the economic growth in various countries (Kumpikaite & Sakalas, 2011). This implies that these studies used economic lenses to establish return on investments (ROI) or value for money after the

implementation of skills development interventions (training, education and development). Unlike studies such as Weinberger's (1998), which focused on economic growth, this study focuses on building capacity for evidence-based decision making (EBDM).

Despite the fact that the above cited authors Craig and Weinberger; Nadler and Wiggs (1986) researched HRD from the perspective of the private sector, their insights remain relevant to this study. Their studies provided an account of how behavioural changes and the acquisition of skills and experience impact organisational change. Their account coincides with the current research because it undertakes to understand similar concepts, particularly in relation to the public sector. This trend is not limited to this study, other public sector studies have also borrowed best practices form the private sector. In fact, the NPM theory has enabled the infiltration of private sector thinking into the public sector. This further reinforces the immediate relevance of the cited HRD work to the current study. This study focuses on EBDM in the public sector, and departs from orthodox writings on HRD.

Sydhagen and Cunningham (2007) highlight the limitations of evaluating skills development initiatives from an economic lens only. These scholars argue that most of the research conducted intensely evaluated the HRD concept and its contribution to economic growth at the exclusion of human resources/personnel. Aliaga (2005) substantiated this in a study that analysed the links between economics and HRD. In that study, economic growth and the use of technology were cited as key determinants of training; however, insignificant attention was paid to the role of employees in determining the training content. Studies by Aliaga (2005) and Weinberger (1998) emphasise capacity building for the mainstream economy; this study focuses on building capacity for the delivery of public policy and development.

As can be seen, HRD is a complex concept with different definitions and contexts. As mentioned earlier, these definitions are grounded in wide-ranging theories (Mehlape, 2017). Therefore, applying HRD is underpinned by contextual factors and has been applied from different lenses such as an economic on as used by Aliaga (2005) and Weinberger (1998). Most of the literature reviewed emanates from western countries and outlines the dominance of economic theory in the HRD concept. However, the above review also gave examples of how the public sector adopted NPM followed by the prioritisation and the integration of capacity-building interventions such as M&E training programmes. In summary, applying capacity building interventions should appreciate contextual differentiation between the pursuit of private and the public sector objectives.

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2.3.4 Applying HRD in an African context

Sydhagen and Cunningham (2007) provide an historical account of public policy and development. It has been noted that wars and calamities, which ravaged this region, are some of the root causes of Africa's underdevelopment (Itika, 2011). As an illustration, Itika (2011) continues to argue that these conditions gave rise to the dominance of western paradigms, unemployment and economic fragilities. The effects of this unpleasant history culminated in the weakening of institutions and lack of skills, which led to a perpetuation of socio-economic imbalances post-Africa's independence (Sydhagen & Cunningham, 2007). Consequently, the public sector, like the private sector, has experienced challenges in skills and knowledge deficiencies (Itika, 2011).

In the previous sections, Kumpikaite and Sakalas (2011) and Weinberger (1998) situated the genesis of the HRD field and its popularity within western countries. Thus, the dominance of northern theories, concepts and frameworks in understanding African governments and organisations is not surprising. This implies that definitions and concepts, which are meant to inform skills development interventions aimed at capacitating African governments, organisations and practitioners, are conceived from Eurocentric as opposed to Afrocentric paradigms (Itika, 2011). It follows that these definitions and concepts are collated and dispersed into various research outputs such as textbooks. These include the conceptualisation of the formal and informal HRD curriculum content. Following this, it could be argued that these textbooks and HRD curricula, which have been conceptualised from a Eurocentric paradigm, might be perceived to be contextually unfit to address the underdeveloped regimes on the Africa continent.

Sydhagen and Cunningham (2007) rationalise that the aforementioned challenges contribute to the perception that the continent is faced with skills gaps and mismatches. In turn, the skills gaps and mismatches impede the prospects of Africa's move to fully cultivate opportunities available at a global scale. This might, therefore, help to clarify Africa's minimal participation within the global economic scenarios. Consequently, the alluded lack of skills and mismatches could somehow be regarded as some of the root causes of the high unemployment rate and insignificant economic growths across the region (Sydhagen & Cunningham, 2007).

According to Itika (2011), the challenges of the high unemployment rate and inconsistent economic growth are exacerbated by factors such as migration of skilled personnel to greener pastures outside the continent. Furthermore, the author emphasises that the role of HIV/AIDS, as well as high levels of poverty, cannot be disregarded. This is intensified by the fact that young people constitute the majority of the human capital in Africa (ibid.). Consequently, this elevates the importance of continuous training programmes to capacitate human personnel (both young and old) with the skills to advance Africa's development. Thus, an understanding of the HRD concept in the region should appreciate and acknowledge these cited challenges.

As a response to the cited challenges, in the past few decades, African governments, organisations and practitioners have waged war against the underdevelopment witnessed by the continent (Itika, 2011). Human resources and processes are highlighted as some of the components responsible for the success of attaining the objectives enshrined in Agenda 2063 "*The AFRICA We Want*" framework (The World Bank Report, 2005). This initiative is in synchronisation with the role of the new public management (NPM) wave witnessed in Africa and illustrates the links with the HRD concept. Both these approaches are aimed at capacitating African governments, organisations, and practitioners with skills fitted to address Africa's cited challenges responsible for her underdevelopment.

Thus, there are attempts to explore localised or indigenous approaches and methodologies aimed at ensuring that the skills development interventions in the region address the contextual needs of governments, organisations and practitioners. These approaches have been popularly known as indigenous knowledge systems (IKS) by scholars such as Chilisa (2017) as well as Keane, Khupe and Muza (2016). At the core of IKS is the acknowledgement that Africa has distinct ways of knowing and her ways of knowing could prospectively contribute to the conceptualisation and implementation of skills development interventions. It is important to acknowledge the growing trend voiced by African practitioners and scholars as an attempt to localise or contextualise evaluation. This includes initiatives geared to ensuring that the evaluation capacity building implemented in Africa is adapted to cater to the skills needs of the practitioner. In some circles, this is referred to as Made in Africa Evaluation by scholars such as Chilisa and Tsheko (2014) and Cloete (2016).

Organisational change or performance is at the core of NPM and HRD initiatives implemented in the region. Put differently, at the crux of these concepts are the attempts to ensure that organisations in conjunction with their stakeholders such as employees and shareholders perform to their maximum potential in an effective and efficient manner. Therefore, it is

incumbent upon organisations operating in Africa to explore capacity-building initiatives geared to capacitate their employees with M&E skills and knowledge sets that are sensitive to the African context. These M&E skills and knowledge sets are expected to enable African practitioners employed by organisations to implement results-based management approaches geared towards improving Africa's development. The next section presents the discussion on organisational performance or change.

2.4 Understanding the concept of organisational performance or change

This section unpacks organisational performance or change as a key concept related to this study. This will be followed by a presentation of factors that advance or inhibit change in an organisation which will provide a foundation on how change in organisations is measured or evaluated. Subsequently, the ECB and ECD concepts are introduced, as relevant and suited to these capacity-building initiatives, and are explained in detail below.

As a prelude, Gravenhorst, Werkman and Boonstra (2003) contribute that achieving organisational development and performance or change is complex and difficult to comprehend. Both the concept of organisation development (OD) and organisation change (OC) are defined contrarily, and used interchangeably. This study is an attempt to appreciate that one of the objectives guiding the work of CLEAR-AA is to strengthen the abilities of African institutions to conduct, commission and use the evidence from evaluations (CLEAR-AA, 2018). This is influenced by the broader NPM principles pursued by a sizeable amount of public institutions located in the region (Basheka & Byamugisha, 2015). Therefore, as part of its work, CLEAR-AA delivers capacity building interventions such as the DETPA programme targeting individuals and organisations in order to contribute to the building of competent individuals and organisations (CLEAR-AA, 2018).

Odor (2014) defines OD as a comprehensive approach targeted at improving the capabilities of individuals and teams employed in an organisation. Furthermore, an OD approach entails both the management team, including shareholders, and the employees of a company jointly collaborate towards a common objective including the increasing of organisational effectiveness such as production or profits. Nyasha (2011, p. 23) contributes that OD is about human personnel and their organisations as well as the human factor in the organisation and

how both these entities function. This definition acknowledges that human beings constitute organisations. This definition strives to put the value on the human facet to the concept of an organisation.

Gravenhorst, Werkman and Boonstra (2003) argue that the primary purpose of an OD approach is to certify an organisation is fully-fledged and able to learn, supplemented by the opportunity to apply the lessons learnt. From the application of the lessons learnt, a new culture of behaving and learning is subsequently introduced and embedded with time. Consequently, embedded learning is expected to permeate and influence how the entire organisation functions (Gravenhorst et al., 2003). In this argument, a learning attitude espoused by all stakeholders in an organisation has been elevated as one of the primary cornerstones of motivating OD.

In concurring with the above narrative, Nyasha (2011) adds that the OD process entails the development of a timeous strategic plan outlining the broad organisational response geared to address the inevitable urgency for change. This strategy should be comprehensive enough to align various aspects of an organisation with a rapidly changing environment. As an illustration, Nyasha (2011) argues that thought-out training interventions to enhance elements such as beliefs, characters, values and the overarching organisational structure should be pursued by organisations. Admittedly, these training initiatives should be adaptable to changes propelled by technology, competition and the fluidity of change itself.

On a different note, Matyesha (2011) singles out the role of management and their competencies to drive the OD agenda in an organisation. The author argues that aside from the commitment by all stakeholders to developing a new organisational culture or behaviour, as advanced by Gravenhorst et al. (2003), the leadership espoused by the organisational management is an intrinsic dependent variable. In other words, the role of management predetermines the success or failure of OD as an organisational scenery (Matyesha, 2011).

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Implementing the concept of organisational performance or change

Organisations operating in the 21st century are propelled to adapt to the ever changing world of doing business caused by various factors, such as the use of new technologies, competition, or an increasing demand for the delivery of services (Haddadi & Yaghoobi, 2014). To a large extent, the above-cited factors determine the success or failure of these organisations. Many organisations are concerned about how their weaknesses impede them from achieving their

outlined objectives enshrined in their strategic plans (Odor, 2014). These kinds of organisations devote their time and resources to migrate the cited weaknesses into their strengths. This is referred to as turning the threats (negative factors) that are capable of causing organisational unsustainability into opportunities (positive factors) dedicated to leading organisational sustainability. This pathway is popularly known as organisational change (OC). According to Methode et al. (2019), the OC process encompasses a set of activities that are steered by an organisation with the sole objective of instituting positive changes on how things are done in a particular organisation. This elevates the role of evaluation in assisting organisations to systematically locate their weaknesses which are to be turned into strengths. This is because if appropriately used, evaluations reveal scientific information that could possibly be used to inform and drive change in organisations (Podems, 2014).

The quest for change in organisations is propelled by the acknowledgement that organisations that are non-responsive to change are at the risk of becoming extinct or alternatively being outsmarted by their competitors (Haddadi & Yaghoobi, 2014; Matyesha, 2011; Nyasha, 2011). Implicitly, this change is propelled by a certain degree of an appreciation of the need for change and the extent to which the respective organisation embraces the urgency for change. Important to note is that there are internal or external factors that instigate this need for change in organisations (Haddadi & Yaghoobi, 2014). Consequently, these factors enhance or impede the extent to which organisational change occurs.

Over and above the inevitability of change amongst organisations in the 21st century, the precision with which change is introduced is inarguably pertinent. Odor (2014) posits that change could be either be invoked in an incremental or disruptive manner. Either way, the way change is introduced has a direct bearing on the adaptability or non-adaptability of organisations. This is because the implementation of change in an organisation has multifaceted implications on both the structural and operational underpinnings in an organisation (ibid.). Consequently, the structural and operational pillars in an organisation have intrinsic effects on the conceptualisation of the strategic directive of the organisation, the implementation plan as well as implications on the duties and responsibilities of employees (Methode et al., 2019). This also includes the vertical relationships between employees and their managers as well as horizontal relationships between employees post the introduction of change in an organisation (ibid.).

The overwhelming majority of the OC related research has densely used an economic and profit-making lens to understand the concept of OC. Scholars such as Carton (2004), Martin,

Kolomitro and Lam (2014), Odor (2014) and Ogbu (2017) have dedicated their academic careers to widening the OC debate. Significantly, this discourse was investigated from different lens and paradigms but dominantly from the financial lens. As an illustration, Carton (2004) and Odor (2014) probed organisational performance from a financial or economic lens. In other words, these authors explored the OC concept from the lens of the shareholders which are primarily premised on a continued profit-making enthusiasm as well as a consistent pursuit for economic growth.

Even though the literature articulates that financial constructs have dominated the field of OC, Carton (2004) shows that it is possible to assess OC through a non-financial lens. Conducting a non-financial assessment entails operationalising the strategic objectives of an organisation via the development of performance indicators that are measured on a continuous basis (Haddadi & Yaghoobi, 2014). Carton (2004, p. 74) refers to this integration as the balanced scorecard. The debate on OC of measuring non-financial assessments is identical with the M&E principles, which is a field that has witnessed a rapid growth in the previous few decades. Abrahams (2015) supports this argument by stating that organisations in the public sector prioritised evaluation as a pathway to redress their poor performance and improve government efficiencies. Simply put, organisations in the public sector prioritised measuring their performances by institutionalising M&E as a management tool.

Factors that advance or inhibit organisational change

Odor's (2014) contribution is somewhat insightful in light of the current study. Odor (2014) proposes a two-step cycle outlining how change occurs in organisations. In the first phase, the author explains that the concept of OC is largely dependent on appreciating the pillars that constitute the functionality or structural apparatus of an organisation. The next phase after understanding these pillars is to devise management approaches to ensure that suitable plans geared to attain OC are put in place. Inherently, this implies that the extent to which the two phases are grasped predetermine the level of OC in an organisation. This is because, based on the level of understanding of the two phases (functionality of an organisation and inept management approaches), either fitted or unfitted management strategies will be instituted. This underlines the importance of appreciating the proposed sequential two-step phases as presented by Odor (2014).

Underpinning the organisational change and development concept is the acknowledgement that change in an organisation is multidimensional and occurs at different levels (Matyesha, 2011).

However, the majority of the studies have not comprehensively paid attention to factors that advance or deter organisational change.

Carton (2004) isolates the role of competent management or leadership (among others, the logic behind the need for change) as the key ingredients that should be driving the process for change. In adding to the debate, Ogbu (2017) asserts that beyond the competencies of management, there is also an expectation that these management teams will put in place a well-thought processes that utilises resources (employees and financial) to increase opportunities for achieving organisational efficiencies. Similarly, it is incumbent upon these managers to diagnose organisational gaps (such as skills and knowledge needs of employees) that are capable of preventing the organisation coping with operating in the 21st century (Falola et al., 2014). Therefore, the role of competent management seems to be one of the important pillars contributing to the attainment of organisational efficiencies in delivering services.

Appreciating the nuances of the new skills and knowledge debates can potentially predetermine the survival or death of an organisation. Falola et al. (2014) argue that the human resource practitioners employed in the organisation should make note of these important realities. This will enable them to design training programmes that are tailored to reignite new, state-of-the-art, futuristic principles which will steer organisational performance and the organisation's survival in a competitive society. This should be done in collaboration with employees. This narrative implies that ignoring the importance of skilled and knowledgeable employees could result in organisational suffocation.

The reviewed literature tends to agree with this phenomenon. As a case in point, Werkman et al. (1999) contribute to this debate by asserting that the acquisition of new skills and knowledge by organisations is capable of unearthing the competitive edge of individual organisations. Ogbu (2017) corroborates this argument by raising the point that organisations' competitive edges are intrinsically linked to the role of staff or employees. This is helpful because it moves the focus beyond the individual organisation and amplifies the significance of employees in driving organisational change. This also resonates with the argument presented earlier by Odor (2014) regarding the factors which interplay with organisational change.

This study argues that the discussed factors that advance or inhibit change in organisations are also applicable to the field of M&E. As noted, employee skills and knowledge are critical to the survival of organisations. Thus, this calls for M&E programmes to strive to ensure that they

build the competencies of employees employed in the organisations which are in pursuit of improving their performance.

Having outlined the factors that advance or inhibit OC, the next section discusses the assessment of OC.

Assessing organisational performance or change

From the onset, assessing OC remains a multifaceted area of work. Its complexities are twofold. Firstly, measuring OC is an internal process, which is mainly conducted by senior managers for a myriad of competing reasons coupled with contending expectations from different stakeholders within various organisations (Haddadi & Yaghoobi, 2014). Lastly, it often uses self-assessment tools for individual organisations, which gives rise to the concept of bias and lacks uniformity (Carton, 2004). Potentially, this breeds an opportunity for tension between the management and other stakeholders. The lack of uniformity in terms of measuring frameworks and standards exacerbate the challenges of measuring OC. This implies that the findings of the assessments cannot be generalisable because they are conducted per individual organisation (Carton, 2004).

Carton (2004) is of the view that in recent decades, very few studies envisioned to understand the definition of OC and how it is measured have been commissioned. This phenomenon includes studies such as Gravenhorst et al.'s (2003) a study which paid attention to marginal factors that advance or inhibit change in a various organisations located in the Netherlands. In some circles, this could be classified as a silo or micro way of understanding OC. Although it is appropriate to note that the study was linear in its approach, it is equally important to note that the study also provides insights in terms of the contributing factors of OC. Significantly, the concept of change management was eliminated as one of the key concepts.

A different study conducted by Odor (2014) based in an African country, specifically Benin, advanced the dialogue by offering a broader definition. In tandem, the author also gave an account of the multiplicity of internal and external change drivers that are often capable of influencing change in organisational settings. Notably, the study further pays special attention to the factors beyond training that are responsible for causing the change in an organisational environment.

Gravenhorst et al. (2003), in addition, stated that the majority of the studies are yet to interrogate the links between the multiplicity of dependent and independent variables. This was substantiated by a study by Falola, Osibanjo and Ojo (2014) which looked at employee performance in the Nigerian banking sector used a piecemeal approach. The study only focused on elements such as how change is anticipated to occur as opposed to investigating the how, when and what part of the change. Therefore, the science behind the change processes is often lacking. This reinforces the argument by Carton (2004) that there is a dearth of studies which pay attention to understanding the interconnectedness of multiple factors and their effects on organisations.

Gravenhorst et al. (2003) further laments that a sizeable number of experts in this field have a tendency to defer interrogating the compounded complexities associated with the organisational change concept by opting to partly unpack some isolated parts of the complexities. This singular approach, as opposed to a comprehensive approach towards understanding organisational change, often identifies similar constructs such as the effects of institutional arrangements, ineffective communication or the lack of teamwork as key constraints to organisational change (Nyasha, 2011). The narrow trend of identifying similar trends is not surprising because conducting multi-pronged research on OC is generally convoluted and require advanced levels of different skill sets.

The study by Gravenhorst et al. (2003) is insightful because it does not only critique and stop at identifying the limitations of interrogating nominal characteristics that advance or inhibit OC, it equally initiates some of the techniques of mitigating the limitations. Their study proposed an all-inclusive approach to interrogating and apprehending the impediments and enablers of change in organisations. It contributes by emphasising a pressing need to invest in understanding how organisational change comes about, as well what processes should be in place for this change to occur. This is about understanding the change cycles and the processes that give rise to the opportunities to achieve the envisaged changes in an organisation.

Despite the critics, there are some scholars who enable an understanding of this phenomenon in a comprehensive manner. This is informed by the acknowledgement that although there are limited studies that have attempted to understand measuring OC in a comprehensive manner. For instance, Martin et al. (2014) endeavoured to explain the links between how training is designed and delivered, particularly as an interface between change amongst employees and

organisations. On the other hand, Ogbu (2017, p. 64) goes beyond training as an intervention and pays attention to the role of trained employees and their potential contribution to leading organisational change. Put differently, the author was interested in attributing the centrality of skilled and knowledgeable employees and their capabilities as change agents in driving organisational improvement or change

Carton (2004) proposes a comprehensive model of how organisational change comes about which is depicted in Figure 1 below. This model identifies three major domains, namely operational performance, financial performance and stakeholder performance which collaboratively contribute towards the realisation of the broader organisational performance. Since the current study is not interrogating financial performance, operational performance and stakeholder performance are the two applicable domains for this study. Speaking from the private sector perspective but adaptable to the public sector, Carton (2004) states that the characteristics of the operational performance construct include interventions which focus on improving employees skills and knowledge, the attitudes of the employees towards their work as well as the role of management in supporting new learnings. On the other hand, stakeholder performance consists of the leadership role led by senior management in identifying the need for and implementing new changes in the organisation, the support espoused by the shareholders to the management and the agility of the organisation towards building their competitive edge.

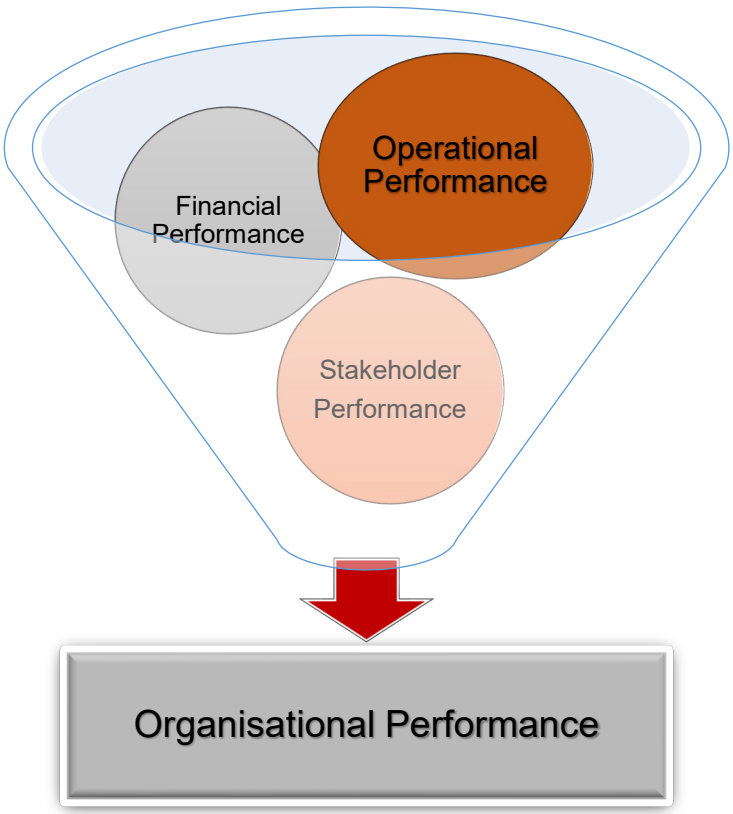

Figure 1: Dimensions of measuring OC adapted from Carton 2004

In the case of the evaluation praxis, operational and stakeholder performance are two of the applicable dimensions which have been applied. Harer and Cole (2005) argue that evaluating the performance of an organisation is one of the building blocks to unlocking the possibilities of improving organisational performance including public institutions. The authors further argue that this process should appreciate the inputs of various stakeholders who are jointly invested either in the delivery of services or, in some cases, are the beneficiaries of the delivered services. This implies that the commitment to use evaluation as a management tool to measure performance should also appreciate the stakeholder nuances and perceive such nuances as part of the evaluations. This could potentially contribute towards improving developmental outcomes.

Matyesha (2011) raises a different point by mentioning that technical aspects (such as frameworks and indicators) affect the abilities of the management team to drive change in organisations. This author further argues that the role of leadership plays a fundamental role in the success or failure of the implementation of the change in an organisation. As noted in the previous section, Carton (2004) highlighted the role of competent management as one of the key ingredients in advancing organisational change. Methode et al. (2019) argue that management are vested with the leadership responsibilities to steer the introduction of new changes in organisations. In addition, management motivates their employees to optimally perform their duties is a prerequisite towards achieving the broader organisational success (Matyesha, 2011). In the case of evaluation, a competent management team which recognises the role of employees during the commissioning of evaluations can determine the success or failure to collate and use evidence gathered for decision making and improving developmental results (Mbava & Dahler-Larsen, 2019)

2.5 Conceptualising Evaluation Capacity Building and Evaluation Capacity Development

The literature reviewed in this study on capacity building emanates from a social praxis, specifically the fields of human resources development, organisational training, and psychology. The terms Evaluation Capacity Building (ECB) and Evaluation Capacity Development (ECD) are two key concepts in the foundation of this study (Tarsilla, 2014). Both concepts have similarities in their aims and objectives, however, they are guided by different approaches. Ross and Hopson (2006) and Tarsilla (2014) define ECB as a hybrid of

uncoordinated activities such as evaluation training, mentoring and coaching activities implemented in one specific and often narrow setting. In addition, Wao et al. (2017) argue that ECB aims to ensure that individuals are capacitated to conduct evaluations and use the findings emerging from the evaluations.

By definition, M&E training seeks to develop and improve the performance, skills, productivity, effectiveness, and growth of individuals (Sharma, 2016). Alawneh (2008) goes further to define training as a short-term intervention aimed at equipping individuals with sufficient skills and knowledge. The definitions by both Sharma (2016) and Alawneh (2008) define training in a narrow sense, by focusing only on an individual. In some circles, training is referred to as capacity building. Lusthaus, Adrien and Perstinger (1999) provide a broader definition that includes beneficiaries beyond an individual. They describe capacity building as a process or activity that improves the ability of an individual, organisation, or institution to execute their mandates effectively. In other words, it is designed to improve both individual and organisational performance. Therefore, it remains important to recognise that capacity building is designed to improve the skills and knowledge of participants, which then leads to improving their job and, ideally, the organisation's performance.

In contrast, ECD is a long-term strategy aimed at improving both the individual's skills, knowledge and attitudes as well as their organisation's (Mbabaali, 2015; Tarsilla, 2014). This means that ECD is a comprehensive approach that moves beyond piecemeal interventions such as short course training programmes. This implies that ECB focuses on the acquisition of evaluation skills by individuals through training and workshop interventions, whilst ECD incorporates other external factors including the working environment of the trained individual (Tarsilla, 2017). Both concepts have a plethora of meanings and have often been used interchangeably (Carter, 2010; Mbabaali, 2015; Tarsilla, 2014). Since this study is primarily concerned with a training programme that targets individuals, the term ECB will be used when referring to training programmes, whilst the term ECD will be used when referring to interventions with a scope beyond the training of individuals.

The ECD concept has been dominated by northern scholars (Tarsilla, 2017). In the past decade, several strategic initiatives that illustrate the Global South's continuous commitment to integrating the ECD concept in their development have been witnessed. As an illustration, the 2010 AU/NEPAD meeting attended by African Heads of States agreed to endorse the Capacity Development Strategic Framework (CDSF) as a capacity-building framework (Ndashimye, 2015). This was followed by the scoping of the capacity needs assessment research study aimed

at identifying capacities required to carry out the AU Agenda 2063 vision (Tarsilla, 2017; The African Capacity Building Foundation, 2016). These commitments illustrate the significance of capacity development initiatives, and training in particular, focusing on various sectors including the M&E sector.

Wao et al. (2017) argue that most of the M&E training in Africa is purported to be aimed at improving weak M&E systems, increasing the number of individuals with M&E skills and knowledge, and contributing to building the capacities of organisations to use M&E as a management tool. A myriad of training programmes have been developed for both entry-level and experienced practitioners via a two-pronged approach: the formal and the informal. The formal approach entails undergraduate and postgraduate programmes designed by traditional universities and private training providers, whereas professional organisations and other training providers make informal training platforms available to their association members. These include workshops, webinars and conferences (Wao et al., 2017).

The descriptions of both concepts illustrate that the majority of training interventions are envisaged to improve both individuals and their respective organisations. The next section discusses common approaches to measuring the effectiveness of training towards improving

2.5.1 Linking the role of training programmes to organisational change

Understanding training and its role in organisations requires a comprehension of how change occurs in an organisational setting. This is because training is merely one of the approaches which contributes towards attaining organisational performance. This further explains why organisations experiment with a myriad of training interventions accompanied by a sizeable amount of financial resources. This is done with the hope that this training will increase the opportunities to achieve the goal of acquiring new skills and knowledge which is pursued by different organisations (Martin et al., 2014).

Underwriting these training initiatives is the anticipation that these different initiatives will contribute towards improving an organisation's overall performances. This implies that there is a need to first appreciate how organisational performance or change works. Then, this should be followed by appropriate strategies. A regime of these strategies, such as training initiatives, should be seen as prospective avenues geared towards increasing the opportunities to achieve organisational performance or change.

2.5.2 The professionalisation of the evaluation field and related debates around relevant skills

Research has shown that there is no equivocal answer to the question of whether or not the M&E field could be classified as a profession. Other views held by internationally acclaimed experts such as Michael Patton and Ernest House contend that evaluation is a profession, whilst others such as Rossi contend that it has not reached the maturity that qualifies it to be categorised as a profession (Mouton, 2014). In contributing to these discussions, Levin (2017) poses the question of whether or not an evaluation is a profession. Despite the fact that the M&E practised in South Africa seems to have ticked all the professionalisation boxes as depicted in Figure 2, the question raised by Levin (2017) remains relevant and its recommended that it is explored. Some of the areas to be covered include the fact that there is an established body of knowledge (via the developed curricula and delivery of courses), skills and knowledge sets, which are outlined as operating standards as ethical considerations required to operate in the field.

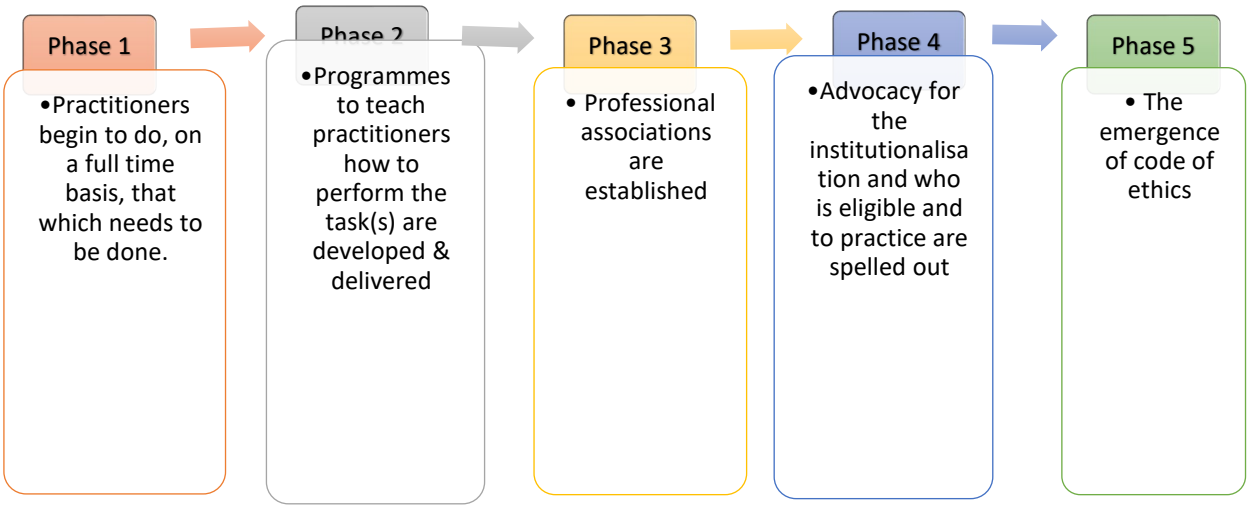

Figure 2: Five phases towards professionalisation adapted from Morell and Flaherty (1978)

The above depiction was adapted from Morell and Flaherty (1978) who presents five phases towards the professionalisation of a profession such as the M&E profession. Phase 1 entails the commitment by the practitioners to practice evaluation on a fulltime basis. This is a phase where practitioners are beginning to focus their attention towards establishing some building blocks for the profession. Phase 2 includes ensuring that training programmes geared towards building and enhancing the skill sets of the practitioners are being delivered by either the public or private training providers. This phase focuses on building capacities for new entrants so that they can acquire skills needed to play a meaningful role in the practice. During phase 3 the professional body gets launched formally. This is a phase where the professional body is established and promoted followed by activities such as electing the leadership and conferences are developed. Phase 4 focuses on advocating for the profession to be recognised legally through legislation in the county in which the profession is being practiced. Phase 5 is a phase where the guiding frameworks underpinning the profession are explicitly established. This includes setting up guidelines such as a code of ethics, professional qualifications and operating standards etc.

Linked to the professionalisation debate is the overarching principle that the evaluation field has been defined differently. In the case of the Northern countries, it is thought of as century-old, argues Mouton (2014), whilst in the Global South, it is considered a nascent field of study (Levin 2017; Morkel & Ramasobana, 2017). Therefore, this could affirm that the geographical location and the context in which M&E is practised is an important feature in understanding the type of skills and knowledge sets required for the establishment of evaluation as a profession. Important to note is that regardless of which side of the professionalisation discourse coin (either for or against professionalisation), there is a growing consensus that the quality of evaluations meant for use towards the improvement of policy and programme planning should be maintained (Galport & Hazzam, 2017; Podems, 2014).

2.5.3 The advantages and disadvantages of the professionalisation of M&E

In this section, the advantages and disadvantages of professionalisation are presented. Subsequently, the debate on competencies is discussed, followed by a summary of key themes relevant to the concept of professionalisation.

Various scholars have outlined the advantages of professionalising the field of M&E. For instance, Levin (2004) and Przybylska (2016) posit that professional M&E will lead to building a cohort of evaluation professionals in the field as well as contribute towards increasing the reputation of the profession. In turn, this helps to set the standards and principles guiding both new entrants and experienced evaluators. The practising standards and principles might include elements such as the prescription of the minimum qualification requirements (degree versus experience), charting professional accreditation, outlining the professional ethical considerations and the development of the competency list (Werkman et al., 1999). Morell and Flaherty (1978) corroborate this argument by stating that beyond the reputation and the developed standards, professionals will further explore avenues of operationalising the rules of engagements by developing competencies.

Morell and Flaherty (1978) also outline three key professionalisation results which are: evaluative jurisdiction, the professional role and the professional community. Evaluative jurisdiction refers to regulatory frameworks within an area of work and the configuration of professional groups working within a particular professional field. This is intended to establish the relationship between the classification, tasks and the job of an evaluator. The professional role is defined as the expected conduct which should be espoused by an evaluator practising in the field. This entails identifying the skills and competencies of practising as an evaluator as prescribed by the job market. The professional community consists of a cohort of individuals or group of evaluators who share similarities in terms of conduct and use of terminology in the field. This includes ways of working such as frameworks, tools of the trade, professional theories etc., embraced by the evaluation community. Overall, Levin (2017) underlines the importance of professionalisation purposed to legitimise the M&E profession whilst Morell and Flaherty (1978) corroborates this argument by highlighting the evaluator's competencies and their contribution to the professionalisation discourse.

Linked to the previous discussion of context led by scholars, such as Castro, Fragapane and Rinaldi (2016), Levin (2017) and Podems (2014), further emphasises the role of context. Their argument is that context is helpful in tailor-making evaluation competencies in line with the

evaluation practice (skills and knowledge) needs. For instance, in New Zealand, competencies are designed to cater to the entire evaluation ecosystem: evaluators, evaluation commissioners, employers, facilitators and higher education institutions. The process for developing and implementing these competencies has involved the majority of the stakeholders in the New Zealand evaluation ecosystem. Whilst in South Africa, competencies have been government-led and mainly developed to guide public officials in commissioning evaluations. Furthermore, they are anticipated to contribute to building government M&E capacities and the development of job descriptions. Besides being country-led and being applied in different contexts as illustrated by the above examples, some of the multilateral development partners such as UNAIDS have designed competencies purposed for staff recruitment and the development of an overarching organisational evaluation capacity development strategy (Podems, 2014).

Beyond the disparities on whether or not to professionalise, sufficient literature from both the Global North and Global South attest that developing evaluation competencies is a prerequisite towards professionalising evaluation. For example, Galport and Azzam (2016), Ghere, King, Stevahn and Minnema (2006) and Podems, (2014) define evaluation competencies as characteristics, skills, and the knowledge that an evaluator should uphold and espouse in order to effectively practise in the evaluation sector. In concurring with this sentiment, Ghere et al. (2006, p. 109) note that evaluation competencies include skills, knowledge and attitudes/attributes (SKAs) which are essential to practice and be competent in the field. These competencies are often used to set the tone of the evaluation elements such as the evaluator education, training and professional programmes, and qualifications as well as mapping out the professional paths that need to be followed.

Galport and Azzam (2017) further outline that training providers respond by using the prescribed competencies to tailor-make training programmes that are fitted to meet the expectations of different evaluation communities comprising of practitioner's and employer's competencies and their role in the evaluation profession. Subsequently, competency-based curricula aimed at improving the skills, knowledge and abilities of the participants will be developed and delivered by these training providers. Furthermore, this curriculum is designed to ensure that the commissioners of the evaluation can develop directional terms of reference (TOR) prior to the commencement of the evaluation. The cited TOR should spell out the roles and responsibilities of both the commissioner of the evaluation and the assigned evaluator (Galport & Azzam, 2017).

Having outlined the prospects of the competency guidelines and the responsiveness of the training providers in developing tailored training programmes, a discord between the evaluation commissioners and employers (who employ the trained participants) continues. Employers have noted that prospective employees or current employees which have been sponsored to undergo training continue to lack interpersonal skills, report writing skills, project and team management skills, and evaluation theory (Galport & Azzam, 2017. p. 81). Galport and Azzam (2017) further argue that these skills have received less attention during the delivery of the majority of the postgraduate programmes that the participants have been enrolled for. These discords signify the importance of ensuring that training initiatives, which are responsive and tailored to the evolving skills and knowledge, continue to be enhanced.

The majority of the literature reviewed, such as Galport and Azzam (2017), Levin (2017), Morell and Flaherty (1978) and Podems (2014), presents how a selected number of competencies are applied in different contexts. As an illustration, Levin (2017) uses South Africa as a case study to highlight how competencies contribute towards the debate on professionalisation. On the other hand, Galport and Azzam (2017) and Podems (2014) specifically cited characteristics such as skills and knowledge as some of the important evaluator competencies.

Figure 3 presents Ghere et al.'s (2006) comprehensive framework of understanding evaluator competencies including their contribution to the entire evaluation ecosystem. In doing so, it presents the six domains of competencies namely: professional practice, systematic enquiry, situational analysis, project management, reflective practice and interpersonal competence. Each of the six categories recommends the type of skills and knowledge (both personal characteristics and technical expertise) required to optimally execute M&E projects.

Domain	Description of competency per domain
Professional practice	Competencies focus on the professional norms and values that are foundational fo ethics.
Systematic inquiry	Competencies focus on the technical aspects of evaluations, such as design, mea sharing results.
Situational analysis	Competencies focus on analysing and attending to the contextual and political determining evaluability, addressing conflicts, and attending to issues of evaluat
Project management	Competencies focus on the nuts and bolts of moving an evaluation from the i negotiating contracts, budgeting, identifying and coordinating needed resources manner.
Reflective practice	Competencies focus on understanding one's practice and level of evaluation ex for professional growth.
Interpersonal competence	Competencies focus on the people skills needed to conduct a program evaluatio negotiation, and cross-cultural skills.

Figure 3: Taxonomy of key evaluator competencies adapted from Stevahn, King, Ghere and Minnema (2005).

A US-based study aimed at categorising the most important competencies, which was conducted by Galport, and Azzam (2017. p. 86), further corroborates the description of the six domains. They posited that the elements per domain are as follows. The element of professional practice is defined as the evaluator's commitment to act ethically and to strive to uphold integrity, respect and honesty in conducting evaluations. Systematic inquiry has to do with the skills necessary to collect, analyse and interpret the data as well the skills and abilities necessary to conduct meta-evaluations. The situational analysis focuses on the skills and abilities to reply to a request for proposals including accommodating the needs of the evaluation users. The project management domain pays attention to evaluator's skills and abilities to document formal procedures, reporting and agreements as well as the ability to transfer skills on how to conduct evaluations to new evaluators or evaluation users. Reflective practice is the evaluator's self-awareness in terms of their personal skills, knowledge and characteristics. Interpersonal competence focuses on the use of listening or communication skills as well as skills used to resolve conflicts, which might arise in the process of implementing the evaluation project.

At the conclusion of their study, Galport and Azzam (2017) recorded that only three of the six cited domains were elevated as highly important. Furthermore, there were six competencies for the three domains, which were documented. The three domains are systematic enquiry, project management and interpersonal competence. Firstly, the use of quantitative methods,

assessment of the reliability and validity of data were cited as the three competencies in terms of the systematic enquiry domain. Secondly, the skills to develop an appropriate evaluation budget and the use of relevant technology were cited as the two most important competencies in relation to the project management domain. Lastly, cross-cultural competencies were cited as the most important competencies with regard to interpersonal competence. Galport and Azzam's (2017) study further recommended that future training initiatives should pay attention to these competencies.

On the contrary, some scholars have cautioned about the over-reliance of scripted competencies which are envisaged to be applied in different contexts. Some of the criticism provided by scholars such as Podems (2014) relates to the fact the evaluation is an evolving field. This means that competencies which were developed in the previous few decades might not be aligned with the current practice of evaluation. This raises the timeliness and the relevance of current competencies anticipated to be used in the field of evaluation (ibid.). The most intriguing issue is the acknowledgement that there is less research linking the development of the competencies to the improvement of the quality of evaluation. Consequently, there is minimal evidence that attests that compiling a taxonomy of competencies leads to improving evaluation practise. The above section illustrated the usefulness of competencies and their role in improving individual and organisational performance. Training has often been expected to contribute towards enhancing the cited competencies. However, the question of whether these trainings are tailored to respond to the skills needs of the participants still needs to be answered.

2.5.4 Debates on the evaluation of M&E training programmes

Similar to other sectors such as the education and entrepreneurial sectors, evaluation sector is positively responding to the call of evaluating development programme initiatives (Aluko & Shonubi, 2014). This is because a substantive number of practitioners in the public and private officials have previously enrolled in a myriad of M&E-related training programmes. These programmes are designed to skill, reskill or upskill their M&E expertise (Basheka & Byamugisha, 2015). In turn, these practitioners are expected to use their M&E expertise to evaluate the effectiveness of programmes and policies towards improving the development of their respective countries (Ramasobana & Kone, 2019). As part of the urgency to evaluate training programmes, the evaluation sector has limited the number of delivered training programmes (Wao et al., 2017). Ulum (2015) defines evaluation as a methodical process conducted periodically with the objective of establishing the value, contribution, and adequacy

of training interventions. This is done via the usage of best practices such as well-defined frameworks.

Nickols (2011, p. 4) refers to this process of prioritising measuring interventions as moving evaluations from the back end to the front end. The author boldly recommends that an evaluation assessment for each training programme should be developed from the onset as opposed to being treated as an afterthought. The debate on the evaluation of the training programme is not necessarily new and has been ongoing since the 1990s (Lingham et al., 2006).

Evaluating training programmes is a necessary process towards collating evidence for learning purposes. In support of this argument, Ulum (2015) asserts that when evaluations are prudently and timeously conducted, insightful evidence that leads to the improvement of training interventions is realised. Therefore, it is highly unlikely that one can argue against the fact that evaluating training outcomes leads to remarkable learning opportunities. This is largely because these training programmes in general were envisioned to capacitate local practitioners with M&E skills and knowledge towards improving themselves as individuals and together with their respective organisations (Nickols, 2011). This is to say the argument feeds into the current and urgent evaluation debate with a particular focus on these pricey training initiatives which have been implemented across the region (Wotela, 2017).

It is also undeniable that the debate on the need to evaluate training programmes has been reasonably documented (Wao et al., 2017). Nevertheless, it is equally true that this area is yet to receive the attention it deserves (ibid.). One could agree with Aluko and Shonubi (2014) who appreciate that some level of measuring what works and does not work in training interventions has been taking place. Nevertheless, it is also known that efforts to measure training outcomes have encountered various types of challenges. In brief, insufficient budget allocation is, to some extent, reinforcing the minimal effort put towards measuring training and evaluating M&E training programmes as elucidated by Lingham et al. (2006) and corroborated by Falola et al. (2014). This widens the gap between training budgets and budgets for evaluating training programmes.

Lingham et al. (2006) caution that these mismatches are not only limited to disparities in budget allocations. They argue that in some cases where measurements of M&E training are conducted, questions around what, how and when to measure arise. In other words, measuring what works and does not work in training is inherently complex. These complexities are premised on the knowledge that measuring entails the availability of technical skills,

knowledge, competencies and personal characteristics of an evaluator (Ulum, 2015). In concurring with this assertion, Lingham et al. (2006) emphasise that measuring whether or not skills and knowledge acquisition occurred or, whether learning or the transfer of learning or retention of the lessons learnt from training, are some of the elements that bring complexities. Therefore, the debate around evaluating training programmes cannot be limited to budget constraints only, because is also dependent on the evaluator skills (Ulum, 2015).

The disparity between the training budgets and measurement of the actual training interventions are not isolated from the universal M&E training debates. For example, scholars such as Basheka and Byamugisha (2015), and Blaser Mapitsa and Chirau (2019) have argued that at a macro level there are misalignments between training providers (suppliers of training) and those who require training (demand for training) in the broader M&E discourse. In some cases, such as in the South African M&E ecosystem, there is a high demand for skilled evaluators rather than capacitated evaluators who have undergone training from a higher education institution (Tirivanhu et al., 2018). This further emphasises the misalignment between the M&E skills and knowledge needs of practitioners versus the training programmes delivered by the higher education institutions. This could support the argument of misalignment at a micro-level between the training budgets and training measurements made earlier by Falola et al. (2014).

Despite the above discussed disparities between the training budgets and training measurements, and the complexities of assessing training interventions, there is a renewed awareness on the urgency to evaluate training programmes delivered in Africa (Wao et al., 2017).

2.6 Common Approaches to Measuring Training Effectiveness

The discourse on assessing training programmes is not new and not limited to a particular sector. There are a number of scholars, amongst others, Chang (2010), Noe and Schmitt (1986), Noe (1986), Preskill and Boyle (2008) and Sharma (2016), who have contributed to the literature on the effectiveness of training in the M&E and wider sectors as well. From amongst these, one particular model has been successfully used by a number of scholars, including Chang (2010) and Sharma (2016), namely Kirkpatrick's (1959) model. Since 1959, Kirkpatrick's training effectiveness has been widely used Alliger and Janak (1989), Browning (1970) and Punia and Kant (2013). This model, explained in detail in section 2.8 below, argues that reaction, learning, behaviour, and results are characteristics useful in assessing the effectiveness of training. In a study that tested an exploratory model focusing on participant's attitudes and attributes Noe and Schmitt (1986) found that participants' attitudes, values, and expectations are significant individual characteristics in achieving training outcomes. Foxon's (1989. p. 89) study, which conducted a systematic and comprehensive literature review for the period 1970-1986 (16 years) in the American and Australian journals, aimed at collating themes related to training and development. In their study, trainee reactions, participants' non-absenteeism at work and the grading of individual facilitator's facilitation skills and their teaching techniques were recorded as key characteristics.

Almost a decade later, Axtell, Maitlis and Yearta (1997) presented course characteristics, characteristics of the trainee, and an enabling environment as characteristics that determine training effectiveness. Brown and Reed, (2002) and Sharma (2016) are proponents of Kirkpatrick's (1959) model, where reaction, learning, behaviour and results are used as characteristics useful to assess training effectiveness. Sharma (2016) applied this framework in a study aimed at assessing return on investment (ROI). None of these cited studies, which represent three decades of research, were conducted in an African context. Thus, this study attempts to contribute to the scholarly knowledge of how to measure training effectiveness in an African context. However, it is important to note that the current study is not generalisable; therefore, this raises a need to broaden the research agenda on ECB and ECD in order to contribute to building a body of knowledge around understanding the effectiveness of training interventions on the continent, particularly in the growing field of M&E.

Due to the substantive financial and time resources invested by organisations in training programmes, there have been some efforts to understand the impact of training initiatives (Noe, 1986). In other words, organisations are interested in ascertaining return on investment or value for money on their training investments (Thackeray, 2016). For this reason, many studies which assessed the outcomes of training versus financial investments have been undertaken (Chang, 2010; Sujatha, Lakshmi, Agyeman, & Kumar, 2014).

Furthermore, Chang (2010. p. 14) presents three reasons to measure ROI in relation to training investments. Firstly, the author argues that it is measured in order to justify the existence of and the budgets allocated to the training department. This enables the training department to illustrate how training contributes to the organisation's objectives and goals. Secondly, it provides information on whether to continue or discontinue training programmes. Thirdly, it empowers decision-makers with information on how to improve future training programmes. Finally, measuring or evaluating training programmes seeks to ensure that the training empowers employees with skills and knowledge that enables them to improve their job performance.

However, as mentioned earlier, many other studies have probed training effectiveness beyond ROI or value for money. In other words, these studies evaluated training programmes in order to ascertain whether the employee and organisational performance were improved post the training interventions. For example, Alliger and Janak (1989. p. 342), examined training evaluation criteria, focusing on the skills and knowledge of individuals. To put it differently, the study focused on factors that influenced how training interventions contribute to expediting skills and knowledge of trainees (Alawneh, 2008; Sharma, 2016). Brown and Reed (2002) contributed to the training evaluation discourse by conducting a study that investigated the effect of training interventions in improving organisational performance. The study focused on the usefulness of training beyond the classroom. Using a pre and post-test assessment, Brown and Reed (2002) found that a significant number of participants indicated that the training intervention was useful beyond the classroom and had led to the improvement of their organisational performance. This approach continues to be helpful in ascertaining the participants' level of skills and knowledge acquired before and after the training interventions.

As shown above, training evaluation studies have been commissioned to investigate the impact of training. These studies focused on a range of things. On one hand, some assessed value for money, whilst others evaluated whether training contributes towards improving individual or organisational performance. The following section discusses the determinants of training effectiveness.

2.7 Models for Evaluating the Effectiveness of Training Programmes

Kirkpatrick's (1959) training effectiveness model has been used to assess the effectiveness of training programmes (Alliger & Janak, 1989; Punia & Kant, 2013). This model explained in detail in section 2.8 below has four characteristics: reaction, learning, transfer, and organisation. Fundamentally, this model measures the effectiveness of training programmes on four levels: (a) the participants' reactions to the programme, (b) an assessment of the content, or what the participants learned, (c) the participants' performances on the job, and (d) the impact of the training upon the organisation (Chang, 2010, pp. 2, 22).

In the past 60 years, Kirkpatrick's (1959) model has been adapted and applied to different training assessment objectives by researchers. As an illustration, Phillips (1997), as cited by Giangreco, Carugati, and Sebastiano, (2010), Subramanian, Sinha and Gupta, (2012) and Punia and Kant, (2013) assessed ROI. Abdulwahed and Nagy (2009); Chang (2010) applied the model to assess the level of skills and knowledge acquisitions, learning, job performance and organisational improvement post the training intervention. In this case, this affirms that the model is adaptable to various settings and contexts. In the ROI study, the model was adapted and commissioned to investigate whether or not an organisation has achieved its bottom line in terms of its financial revenue targets. In a different setting, the model was pragmatic in the systematic interrogation of the extent to which the participants of a training programme consider whether learning occurred.

Apart from the fact that the model has been used to assess ROI and different outcomes of training programmes, it is also important to mention that the model has been holistically applied and fitted to different contexts and settings.

In support of the contextual fitness, Aluko and Shonubi (2014, p. 7) made use of Kirkpatrick's (1959) model to assess whether programme outcomes, training institution's objectives and participants expectations and the country or regional evaluation capacity building roadmap are aligned and can, therefore, be succinctly evaluated. This underscores that the success of training programmes is advertently reliant of a multiple of strategic factors beyond the actual training itself.

Nickols (2011) illustrates the usefulness of Kirkpatrick's (1959) model beyond its cyclical nature. Nickols (2011) alludes that this model can also be used retrospectively for planning or project management purposes prior to the commencement of a project or programme. As opposed to starting from the traditional reactions to results, one could explore starting from the opposite direction. In other words, one could ask questions about what results they anticipate the project to achieve, followed by the type of behavioural change, the kind of learning and the reaction foreseen to be solicited from the project or programme (Nickols, 2011).

In a different study conducted in Australia by Paull, Whitsed and Girardi (2016), the model was adapted to achieve simplicity and research rigour in one of the evaluations. In this evaluation, the model conveniently enabled the researchers to interrogate the effects of a curriculum offered in a mixed-race group of high school students. This included the student teachers and done without interrupting the academic programme of the school. The model was adapted and retrofitted to jointly conduct observations and written responses from both the students and their teachers. Once more, this proves that the model can be adapted and used to collect data from different cohorts of respondents involved in a training programme.

The historical and continuous usage of Kirkpatrick's training effectiveness model by various scholars illustrates that the model is adaptable, simplistic but comprehensive enough to assess training effectiveness. Furthermore, this explains the dominance of the model in the literature reviewed. However, the dominance of Kirkpatrick's (1959) model has received some criticism from some circles (Axtell et al., 1997; Turab & Casimir, 2015; Sharma, 2016; Thackeray, 2016). Chang (2010) cautions that the majority of these assessments of training programmes focus on the first two levels (reactions and learning) of Kirkpatrick's (1959) model, at the expense of the last two (transfer and organisational impact) levels, because measuring the employee's performance on the job and the organisational impact has proved to be complex.

However, Kirkpatrick (1959) contends that the model should be applied in a systematic and cyclical manner in order to realise its appropriateness. Of importance is that these researchers (either proponents or critics of the model) paid attention to various elements of Kirkpatrick's (1959) model and identified different characteristics to measure training effectiveness. As mentioned earlier, the adaptability, simplicity but comprehensiveness of Kirkpatrick's model explains the dominance and its usage by the majority of capacity-building scholars. This rationalises the applicability of this model in this study.

Various authors argue for different elements of training effectiveness. On the whole, these determinants are categorised into three: course characteristics, participants' characteristics and working environment (Axtell et al., 1997; Turab & Casimir, 2015). Turab and Casimir (2015) further debate that the primary element which determines the success of the transferability of training is its relevance and usefulness as perceived by the participants. By definition, transfer of training refers to the degree to which trainees effectively apply the knowledge, skills and attitudes gained in a training context to the job (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Tracey, Tannenbaum & Kavanagh, 1995). This is corroborated by Axtell et al. (1997), who posit that in the short term, participants' perceptions of the course is the immediate variable that determines the level of transfer. Most importantly, the implementation of training informs the extent to which learning and transfer of training happen (Turab & Casimir, 2015; Machin, 2002; Tonhäuser & Büker, 2016).

In terms of the course characteristics, pedagogical approaches applied in the delivery of the course and the usage of practical case studies applicable and relevant to participants' workplace environments are two key variables significant towards the embeddedness of transfer of training within organisations (Tonhäuser & Büker, 2016, p. 139). For example, a responsive oriented course curriculum content customised to the working environment of participants plays a pivotal role in igniting the transfer of training by participants (ibid.).

In relation to curriculum content and instructional design, Punia and Kant (2013) provide practical examples. Firstly, they propose that a needs analysis should be conducted, to establish a participant's skills gaps. This includes an assessment of what works and what needs to be improved by organisations and individuals. Therefore, it is recommended that tailor-made training programmes are designed as a response to the needs of organisations and individuals, in tandem with their context. This will enable practitioners and training providers to apply context-specific learning approaches that address the training needs of participants. Simply put, Punia and Kant (2013) emphasise that the course content and how it is implemented remain some of the key elements to determine training effectiveness.

Besides the course characteristics and the delivery of the programme, participants' characteristics or human agency influence training effectiveness. Porter and Lawler's (1968) performance model, as cited by Noe and Schmitt (1986, p. 498) and Sánchez-Romero and Prskawetz (2019), mentions that personal abilities, participants' motivation and attitude as well as their perception of their working environment, are individual characteristics that influence the effectiveness of training.

A study conducted in Sweden by Turab and Casimir (2015) established that individual evaluation knowledge, skills, attitudes, and motivation, use of evaluation findings, shared evaluation beliefs and commitment, evaluation frameworks and processes, and resources dedicated to evaluation are leading themes. According to them, these themes are the pillars of conducting and using the evaluation findings within organisations. This elevates the significance of human agency in the acquisition and use of skills and knowledge emanating from training interventions (Turab & Casimir, 2015).

This is corroborated by Bansal and Thakur (2013) who reiterate that individual attitudes such as motivation, personality traits, motivation to learn and self-belief to apply the skills learnt are some of the key determinants of transfer of training. Their study, using quantitative research methods, specifically structural path modelling, evaluated the perceptions of the respondents on trainee attitudes.

2.8 The application of Kirkpatrick's model in previous studies

In a study that used Kirkpatrick's (1959) framework to test and explore model participants' attitudes and attributes, Noe and Schmitt (1986) argue that positive reactions, learning and change in behaviour and improvement in individual and organisational performance are the intended outcomes of training programmes. However, the participant's attitudes, values and expectations are significant individual characteristics which are useful to understanding why training programmes are perceived differently by participants.

Rambau (2005) goes beyond course and participant characteristics by proposing that the training providers should appreciate the contextual dynamics and the needs of the organisations and training participants. This is followed by the role of senior management at the organisational level that has effects on the effectiveness of training interventions (Bansal & Thakur, 2013).

Punia and Kant (2013) further suggest that the use of practical examples familiar with participants practices and working environments such as case studies and applied teaching in

training classrooms, enhance the transfer of training as well as influence the sustainability of skills and knowledge acquired. Therefore, it is recommended that training programme designers should integrate the use of case studies in their curriculum. Further, they propose that the curriculum should be designed in a non-cyclical but systematic manner. Moreover, it is suggested that the course curriculum content should assimilate participants' working environments. In addition, both the pedagogical approaches and the course curriculum content form an integral part in the success or lack thereof of the transfer of training (Axtell et al., 1997; Machin, 2002; Rambau, 2005). Therefore, training providers should consider developing practical content and approaches in line with the participants' workplace realities.

Furthermore, Punia and Kant (2013, p. 5) promote innovative approaches to teaching and learning, such as the use of technology. The authors purport that online training uses suitable platforms which have the potential to redress the barriers of the traditional training environments which are often unbearable. This introduces ground-breaking learning platforms and unique learning approaches. Some of these learning platforms include self-paced instruction, mentoring, computer-assisted and web-enabled programs which depart from the traditional classroom and face-to-face teaching environment.

Having presented numerous characteristics that influence the effectiveness of training, Punia and Kant (2013. p 115) concluded that motivation, attitude and emotional intelligence are the three main participant characteristics.

Zaciewski (2001) noted the individual's attitudes and ability to learn as well as the working environment as key determinants of training effectiveness. The author adds that motivation, self-efficacy and organisational perceptions are significant. For example, a working environment has a negative or positive influence on the effectiveness of training. Further, it is highly unlikely that trainees will apply new skills and knowledge acquired from a training programme if their line managers are not supportive.

Foxon (1989, p. 89) conducted a systematic desktop review of evaluation literature in Training and Development Journals between the period 1970 and 1986. Trainee reactions, participant's non-absenteeism at work, and the role of facilitators are the key findings which emerged which determine the effectiveness of training programmes (ibid.). Important to note is that the author speculates that quantitative research methods focusing on the quantification of findings and the use of Kirkpatrick's model dominated the literature. This could imply that evaluation researchers from the North prefer to apply a positivist paradigm in assessing the effectiveness

of training. In addition, this might be perceived to be a research gap as well as enhance the urgency to assess training effectiveness from a qualitative approach, particularly in the African continent. It also reemphasises the use of Kirkpatrick's (1959) model as the preferred and dominant model.

Almost a decade after the study by Foxon (1989), Axtell, Maitlis and Yearta (1997), argue that minimal research on the application of knowledge, skills and attitudes learnt during the training programme by participants once they are back to their working environment has been conducted. At the end of their study, Axtell et al. (1997) highlighted three determinants of training effectiveness: course characteristics, characteristics of the trainee, and an enabling environment. These three determinants aim to assess the participant's perceptions of the transfer of training.

Bansal and Thakur (2013) and Machin (2002) elevate the importance of assessing the transfer of training because only ten per cent of training skills have been transferable to the workplaces. Therefore, evaluating the transfer of training remains important and should not be assessed as narrowly as has previously been done (Foxon, 1989). Machin (2002) further commends Kozlowski and Salas' (1997) model, which applies multi-pronged strategies in assessing the transfer of training before, during and after training. This model assesses the transfer of training at an individual, team, and organisational level (ibid.).

Given these points, there is a need to document the three determinants highlighted by Axtel et al. (1997). The course characteristics aim to assess the relevance or usefulness of the course as well as the pedagogical approaches used in delivering the course. In other words, it evaluates whether the training intervention has led to improving participant's job performance. On the other hand, the characteristic of the participants assesses participant's self-belief and motivation to apply the new set of skills to improve their job performance. Lastly, the working environment aims to assess the management support and participant's independence towards exploring the application of the newly acquired skills (Axtell et al., 1997).

Axtell et al. (1997); Brown and Reed (2002); Sharma (2016) are proponents of Kirkpatrick's (1959) model: reaction, learning, behaviour and results. Their studies acknowledged that training programmes have played a pivotal role in the sustainability and development of organisations.

Brown and Reed (2002) emphasise that organisations have identified training as a mechanism to capacitate internal staff to use evidence emerging from evaluation towards improving their

organisational performance. Although the authors are proponents of Kirkpatrick's (1959) framework, they argue that the framework has limitations in terms of understanding the transfer of training. In their study, Brown and Reed (2002, p. 2) presented various determinants for transfer of training. These include trainee readiness; trainee motivation; opportunities for practice and feedback during the course; lack of similarity between the training setting and the job setting; lack of opportunities to apply the training on-the-job; the internal organisational environment, especially boss, peers, organisational policies; and the external environment.

In a different study, Sharma (2016) applied the framework in a study that was aimed at assessing return on investment (ROI) within organisations. Further, the author argued that training providers (suppliers) and public and private organisations (demanders) have a consensus on the urgency to evaluate the effectiveness and efficiency of the training programmes. This urgency is informed by a need to draw lessons from the training interventions provided. The primary purpose of these evaluations is to create a feedback loop or a 'self-correcting training system' (Rackham, Honey & Colbert 1971; as cited by Sharma 2016). A well-controlled training programme is one where the weaknesses and failures of the programme are identified and corrected by means of negative feedback, and strengths and successes are identified and improved on to plan the next phase of the programme. The Hamblin (1974) model has the following characteristics: reaction, learning, job behaviour, organisation and ultimate value (Sharma, 2016, p. 201) was an adaptation of Kirkpatrick's (1959) model and introduced a Level 5 to the framework.

There has been criticism of how Kirkpatrick's (1959) model has been applied. It is argued that attempts to assess training programmes are linear, not comprehensive and tend to measure the effectiveness of training skills haphazardly. As is the norm in most training programmes, post-evaluation forms are administered immediately after the delivery of the training programme (Axtell et al., 1997). This is corroborated by Foxon (1989) who argues that budget and time constraints, as well as poor technical skills, compel training providers to conduct assessments immediately after the training with the objective of reassuring themselves that the training was satisfactory. This affirms Abdulwahed and Nagy's (2009) argument that traditional classroom assessment methods (instructional design, tests and examinations) are the core elements which are assessed at the expense of skills and knowledge post the delivery of the training.

According to Alliger and Janak (1989); Sharma (2016), in some cases, Kirkpatrick's model has been perceived to be hierarchal and focuses on organisational performance at the expense of

participants' reactions. They further argue that the model assumes that the four levels are chronological and follows a sequential order. Fundamentally, causal relationships are yet to be established. On the contrary, Twitchell, Holton and Trott (2000), as cited by Sharma (2016), argue that the model pays attention to the behavioural changes of the participants who have received training. In addition, the models enable practitioners to deepen their understanding of the training programmes in a simplistic and contextually applicable manner.

Various scholars have moved beyond assessing skills and knowledge acquisition and focus on the transfer of training. Transfer of training is defined as the degree to which trainees effectively apply the knowledge, skills and attitudes gained in a training context to the job (Tracey, Tannenbaum, & Kavanagh, 1995). For example, Kolb's (1984) four-stage learning cycle theory broadens the skills transfer discourse by acknowledging that an individual's learning experiences are informed by myriad characteristics which shape how they construct knowledge (Kolb 1984). This model was used by Abdulwahed and Nagy (2009); Healey and Jenkins (2000) and Vince (1998) who conceded that working environment experiences, previous training experiences, perceptions of the instructional design of the training, training provider, facilitators and an individual's preferred learning style are some of the characteristics useful in assessing the transfer of training.

On the other hand, Axtell et al. (1997) and Turab and Casimir (2015) propose that course characteristics, participants' characteristics and an enabling environment are three of the components that should be assessed together in order to determine the extent to which transfer of training has occurred.

The research approaches and paradigms applied in assessing the effectiveness of training programmes are of significance. The majority of the reviewed studies (Ali 2016; Abdulwahed & Nagy 2009; Alliger & Janak 1989; Chang 2010; Foxon 1989; Morkel & Ramasobana 2017; Wao et al. 2017) predominantly used a positivist research paradigm to conduct their research. Thus, in assessing the training programmes, examining the perceptions of the participants was not the primary purpose of the research. This provided a limited perspective into the way in which individuals assess and perceive the usefulness of training programmes to their skills and knowledge acquisition, as well as their ability to perform better in their job.

As an alternative, Cooley et al. (2015) illustrated how researchers can use Kirkpatrick's (1959) model's interpretive research paradigm to assess the perceptions of participants. Their study evaluated the perceived efficacy of outdoor group work skills programmes for undergraduate

and postgraduate students and factors that influence its success (ibid). Semi-structured interviews with probing techniques were used to assess efficacy. This grounded the researcher's decision to use a qualitative approach in assessing the perspectives of past DETPA participants according to Kirkpatrick's (1959) four-level training evaluation framework.

This section explored the research conducted on the effects of training on individuals over the last couple of decades, particularly focusing on ECB. The next section specifically examines the components of Kirkpatrick's (1959) model as used by various scholars (Alliger & Janak, 1989; Brown, & Reed, 2002; Chang, 2010; Sharma, 2016) which provides the conceptual framework for this study. It seeks to provide a framework to assess whether or not the DETPA programme has contributed to improving trainees skills and knowledge on all four levels.

Remarkably, the majority of these cited studies, which represents three decades of research, were conducted outside the Africa continent. Therefore, it could be argued that contextual issues were not sufficiently catered for in these studies.

In addition, these studies assessed participant's perceptions using mixed, while this current study used qualitative research methods. The next section discusses the components of Kirkpatrick's (1959) training effectiveness model.

2.9 COMPONENTS OF KIRKPATRICK'S MODEL OF EVALUATING TRAINING EFFECTIVENESS

This section specifically examines the components of Kirkpatrick's (1959) model as used by various scholars such as Alliger and Janak (1989); Brown and Reed (2002); Chang (2010); and Sharma (2016), which provides the conceptual framework on which the study is based.

Level 1: Reactions

According to Kirkpatrick (1959), evaluation at level 1 seeks to measure participant perceptions and reactions to the training intervention as a whole. In other words, participants' general reactions to the training intervention, including their subjective views, are assessed. This is important because it determines the success and failures of the training intervention; moreover, it gauges the participant's level of satisfaction and their attitudes towards the training intervention.

Furthermore, Kirkpatrick (1959) argues that participant's reaction to the training content and its usefulness post the training intervention should be evaluated as it has a direct effect on the usage of the new skills and knowledge. All elements of the training should ideally be measured, including the facilitators' skilfulness in facilitating teaching and learning, the learning environment, and the instructional design employed by the facilitator. Participant's perceptions/reactions to the training programme, therefore, contribute to the improvement of the training intervention if relevant modifications are made.

Level 2: Learning

Level 2 moves beyond assessing the reactions of participants and attempts to measure learning in terms of positive changes in skills, capabilities and attitudes post the training intervention. It proposes that the change of behaviour is a reliable proxy to measure learning. This study is focused on measuring participants' perceptions of their learning, which are identified through their own observations of their behavioural change as individuals. At this level, the evaluation entails establishing whether learning outcomes were achieved.

Level 3: Transfer

Level 3 is preoccupied with establishing the extent to which employees apply the newly acquired knowledge and change in behaviour and performance within their respective work environments post the delivery of the training interventions. However, this level acknowledges that the applicability of the new knowledge is dependent on the opportunity for application. Furthermore, the model acknowledges that behavioural change is complex and requires persistence. At this level, surveys and interviews are the preferred methods to evaluate the effectiveness of training interventions.

Level 4: Organisation

Level 4 seeks to assess the effects of a training intervention towards the overall performance improvement of an organisation. Some of the indicators evaluated at this level include (i) higher revenue sales, (ii) higher productivity levels, (iii) improved quality of work and improved organisational culture. This is often undertaken from an economic lens as indicated earlier.

2.8.1 Conclusion

The analysis of the reviewed literature illustrates that the work atmosphere and the senior manager's support are elements used to assess training effectiveness. Different scholars applied various models to assess the acquisition of skills and knowledge. Significantly, literature posits

that Kirkpatrick's (1959) training effectiveness model has been pioneering the discourse for over a period of 60 years (Alliger & Janak, 1989; Axtell et al., 1997; Chang, 2010). In contrast, the African region has limited studies assessing the effectiveness of ECB programmes which were commissioned, regardless of the rapid growth of M&E training programmes witnessed over the years. In addition, it is noted that positivist research approaches have been preferred. Thus, more research focusing on assessing participants' perceptions are yet to be undertaken. This signifies the timeliness of the current study in contributing to documenting participant perceptions. The next section presents the methodology which was applied in this study.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research approaches: research paradigm, strategy, research design, data collection, and analysis used in this study. It is structured in five (5) main parts. The first section presents various research paradigms and strategies that could be relevant to this study, and then explains the commitment to one research strategy used to assess participant perceptions in this study. The second section highlights various aspects of the qualitative research design as a suitable approach for this study. The third section presents the procedures and methodologies used in this study. The fourth section discusses how the researcher ensured trustworthiness in this study. These include ethical considerations and procedures used by the researcher in this study. Finally, the last section discusses relevant administrative and technical limitations

3.2 Research paradigm and strategy

Chilisa and Kawulich (2012) argue that researchers have views, beliefs, and assumptions on what constitutes truth and knowledge. These views, beliefs, and assumptions influence the individual researcher's perceptions of themselves and the world around them. In some circles, it is known as a paradigm (ibid.).

This study used a constructivist or interpretive research paradigm. Chilisa and Kawulich (2012) argue that the constructivist or interpretive worldview enables researchers to understand the world based on the research participant's experiences. The choice of this research paradigm is premised on the fact that the researcher aims to understand the participant's realities according to their perceptions culminating from their experiences of the DETPA 2017 interventions

delivered by CLEAR-AA. The justification of this research paradigm is informed by the contribution that this study makes to understanding participant perceptions on training effectiveness because there are multiple socially constructed realities (Chilisa, 2012; Chilisa & Tsheko, 2014). In addition, Keaton and Bodie (2011) denote that the constructivist research approach is preoccupied with deepening the researcher's understandings of social meanings implicit in the world and avoiding the notion of causality.

Qualitative researchers study phenomena in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them (Alshenqeeti, 2014; Sarantakos, 2013). The rationalisation of the qualitative research strategy opted by the researcher is premised on the description elucidated by Bryman (2014) who defines qualitative research as a strategy that promotes the usage of words as opposed to quantification in the collection and analysis of data. Underpinning this strategy is the recognition that (i) individuals interpret their own socialisation, (ii) the perception of individuals changes from time to time on a continuous basis.

The contextual relevance of capacity building interventions such as the curriculum content customised to the working environments of participants has been cited earlier. This signifies that initiatives such as MAE remain important. Even though understanding the acquisition of skills and knowledge is broad, scholars such as Chilisa (2012) and Chilisa and Tsheko (2014) have been instrumental in arguing that contextually relevant methodologies and approaches, is important for capacity building in the continent. This was substantiated by indigenous knowledge systems (IKS) discourses which champion approaches to localise skills development by African researchers such as Chilisa (2017) and Keane et al. (2016).

3.3 Research design

By definition, research design refers to a blueprint or framework of how the researcher plans to conduct their research: it justifies the methodology applied; the method of data collection; and techniques for analysing the data (Wagner, Kawulich & Garner, 2012; Wotela, 2016). This study applies a qualitative research design as it seeks to deepen the researcher's understanding of the perceptions of the DETPA 2017 programme as opposed to quantification or generalising of results. In addition, Sarantakos (2013, p. 120) argues that research design comprises two major phases: the first phase entails planning the research activity, whilst the second phase entails the execution of the research. The seven stages process developed by Steiner Kyle and cited by Babbie and Mouton (1998, p. 290), deconstructs these two phases in a more detailed manner, which was used as a guiding framework for this study. The stages

include the following: thematising, designing, interviewing, transcribing, analysis, verifying and reporting, and each of these was applied in this study.

3.4 Data and data gathering

The researcher collected primary data, which refers to the data collected internally or externally for the first time at the source of the collection (Wagner & Kawulich, 2012; Sarantakos, 2013). The constructivist or interpretivist research paradigm compelled the researcher to acknowledge their subjectivity and biases steered by ontological, epistemological, and axiological paradigms during the data collection process (Wagner & Kawulich, 2012). This was taken into consideration when designing the interview questions, as well as the interview process itself, and required consistent mindfulness of the researcher. The study lent itself well to respondents' subjective description of their perceptions and experiences, as learning and behavioural change are not linear events, and may be influenced by a number of internal and external variables within and outside of an individual. This required a deep reflection of personal experiences and perspectives by respondents.

In doing so, the researcher conducted interviews with ten (10) DETPA 2017 participants, one (1) DETPA facilitator, two (2) DETPA moderators and four (4) line managers of participants as the main data collection source. Interviews are defined by Gopane (2012, p. 10) as a two-way conversation in which the researcher seeks answers from the participants by asking them questions about the phenomenon under investigation (for example, the participants' beliefs, ideas, views, opinions, and behaviours). Interviews were conducted via Whatsapp call, face-to-face or Skype. In particular, semi-structured interviews were conducted, for which a semi-structured interview schedule was designed by the researcher. The interval of the study was a year post the implementation of the DETPA 2017 programme.

A semi-structured approach has benefits for both the researcher and the interviewee. For example, an enabling environment was available to the interviewee to speak through their own voices in order to express their opinions and feelings (O'Keeffe, Buytaert, Mijic, Brozovic, & Sinha, 2015). Therefore, a broader snapshot was built, words were analysed and interviewee perceptions were captured (Bryman, 2014). Thus, the researcher scheduled thirty minutes of interviews with respective respondents purposed to collect data (see Appendices 1.1 for the data collection instrument).

Stemming from the researcher's interest to accurately capture people's experiences, open-ended questions and non-directional questions were used (Alshenqeeti, 2014; Wagner, &

Kawulich, 2012). This is in line with the interpretivist approach within the qualitative paradigm, where the individual perspectives of respondents are of critical importance (Chilisa & Tsheko, 2014). The researcher sought permission to record and transcribe the responses of the respondents whilst conducting the interviews with the respondents. The transcribed interviews were emailed to the respondents for validation purposes. In other words, the researcher ensured that the responses elucidated from the respondents were captured verbatim and represented respondents' own perceptions, as envisaged by the research.

Thereafter, the researcher analysed the data gathered from the semi-interviews conducted with CLEAR-AA's DETPA 2017 participants, line managers, moderators and facilitator (O'Keeffe et al., 2015). The responses to the questions informed the key findings, then conclusions were drawn using key findings as a basis.

3.5 Sampling

Traditionally, the sampling procedure used for qualitative studies is not designed to achieve sample representivity (O'Keeffe et al., 2015). Steered by the qualitative research design, both purposive and convenience sampling was the appropriate technique because it enabled the researcher to collect data from respondents who are able to provide in-depth information on the subject under study (Babbie & Mouton, 1998; Yin, 2016). This is informed by the fact that each participant offered different views based on their different locations in the continent, their different positions and level of seniority and the nature of their work. For this reason, purposive sampling remained the most appropriate method (Yin, 2016), and convenience sampling in others.

3.6 Data analysis

Alshenqeeti (2014) acknowledges that analysing qualitative interviews tends to be overwhelming and time-consuming. Sufficient time was therefore allocated to the data collection and analysis process. The researcher gathered rich data from the fourteen (14) interviews. Thematic Content Analysis, as defined by Gopane (2012), as a process of looking at data from different angles with a view to identifying keys in the text that will help us understand and interpret the raw data, was used. In turn, the key concepts were coded. Data coding refers to a process whereby the data sets are broken down into their component parts and those parts are then given labels (Henning, van Rensburg, & Smit, 2004). The process of data analysis required the researcher to read and reread the transcripts, as this enabled the researcher to accurately document the themes and sub-themes emerging from the data

collected. This iterative process enabled the researcher to inductively identify and document concepts or themes that emerged from the datasets. In turn, the researcher compared the themes from the interviews against the ones drawn from the conceptual framework (ibid.).

3.7 Validity and reliability

Qualitative studies are more concerned with trustworthiness than generalisability. This study acknowledges the importance of trustworthiness, which is aimed at ensuring credibility, dependability, and confirmability of the findings (Wagner, & Kawulich, 2012). In order to ensure these, the researcher provided a detailed description of the research procedures and the theoretical framework guiding the study. Secondly, the researcher defined the research process in detail, documenting: the research problem, data gathering, analysis, and report writing process. The researcher kept records of emergent themes, responses to the research questions as well as any amendments of the research questions. The researcher piloted the interview schedule with two participants in order to establish the appropriateness and clarity of the interview questions. Piloting enabled the researcher to pre-empt tentative research challenges and gave early signs on whether or not the research questions, instruments and approaches avoided being complicated and unfriendly to the interviewees (Phawe, 2016). During the pilot, interviewees were given an opportunity to comment on the research questions. This empowered the researcher to amend the questions when deemed necessary.

3.8 Limitations and delimitations

The constructivist/interpretative research paradigm implores the researcher to acknowledge their axiological, ontological and epistemological biases during the data collection process. Hence, the researcher recognises that his employment by CLEAR-AA has the potential to deter the researcher's impartiality during this study. In addition, the researcher is involved in the conceptualisation and implementation of the DETPA programme; therefore, this implies that there are cordial relationships with participants. Therefore, this raises the issue of the researcher's bias. In order to mitigate the limitation of bias, the researcher interviewed different categories of respondents as a way to achieve triangulation of data. This explains why four cohorts comprised of DETPA participants, moderators, facilitators and participants line managers were interviewed by the researcher.

The use of technology via Skype and Whatsapp was cumbersome and slightly delayed the data collection process. This was because respondents came from different countries with disparities in the quality of internet connections. As a result, the researcher, in agreement with the participants, opted to reschedule some of the interviews. In cases where the internet connection

persisted (such as was the case with respondents from Benin, Ghana and Kenya) to be problematic, the researcher in consultation with the participants emailed the interview guide to the respondents for self-administration. Self-administration of the interview guide was also extended to some of the respondents who were travelling in remote areas with less access to the internet. This included two respondents comprising respondents from Ethiopia and Uganda who were on a mission during the data collection process of this study. Overall, the number of the self-administration respondents are as follows: three (3) participants, one (1) line manager and one (1) moderator.

Guest, Bunce and Johnson (2006) explain that using purposive sampling often result in rapid data saturation. These authors further allude that saturation implies that no new evidence or themes are observed from the data. Mason (2010) further agrees that data saturation happens as soon as after the fifth interview. In the case of the current study, the researcher checked for outliers and widely divergent views from all the self-administered questionnaires. This then confirms that saturation had occurred with the rest of the interviewees.

3.9 Ethics

Bryman (2012); Creswell (2007) both agree that ethical considerations should be integrated into the conceptualisation, implementation and report writing processes of each research project. Nhlabathi (2016) further adds that this is cognisant of the fact that research involves gathering data from respondents whose responses ought to be confidentially respected and protected and respondents should not be harmed at any given point during or after the research. In summary, all three cited authors agree on the following ethical principles: respondents should consent to participate in each research, the researcher should cease from deceiving participants and the researcher should uphold confidentiality as well as commit not to cause any harm to the research participants (Nhlabathi, 2016). Therefore, respondents provided verbal consent to participate in the study to the researcher.

The researcher disclosed to the respondents at the beginning of the interviews that he works for CLEAR-AA, which provided tuition fees for this study, as well as the bursary provided by Twende Mbele. However, the researcher indicated that no financial benefit was accrued during this research.

Post the presentation of the research proposal to the University Proposal Defence Committee, which approved the research topic and research proposal, the researcher obtained permission from the Wits University Ethics Committee prior to commencing with this research. An ethics

clearance letter was issued which the researcher to conduct interviews for data collection then used. In practice, the researcher adhered to the ethical norms and standards of research as envisaged by the Wits University Ethics Committee.

3.10 Informed consent

The researcher is persuaded by Silverman (2011) who argues that the guiding principle of informed consent is an individual's personal right to agree (or not) to participate in a research study after fully understanding the total research process and the consequences. As a result, the researcher designed a consent form which requested the participants to sign as a confirmation of their willingness to participate during the study (see Appendix 1.3). Phawe (2016) describes that informed consent is designed to ensure that prospective participants are informed about the purpose and procedure of the research study which might influence their decision to give consent to participate in the study. An informed consent form requesting the DETPA 2017 participants' participation in the study was developed. Prior to the commencement of each interview, the researcher spelt out the aims of the research, how participants were sampled, as well as clarifying confidentiality and voluntary participation of the participation. Furthermore, the researcher asked permission to transcribe the responses of the participants during the interviews. In some cases, the respondents preferred verbal consent as opposed to signing the consent form.

The researcher disclosed the fact that participants are permitted to use their discretion to withdraw from the study when deemed necessary and at any given point. The principle of using pseudonyms to protect participants was disclosed to the respondents. The researcher ensured that the records of the consent forms and transcribed interviews are kept safely, the details of which are explained below.

3.11 Confidentiality and harm to participants

The researcher ensured confidentiality to the participants in data collection and analysis. This was done by mechanisms that include storage and archiving of documentation that was put in place by the researcher in order to maintain the confidentiality of the records. This includes the fact that the researcher alone conducted interviews and transcribed them. Furthermore, the informant's information was archived in a locked (password) folder on the researcher's laptop and external hard drive. The researcher asserted confidentiality to respondents by making available the preliminary findings of the research to respondents. At the completion of the analysis, respondents were affirmed that their names were not mentioned in the report.

CHAPTER 4: DESCRIPTION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings from the interviews conducted with fourteen (14) respondents comprising the DETPA 2017 participants, moderators, facilitators and participant's line managers.

This study aimed to assess the participants' perception of the effectiveness of the DETPA programme. DETPA was used as a case study. The primary research question that this study addresses is participant perceptions regarding the DETPA 2017 programme as delivered by CLEAR-AA, and specifically, whether it has been effective across the four components of Kirkpatrick's (1959) model which are reaction, learning, transfer and organisational impact as posed by this research. The research questions aimed at assessing each of the Kirkpatrick training effectiveness model's four levels, including the gaps in programmes such as the DETPA programme. Sections 4.2 to 4.6 present the findings that respond to the research questions, through the qualitative analysis of the data including the steps undertaken in the analysis.

The researcher conducted semi-structured interviews with ten (10) DETPA participants; one (1) DETPA facilitator, two (2) DETPA moderators and four (4) line managers of participants (see Figure 4). A formal invitation to participate in the study was sent via email and Whatsapp to the 2017 cohort, which consists of DETPA participants, facilitators, moderators and participants' line managers. A census approach was applied to the participants, facilitators and moderators, where the entire population was invited to participate in the study.

Convenience sampling was thereafter employed, where the first respondents to the invitation were selected for interviews. In the case of participants' line managers, a purposive approach was adopted wherein a maximum of n=four (4) line managers, who were willing to participate in the study at the request of their direct reports, were interviewed. The DETPA participant population for 2017 was fifty-five (N = 55), moderators (N=three (3), and facilitators (N= one (1) and participants (N=ten (10). The sample size was as follows: the first ten DETPA participants who responded to the communique from the researcher were interviewed (n = 10). This was followed by the first two moderators (n = 2) and a minimum of one facilitator (n = 1).

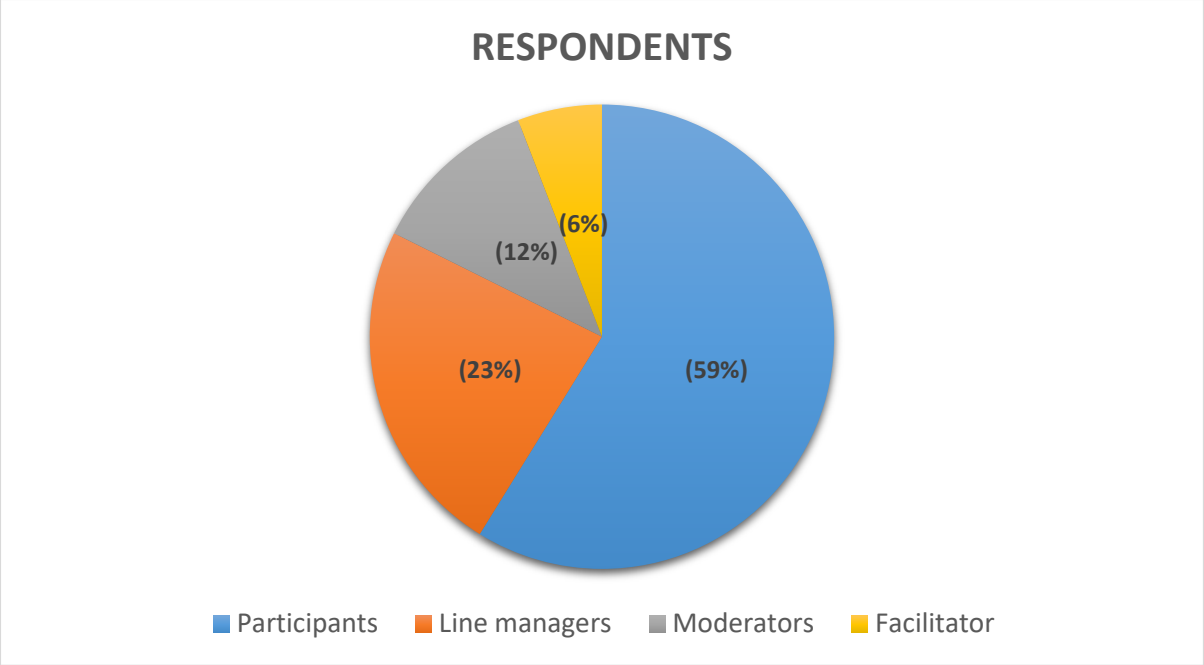

Figure 4: Profile of the respondents

The chapter also provides themes generated from the analysis. Several important themes emerged from the study: positive feedback that the overall programme improved and sustained the transfer of skills and knowledge; mixed feedback around the change in behaviour, and proposed areas of improvements. Below, the chapter presents a collation of some of the selected responses to converge the respondents' views to the above themes.

4.2 Participants' overall reaction to the DETPA programme

Primary research question

What are participants' perceptions regarding the DETPA 2017 programme in terms of its effectiveness in respect of Kirkpatrick's four levels of training effectiveness: reaction, learning, transfer and organisational impact?

Secondary research question number one, which examines DETPA participants' overall perceptions and reactions to the DETPA 2017 programme is addressed in this section. Overall, both participants and moderators had a positive reaction to the programme as a whole. Some participants simply remarked, *"Positive! A good initiative"* (Participant 2). The key themes that emerged from participants' reactions regarding the overall programme include the relevance of DETPA the insightfulness of the programme, and perceptions that it had contributed to participants skills and knowledge acquisition.

In the main, both participants and moderators perceived the programme to be of good quality. There are wide-ranging explanations, which were provided by the respondents as a justification of why the programme was perceived to be of good quality. One of the cited reasons included the timeliness of the programme. It was implied in some responses that the programme was long overdue and was timeous, as one remarked, *"...first, it was a long overdue intervention for a regionally contextualised programme after the global one (IPDET)*" (Participant 1). In support of this sentiment, one respondent said:

> *"So, the emphasis on 'made-in-Africa' is very much needed to bring in the cultural sensitivities and well as clearly articulating the demand for and utilization of evidence within the continent because my observation is that this is still external and not endogenously located" (Participant 2).*

Overall, both participants and moderators had a positive reaction to the programme as a whole. The key themes that emerged from participants' reactions regarding the overall programme are the relevance of the DETPA and insightfulness of the programme, which were perceived to have contributed participant's skills and knowledge acquisition. These themes are presented below.

Some participants simply remarked, *"Positive! A good initiative"* (Participant 2). The themes that emerged in assessing respondent's perception of the overall programme are good, relevant, and insightful and contributed. In the main, participants and moderators who were interviewed perceived the programme to be of good quality. There are wide-ranging explanations, which were provided by the respondents as a justification of why the programme was perceived to be of good quality. Some of the cited reasons included: the timeliness of the programme, this implied that according to the respondents, the programme was long overdue and was timeous, as one remarked, *"...first, it was a long-overdue intervention for a regionally contextualised programme after the global one (IPDET)*" (Participant 1). An inference could be drawn from this statement that this programme could have been perceived to contribute towards increasing a cohort of practitioners with evaluation skills to conduct and commission evaluations in the region as envisaged by the objectives of the DETPA programme.

Additionally, one of the respondents remarked that the programme should be scaled up;

> *"DETPA is an overdue intervention that should be scaled up in terms of attendance. There are many commissioned evaluations (and other related assessments which might*

be called evaluations) within the continent and which need capacity augmentation to those carrying out the assignments" (Moderator 1).

Respondents indicated that such training could ensure that local experts capacitate African evaluators with relevant examples without travelling outside the continent for a similar training programme. In emphasising this point, one of the respondents asserted that;

"Well-designed program to enable Africans to be trained in African realities instead of travelling to Canada or elsewhere for the similar but contextually different programme. From this point of view, it was relevant and once allowed the Twende Mbele team to gain global evaluation competencies as well as learn useful evaluation tools" (Participant 6).

This implies that there is a growing perception that locally based facilitators are familiar with the nuances and examples that are related with the evaluation practice in the region.

Additionally, the programme was perceived to have been well conceptualised and thought out because its curriculum was contextually designed to respond to an African context. For instance, one respondent stated that

"thinking about the programme and the rationale behind it, there was an attempt to ensure that M&E training is sensitive to the Africa context" (Participant 2).

Another participant echoed a similar sentiment by saying, "…*in addition, it covered the contextually relevant topics such as how evaluation fits into the African context by delving into the MAE concept"* (Participant 3).

"I learnt a lot from a conclave that gathers African minds and share pertinent issues on capacity building for evaluation practice. The gathering also creates networking as participants bring on board their own unique challenges from their different countries in the region" (Participant 1)

The programme was commended for including a stream for entry-level participants and another one for experienced M&E practitioners, which means the programme, was tailored according to the needs of practitioners. As stated in one participant's comments,

"*I also liked the fact that we had foundations for "beginners" and advanced for those already practising, thus giving everybody the opportunity to learn"* (Participant 4).

This ensured that various M&E practitioners who have various responsibilities and levels of authority in their respective organisations are accommodated in the programme. A respondent

who commented that affirmed this sentiment, *"the programme was attended by middle and senior-level African participants across 11 multiple countries in the continent*" (Moderator 2).

In addition, the DETPA co-ordination team were stated as being at the forefront of providing participants with a pleasant experience during the delivery of the programme. To put it differently, the co-ordination team positively contributed to participants and moderators' perceptions in terms of their in- and out-of-class experiences. Thus, co-ordination was cited as one of the reasons elucidated to justify the good quality of the programme for example; *"It was participatory, and the organisation was great,"* (Participant 5) while another said, "*It was well-organised and the co-ordinating team was hands-on"* (Participant 6).

This positive feedback was also mentioned in the assessment of the role of facilitators as well as their teaching approaches. One of the moderators applauded the decision to utilise experienced facilitators who are of African descent; "In addition, the majority of the facilitators who worked during the delivery of the programme were of African descent" (Moderator 2). According to him, this is one of the good gestures towards ensuring that Africans are in the forefront of using their in-house expertise to facilitate training sessions as well as creating an enabling environment for learning and knowledge sharing platforms.

The respondents appreciated the instructional design and andragogy, which were employed by the local facilitators during various sessions;

> "*Facilitators did their splendid role particularly in orienting the learning experience towards adult learning methodology. Practical examples were used stemming from real cases. The passion was there especially on the 'impact investing', 'made-in-Africa' and cultural sensitivity; and the rigorous impact evaluation module*" (Participant 7).

The use of learning by doing exercises; group work and case studies were perceived to be useful in guiding the perceptions of the programme. One of the respondents confirmed this by saying "The use of exercises and other interactions among the participants contributed a lot" (Participant 8). Another appreciated the manner in which facilitators engaged with participants saying;

> "*All of them were fantastic, at no point in time, they were never found to be dismissive to participant's questions (always willing to listen to participants). They used andragogy approach in teaching their courses. More especially Lewis*" [One of the facilitators] (Participant 4).

Although the feedback from the respondents was generally positive, however, time allocation, logistics, curriculum content and unequal quality of facilitators were cited as some of the limitations of the programme. The issue of quality of facilitators was captured in the words of a respondent who said *"Inconsistent quality. Some good, others novices"* (Participant 3). One of the participants cited that there was less time allocated to exhaust all the allocated curriculum content per session;

"The content is quite good, but one needs more time for learning in such a very short time. It simply means learners need more time or you might consider reducing the number of topics or modules" (Participant 9).

This has the potential to deter participants from the learning process envisaged by the programme. In addressing the limitation of time and curriculum content, some of the respondents proposed that the curriculum content be reduced and that case study approaches are integrated and applied by all facilitators. Thus, they suggested,

4.2.2 Key theme: Relevance of the DETPA programme

Participants perceived the programme to have been relevant. As an illustration, nine out of the ten participants interviewed underscored that the programme was relevant. The moderators of the programme corroborated this. Some of the elements that were cited to justify the relevance of the programme included a peer-to-peer learning approach, which entailed enabling participants to share their practice-based experiences from several countries and sectors. A participant who noted that expressed the latter point on diversity:

"The course design enabled for diversity in skillsets allowing for the different participants to learn from one another, enabling for implementation of the different approaches back home" (Participant 10).

In tandem, the programme was perceived to have been tailored to meet the capacity needs of African practitioners. Significantly, respondents indicated that the programme created a networking platform for practitioners to connect and to establish professional relationships.

The 'Made in Africa' approach was a contextually appropriate approach to instil and disseminate the importance of cultural sensitivities in evaluations commissioned in Africa. Respondents referred to the approach in their remarks;

"*So the emphasis on 'made-in-Africa' is very much needed to bring in the cultural sensitivities and well as clearly articulating the demand for and utilization of evidence within the continent because my observation is that this is still external and not endogenously located*" (Participant 1).

Another one also highlighted the significant contribution of DETPA to improving capacity for M&E;

"DETPA is an important contribution towards improving the quality of M&E service delivery in the continent. The Programme was developed based on a number of observations and assessments which revealed M&E capacity gaps at different levels in Africa. The training contents covered by DETPA meet M&E capacity demand and stakeholders' expectations to some extent" (Moderator 1).

However, it is worth noting that not all the participants perceived the programme to have been wholly relevant. For instance, one respondent remarked,

"Training. Ok, but not sufficiently customised for the government sector" (Participant 4).

Although the comment by the respondent is important, the DETPA programme was not envisaged to cater for a specific sector. Perhaps, in the future, the project team should consider customising the programme for specific sectors such as government or development sectors.

One of the respondents proposed areas of improvements with the objective to ensure that the programme attains far-reaching relevance. For instance, a government official emphasised that the programme should be densely tailored to address the capacity needs of the public officials working in the government sector. In addition, some of the rationale behind why the programme was perceived not to be comprehensively relevant included the fact that some of the content was not fit for purpose. By way of an example, one of the respondents attested that *"the content of the Impact investing module was perceived to be incoherent"* (Participant 6).

4.2.3 Key theme: Insightful and good use of participant's time

In answering the question regarding whether the DETPA programme has been a good or poor use of their time, the majority of the respondents, constituted by both the participants and moderators, cited that the DETPA programme was an insightful and good use of their time. Unlike some of the responses that highlighted some of the limitations mentioned earlier by the respondents, such as time limitations, there was a consensus amongst participants and moderators that the programme was insightful. Some of the elements, which were quoted as

responsible for the insightfulness of the programme, included the perception that the programme was culturally sensitive. This means participants perceived the programme to have made strides to appreciate the contextual and methodological approaches fitted for the continent. This is helpful towards capacitating local evaluators with the 'fit for purpose' evaluation tools and methods.

Similar to the relevance theme discussed earlier, the MAE approach was elevated as one of the key components that grounded the perception of the insightfulness of the programme. For instance, one respondent said,

"It was good because it gave me tools, knowledge and skills relevant to my situation." (Participant 4).

This is because MAE was perceived to have been a useful case study approach which promoted African scholarship and was perceived to be fitted to address the regional capacity needs and gaps of government employees and practitioners. Thus, the curriculum content was cited as one of the determinants that contributed to the perception that the programme was insightful in accordance with the respondents. One of the respondents highlighted the importance of the content by saying;

> "*If one uses content and in-class participation. One hopes that it would have helped in shaping their thinking around context relevance and specific evaluation skills and knowledge informed by the sessions discussed during the programme*" (Moderator 1).

4.2.4 Key theme: Improvement in the skills and knowledge acquisition

Both the participants and moderators reached an agreement that the programme has contributed towards improving their skills and knowledge. As an illustration, all ten participants and two moderators concurred that the programme contributed to their skills and knowledge acquisition. Some of the participants have further indicated that participating in the programme has led to their job promotions and they are willing to recommend the programme to their associates and colleagues. Some of the elements that were cited as evidence for the contribution of the programme are as follows: Firstly, the programme was perceived to have value for money. In other words, participants and moderators believe that both financial and time invested in the programme was economically justifiable; Secondly, respondents cite that the programme has contributed towards skills and knowledge acquisition on how to commission evaluations in their respective professions. As an illustration, one of the respondents said;

"In terms of knowledge, Yes. Theoretically, I know how to prepare a randomised control trial (RCT). I can read and understand studies that have used RCT and able to critique. In terms of skills, there are limited opportunities to apply their skills. The whole discussion around MAE has been helpful because I become sensitive to the concept of inclusion and the context in doing my work" (Participant 5)

Another respondent who cited the importance of skilled facilitators and the relevance of content corroborated this, alluding that;

"The first reaction observed from the 2017 participants during the training sessions had shown some enthusiasm and satisfaction of these participants. It will be quite difficult to ascertain the improvement of their skills since the interaction had only taken place in the classroom during the training session. However, given that the training contents are more or less relevant, and that the facilitation was appropriate, one can assume that the training had contributed to the improvement of participants' skills and knowledge" (Moderator 2).

4.3 Learning attained during the DETPA programme

In answering the question focusing on assessing the participant's perception on whether or not they have learnt from participating during the delivery of the DETPA programme, four categories of responses emerged from the findings: intended (the programme contributed to participants learning what was intended to be learnt), contributed (the programme made a contribution to participants skills and knowledge), advanced (the programme contributed to advancing participants skills and knowledge sets) and undecided (participants were uncertain of whether the programme). The categories of responses are examined in detail below.

4.3.1 Learning Intentions Achieved

In answering the question focusing on assessing the participant's perception on whether or not they have learnt from participating during the delivery of the DETPA programme, the respondents elucidated four categories: intended, contributed, advanced and undecided.

The majority of the respondents cited that the DETPA training enabled them to attain learning as envisaged in the learning outcomes of the programme as well as their own intentions to learn. One remarked that;

"I had a little M&E background before, but I had a challenge with the theory of change. The instructors emphasized concepts and related them to our African context enabling for applicability and learning. By the end of the course, I had achieved my intention to learn the Theory of Change" (Participant 3)

4.3.2 Contribution to Learning

The respondents asserted that their participation in the programme enabled them to learn new as well as improve their M&E skills and knowledge. Hence, the programme has been perceived to contribute to their intention to learn and acquire new M&E skills and knowledge.

Additionally, the respondents highlighted some of the practical advanced skills and knowledge learnt because of their participation in the programme. As an illustration, respondents indicated that the programme has enabled participants to acquire various advanced evaluation technical skills and knowledge. This was articulated via a comment made by one respondent who indicated that;

Clear and practical lessons and skills on developmental evaluation was imparted as intended as well as highlighting cultural sensitivities within Africa, which need to be embedded in the practice" (Participant 6)

These include analysing and using quantitative data for reporting and planning purposes. Some of the practical skill sets learnt included: how to design terms of references (TOR) for conducting and commissioning evaluations, evaluation methods and approaches as well as skill on how to conduct and commission Impact evaluation. One of the respondents remarked that she has applied the practical skills learnt already;

"Of course, I learnt, I got the opportunity to evaluate a programme in 2018. I encouraged the client to move beyond secondary data and start to plan for impact evaluation from the start of their programmes. This was because it was difficult to attribute the impact as it was not planned. From such an institution, their staff have registered for an M&E course" (Participant 3)

One of the respondents also mentioned that they also learnt about the theory of change concept. In their own words, the respondent said;

"I am able to perform my roles both voluntary at work from a more informed point of view especially with the idea of the Theory of Change at the back of my mind" (Participant 4)

4.3.3 Learning Advanced

According to the respondents, the programme has contributed to participants learning skills such as conducting quality assurance in their respective working environments, improving their planning and reporting skills as well as facilitation skills. Additionally, the programme was perceived to be a learning platform. Practical and theoretical evaluations tools such as developing logframes and the philosophical approach of MAE curriculum content was cited as a gateway that facilitated learning to occur. In tandem, they have learnt advanced skills such as policy planning, promotion, including the institutionalisation of evaluation from different countries. Thus, it can be argued that the programme promoted peer learning amongst participants from different countries as well as learning both the theoretical and practical M&E tools. To illustrate how the programme facilitated peer learning, one participant commented that;

> *"Participation in this program made it possible to learn more about evaluation practices in other countries and African institutions such as the African Union. It made it possible to know the level of institutionalisation of the evaluation at the level of certain countries like Niger, Ghana and Kenya etc."* (Participant 1).

The programme has also improved participants' facilitation skills and to their own consultancies. This was evidenced via a comment made by one of the respondents who articulated that;

> *"I am invited to facilitate workshops and training. It helps me to facilitate M&E training. I have been reviewing people's work. I am looking at initiating my own Impact Evaluation consultancy*" (Participant 7).

4.3.4 Undecided

However, some of the respondents indicated that it is too early to attribute the role of the DETPA programme in bringing about changes at an individual or organisational level. In particular, one of the respondents mentioned that the improvements cannot be only attributed to the contribution of the DETPA programme only. The respondent said;

> *"Yes somewhat, growing drive towards evidence – based decision – making, but not only because of DETPA"* (Participant 8)

This implies that that there is an appreciation of the fact that training forms part and not the only part of the broader of ECD offerings. In addition, it further suggests that at times the effects of training programmes take time to yield results at and individual and organisational level.

4.4 Improved and sustained transfer of skills and knowledge

In addressing secondary research question number three around participants' perceptions on whether or not they have acquired new knowledge, skills and learning from participating in the delivery of the DETPA 2017 programme, participants and line managers overwhelmingly indicate that the transfer of skills was achieved. Interestingly, there was a consensus from all 14 respondents. In other words, all respondents (participants and their line managers) believed that the DETPA programme has contributed towards improving and sustaining the participant's skills and knowledge as well as contributed towards improving their job performances. DETPA was attributed to have afforded some respondents an opportunity to become recognised consultants;

> "*Most notably, DETPA has given me leverage because international organisations looking at local partners are receptive to my CV. I have done work with Amnesty International. Oxfam appointed me as a local partner as a result of my participation during the DETPA training programme*" (Participant 3).

Another respondent reported that they had improved and been promoted "I can confirm that through this programme my job performance has improved. In fact, it contributed to my promotion, which is another motivating factor" (Participant 4).

Some indicated that the programme has empowered them to interface M&E key concepts with their practice. For example, the Theory of Change (TOC) and evaluation methodologies are some of the concepts learnt and then applied by participants. Line managers confirmed this;

> *"It has actually improved his performance in the work that he has been doing. Before he came for the programme, he was at an entry point of his M&E career. After the programme, he showed an increase in knowledge, particularly TOC and developing indicators. Prior to the training, he handled fewer training activities, however, post the delivery, he made my own job easier because he became part of the core training team. As a result, we managed to reach more training participants because he was a party to training participants in terms of developing indicators*" (Line Manager 1).

This implies that there is a strong perception that participants gained skills and knowledge during training, which was applied in their workplaces.

4.5 Organisation improvement

This section presents data on the following research sub-questions:

(i) What are the participants' perceptions regarding their job-related performance in M&E after their participation in the DETPA 2017?

(ii) What are participants' perceptions regarding the impact of the training on their organisations, specifically in terms of M&E practice?

The analysis of organisational improvement indicates positive feedback from respondents. As an illustration, nine out of the ten participants are convinced that the programme improved their organisational performance. A similar finding applies to the responses elucidated from the line managers. This is represented by the fact that three, out of the four, line managers interviewed indicated that the programme has facilitated change in behaviour within their respective organisations.

There are varied examples which were mentioned as evidence for the organisation by the respondents. These include the fact that some of the organisations that were employers of the participants of the DETPA programme integrated M&E as a strategic or planning approach. As an illustration, one of the respondents argued that;

> *"The programme has improved my subordinates work and their reporting and ability to interact with government officials. They are able to hold conversations with a government official at a high level. In turn, it improves the efficiency of the Twende Mbele programme. Some of the staff gained interest to pursue a career in M&E. In the end, we hope the staff will become experts in the sector*" (Line manager 2).

This resulted in the inclusion and integration of the results framework as a component of the organisation's strategic plan. A senior manager in that particular organisation championed this integration. Interestingly, one of the participants in the DETPA programme led the task of developing the results framework. This could imply that M&E was legitimised in the organisation and this has led to the emergence of champions in that particular organisation.

In addition, the researcher also noted that there were divergent opinions regarding the change in behaviour presented by respondents. This means that participants and their line managers had uncertainties on whether or not change in behaviour was attained in their respective

organisations. As an illustration, one of the respondent remarked ... *"Yes somewhat. Growing drive towards an evidence-based decision – making, but not only because of DETPA"* (Participant 4). Another participant corroborated this sentiment by noting that, *"DETPA is a resource for capacity building. So far, limited impact, but over time as they apply to learn, this may be possible*" (Line manager 3).

However, respondents further asserted that it is too early to link improvements to the DETPA programme yet. One of the participants specified that … *"DETPA is a resource for capacity building. So far, limited impact, but over time as they apply to learn, this may be possible"*.

4.6 Proposed areas of improvements

The following research sub-question is addressed in this section: what are participants' perceptions regarding the gaps of programmes such as the DETPA 2017 in building skills, knowledge, individual performance and organisational improvement and how they can be enhanced?

Respondents identified three areas of improvements with the objective for the consideration of the DETPA project team aimed at improving the planning and the delivery of the future DETPA programmes. These include curriculum design, the use of case studies and the Made in Africa evaluation concept, which are explained below.

4.6.1 Curriculum design

Participants and line managers identified curriculum design as one of the significant areas for improvement. Within this area, curriculum design included focusing on a case studies approach (practice-oriented content), and deepening the use of the 'Made in Africa' evaluation concept. Tracer studies were also mentioned as a way of ensuring that the organisation institutionalises the implementation of a monitoring and evaluation plan for the DETPA. Below follows some of the discussions proposed by the respondents.

Case studies approach

Participants and line managers perceive the use of case studies and a practical approach as an important component for improving the programme. As an illustration, eight out of ten participants proposed that the programme should increase the use of case studies approaches. One of the respondents declared that;

"it would be very interesting for the program to address specific topics adapted to the participants' needs such as the elaboration of the terms of reference, how to communicate on the results of the evaluation in the African context, etc." (Participant 8).

Three, out of four, line managers argued that the use of case studies will contribute towards embedding skills and knowledge acquisition, learning, job performance and improved organisational performance. One of the line respondents corroborated this by saying;

"CLEAR should consider using a case study approach whereby participants are able to do RCT's because it is perceived as a scientific method. This allowed participants to conduct calculations and practice in preparation of real-life cases" (Line manager 3).

Moreover, it was argued that this approach would entrench M&E concepts within the participant's evaluation practice.

a. Made in Africa evaluation concept

Building on the previous paragraph, there is a need to ensure that the 'Made in Africa' concept should be used as the organising framework for the entire programme. This suggests that Afrocentric theories and methodologies should be fused into the all-inclusive curriculum content of the programme. In other words, respondents propose that culture, beliefs, and values are components that should distinguish the DETPA programme against other international programmes such as IPDET. One of the respondents emphasised the importance of 'Made in Africa' by stating that;

> "*The emphasis on 'Made-in-Africa' is very much needed to bring in the cultural sensitivities and well as clearly articulating the demand for and utilisation of evidence within the continent because my observation is that this is still external and not endogenously located*" (Participant 1).

This will ensure that contextually tailored case studies and approaches to evaluations are one of the outcomes enshrined in the conceptualisation and implementation of the DETPA programme. The 'Made in Africa' module offered during the programme was positively received. Once again, one of the respondents affirmed the significance of MAE and mentioned that;

"basically, international NGO perspectives traditionally inform most programmes, such as DETPA. However, practical M&E in government is neither understood nor properly taught by

most programmes. Hence, the DETPA programme should consider integrating the MAE approach in all the modules" (Line manager 4).

On the other hand, respondents proposed that DETPA programme managers should consider undertaking pre and post-tests or tracer studies. They argued that the pre-tests would ensure that the curriculum content addresses the training needs and expectations of the prospective participants. Whilst tracer studies would make sure that participant's experiences post the programme are documented and applied towards improving the programme.

These will avert some of the criticisms noted from a few respondents in relation to their perception that the programme did not cater to their specific needs. For example, three out of ten participants mentioned that the programme did not sufficiently appreciate continental representation and the diversity of the public sector. In expressing their opinions regarding the continental representation, one of the respondents asserted that; *"*

Facilitators should familiarise themselves with examples outside of SA considering that the programme caters for an international audience" (Participant 1*).*

This was corroborated by another respondent who argued that*; "Training was Ok, but not sufficiently customised for the diversity of governments in the region"* (Participant 2). However, it must be noted that DETPA is yet to customise its curriculum content to cater for specific sectors.

4.6.2 Instructional design

The majority of the respondents appreciated the facilitation approaches used by facilitators. As an example, nine out of ten participants mentioned that the instructional design applied by facilitators has contributed to their learning. As an example, one of the respondents believed that;

> *"Facilitators did their splendid role particularly in orienting the learning experience towards adult learning methodology. Practical examples were used stemming from real cases. The passion was there especially on the 'impact investing', 'made-in-Africa' and cultural sensitivity; and the rigorous impact evaluation module"* (Participant 10).

However, a few ideas geared to improve the facilitation of sessions were proposed by respondents. This includes clinical learning and andragogy approach. As an example, one of the respondents proposed that *"clinical learning approach via role-plays and group works should be explored in designing the Terms of Reference (TOR) session*" (Participant 7).

Using this approach allows participants to tap into their own experiences and facilitate learning by doing as opposed to a theory-based approach. In addition, one, out of four, line managers proposed that the programme co-ordination team should explore the use of two facilitators per class who will take students through the entire course. One of the respondents (one of the facilitators) who argued that *"this will ensure that the participants will build rapport and reduce duplication"*, corroborated this.

However, some of the respondents raised concerns regarding the lack of uniformity in applying the instructional design used. One of the respondents mentioned the following: *"Some of the facilitators who are academics seemed to have focused on theories as opposed to their practitioner's counterparts who provided practical examples. This made a difference, in terms of infusing M&E concepts with theories"* (Participant 3).

4.6.3 Implementation period

Respondents highlighted time allocation as an important element of the DETPA programme, but there were mixed responses regarding this. Four participants who cited the significance of allocating more time illustrate this. Hence, they recommended that the programme should be extended beyond two weeks. One of the respondents alluded that;

"I found 2 weeks short considering this is supposed to be a hands-on course. Can we also think of having two sessions in a year?" (Participant 4).

However, there is a different school of thought regarding time allocation. One out of four-line managers indicated that the programme's target group are in the middle and senior management positions. Therefore, availability might be a challenge. Hence, he recommended that

"Consider course duration of 1 week - it appears target participants are busy people may struggle with being away for 2 weeks" (Line manager 2).

4.7 Limitations

This study has several limitations. The researcher is involved in the conceptualisation and implementation of the DETPA programme. Therefore, there is a professional relationship between the researcher and participants. CLEAR-AA as a single organisation was applied as a case study. Participants, moderators, facilitators, and line managers provided perceptions on the DETPA programme only; therefore, these findings cannot be generalised with other M&E programmes.

4.8 Conclusion

This study contributes towards deepening scholars' understanding on how to assess the effectiveness of short-course training programmes in M&E from the perspective of participants, which may contribute towards understanding how to better design and implement such programmes with the target audience's needs in mind. The study concludes that positive transfer of training is dependent on the premium that is placed on the skills and knowledge acquisition, which then contributes to improving participant's job and organisational performance. However, the curriculum content, use of case studies and instructional design applied during training are some of the key determinants that should be highly prioritised in capacity building initiatives.

The next chapter considers the findings in the context of Kirkpatrick's training effectiveness model.

CHAPTER 5 ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings elucidated in the previous chapter. The researcher uses the presented literature (see chapter 2), in particular the conceptual framework, to strengthen their arguments. The previous chapter was dedicated to presenting the data by discussing the key themes and categories of responses that emerged from the data. As an attempt to contribute to understanding the effect of evaluation training programmes in strengthening evaluation practice in Africa, this chapter turns to providing an in-depth examination of the data as well as insights and discussions in tandem with the literature. This discussion sets the tone for the proceeding chapter in which the researcher draws conclusions and recommendations for prospective areas of research and practice. Kirkpatrick's 4 levels are used to frame the analysis below. As an illustration, section 5.2 addresses Level 1, which discusses the research question focusing on the participant's overall reactions to the DETPA 2017 programme. Section 5.3 addresses the research question on whether or not they have acquired new knowledge, skills and learning from participating in the delivery of the DETPA 2017 programme. Section 5.4 focuses on the research question regarding their job-related performance in M&E post their participation in the DETPA 2017. Section 5.5 discusses research question focusing on the impact of the training on their organisations, specifically in terms of M&E practice. Lastly, section 5.6 will present a discussion on the research question concerning the gaps of programmes such as the DETPA 2017 in building skills, knowledge, individual performance and organisational improvement and how they can be enhanced.



Figure 4: Summary of the findings

5.1.1 Framing the context in which the analysis of the study is conducted

As part of the analysis of this study, the researcher deems it necessary to frame the context in which the analysis is premised on. In doing so, the study briefly highlights the context in which a training programme such as DETPA occurs. This was done in tandem with how it links to individual participants and their respective organisations. This is underpinned by the recognition that individuals as employees and organisations as employers are both responsible for contributing to organisational performance.

Since the early 1990's, African public and private organisations pursued the NPM as an approach to achieve developmental results often referred to as results-based management. As part of implementing the NPM approach, government institutions and private organisations apportioned resourced to support capacity-building initiatives including training. These

resources availed opportunities for their employees to enrol for M&E training programmes offered by various training providers. In turn, these M&E training programmes were expected to capacitate organisational employees with responsive M&E skills and knowledge sets. Most importantly, these skilled employees were envisioned to maximally contribute towards improving their organisational performances in terms of service delivery (public sector) or profit-making (private sector).

5.2 Level 1 - Overall reactions to the DETPA programme

This section discusses the research question focusing on the participant's overall reactions to the DETPA 2017 programme. This study was conducted in an era in which very few studies aimed at assessing the effectiveness of training programmes in Africa are conducted, as previously elucidated by Morkel and Ramasobana (2017) and Wao, et al. (2017). When assessments are conducted to measure reactions, there are mainly conducted immediately after the delivery of programmes. Consequently, participant's perceptions of programmes, such as DETPA, are yet to be known.

At this level, Kirkpatrick's (1959) model measures the participant's reaction to the entire training programme. In the case of this study, the findings that emerged could be summed into five themes. These include; the role of the coordination team, the curriculum content of the course and the context in which it was implemented, facilitators role including their facilitation style, the alignment of the content to their working environment as well the M&E competencies. The study was further mindful of the inherent subjective views and biases of the participants. Traditionally, Level 1 assessments are generally completed immediately after the delivery of the training interventions argue Morkel and Ramasobana (2017).

The pervasive reviewed literature emphasised the cyclical nature of Kirkpatrick 1959 model. Put differently, Level 1 (reactions) serves as a progressive building block leading up to Level 4 (results). This implies that the four components of the model are both sequential and mutually dependent on each other. Therefore, it is almost impossible that the findings at Level 1 (reactions) to Level 4 (results) could be discussed extensively without appreciating the interconnectedness of Kirkpatrick's model and the importance of participant's sense of self-identity as individuals, groups and their different organisations.

In the case of the current study, the researcher solicited participants reactions two years post the delivery of the programme. Significantly, respondents perceived the programme to be of good quality. Without following any level of significance or sequencing, themes will be

presented. These themes include the coordination of the programme, the curriculum content and the context in which it was implemented of the course, the facilitator's role and their facilitation styles and skills, knowledge and participant's attitudes/attributes. Furthermore, the relevance of the programme with the participants working environments and its contribution in meeting the participant's expectations is a common thread. A discussion on these themes is discussed below.

5.2.1 The coordination of the DETPA programme

The majority of the respondents noted that the coordination of the DETPA programme led by the project team facilitated and enhanced the opportunities for learning to occur. They were under the impression that the programme was well organised. Below follows some of the specific responses from the interviewed participants.

"It was participatory, and the organisation was great," (Participant 5)

"It was well- organised and the co-ordinating team was hands-on" (Participant 6).

As early as 1970, the outside classroom issues such as the coordination role steered by the project team were championed by scholars such as Browning (1970). Browning study which evaluated the effectiveness of a short-term training programme focusing on the employees working in the social development sector in the US established that there are synergies between the training programme, the classroom and the factors outside the classroom. These synergies are independent but jointly liable to the success or failure of a programme. In addition, the coordination of the programme led by the project team was mentioned as the holding glue that supplemented and entrenched these synergies. To this date, it seems like the coordination of a training programme as an external influential factor outside the classroom and continues to require some level of detail in the development of a training intervention.

5.2.2 The curriculum content and the context in which it was implemented

A large number of participants and moderators mentioned that the curriculum content of the programme met their expectations and therefore was of good quality. This is informed by the fact that the content was tailored to accommodate the different skills and knowledge needs of participants who are practising in varied working environments within the African continent. Generally, the respondents argued that the content was relevant, insightful and contributed towards improving their skills and knowledge acquisitions. This infers that the curriculum

content of the programme met the expectations of the DETPA participants. The following responses affirm the view that the curriculum content was aligned with the participant's expectations:

> *"DETPA is an important contribution towards improving the quality of M&E service delivery in the continent. The Programme was developed based on a number of observations and assessments, which revealed M&E capacity gaps at different levels in Africa. The training contents covered by DETPA meet M&E capacity demand and stakeholders' expectations to some extent"* (Moderator 1).

> *"The course design enabled for diversity in skillsets allowing for the different participants to learn from one another, enabling for implementation of the different approaches back home" (Participant 10).*

> "*I also liked the fact that we had foundations for "beginners" and advanced for those already practising, thus giving everybody the opportunity to learn"* (Participant 4).

Few authors highlighted the role of aligned curriculum content. As an illustration, a study by Tonhäuser and Büker (2016) which interrogated the transfer of training highlighted a tailored course curriculum content adapted to the trainee's working environments embed the knowledge gained from training. Another study by Aluko and Shonubi which investigated how working environment factors affect distance learning put emphasis on the prominence of integrating the expectations of the participants with the outcomes of a training programme. In the Aluko and Shonubi study, the reactions of the attendees of a programme, the objectives of the programme versus the vision of the training institution in relation to the programme were collated (Aluko & Shonubi, 2014). Their study affirmed that training providers should endeavour to ensure that their institutional objectives, which initiated the development of training programmes, align with participant's expectation and as well as wider capacity-building strategy.

In the same year with Aluko and Shonubi, Podems (2014) via a different study focusing on the professionalisation debate stressed that contributing towards a wider capacity strategy demand that training initiatives led by training providers should be cognisant of the evaluation competencies needed by organisations or countries in which these programmes are offered. Punia and Kant (2013) corroborate this assertion by proposing that the curriculum content of training initiatives offered by training providers should be in line with the skills and knowledge needs of the practitioners and their relevant organisations. Punia and Kant (2013) further assert

that this harmonised approach goes a long way in ensuring that trainees have positive perceptions concerning the effectiveness of a training programme.

Other scholars such as Axtell et al. (1997); (Tarsilla, 2017) (see Chapter 2) signified the importance of the working environment in relation to Level 3 (transfer). Although this section focuses on Level 1 (reactions) the argument around the embedding the skills and knowledge acquired by the trainees as articulated by Axtell et al. (1997); (Tarsilla, 2017) remain applicable at this level as well. These authors contend that it is almost impossible that trainees will react positively to a programme if it is not synchronised to their working environments.

Notwithstanding the importance of the working environments as a micro-level matter, which there remains a need to locate the concept of a working environment within a macro or broader level. Thus, the context in which the M&E practitioners practice their practice is the macro or broader context. Appreciating the context in which practice occurs cannot be neglected. This means that it is not sufficient to only strive for the harmonisation of the curriculum content of a training programme with trainees working environments. This calls for a need to ensure that training interventions are guided by the evaluation capacity building frameworks and are in accordance with the needs of each country or region. This argument was emphasised by the majority of the respondents. Below follows some of their assertions:

"...First, it was a long-overdue intervention for a regionally contextualised programme after the global one (IPDET)" (Participant 1).

"Thinking about the programme and the rationale behind it, there was an attempt to ensure that M&E training is sensitive to the Africa context" (Participant 2).

In an attempt to contribute towards adapting HRD to an African context, Mehlape (2017) appeals that African M&E, HR practitioners and scholars must consider delivering capacity-building interventions that embrace the role of context. In other words, training interventions implemented in Africa should be cognisant of Africa's underdevelopment and seek to mitigate the skills disparities in the continent. Chilisa and Tsheko (2014) and Cloete (2016) both reinforce this argument by highlighting that the evaluation capacity interventions in Africa should be adapted to cater for the skills needs of practitioners in the continent. This was corroborated by Sydhagen and Cunningham (2007), who posit that capacity building interventions should appreciate the appropriateness of contextual factors.

In emphasising the issue of a contextually fitted curriculum, the majority of the respondents cited that the MAE agenda was a key component of the programme. Below follows a response from one of the interviewees:

> "*So the emphasis on 'made-in-Africa' is very much needed to bring in the cultural sensitivities and well as clearly articulating the demand for and utilization of evidence within the continent because my observation is that this is still external and not endogenously located*" (Participant 1).

Gaotlhobogwe, Major, Koloi-Keaikitse and Chilisa (2018) promote African ways of knowing and doing things. Essentially, these authors purport that these ways of knowing and doing should be incorporated into capacity building initiatives and the far-reaching evaluation ecosystem, particularly in Africa. This is an attempt to ensure that values, culture, and beliefs are interwoven as part of capacity building initiatives. Chilisa (2017) and Keane, Khupe and Muza (2016) validated this argument by emphasising the prominence of localised African evaluation capacity-building approaches. Included in these cited approaches are the theoretical and methodological approaches practised in the region but densely undocumented. This call propels training providers to think sharply around incorporating these approaches into the training offerings.

Linked to these debates, Tirivanhu et al. (2017) earlier emphasised the urgency to capacitate a cohort of evaluators with skills to conduct and commission evaluations in the region. Therefore, it might be helpful that the process to capacitate these practitioners bears the contextual bearings underpinning the African evaluation context (Mbava & Dahler-Larsen, 2019). The capacitation of African based evaluators was also envisaged to contribute towards mitigating the noticeable and stubborn challenge of the dominance of non-African evaluators in the evaluation field practising in the region.

Therefore, curriculum content, which embraces participants working environments and the context in which practitioners are practising, are inseparable. A combination of these factors could potentially avail a seamless process interlinking the relationship between a trainee as an individual as well as corporate (employee, organisation and evaluation environment) knowledge systems. Effectively, it might contribute to participant's positive reaction to the programme which then avails opportunities for participants to acquire skills and knowledge (learning) which can be transferred (transfer) to their working environment (organisation). T

5.2.3 Facilitator's role and their facilitation style

The effectiveness of a training programme is broader and cannot be limited to only the curriculum content. Training effectiveness further covers the delivery team and the delivery techniques applied during the implementation of the programme. This argument moves the discussion away from focusing on the content of the curriculum by paying some attention to the faculty of facilitators and the delivery styles used in delivering the programme. Below follows some of the responses solicited from the interviews:

> "*Facilitators did their splendid role particularly in orienting the learning experience towards adult learning methodology. Practical examples were used stemming from real cases. The passion was there especially on the 'impact investing', 'made-in-Africa' and cultural sensitivity; and the rigorous impact evaluation module*" (Participant 7).
>
> "*All of them were fantastic, at no point in time, they were never found to be dismissive to participant's questions (always willing to listen to participants). They used andragogy approach in teaching their courses. More especially Lewis*" [One of the facilitators] (Participant 4).

Various scholars elevated the prominent role played by the facilitators and the facilitation style in assessing training effectiveness. Abdulwahed and Nagy (2009) recorded that 86,4 percent of the students reacted positively to the facilitation nuances and presentation styles such as (Powerpoint and Visual presentation) employed by the lecturers during the induction of a lab class. What's more important, is that the mixture of facilitation nuances and facilitation styles stirred students to spend more time in the lab studying this particular module. In a different study, Healey and Jenkins (2000) endorsed the role of experienced facilitators and teaching approaches. In support of this argument, Foxon (1989) individual facilitation skills and the techniques used during the delivery emerged as some of the key findings of a systematic review study focusing on the American and Australian literature.). To be more specific, Foxon (1989) alludes that the teaching approaches and techniques applied during the sessions have a direct bearing on participant's reactions (which was in this case positive) of the programme. Separately, another study by Cooley et al. (2015) present that the use of innovative facilitation style such as outdoor group work was instrumental in determining students perceptions the effectiveness of the programme. Cooley study evaluated the perceptions of undergraduate students in terms of whether or not a training skills programme underwrote their reaction to the

programme. At the conclusion of a systematic literature review for the period, 1970-1986 (16 years) in the American and Australian journals conducted by Foxon (1989, p. 89) that trainee reactions, participants' grading of individual facilitator's facilitation skills and their teaching techniques were ranked to be key elements of a training programme. Once again, this conclusion amplifies the facilitation and facilitation style narrative elucidated by the findings.

5.2.4 Skills, Knowledge and Trainee attitudes/attributes

Thus far, the presented analysis leaned towards the factors around the actual training, the role of facilitators and their facilitation style. This might deflate the influence of participants own personal attitudes towards the programme. Below follows, a remark from one of the moderators:

> *"The first reaction observed from the 2017 participants during the training sessions had shown some enthusiasm and satisfaction of these participants* (Moderator 2).

Individual personal attributes have an effect on how they interact with the opportunity to learn including their reaction to a training programme. In support of this argument, Noe and Schmitt (1986) posit that participant's attitudes and their expectations prior to the commencement (preconceived ideas) of the programme pre-empt their reaction to the programme. Bansal and Thakur (2013) elaborate that trainee attitudes or attributes during the delivery of a training programme encode their appetite for skills and knowledge acquisition. In a different setting where a debate on the professionalisation of evaluation was discussed, Stevahn, King, Ghere and Minnema (2006) concluded that skills, knowledge and attitudes/attributes (SKAs) as competencies that influence the development of training programmes. This argument was highlighted by Morell and Flaherty (1978) framework depicted in Figure 2 titled *"five phases towards professionalisation"* which cited evaluator personal skills, knowledge and characteristics as key competencies for practising evaluation. Although Noe and Schmitt (1986) –focused on Level 1 (reaction) whilst Stevahn, King, Ghere and Minnema (2006) paid attention to the transfer of training (Level 3), both studies highlighted trainee attitude/attribute as an antecedent to participants reactions followed by an opportunity to learn.

Since the levels of the Kirkpatrick's (1959) model are cyclical and interlinked, the findings (which are generally positive) solicited from Level 1 preempt whether or not the respondents will acquire skills and knowledge as envisaged in (Level 2) learning. Below follows the discussions.

5.3 Level 2 - Learning

This section addresses the research question focusing on whether or not they have acquired new knowledge, skills and learning from participating in the delivery of the DETPA 2017 programme. Generally, this level assesses learning in terms of whether or not there are positive changes in skills, capabilities and attitudes because of a training intervention. Based on the interdependence of the four levels of Kirkpatrick's (1959) model, it is anticipated that Level 2 (learning) findings will flow from the trends documented in Level 1 (reactions). This is because Level 1 serves as a pedestal or a building block to the current (Level 2) under discussion.

5.3.1 Skills and knowledge acquisition

A large number of respondents purported that learning was attained during the DETPA programme. Below follows some of the trainee's response that gives an account of how the DETPA programme has contributed to their learning:

> *"I had a little M&E background before, but I had a challenge with the theory of change. The instructors emphasized concepts and related them to our African context enabling for applicability and learning. By the end of the course, I had achieved my intention to learn the Theory of Change*" (Participant 3)
>
> *In terms of skills, there are limited opportunities to apply their skills. The whole discussion around MAE has been helpful because I become sensitive to the concept of inclusion and the context in doing my work*" (Participant 5)

Axtell et al. (1997), endorse that participant's preliminary reactions to the programme influence their level of learning. In addition, authors such as Turab and Casimir (2015); Machin (2002); Tonhäuser and Büker (2016) further contend that elements such, the curriculum content, facilitators and their facilitation style as well as trainee attitudes/attributes (which is part of the characteristics of Level 1 inform the extent to which learning, as well as the applicability of learning, occurs. This affirms perceptions by Alliger and Janak (1989) and Sharma (2016) who posit that Kirkpatrick's model is chronological in approach. In other words, it is highly unlikely that the findings recorded in Level 1- reactions will be dissimilar to Level 2- learning. This explains why the programme was perceived to have contributed to improving the participant's skills and knowledge. Below follows a response that asserts new skills and knowledge were acquired:

"Clear and practical lessons and skills on developmental evaluation was imparted as intended as well as highlighting cultural sensitivities within Africa, which need to be embedded in the practice" (Participant 6)

Given that the training contents are more or less relevant, and that the facilitation was appropriate, one can assume that the training had contributed to the improvement of participants' skills and knowledge" (Moderator 2).

Sharma (2016) concedes to the importance of measuring whether or not new skills, knowledge and attitudes have been acquired owing to the delivery of a training programme. Put differently, this level seeks to differentiate what the trainees knew before (pre) attending the training and after (post) the training. It pursues to ascertain the extent to which the learning objectives versus the learning effects of a training intervention were recorded.

5.3.2 Increased trainee's evaluation technical, and cross-cultural competencies

There are a growing and pertinent appreciation that M&E professionals are required to improve their evaluation competencies. A large number of interviewees consented that their evaluation skills and knowledge were improved. Below follows some of the responses from the trainees.

"Of course, I learnt, I got the opportunity to evaluate a programme in 2018. I encouraged the client to move beyond secondary data and start to plan for impact evaluation from the start of their programmes. This was because it was difficult to attribute the impact, as it was not planned. From such an institution, their staff have registered for an M&E course" (Participant 3)

"After the programme, he showed an increase in knowledge, particularly TOC and developing indicators. Prior to the training, he handled fewer training activities, however, post the delivery; he made my own job easier because he became part of the core training team. As a result, we managed to reach more training participants because he was a party to training participants in terms of developing indicators" (Line Manager 1).

Phase 2 of Morell and Flaherty (1978) as depicted earlier in Figure 2 (Chapter 2) titled *"five phases towards professionalisation"* recommends that training programmes that demonstrate how practitioners must perform their M&E duties should be offered to the M&E practitioners. This concedes to the importance of theory but also adds that training programmes should be comprised of learning by doing as a method. This evokes the necessity to be cognisant of the

need to struck a balance between the theory and the practice of evaluation as one of the delivery modes of a training programme. This approach is envisaged to contribute towards building the soft and technical competencies.

Speaking about competencies, Stevahn, King, Ghere and Minnema (2005) have developed an evaluation competency framework. The framework introduced six domains of evaluation competencies. Out of the six domains, a US-based study conducted by Galport and Azzam (2017) concluded that systematic enquiry, cross-cultural, and project management competencies are the three key evaluation competencies that are compulsory to practice evaluation effectively in the 21st-century era. These domains promote that evaluators should be capacitated with M&E technical skills (such as developing the theory of change) as well as people-centric skills (negotiation and cultural sensitiveness nuances) as part of building their competencies to conduct and commission evaluations (Stevahn, King, Ghere & Minnema, 2005. These competencies include the abilities to utilise the evidence emerging from the evaluations towards improving policy or programme. This elevates the role of learning and applying evaluation of technical skills which were presented as part of the DETPA programme. In support of this argument, some of the interviewees mentioned that:

"In terms of knowledge, Yes, I know how to prepare a randomised control trial (RCT). I can read and understand studies that have used RCT and able to critique (Participant 5)

"From this point of view, it was relevant and once allowed the Twende Mbele team to gain global evaluation competencies as well as learn useful evaluation tools" (Participant 6).

Equally, learning technical skills was cited as one of the three key evaluation domains. Galport and Azzam (2017) mention that the use of quantitative data methods including data collection and analysis are three systematic inquiry elements, which each evaluator should aspire to possess. Over 50% of the respondents who were interviewed during a study commissioned by Galport and Azzam (2017) mentioned that they need further training on conducting meta-evaluations, followed by the skills to apply quantitative methods in conducting evaluations. This affirms the notion that the conceptualisation of training programmes should continue to cover the technical competencies.

Beyond the technical skills, a sizeable number of the respondents commented that cultural sensitivity applied in the delivery of the programme. Using their own voices, they argue that strides to apply cultural sensitivity in the programme facilitated learning. Below follows two of the responses:

"Clear and practical lessons and skills on developmental evaluation was imparted as intended as well as highlighting cultural sensitivities within Africa, which need to be embedded in the practice" (Participant 6)

The whole discussion around MAE has been helpful because I become sensitive to the concept of inclusion and the context in doing my work" (Participant 5)

Despite the fact that Galport, and Hazzam (2017); Tirivanhu et al. (2017) are different authors by virtue of their geographical locations (US and Africa concurrently listed) and research focus areas, they seem to have consensus on the significance of cultural sensitivity in the evaluation field. As an illustration, Galport and Azzam asserted that evaluator's interpersonal skills (such as written and oral communication, negotiation and cross-cultural skills) in the implementation of evaluations. Similarly, Tirivanhu et al. (2017) proposed that delivering a contextually fitted training programme premised on a culturally sensitive curriculum increases the possibility of learning from the programme. This further coincides with the argument that a culturally sensitive training programme take cognisant of trainees expectations and their working environment guided by countrywide competencies championed by Podems (2014). Tirivanhu et al. (2017) add that delivering culturally sensitive programmes has the potential to contribute towards increasing the pool of evaluators with relevant M&E skills to improve their own practices including their working environments followed by their organisations. Keane, Khupe and Muza (2016) corroborated the argument by recommending localised African evaluation capacity building initiatives, which appreciate cultural complexities which are generally inclined to African ways of knowing, doing and behaving. This infers that in the eyes of the DETPA participants, the inclusion of the MAE module in the programme was a step in the right direction.

On a different note, Turab and Casimir 2(015); as well as Sharma (2016). Chang (2010), caution that the majority of training effectiveness assessments focus on Level 1 (reactions) and Level 2 (learning), with less attention paid to the last two (transfer and organisational impact) levels. This is primarily because Level 1 and Level 2 are perceived to the simplest as well as a self-reporting mechanism mainly from the lenses of the participants only (Chang, 2010). This has been previously been perceived to be subjective and bias. In addressing this limitation, line-managers who are responsible to provide oversees the work performed by the DETPA trainee's views were also solicited via the interviews.

5.4 Level 3- Improved and sustained transfer of skills and knowledge

This section presents a discussion on the research question focusing on establishing whether or not participants' M&E job-related performance were improved after their participation in the DETPA 2017. According to Kirkpatrick's model, Level 3 intends to establish whether or not the participants applied their newly acquired skills and knowledge (learnings) to improve their practices. This is also linked to the enabling working atmosphere that aids the application of the newly acquired skills and knowledge including the management support. As previously indicated, this exhibits the interconnectedness of Kirkpatrick's four levels model.

This means that the transfer of training is multifaceted and goes beyond the actual training interventions and involves a myriad factors beyond a training programme. Therefore, assessing this level entailed interviewing participants and line managers. Traditionally, the various studies agreed that the findings of Level 1 (reaction) and Level 2 (learning) have a direct impact on Level 3 (transfer of skills). In the case of this study, a number of respondents mentioned that they used the skills sets learnt during the delivery of the DETPA programme in conducting their work. Below follows a response from one of the trainee and their line manager attesting to the transfer of training:

"It has actually improved his performance in the work that he has been doing. Before he came for the programme, he was at an entry point of his M&E career. After the programme, he showed an increase in knowledge, particularly TOC and developing indicators (Line Manager 1)

> *"Of course, I learnt, I got the opportunity to evaluate a programme in 2016. I encouraged the client to move beyond secondary data and start to plan for impact evaluation from the start of their programmes* (Participant 3)

Various scholars have defined transfer of training as a degree to which trainees effectively apply the knowledge, skills and attitudes gained in a training context to the job (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Tracey, Tannenbaum, & Kavanagh, 1995). These elements seem to have focused on the application of what has been learnt. Axtell et al. (1997) presented course characteristics, participants characteristics and working environment as three determinants relevant to assess training effectiveness and the extent to which transfer of training has occurred. All of the above-cited authors concur that a responsive oriented curriculum content reactive to the participants working environments plays a pivotal role in igniting the transfer of training by participants.

This is due to the fact that, if trainees perceive the curriculum content to be unconnected to their working environments, then, it is less likely that the transfer of training will occur. In other words, the course curriculum content, the quality of facilitators and their facilitation style, facilitate learning which spills over to individual organisations.

Thus far, it has been established that trainees of the DETPA programme pointed out that the programme contributed to their skills and knowledge acquisitions. Additionally, the programme was also perceived to have augmented trainee's evaluation technical, project management and cross-cultural competencies. These competencies are the enablers expected to be applied by the trainees in doing their work. On a separate but related note, the line managers mentioned that the programme contributed to the improvement of their subordinates M&E skills and knowledge acquisition which led to improving their job performances. Below follows a response from one of the line managers:

They are able to hold conversations with a government official at a high level. In turn, it improves the efficiency of the Twende Mbele programme. In the end, we hope the staff will become experts in the sector" (Line manager 2)

Stevahn, King, Ghere and Minnema's (2005) study signified the importance of project management competencies, such as negotiating contracts and co-ordination of resources with various stakeholders and partners who are involved in the design or implementation of evaluations. Galport and Azzam (2017) synthesise this argument by asserting that there are compelling reasons why employers fund their employees to attend the training programme. Amongst others, these training programmes are estimated to build or enhance employees' various skills such as interpersonal skills, report writing, project and team management skills. In sum, they are geared to ensure that their employees are capacitated with M&E skills, which will ultimately lead to improvement within their respective organisations. Further, organisations regard training initiatives as a strategic response to the pressures to adapt to the ever-changing and competitive environment. Therefore, in their own minds, leaders in organisations anticipate that the exercise to fund employees to attend training will ultimately yield results for the overall organisation (Methode et al., 2019). Using their economic lenses, Carton (2004) and Odor (2014) would categorise the contribution of the trained employees in the organisation as an ROI.

Another important element, at this level, is the opportunity to apply what was learnt, aided by the support of participant's line managers. A number of responses quoted that the support from

their line managers contributed towards improving their working environment. One of the respondents said:

> *"My manager has promoted that I should be the lead facilitator in the workshops and training. It helps me to facilitate M&E training. I have been reviewing people's work. I am looking at initiating my own Impact Evaluation consultancy*" (Participant 7).

Sarti et al. (2017) purport that the support of management in ensuring that the trainee's newly learnt skills and knowledge are applied and enabled to contribute towards improving trainee's job performance is important. Sarti et al. (2017) further conclude the above assertion by stating that participants interact with the curriculum content with the objective to learn and apply their newly acquired skills and knowledge towards improving their jobs. This is despite the fact that the M&E vocabulary and theories might still be nascent post the delivery of a training programme. Besides the reality that trainees might still be new to the M&E materials and concepts, this is an indication of their willingness to apply new concepts if allowable by their managers. Axtell et al. (1997) refer to this phenomenon as participants' characteristics, which points to the agility of participants to transfer skills and knowledge learnt. In the case of this study, this agility was observed. Below follows a quote from one of the line managers:

> *"The programme has improved my subordinates work and their reporting and ability to interact with government officials* (Line manager 2)

Gravenhorst et al. (2003) elevate the support of management plays in embedding learning. Axtell et al. (1997) concur that it is almost impossible to detach the role of management in the transferability of newly acquired skills and knowledge by the trainees into their working environment At this level, Kirkpatrick's model put emphasis on the role of senior or line managers in availing opportunities to subordinates to experiment with the newly acquired skills and knowledge sets. This agrees with Bansal and Thakur (2015), who argue that the role of senior managers in an organisation has an effect on the effectiveness of skills and knowledge acquired by their subordinates. In the case of the respondents in this study, line managers led from the front via the creation of an enabling environment for participants to experiment with the newly acquired skills and knowledge sets.

In summary, the findings on Level 1 (the overall reaction to the programme) sets a tone or influence how respondents respond to learning Level 2 (acquire skills and knowledge), which then affects their learning is applied to improve their job performances Level 3 (job performances). This study notes that the majority of the trainees indicated that they have acquired and improved their technical skills such as data collection and analysis, project management skills and cultural sensitive competencies which enabled them to improve their job performances. In addition, they credit their line managers for availing the opportunities to apply their newly acquired M&E related skills. In sum, learning, the applicability of learning which led to improvements in their job performances occurred separately but in a systematic and sequential manner.

5.5 Level 4 – Improved organisational performance

This section discusses the research question focusing on participants' perceptions regarding the impact of the training on their organisations, specifically in terms of improving their M&E practices. Due to the cyclical nature of Kirkpatrick's model, this level is interlinked with the other three previously discussed levels (Level 1 – Level 3). Flowing from the previous section (the analysis of Level 3), the majority of the trainees and line managers both consented the transfer of training spearheaded by their line managers spilt over and improved their daily job performances. This section provides a systematic analysis of whether or not the anecdotal transfer of skills and knowledge witnessed in Level 3, has contributed to the improvement of respondent's entire organisational performances.

As per Kirkpatrick's definition, this level assesses whether or not a training programme has led to the improvement of organisational performance. Traditionally, this level measures the three objectives collectively or selectively any of the three objectives separately; (i) higher revenue sales, (ii) higher productivity levels, (iii) improved quality of work and organisational culture. For this study, an improvement in the quality of work and organisational culture was the applicable objective that will be assessed in an attempt to establish whether the DETPA training intervention has contributed to individual trainee's organisational performances.

In this study, a noticeable improvement in the quality of work was highlighted. Put differently, the majority of the respondents indicated that the quality of their organisational work has been improved. These improvements have direct positive effects on how individual organisations deliver services to their individual clients. This is not surprising considering that their

individual job performances were also perceived to have improved (see Level 3). Below is one of the responses attesting to the improvement in the quality of work:

> *"Of course, I learnt, I got the opportunity to evaluate a programme in 2018. I encouraged the client to move beyond secondary data and start to plan for impact evaluation from the start of their programmes. This was because it was difficult to attribute the impact, as it was not planned. From such an institution, their staff have registered for an M&E course*" (Participant 3)

Boyle and Fogarty (2016) present social identity theory. This theory contends that human beings (individuals) as employees constitute organisations. These organisations then assign their employees (as individual or groups) with the duties and responsibilities to implement work-related activities on their behalf. These individuals or groups are comprised of employees, management or shareholders with a common quest for a sense of belonging. Their sense of belonging influence how these individual employees or groups (team) discharge their duties on behalf of their organisations. This has to do with how individual employees or groups (team) feel about their organisations. In summary, achieving organisational performance is dependent on the performance of individual employees or groups and their feelings towards an organisation in the process of executing their duties. Nyasha (2011) expands this argument by stating that organisational performance can only be attained when there is a tripartite alliance of individual employees, their groupings (team) and organisations as entities.

Furthermore, there needs to be an appreciation of the psychological quest to belong pursued by these individual employees or teams. Boyle and Fogarty (2016) supplement his submission by asserting that this sense of belonging breeds a sense of pride and loyalty from individual employees or teams in discharging their duties on behalf of their organisations. Consequently, in the process when individual employees or teams are discharging their duties with a sense of pride and loyalty, a new path on how the organisation behaves gets to be instilled (organisational behaviour). It follows that organisational behaviour contributes towards improving the quality of work executed by individual employees and teams on behalf of their organisations.

In this study, respondents confirmed that the quality of their individual work including their organisations have been improved. As evidenced in the previous paragraphs, there has been an evident behavioural change witnessed by different organisations. Beyond the perceived behavioural change, a large number of interviewees mentioned that new ways of doing things

or new culture has been elevated in their respective organisations. Below follows some of the responses from the participants and line managers attesting to a new organisational culture:

"*In turn, it improved the efficiency of the Twende Mbele programme. Some of the staff gained interest to pursue a career in M&E. In the end, we hope the staff will become experts in the sector*" (Line manager 2).

"However, post the delivery, he made my own job easier because he became part of the core training team. As a result, we managed to reach more training participants because he was a party to training participants in terms of developing indicators" (Line Manager 1).

"*Most notably, DETPA has given me leverage because international organisations looking at local partners are receptive to my CV. I have done work with Amnesty International. Oxfam appointed me as a local partner as a result of my participation during the DETPA training programme*" (Participant 3).

It is undeniable that measuring this level is complex. Gravenhorst et al. (2003) appreciate that it is not sufficient that organisations are agile to learning and enable the applicability of these learnings. Added to agility and applicability of learning, organisations are duty-bound to shadow initiatives aimed at ensuring that a new behavioural culture is embedded and sustained in their organisations. In other words, the new behavioural change in an organisation should yield tangible results. These results include enhancements in dealing with its business clientele, newness to stakeholders and shareholders engagements (Gravenhorst et al., 2003). Odor (2014) supports this argument by stating that the sustainability of a new culture in an organisation is influenced by the recognition of external and internal factors. This study notes that the change in the organisation is not linear and multifaceted. This explains why participants and their line managers were independently interviewed to solicit their independent views in relation to organisational behaviour. In the case of this study the new organisational behaviour was witnessed in the increase in the efficiencies of various organisations, including partnering with various stakeholders towards achieving organisational productivity.

Although the majority of the interviewees agreed that the DETPA programme contributed to the improvement in their organisational performance, a minimal number expressed some form of uncertainties. These respondents were uncertain about whether or not the improvement witnessed in the performances of their organisations was solely because of the DETPA training intervention. They further mentioned that it is too early for the training to effect change already.

Below follows some of the responses expressed by the minority of the participants and their line managers:

"Yes somewhat. Growing drive towards an evidence-based decision – making, but not only because of DETPA" (Participant 4).

"DETPA is a resource for capacity building. So far, limited impact, but over time as they apply to learn, this may be possible" (Line manager 3)

Gravenhorst et al. (2003) propose that organisational change is a process and not an event. These authors additionally state that it is not sufficient that organisations intend to improve the efficiencies of their work. Besides the commitment to pursue a change in organisations by all stakeholders (employees, shareholders and management), instilling a new culture (new ways of doing things) is complex. Chang (2010) and Thackeray (2016) corroborate this argument by stating that linking employee performances on the job and the organisational impact remains difficult. Mbabaali (2015) and Tarsilla (2014) assert that measuring training effectiveness involves a long-term approach that moves beyond the individual capacities and training interventions and the appreciation of external factors such as the working environment. Tarsilla's (2017) moves the debate further by recommending that suppliers of training should consider comprehensive approaches that move beyond piecemeal interventions, such as short-course training programmes and offer long term and multipronged interventions guided by the ECD principles.

A study by Chang (2010) provided some insights on how to account for organisational performance when there are inconsistencies as well as deepening OD scholarly debates. This study investigated whether the first three levels of Kirkpatrick's model (Level 1- Level 3) are proficient to forecast the findings in Level 4. Using a regression model, Chang (2010) study concluded that the trainees of a hospitality-training programme increased their knowledge of the content and the skills to handle calls (Level 2). A mixed result in assessing Level 3 was recorded. Put in details, there was a substantive improvement in the call conversion but a non-substantive improvement in terms of the time it took to make the calls. In the end, the findings of the Level 1- Level 3 was used to partly forecast the results of Level 4. Even though there were mixed results in assessing Level 3, the study supported Kirkpatrick's theory that in order to witness the organisational performance, learning (Level 2) and job performance (Level 2) should be recorded. Therefore, in spite of the inconsistencies in assessing some of the levels of Kirkpatrick's model, conclusions on the improvement witnessed in organisational performance

can still be drawn. Tonhäuser and Büker (2016) commented in support of Chang (2010) narrative by saying that training effectiveness is accomplished when the learnt concepts are continually applied in practical settings and an enabling working environment is available.

5.6 Areas of improvement

In this section, the analysis of the research question aimed at elucidating participant perceptions regarding the gaps of programmes, such as the DETPA 2017, in building skills, knowledge, individual performance and organisational improvement and the possibility of enhancing them is presented.

This section has the intention to identify the weaknesses and failures of a training programme such as DETPA. This aligns with Hamblin (1974) model, as cited by Sharma (2017) which presents that the Kirkpatrick's model is also adapted to identify weaknesses (areas of improvement) of a training programme. In this study, the areas of improvement could be summed into two categories, namely, the alignment and standardisation of the curriculum as well as time allocation. Identifying these areas was intended to contribute towards improving the conceptualisation and implementation of training programmes such as DETPA.

Using the above-presented findings sections (Level 1 – Level 4); it is almost impossible to ignore the fact that the programme was positively received. In sum and in the eyes of the majority of those interviewed, the programme enabled trainees to obtain M&E skills and knowledge, which were applied to improve their job and organisational performances. Having said that, this positive glance over the programme should not discount the importance of the areas which were deemed to require improvements. Below follow the discussions focusing on these areas.

5.6.1 Alignment throughout the curriculum design process

In principle, the curriculum content of the programme was mentioned as one of the contributing features accountable for the positive feedback awarded to the programme. On the same token, it must be noted that respondents noted that there was some misalignment in the curriculum design which led to the inconsistencies in the actual content and its delivery modes. Below follows some of the related comments expressed by the interviewees:

"It would be very interesting for the program to address specific topics adapted to the participants' needs such as the elaboration of the terms of reference, how to communicate on the results of the evaluation in the African context, etc." (Participant 8).

"CLEAR should consider using a case study approach whereby participants are able to do RCT's because it is perceived as a scientific method. This allowed participants to conduct calculations and practice in preparation of real-life cases" (Line manager 3).

The majority of the respondents (see section 5.2) commended the facilitators and their facilitation styles; however, there were perceptible inconsistencies in the teaching approaches from one facilitator to another. It seems like the decision to apply case studies and practice-oriented approaches were left at the discretion of each facilitator and their one-to-one sessions. In addressing these inconsistencies, Tonhäuser and Büker (2016, p. 139) recommend that approaches such as practice-oriented examples, use of case studies and real-world examples, should be enshrined in the design of the curriculum content. This is because, if these practice-oriented approaches are applied systematically in the delivery of training, they have a higher retention rate towards cementing transfer of training within organisations. The notion of a practice-oriented and led curriculum design was earlier accentuated by Punia and Kant (2013) in some of the recommendations addressed to the training providers. These authors unashamedly argued that standardising the use of work-related examples as a process of delivering the programme is an important element that should be intermingled into the delivery of training by the training providers.

Based on the above paragraph, this study argues that the perceived lack of standardised curriculum design could have led to the incoherence and inconsistencies witnessed by the respondents concerning some of the sessions. A minimal number of respondents observed some duplications. Below follows the comment regarding duplication from one of the facilitators:

"This will ensure that the participants will build rapport and reduce duplication"

(Facilitator 1)

Machin (2002) asserts that the sequencing of course curriculum and the time allocated per session forms an integral part of mapping out a training intervention. In support of this argument, a research finding from a study piloted by Sánchez-Romero and Prskawetz, (2019) concluded that there is a correlation between the sequencing of activities and the increase of outputs achieved per training session. This could infer that module allocation and curriculum sequencing or alignment should be premised on a well thought. This is because as evidenced by the Sánchez-Romero and Prskawetz, (2019), time allocation predetermines the plays a pivotal role in training as well as increases the prospects of achieving results.

Prior to the commencement of a training programme, there is a call to dedicate time in scrutinising the design elements of the curriculum. Except for the appreciation of the incorporation of 'Made in Africa' evaluation (MAE) agenda in the curriculum, there was a sense that the MAE approach was yet to be assimilated into the totality of the programme. Below, a comment regarding integrating the MAE approach is presented.

"Basically, international NGO perspectives traditionally inform most programmes, such as DETPA. However, practical M&E in government is neither understood nor properly taught by most programmes. Hence, the DETPA programme should consider integrating the MAE approach in all the modules" (Line manager 4).

Not in so many words but yet profound, Mehlape (2017) posits that localised and contextually relevant capacity building interventions have high probabilities of contributing towards improving individual and organisational performances. Linked to the previous section (refer to section 5.6.1) on the use practice-oriented examples, such as case studies and real-world examples argument, Punia and Kant (2013), recommends that the proposed practice-oriented and led examples should make use an endogenous or localised lens to evaluation. Their argument is that using examples, which appreciate participant's indigent experiences as well as their professional practices, will potentially accelerate the acquisition, sustainability and usability of skills and knowledge opportunities within organisations. Chilisa and Tsheko (2014) support this narrative by stating that an Afrocentric lens should underpin the ECB interventions implemented in Africa. Morkel and Mangwiro (2018) specify that the development of evaluation-oriented curriculum design and its teaching approaches should reflect the context in which evaluation is practised in the region. This will possibly contribute to the improvement of the broader evaluation ecosystem and inherently the organisations operating in Africa.

Gaotlhobogwe et al. (2018), escalate Punia and Kant (2013) contentions on practice-oriented curriculum by purporting that African ways of knowing and doing should be incorporated into capacity building initiatives as well as the broader evaluation profession. These African based authors assert that values, culture, and beliefs are the domains that should be intertwined with the capacity building interventions. In support of this narrative, respondents earlier indicated that the MAE approach (see section 4.2) might serve as a distinguishing factor between DETPA programme and other training initiatives implemented outside the region such as the Global North. Turab and Casimir (2015), recommends that training providers should think about commissioning trainee's needs assessments, followed by the curriculum design adapted to the

skills and knowledge needs emerging from the findings of the needs assessments. As a result, the DETPA project team should consider the inclusion of the use of needs assessments so that the real-life examples and the MAE approach are interwoven into the programme.

5.6.2 Implementation period and logistics

The respondents signified factors outside the training room. Although there were noticeable differences from the responses elucidated from the respondents, the issues raised are should be factored in the design of the future training programmes such as DETPA. Specifically, these disparities related to the implementation period (two weeks versus one week). Below follows some of the responses from the interviewees expressing their voices regarding the implementation period:

"I found 2 weeks short considering this is supposed to be a hands-on course. Can we also think of having two sessions in a year?" (Participant 4).

"Consider course duration of 1 week - it appears target participants are busy people may struggle with being away for 2 weeks" (Line manager 2).

Tonhäuser and Büker (2016) warned that training implementation factors (beyond the training intervention itself) influence the classsroom as well as the extent to which learning and transfer of training occurs. The wave of using technology for teaching and learning has grown in the past decade. African scholars such as Boitshwarelo (2009) have argued that the use of technology and the availability of Internet is an innovative catalyst in the conceptualisation of training programmes in the near future. This author argues that if used correctly, technology can create a blend between traditional face-to-face (f2f) and an online delivery modes. This implies that a new teaching and learning approach should be forged which will facilitate a content, context and technology in order to deliver relevant and useful M&E curricula. All in all, the use of technology as argued by Boitshwarelo (2009) can possibly cater for the needs of participants who are proponents of a longer or shorter implementation period.

5.7 Conclusion

In summary, the analysis chapter documents the following conclusions. This study illustrated that applying Kirkpatrick's model in this study illuminate that the model is sequential or chronological. In other words, each level serves as a building block of the next level. As an

illustration, the findings that are recorded in Level 1 have the potential to influence Level 2. However, it looks like this phenomenon does not automatically apply in the application or analysis of Level 3 and Level 4. At these levels, issues of complexities arise. In other words, it is not given that the results witnessed in Level 3 will inherently be the same as Level 4. This is because linking organisation performance with a training programme entails recognition of multifaceted factors beyond the training intervention.

In the case of the current study, a combination of factors positively influenced the reactions of the participants. These include; the coordination of the programme, the curriculum content and the context in which it was delivered including the role of the facilitators and their facilitation styles. The cited factors enabled an environment where M&E skills, knowledge were acquired by the participation. various factors namely; the coordination of the was generally perceived to be of good quality. According to respondents, it has contributed towards skills and knowledge acquisitions, led to the transfer of skills. In addition, to some degree, the programme has contributed towards improving organisational performance. However, respondents cautioned argued that these improvements could not solely be attributed to the contribution played by the DETPA programme. Significantly, a contextually fitted curriculum content such as 'Made in Africa' (MAE) was cited as one of the key findings that determined the perceived contribution of the DETPA programme. Respondents posited that this enabled them to acquire then apply the acquired skills and knowledge as well as improve their job and organisational performances.

This was followed by the contribution of the role of experienced local facilitators and the use of case studies, which were also perceived as factors that contributed towards learning. This empowered participants with skills and knowledge to navigate the relationship between theory and practice. Therefore, a combination of these elements (contextually fitted curriculum, local experienced facilitators, use of case studies) motivated participants to apply the skills and knowledge acquired towards improving their job performance.

As a way forward, areas of improvement were recommended. The study found that the use of case studies and the integration of the MAE approach should be applied. It is anticipated implementing this approach will contribute towards unveiling uniformity across the entire programme. As an illustration, respondents argued that the MAE approach and the use of case studies, cs as teaching approaches should be interlinked across the programme. It is believed that these approaches will improve the planning and delivery of the programme.

CHAPTER 6 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents a summary of the research reports as well as recommendations and prospective research areas.

6.1 Summary of the research report

This research study was conducted at a time when very few studies aimed at assessing the effectiveness of training programmes in Africa have been conducted. Usually, when assessments are conducted, they are perceived to be linear, incomplete and inclined to measure the effectiveness of training skills haphazardly (Morkel & Ramasobana, 2017; Wao et al., 2017). These assessments are predominantly using a positivist research paradigm. Consequently, participant perceptions of programmes such as DETPA are unknown. Hence, the primary research problem focused on soliciting participant perceptions using the DETPA 2017 programme as a case study in terms of its effectiveness as postulated by Kirkpatrick's (1959) model of training effectiveness. Essentially, this research study documented participants' perceptions on the effectiveness of the DETPA programme to highlight an important concept of HRD, which looks to assess the impact of training on individuals, their job performance and organisations. This includes understanding concepts such as organisational performance and social theory followed by ECD and more especially ECB as some of the key importan concepts in grounding studies focusing on training interventions.

A qualitative case study research approach was used to address the primary research question posed in chapter one, which was: What are participant's perceptions regarding the DETPA 2017 programme in terms of its effectiveness in respect of Kirkpatrick's four levels of training effectiveness: reaction, learning, transfer and organisational impact. The subquestions included questions seeking participants perception on (i) the overall perceptions and reactions to the DETPA 2017 programme?, (ii) whether or not they have acquired new knowledge, skills and learning from participating in the delivery of the DETPA 2017 programme. This was followed by (iii) their perceptions regarding their job-related performance in M&E after their participation in the DETPA 2017 as well as (iv) their perceptions regarding the impact of the training on their organisations, specifically in terms of M&E practice? (v). Finally, a sub-question beyond Kirkpatrick's training effectiveness aimed at identifying the gaps of

programmes such as the DETPA 2017 in building skills, knowledge, individual performance and organisational improvement and how they can be enhanced was posed.

An in-depth literature review aimed at perusing similar and previous research studies was conducted by the researcher. This provided the conceptual underpinning and situated the knowledge gaps for the study. This gap was to provide insights on the African experience of ECB in particular through the lens of the DETPA programme.

The findings from the study are:

(i) the co-ordination of the programme, the curriculum content and the context in which it was implemented, the facilitators role and their facilitation sytles and trainees attitudes/attributes are the characteristics which were cited to have contributed to the majority of participat's positive reaction to the overall programme.

(ii) Furthermore, the majority of the respondents indicated that they acquired M&E skills and knowledge and increased their evaluation technical and cross-cultural competencies. Thus, it has been concluded that learning was attained during the DETPA programme.

(iii) Respondents further mentioned that the combination of their noticeable learnings and management support improved and sustained transfer of skills and knowledge

(iv) In addition, respondents acknowledged that a new culture of doing things was observed in their respective organisations. Despite some inconsistencies on the responses, participants were largely convinced that there were improvements in organisational performances.

(v) Standardising some elements of the programme such as the use of case studies and facilitaton styles and integrating the 'Made in Africa' evaluation approach (because of context matters) in the design programme, were cited as the two main areas of improvement.

The study also revealed that improving organisational performance requires a multifaceted and comprehensive approach beyond a singular training intervention such as the DETPA programme.

Overall, the limitations of this study include; a) the use of purposive and convenience sampling, b) the involvement of the researcher in the planning and delivery of the programme, c) research time frames and the use of technologically advanced communication platforms. First of all, purposive sampling uses self-reporting as an approach to gathering data. Respondents in similar studies that have used self-reporting (such as the current study) have been criticised for elucidating responses which are framed in a positive tone. As previously stated in the methodology section, the researcher was involved in the planning and implementation of the programme. Therefore, the researcher developed professional relationships with the respondents which might have influenced them to provide overly positive responses. As a way of mitigating this limitation, research principles which empowered the researcher to separate the reseach from daily work concerning the DETPA programme were applied. On a different note,the timeframes on which the researcher was expected to complete the Master's study limited the scope of the research. In other words, the researcher had to comply with the timeframes spelt out in the research workplan as well as the university guideline to complete the research within a year. The use of technologically advanced communication platforms such as Skype and Whatsapp calls utilised as the mode of data collection in this study was impaired by the limited network coverage in some instances. This caused delays in the data collection process as well as required additional administrative work (back and forth) between the researcher and the respondents. The presented limitations explain why the case study cannot be generalised although the findings are useful in informing planning, delivery and assessment of training programmes implemented in Africa.

6.2 Recommendations and future research

In summary, the literature reviewed pursuant M&E practitioners and scholars in Africa to acknowledge the historical past responsible for the regional underdevelopment. This was elucidated by the literature that persuaded the researcher to acknowledge the fact that context matters. The reviewed literature further recognised that very few studies assessing training effectiveness conducted in the region. In cases where such studies are commissioned, the majority of these studies used positivist research methods to assess training effectiveness.

This study makes the following recommendations:

(i) Further studies exploring the linkages between participants reactions, learning, job performance and organisational performances, particularly on how they contribute towards growing the evaluation practice in the region should be commissioned

(ii) Research focusing on identifying and addressing the gaps on programmes such as the DETPA programme should be undertaken

(iii) The DETPA programme should be informed by the findings of this study

(iv) More studies focusing on interlinking the role of training programmes and organisational performance should be conducted,

(v) Training programmes which integrate and standardise MAE approach, case studies and facilitation styles in the design of the curriculum should be explored or increased,

(vi) Lastly, the M&E ecosystem including stakeholders such as donor funders, and suppliers of training programmes should jointly provide resources geared to replicate programmes such as the DETPA programme across the continent.

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APPENDICES

Appendices 1.1: Project information sheet

Part I: Project Information Statement

Participant's perceptions of the effectiveness of CLEAR-AA's Development Training Programme in Africa

I, Mokgophana Ramasobana, am a Masters student at the University of the Witwatersrand (Wits). I am conducting research on the effectiveness of M&E short course pieces of training. This study meets the requirements of the Research Ethics Committee (Human) of the Wits.

Aims of the Research

The Primary research aim:

To assess participant's' perceptions of whether or not the CLEAR-AA DETPA 2017 programme contributed towards improving their M&E skills and knowledge, reaction to the programme, assessment of the content, job performance and organisational impact.

The secondary research aims:

1. To assess participant's perceptions and reactions of the 2017 DETPA course programme in terms of contribution to improving the skills and knowledge?

2. To assess participant's perceptions regarding their job related performance in M&E post the delivery of the DETPA 2017?

3. To assess participants' perceptions regarding the impact of the training on their organizations, specifically in terms of M&E practice?

4. To assess participants' perceptions regarding their organizations behavioural change, specifically in terms of M&E practice and whether it has improved their organisational performance?

5. To assess participant's perceptions regarding the gaps of programmes such as the DETPA 2017 in building skills, knowledge, individual performance and organisational improvement and how they can be enhanced

Significance of the Research Project

The research is significant in the following way:

Studies, particularly in Africa have not sufficiently assessed participant's perception of the effectiveness of M&E short course training programmes. Thus, the contribution of the DETPA programme towards building participant's individual capacities (skills and knowledge), their individual behavioural change and organisational behavioural change is unknown, whilst CLEAR-AA plans to continue implementing the programme on an annual basis. In the limited cases where assessments were conducted in Africa, studies indicate that the curriculum of the training programmes offered is densely theoretical without practical components. In other words, the training are not tailored to respond to the participant's skills and knowledge needs.

Therefore, it might be contended that the courses are observed to be irrelevant and not useful. This study contributes towards deepening scholars an understanding on how to assess the effectiveness of short-course training programmes in M&E from the perspective of participants, which may contribute to understanding how to better design and implement such programmes with the target audience's needs in mind

Benefits of the Research to ECDB ecosystem

1. This study contributes towards deepening scholars an understanding on how to assess the effectiveness of short-course training programmes in M&E from the perspective of participants, which may contribute to understanding how to better design and implement such programmes with the target audience's needs in mind.

2. The findings from the study will assist ECB scholars in general and CLEAR-AA in particular to improve the conceptualisation, implementation and assessment of training programme interventions

.

Research Plan and Method

My research includes:

- interviews with DETPA participants and their line managers;
- interviews with DETPA facilitators and moderators; and
- an in-depth document study.

Purposive and convenience sampling will be used in all cases.

In terms of the DETPA participants, line managers, facilitators and moderators:

A minimum of 10 and a maximum of fifteen interviews will be conducted. The researcher will ask all interviewees whether they are aware of their line managers who would have insights to share, and who could be contacted for an interview. Stratified sampling will be used to identify the first ten DETPA participants in accordance with their country of origin to participate in the study. A contact list of all DETPA participant, facilitators and moderators representing fifty-five participants, eight facilitators and three moderators have been obtained from CLEAR-AA database by the researcher. This contact list represents the entire population from which the sample size will be drawn.

Permission will be sought from each respondent prior to his or her participation in the research. Only those who consent will participate. I, Mokgophana Ramasobana, will administer the interview, which will take approximately forty-five minutes to complete. All information collected will be treated in the strictest confidence and individuals will not be identifiable in any reports that are written. The role of all participants is voluntary and invited participants may decide to withdraw their participation at any time without penalty. The nature of the data to be collected is not sensitive and will pose no harm or embarrassment to the individuals participating in the study.

Procedure

Once I have received an individuals' informed consent to participate in the study, I, Mokgophana Ramasobana, will arrange a time with each individual for the interview to take place.

Further Information

Attached is a letter assuring you of the research ethics considerations that have been undertaken in the preparation of this study, as well as a Consent Form./

Thank you for taking the time to read this information.

Mokgophana Ramasobana

MM Candidate/Researcher

Part II: Information to ensure you of the research ethics considerations of this study

You are being asked to provide consent to participate in a DETPA research study. We will provide you with the necessary information to assist you to understand the study and explain what would be expected of participants. These guidelines would include the risks, benefits, and your rights as a study subject. Please feel free to ask the researcher to clarify anything that is not clear to you.

To participate, it will be required of you to provide a written consent that will include your signature, date and initials to verify that you understand and agree to the conditions.

You have the right to query concerns regarding the study at any time. Immediately report any new problems during the study, to the researcher. The telephone number of the researcher is (mobile): +27 72 936 5645 or email mokgophana@gmail.com . Please feel free to call or email.

Furthermore, it is important that you are aware of the fact that the Research Ethics Committee (REC) of the university will submit the ethical integrity of the study for approval. The REC consists of a group of independent experts that has the responsibility to ensure that the rights and welfare of participants in research are protected and that studies are conducted in an ethical manner. Studies cannot be conducted without REC approval. I have received REC approval for this study, attached is the approval letter. Queries with regard to your rights as a research subject can be directed to University of the Witwatersrand, Wits School of Governance, PO Box 601, Wits, 2050.

If no one could assist you, you may email or contact the Research Office: The Research Director, Prof Pundy Pillay at pundy.pillay@wits.ac.za or +27 11 717 3808 or Ms. Sithembile Xaba at sithembile.xaba@wits.ac.za or +27 11 717 3133.

Participation in research is voluntary. You are not obliged to take part in any research. If you do partake, you have the right to withdraw at any given time, during the study without penalty.

The study may be terminated at any time by the researcher, the sponsor or the Research Ethics Committee.

Although your identity will at all times remain confidential, the results of the research study may be presented at scientific conferences or in specialist publications. This informed consent statement has been prepared in compliance with current statutory guidelines.

Appendices 1.2: Informed consent form

Participants Consent Form

DETPA 2017 participant

I,……
……..(**name and surname**) give my consent to my participation in the Masters research of Mr. Mokgophana Ramasobana, entitled: "*Participants Perceptions of the Effectiveness of CLEAR-AA's Development Evaluation Training Programme in Africa"*

I have read the Project Information Statement explaining the purpose of the research project and understand that:

- My role as a participant of the DETPA programme is voluntary.
- Participants may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.
- I have been invited to participate and permission had been sought from me.
- Only participant who consent will participate in the project.
- All information obtained will be treated in strictest confidence.
- Participant's names will not be used and will not be identifiable in any written reports about the study.
- A report of the findings will be made available to the participant.
- I may seek further information on the project from Mokgophana Ramasobana on +27 72 936 564545 or mokgophana@gmail.com
- I consent to the interviews being recorded by voice and/or note taking and transcribed, and the material used in the report.

_____ _____

Print Name Signature

_____

Designation/Position

_____

Date

Appendices 1.3: Interview Guide

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Dear Participant

Thank you for taking the time to participate in this interview. It will take approximately one hour to complete, but I may discover some insights as I write up the findings, and would like to ask whether you would be willing to participate in a second, possibly shorter, interview at a later stage?

I will be starting off with a few biographical questions.

All your responses are strictly confidential, and you will not be identifiable in the final report. I will **not** be providing the names of the organisations or persons interviewed, in order to ensure that you remain anonymous.

I am more interested in your personal opinions, perceptions and views on the effectiveness of the DETPA programme, so please feel free to speak your mind, as that is what I am most interested in, and which will be of most value to this study.

Thank you once again for your time.

SECTION A

Name of participant:

Country:

Position /Title:

Contact Details:

(for follow-up, if needs be)

SECTION A **Please place an "x" in the appropriate block**

OCCUPATION	
Coding: OCC	

NO OF YEARS IN M&E OCCUPATION	Less than 1 year	1-5 years	6-10 years	11 -15	16 - 20	21 or more
Coding: OCCYRS	1	2	3	4	5	6

HAVE YOU PARTICIPATED IN ANY OTHER M&E PROGRAMME BESIDES DETPA	No never	Less than 1 year	1-5 years	6-10 years	11 - 15	16 - 20	21 or more
Coding: OSCTP		1	2	3	4	5	6

GENDER	MALE	FEMALE	OTHER (PLEASE SPECIFY, IF WILLING) ……
Coding: G	1	2	3

HIGHEST QUALIFICATION COMPLETED	Phd	Masters	Honours or 4th Year Equivalent	Postgraduate Diploma	Degree	National Diploma	Grade 12	High School	Below High School
Coding: QUAL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

HIGHEST M&E RELATED QUALIFICATION COMPLETED	Phd	Masters	Honours or 4th Year Equivalent	Postgraduate Diploma/Certificate	Degree	National Diploma	Grade 12	High School	Below High School
Coding: QUAL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

SECTION B

Components of the conceptual framework	**Research Questions**	**Comments (You are encouraged to provide in-depth explanations)**
Reactions	1. Overall, what is your reaction to the 2017 DETPA programme delivered by CLEAR-AA?	
	2. What is your perception on whether OR not you liked the training and would you consider it relevant?	
	3. Do you perceive the DETPA training to have been good OR not good use of your time?	
	4. What is your perception on the level of effort required to make most of the learning during the delivery of the training?	
	5. How has it improved OR not improved your skills and knowledge?	
	6. What is you perception regarding the facilitators and instructional design used during the 2017 DETPA? ***Please elaborate why the facilitators and instructional design have contributed OR not contributed to your skills and knowledge acquisition)***	
Learning	1. What is your perception on whether OR not you have learnt from participating during the delivery of the DETPA programme?	
	2. What is your perception on whether OR not you have learnt what was intended to be learnt?	

	3. What is your perception regarding whether or not your skills and knowledge were advanced as intended prior participating in the DETPA programme?	
Transfer	1. What is your perception regarding whether OR not the DETPA programme has contributed towards improving your job performance in M&E? **(*Please elaborate)***	
	2. What is your perception regarding whether OR not the learning from the DETPA programme improved how you do your work? **(*Please elaborate)***	
	3. What is your perception regarding whether OR not your change in behaviour and new knowledge was sustained?	
	4. What is your perception on whether OR not you can be able to transfer the skills and knowledge learnt through the DETPA programme to fellow colleagues	
Organisation	1. What is your perception regarding whether OR not the DETPA programme has impact on your overall organisational performance (change in behaviour)? **(*Please elaborate why the 2017 DETPA programme have OR not have impact on your organisational performance*)**	
Others	1. What is your perception regarding the gaps of programmes such as the 2017 DETPA in building skills, knowledge, individual performance and organisational improvement (change in behaviour) and how they can be enhanced? **(*Please elaborate on the gaps and how they can be enhanced)***	