

**TOWARDS THEORIZING HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH
AFRICA: A CRITICAL ANALYSIS AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF A TOOL TO
FACILITATE IMPROVED UNDERSTANDING AND PRACTICE.**

AMBER CRISTAL ANDERSON

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor Philosophiae
in the
Faculty of Arts
at the
Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University

DATE: 30th September 2006

PROMOTER: Professor PW Cunningham

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This thesis could not have been completed without the assistance, insight and direction of various organizations and people who provided tangible and intangible support in the form of knowledge, time, encouragement, love, patience and finances.

First and foremost, to God our heavenly Father, for an adequate provision of divine fortitude which enabled the accomplishment of such a challenging task. Furthermore, for blessing me with a husband such as Clinton, who has stood unwavering in his emotional, spiritual, intellectual, social and practical support over the past 17 years, and more particularly throughout the period of my DPhil studies. Words will never be able to express my thanks and appreciation to him, as he took over my roles of wife and mother to ensure that our home, household and lives remained intact.

I would also like to thank our sons, Justin and Michael, aged 13 and 9 respectively, for their patience and understanding, especially during the last phases close to completion, when their mother became oblivious to their needs. Without their steadfast support and understanding, this research would not have materialized. This thesis represents also the culmination of their sacrifices, energy and hard work.

This thesis would not have been possible without the guidance of my promoter, Professor Peter Cunningham, who provided endless opportunities for engagement and dialogue about HRD with his postgraduate students; introduced me to international and local leading scholars in the field and exposed me to the works of visiting HRD lecturers; and gave an unlimited supply of his expert and professional guidance, inspiration, encouragement and endless patience.

Helen Allen, my language practitioner, unselfishly offered her time over weekends and into the early hours of the morning to edit and correct my use of language in real time so that I could make amendments timeously and always while each chapter was still fresh in my memory. The linguistic and diligence lessons learned from her are entrenched in my very being.

I must also thank my parents, Wilhelmina Strydom for unconditional love and planting the seeds for my inspiration, and Bramley Strydom for always believing in me and insisting on discipline throughout my life.

Also, I have to thank my beloved friend, Valerie Dietrich, for being there over the past 40 months in the highlights and lowlights of this research, and who helped keep up my energy, who knew when to back off and when to push, and for sometimes having to listen to my worst ramblings under strain and pressure.

A special word of gratitude and appreciation to Professor Henry Thipa, Dean of the Arts Faculty at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (South Campus), Percy Smith, Group HR Manager at Coca Cola Sabco (Pty) Ltd, and Heidi Lamont, BevServ HR Services Business Unit leader, for respectively awarding me a Dean's Scholarship and bursaries, to conduct and complete this study.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABBREVIATIONS	ix
LIST OF TABLES	xii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiii
ABSTRACT	xv
CHAPTER 1	1
INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT AND DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY	1
Introduction	1
The Research Problem	3
Purpose of the Study	3
Research Design and Methodology	4
Contribution of the Study	7
Scope of the Study	7
Definitions	8
Structure of the Thesis	8
Conclusion	9
CHAPTER 2	10
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	10
Introduction	10
The Research Problem	11
The Epistemological Landscape	11
Research Design	18
<i>Dubin's Theory-building Research</i>	22
<i>Grounded Theory Research</i>	22
<i>Meta-analysis Research</i>	22
<i>Case Study Research</i>	23
<i>Social Constructionist Research</i>	23
<i>Research Plan</i>	27
<i>Stage 1: The research strategy, aim and social setting.</i>	27

<i>Stage 2: Scope of research and timelines.</i>	28
<i>Stage 3: Data collection method.</i>	29
<i>Implementation</i>	32
<i>Stage 4: Literature study.</i>	32
<i>Data Analysis</i>	34
<i>Stage 5: Coding.</i>	34
<i>Stage 6: Extract meaning.</i>	42
<i>Interpretation and Presentation of Findings</i>	43
<i>Stage 7: Development of theoretical model.</i>	43
<i>Stage 8: Presentation of findings.</i>	43
Legitimacy of using Social Constructionist Theory for Theory Building	44
Validity and Reliability of the Research Method	45
Conclusion	49
CHAPTER 3	51
THEORY AND PHILOSOPHICAL UNDERPINNINGS OF HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT	51
Introduction	51
What is Theory?	53
Theoretical Foundation of HRD	54
<i>An Introduction to the “Three-legged Stool”</i>	55
<i>An Introduction to the Core Theories</i>	56
<i>The principles of economic theory for HRD practice.</i>	58
<i>Scarce resource theory.</i>	58
<i>Sustainable resource theory.</i>	59
<i>Human capital theory.</i>	59
<i>The Principles of Psychological Theory for HRD Practice.</i>	65
<i>Gestalt psychology.</i>	65
<i>Behavioural psychology.</i>	66
<i>Cognitive psychology (purposive behaviourism).</i>	66
<i>The Principles of Systems Theory for HRD Practice.</i>	67

<i>General systems theory.</i>	67
<i>Chaos theory.</i>	68
<i>Futures theory.</i>	68
<i>Emerging Foundational Theories of Psychology</i>	69
<i>Sociological Theories.</i>	71
<i>Motivational Models.</i>	71
<i>Behavioural Approaches.</i>	72
<i>Cognitive Approaches.</i>	72
<i>Socio-biology.</i>	73
<i>Ethics in HRD</i>	73
Paradigms of HRD	77
<i>The Learning Paradigm</i>	79
<i>The Performance Paradigm</i>	83
<i>The Central Theoretical Assumptions of the Learning Paradigm</i>	84
<i>The Central Theoretical Assumptions of the Performance Paradigm</i>	86
A Philosophical Framework for the Thought and Practice of HRD	92
<i>What is Ontology?</i>	95
<i>What is Epistemology?</i>	96
<i>What is Axiology?</i>	96
<i>What are Methodology and Methods?</i>	97
<i>Implications for Practice</i>	99
<i>Implications for Research and Theory-building</i>	99
<i>Implications for the Evolution of HRD</i>	99
Conclusion	100
CHAPTER 4	103
THE NATURE AND IMPORTANCE OF HRD	103
Introduction	103
Towards Defining HRD	103
Towards Not Defining HRD	113

<i>A Philosophical Case for Refusing to Define HRD</i>	114
<i>A Theoretical Case for Refusing to Define HRD</i>	114
<i>Development as Maturation</i>	115
<i>Development as Shaping</i>	115
<i>Development as Voyage</i>	115
<i>Development as Emergent</i>	115
<i>A Professional Case for Refusing to Define HRD</i>	118
<i>A Practical Case for Refusing to Define HRD</i>	118
Strategic HRD (SHRD)	120
<i>The Emergence of SHRD</i>	122
<i>What Drives SHRD?</i>	122
<i>How Robust is SHRD?</i>	123
<i>The Strategic HRD Agenda</i>	126
<i>Evaluating HRD effectiveness</i>	129
<i>Expenditure on HRD</i>	135
<i>Management Development and Strategic Alignment</i>	136
<i>Human Resource Information: its Role in the Development</i>	
<i>Process</i>	136
<i>Who is Responsible for HRD?</i>	137
Defining HRD and SHRD	138
<i>Training</i>	145
<i>HRD</i>	145
<i>SHRD</i>	145
<i>Traditional approaches to HRD</i>	146
<i>HRD driven by needs.</i>	146
<i>HRD driven by opportunities.</i>	147
<i>Towards a capability-driven approach.</i>	148
<i>The Emergence of SHRD</i>	153
<i>New technology.</i>	154
<i>The drive for quality.</i>	155
<i>New competitive arrangements.</i>	155

<i>Internationalization of business.</i>	155
<i>More flexible and responsive organization.</i>	155
<i>Supply of resources.</i>	155
<i>Assumptions and Philosophies of SHRD</i>	156
<i>Stakeholders and SHRD</i>	157
<i>HRD serves individuals and organizations.</i>	158
<i>HRD serves multiple stakeholders.</i>	159
<i>Models of HRD Stakeholder Management at the Strategic Level.</i>	162
<i>HRD at operating level: the role of stakeholders.</i>	164
Core Beliefs	164
The Future of HRD	166
An HRD Model of Human Resource Development	168
<i>Process phases for T&D.</i>	170
<i>Process phases for OD.</i>	171
Succession Planning	172
A South African Model for HRD	176
Conclusion	178
CHAPTER 5	181
THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT OF HRD	181
Introduction	181
A National Perspective of HRD in South Africa	182
<i>Systems Theory and Thinking</i>	182
<i>Macro-level Perspective of HRD in SA</i>	183
<i>HRD: The South African Context</i>	186
<i>The 1970s</i>	187
<i>The 1980s</i>	190
<i>The 1990s: a Period of Transition</i>	192
<i>The 21st Century: a Period of Executing HRD as a</i>	

<i>National Priority</i>	198
<i>The labour force and unemployment.</i>	200
<i>Literacy and education.</i>	200
<i>Emphasis on science and technology.</i>	200
<i>Problems with and deficiencies in past funding for training.</i>	201
Definition and Framework of NHRD	202
<i>Emerging Definition</i>	202
<i>Policy Framework and Legislation</i>	203
<i>The Labour Relations Act No. 66 of 1995</i>	205
<i>The South African Qualifications Authority Act No.58 of 1995</i>	205
<i>Conceptual Tensions</i>	209
<i>Practical Tensions</i>	211
<i>Issues of Power in the Implementation of the NQF</i>	213
<i>Market Forces versus Social Transformation</i>	213
<i>The Relationship between SAQA, DoE and DoL</i>	216
<i>Achievements of the NQF</i>	217
<i>Towards a Typology of a National Qualifications Framework</i>	217
<i>purpose.</i>	218
<i>Scope.</i>	218
<i>Level of prescription.</i>	219
<i>Incrementalism.</i>	220
<i>Policy breadth.</i>	221
<i>The Architecture of the NQF</i>	222
<i>Objectives of the NQF</i>	222
<i>International Origins of the NQF</i>	225
<i>Local Origins of the NQF</i>	225
<i>A New NQF Landscape</i>	227
<i>Measuring the Impact of the NQF on the Transformation of Education and Training in South Africa</i>	229
<i>The Employment Equity Act (EEA) No. 55 of 1998</i>	230

<i>The Skills Development Act (SDA) No. 97 of 1998 and the Skills</i>	230
<i>Development Levies Act (SDLA) No. 9 of 1999</i>	
<i>Sector Education and Training Authorities</i>	231
<i>Concluding Reflections on NHRD Policy and Implementation</i>	232
Factors impacting on effective implementation of the NQF	233
<i>Favourable Factors</i>	233
<i>Unfavourable Factors</i>	233
<i>The task of constructing the NQF</i>	233
<i>Consultation Requirements</i>	234
<i>Architectural Complexities</i>	234
<i>Difficulties in the Integration of Education and Training</i>	234
<i>Differing and Conflicting Positions</i>	235
<i>Social Divisions</i>	235
<i>Availability of Resources</i>	235
<i>Economic Policy</i>	236
Conclusion	237
 CHAPTER 6	 241
INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS AND PRESENTATION OF A THEORETICAL MODEL TO FACILITATE THE UNDERSTANDING OF THE NATURE AND IMPORTANCE OF HRD	
 Introduction	 241
Research Results and Analysis	242
<i>SAQA Longitudinal Study</i>	242
<i>Informal Reviews</i>	247
<i>Literature Study</i>	248
Model for Understanding the Nature and Importance of HRD	249
<i>Understanding the Pathways of the HRD Model</i>	254
<i>Pathway 1: Synthesis of HRD Theory</i>	255

<i>Pathway 2: Philosophical Underpinnings of HRD</i>	258
<i>Pathway 3: Reflection on HRD Paradigms</i>	260
<i>Pathway 4: Leveraging Strategic HRD</i>	262
<i>Pathway 5: Components of HRD</i>	265
<i>Pathway 6: The future sustainability and longevity of HRD</i>	267
<i>Values</i>	269
<i>Accountability</i>	271
<i>Tool utility process</i>	278
Conclusion	278
CHAPTER 7	280
SYNOPSIS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	
Introduction	280
Brief Synopsis of the Research	280
Facilitating an Understanding of HRD	284
Limitations of the Study and Recommendations for Future Research	285
Conclusion	289
APPENDICES	291
Appendix A: Impact indicators for NQF longitudinal study	291
Appendix B: Theory-building process using theoretical sampling and content analysis within a coding paradigm	293
Appendix C: Translating the developed HRD theoretical model into practice	298
REFERENCES	301

ABBREVIATIONS

ABET	Adult Basic Education and Training
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ANC	African National Congress
ASTD	American Society for Training and Development
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CHE	Council for Higher Education
COSATU	Congress of South African Trade Unions
CUMSA	Curriculum Model for Education in South Africa
DOE	Department of Education
DOL	Department of Labour
EEA	Employment Equity Act
EEP	Employment Equity Plan
EER	Employment Equity Report
ERS	Education Renewal Strategy
ETQA	Education and Training Quality Assurance
FET	Further Education and Training
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEAR	Growth Employment and Redistribution
GENFET QC	General and Further Education and Training Qualifications and Quality Assurance Council
GET	General Education and Training
HDI	Human Development Index
HE	Higher Education
HEQF	Higher Education Qualification Framework
HIED	Higher Institution and Education Qualification Council
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HP	High Positive Impact
HPLO	High Performance Learning Organization
HPT	Human Performance Technology

HR	Human Resources
HRD	Human Resources Development
HRDS	Human resources Development Strategy
HRM	Human Resources Management
HSRC	Human Sciences Research Council
IPM	Institute for People Management
LRA	Labour Relations Act
NAPTOSA	National Professional Teachers Organization of South Africa
NEDLAC	National Economic Development and Labour Council
NGO	Non-governmental Organization
NHRD	National Human Resources Development
NMMU	Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University
NP	National Party
NQF	National Qualifications Framework
NSB	National Standards Bodies
NSD	National Skills Development
NSDS	National Skills Development Strategy
NVQ	National Vocational Qualifications
OBE	Outcomes-based Education
OD	Organizational Development
PM	Performance Management
QC	Qualifications and Quality Assurance Council
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
ROI	Return On Investment
SA	South Africa
SABPP	South African Board for Personnel Practice
SADC	South African Development Community
SAQA	South African Qualifications Authority
SDA	Skills Development Act
SDL	Skills Development Levy
SDLA	Skills Development Levies Act

SETA	Sector Education and Training Authority
SGB	Standards Generating Bodies
SHRD	Strategic Human Resources Development
SHRM	Strategic Human Resources Management
T&D	Training and Development
TOP QC	Trade, Occupational and Professional Qualifications and Quality Assurance Council
UFHRD	University Forum for HRD

LIST OF TABLES

1	Methodological implications of different epistemologies in social science	13
2	Comparative summary of qualitative and quantitative research approaches	16
3	Contributions of research methods to theory-building research	21
4	The process of social constructionist research	26
5	Research methodology	26
6	Summary of frequently used data collection tools	30
7	Definitions of the theory of human capital by leading economics scholars	60
8	Foundational psychological theories and their contribution	67
9	A summary of ethical frameworks	74
10	Comparison of the learning and performance paradigms	78
11	The important elements of axiology	98
12	Human resource development definition summary	104
13	Chain of impact	131
14	A comparison of SHRD characteristics	143
15	The three approaches to HRD	152
16	Interplay between the phases of the HRD process	170
17	The three categories of potential	175
18	Key statistics from the United Nations' 2004 Human Development Report	185
19	An overview of South Africa's NHRD Policy Framework	204
20	Scope and policy breadth of NQFs	219
21	Prescriptiveness of NQFs	219
22	The architecture of the NQF	223
23	The shifting typology of the SA NQF	228
24	Levels of impact	245
25	Matrix to understanding the nature of HRD	248
26	Amended matrix to understanding the nature of HRD	250
27	Significance of components and reasonable conclusions of significance	274
28	Quotas for Cycle 2 of the NQF Impact Study	286
29	Impact indicators for NQF longitudinal study	291

LIST OF FIGURES

1	Theory-building process using theoretical sampling and content analysis within a coding paradigm.	41
2	The theoretical foundations of human resource development	57
3	A model of human capital theory	64
4	High-performance learning organization	81
5	A philosophical framework for thought and practice	94
6	A two-by-two matrix of development	116
7	Four forms of development	117
8	A cause-effect relationship between performance and HRM activities	124
9	Levels of HRD	128
10	Elements of the ROI Methodology	130
11	The ROI Model	132
12	Strategically linked HRD	134
13	A model of SHRD	144
14	The framework of strategic HRD	151
15	A single sovereign model of HRD stakeholder management	162
16	The steerer model of HRD stakeholder management	163
17	Model of human resource development within the organizational environment	169
18	Critical career passages in a large business organization	173
19	A model for human resource development	177
20	Calculating a human development index	186
21	The generic competency model for human resource practitioners	194
22	SAQA organogram	207
23	Scope and prescriptiveness of the NQF	220
24	HRD Model: Pathways to understanding HRD	253
24a	Pathway 1: Synthesis of HRD Theory	255
24b	Pathway 2: Philosophical underpinnings of HRD	258

24c	Pathway 3: Reflection on HRD paradigms	261
24d	Pathway 4: Leveraging Strategic HRD	263
24e	Pathway 5: Composition of HRD	266
24f	Pathway 6: The future sustainability and longevity of HRD	268
24g	Values	270
24h	Accountability	272
25	Pathways to understanding HRD	281

ABSTRACT

The primary objective of this study is to generate pathways to understanding Human Resources Development (HRD) by developing a tool which enables and enhances a shared and common understanding of HRD in South Africa (SA). To achieve this objective, this research explores the nature and importance of HRD and articulates and aggregates these thoughts and practices into a tool which facilitates an understanding of HRD with the overarching aim of improving HRD thoughts and practices in South Africa. While there is substantial international and local literature on HRD, the existing body of research on the nature and importance of HRD in South Africa is skeletal. National HRD concepts and practices are fragmented, and are as diverse as the number of stakeholders and partners that it serves. In addition, theory-building in HRD is disconnected and removed from practice. In order to address this problem, a qualitative, interpretive, theory-building social constructionist research strategy was embarked upon. The research strategy was executed in an iterative, cyclical manner, using theoretical sampling and content analysis rigorously executed within a coding paradigm informed by open, axial and selective coding techniques with local and international literature and informal reviews as the units of analysis.

Qualitative and quantitative findings of the South African Qualifications Authority ground-breaking, world-first longitudinal study was analyzed and used to find relevance and corroborate the international literature available on HRD. Informal reviews were conducted with 7 human resources (HR) practitioners and 54 internationally-based HR colleagues of the researcher in order to ensure as appropriate a degree of integration between theory and practice as was possible. This process culminated in the most significant contribution of this research, which is a tool consisting of six pathways, that facilitates an understanding of the nature and importance of HRD in South Africa. The development of the tool enabled the articulation and aggregation of a thorough and coherent description, explanation and representation of HRD.

The research highlights the need for HRD scholars and practitioners to channel their energies and effort on all the catalytic aspects of organizational life, namely uniqueness, social complexity, knowledge, and path dependency, by acquiring critical insight into the profound value of HRD which will allow the realization and sustainability of competitive advantage in a rich and dynamic global economy.

KEY WORDS

Globalization

Human resource development (HRD)

Human resource development paradigms

Human resource development stakeholders

National human resource development (NHRD)

Organizational development (OD)

Philosophical underpinnings of HRD

Skills development

Strategic human resource development (SHRD)

Training

Dated: September 2006

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT AND DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY

Introduction

The establishment of a non-racial and democratic society in 1994 elevated South Africa's position in the world's political and economic rankings from that of outsider to being welcomed as a legitimate emerging economy (Dorrian, 2005). This transition, however, was not without challenge. South Africa (SA) was reincarnated into a global marketplace that was dominated by the world's most powerful nations, which advocated and practised neo-liberal market economics in order to promote their own self-interests. SA was trying to recuperate from the effects of the siege mentality of the apartheid era while in the midst of this recovery other emerging nations were also fighting for their share of the global pie. Various authors (Horwitz, 1999; Lynham and Cunningham, 2004; Dorrian, 2005) all suggest that the key to unlocking SA's true potential within the country and within the global arena lies in the development of an innovative strategic paradigm. At the heart of such a paradigm is the development of SA's human capital. The businesses with whom SA is now competing in the global arena are Fortune 500-listed companies which are familiar with conducting business under vigorous competitive conditions.

The new African National Congress (ANC)-led government established expectations through legislative interventions to encourage private businesses, public institutions and civil society organizations to transform their agendas from their previous paradigms of benefiting the minority White population in the country, to paradigms that are more inclusive of all South Africans (April, 2004). Subsequently, the SA government and the SA population expected the shift in political equality to be accompanied by speedy shifts in economic equality, bringing the benefits of education, jobs and wealth to all South Africans. However, the challenge of economic equality remains overwhelming as SA still has a large number of unskilled and semi-skilled individuals, many of whom remain trapped by poverty, are poorly educated, and often infected with the Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) and have Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS), which is rife in the country. Despite these challenges, SA has sustained growth rates of between

2% and 4% over the past five years and, through good fiscal discipline, has been able to reduce the budget deficits from 9.5% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) inherited from the previous National Party (NP). This includes the deficits of the "Bantustans" in 1993 to fractionally over 1% in 2002/03 and 3% in 2003/04 (PCAS, 2003). According to a recent study (PCAS, 2003), SA managed to accomplish levels of economic stability that had not been prevalent in the country for 40 years. The balance of payments is sound, the national inflation rate remains contained, and, after a dip in foreign direct investment, there appears to be the promise of a slight resurgence in new foreign direct investment (PCAS, 2003). The government has thus managed to handle SA's macroeconomic policies in a favourable manner.

The United Nations produces a Human Development Report which reflects the measurement of human development in countries across the world. One of the key elements in this report is the Human Development Index (HDI), which measures the overall achievements in a country across three fundamental dimensions of human development, namely longevity, knowledge, and a decent standard of living. The HDI is measured in terms of life expectancy at birth, educational accomplishments including adult literacy and primary, secondary and tertiary enrolment, and adjusted income per capita in purchasing power parity in United States dollars (US\$). The key statistics from the United Nations Human Development Reports of 2000 and 2004, cited in Jones (2001:5) and Dorrian (2005:197) respectively, shows that SA's HDI decreased from 0.712 in 1990 to 0.666 in 2004. The report ranked SA 94th out of 161 countries in 2000 and 119th out of 177 countries in 2004. These results demonstrate that SA has regressed in terms of human development.

From the literature and indices above, one can thus conclude that SA is not particularly competitive in the global arena, and that poor human development is one of the main reasons for this lack of competitive capability. SA therefore needs to be encouraged to take stock of its current HRD concepts and practices, and acquire a common understanding of the nature and importance of HRD, which should in turn lead to an improved HDI.

The Research Problem

The research problem is that no single tool exists which can enable HRD practitioners and scholars in SA to have a common understanding of the nature and importance of HRD relevant to the South African context. While there is substantial literature on the nature and importance of HRD, the existing body of research on the nature and importance of HRD in SA is skeletal. National HRD concepts and practices are fragmented, and are as diverse as the number of National Qualifications Framework (NQF) stakeholders and partners that HRD serves, with no academically recorded study to aggregate and articulate these thoughts and practices into a tool which will serve to elevate understanding of HRD in this country. An enormous amount of international HRD literature is available, but because it refers to the sophisticated practice of many years, it is not totally relevant to the unique South African environment. Although many recent research papers show signs of acknowledging the distinctiveness of HRD in SA, the existing academic literature, at this time, still relies heavily on contributions of HRD made by leading non-South African scholars and practitioners.

Purpose of the study

The issue of the nature of HRD has already been extensively covered in the literature (Jones, 2001; Swanson and Holton III, 2001). The question therefore arises whether another study is absolutely necessary. Although a vast amount of literature is devoted to what HRD is comprised of, most of the literature is written by leading non-South African scholars and practitioners. Furthermore, thoughts and practices about HRD are disjointed and are as diverse as the beneficiaries that it serves. The purpose of this research is to articulate the nature and importance of HRD within the SA context and to aggregate this understanding into a tool which will enable HRD practitioners and scholars to have a common understanding of HRD, with the overarching intention to facilitate the improvement of HRD practices in the country. The research question is as follows:

Which constructs will facilitate a common understanding of the nature and importance of HRD within an organizational and national context?

Research Design and Methodology

In order to realize the purpose of the research, the following research strategy was followed. Considering the research problem, purpose of the study and the research questions, a social constructionist, qualitative mode of inquiry was deemed most appropriate for this study. The researcher used the theoretical sampling technique and firstly checked whether accrued text was aligned to the definitive principles of cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality within a content analysis procedural context. In order to further support the selection of literature, the theoretical sampling technique was integrated with a snowball literature-collection technique; this was applied by asking leading scholars which books they recommended, studying the books read by good authors, and by predominantly sourcing literature from the year 2000 and beyond. Furthermore, content analysis was executed within a coding paradigm that explicitly and implicitly served as a constant reminder to code data for relevance to the specific phenomena referenced by a given category, against the criteria of:

- Conditions
- Interaction amongst the actors
- Strategies and tactics
- Consequences.

Thereafter, a disciplined execution of open, axial and selective coding procedures was rigorously applied and facilitated by a colour-coding system.

This means that a comprehensive literature search was conducted in order to identify as many constructs as possible that could be used to understand the nature and importance of HRD. International and national data searches at the library of the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU) included DIALOGUE, SABINET, ABI/FORM, Business Link (full-text database), South African studies (CD-ROM), relevant abstracts and indexes, Dissertation Abstracts International, NEXUS (Human Sciences Research Council) and the Internet. Data was accessed from other national libraries using the inter-library loan facilities at the NMMU. As far as the researcher could establish, no similar research study has previously been undertaken in South Africa. For the purpose of this study it is important to highlight

the study undertaken by Jones (2001), which identified the components of HRD and its respective best practices. His study was the first SA recorded attempt to develop an HRD model from the perspective of HRD professionals in South Africa.

Furthermore, the researcher conducted an analysis of the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Cycle 1 and Cycle 2 reports, which contained quantitative and qualitative data of 623 stakeholders who are taking part in a longitudinal study to effectively measure the impact of the NQF on the transformation of education and training in South Africa. According to Shirley Walters (SAQA, 2005) this study is a world first, as no other country that has implemented an NQF has as yet attempted to measure the progress of their NQFs in such a comprehensive and empirical manner. SAQA has thus set a standard for similar initiatives worldwide, and has also provided South African policymakers with a rich source of information that can be used to inform future NQF developments. Of particular relevance to this thesis are the qualitative and quantitative results of the section of the measurement tool called “Indicator set 4”, which measured “the extent to which the NQF has had a wider social, economic and political impact in building a lifelong learning culture” (SAQA, 2005:4).

No research site was selected for this study for reasons explained in detail in Chapter 2. However, the researcher was explicitly acknowledged by her employer as an academic researcher, and her agenda was reasonably explicit within the organization as well as with HRD practitioners outside of the organization. Throughout this research, the researcher held informal reviews with her colleagues and practitioners in the international HRD environment. These colleagues and practitioners were HRD practitioners from various business sectors in Africa, the Middle East and South East Asia.

Contrary to beliefs that HRD research is conducted by those who have little to do with practice, the researcher has international credibility as an HRD practitioner, and besides postgraduate qualifications in the field, also holds accreditation as a Hay McBer internationally accredited Emotional Intelligence Coach. She also holds British and South African National Vocational Training Qualifications and is working towards becoming an internationally accredited Return on Investment (ROI)

Consultant with the ROI Institute. Of particular concern is the need that this research has to build strong interrelationships between theory, research, and practice, which can only be achieved through leading-edge research and reflective practice. The researcher studied the literary works of leading local and international scholars who were utilising these in practice as well. Furthermore, as suggested by Mouton and Marais (1990:112), the researcher would be formulating conclusions from the literature study and informal reviews that would be providing valuable context-bound information which would ultimately lead to patterns or theories that would help to explain the nature and importance of HRD within the South African context.

A qualitative, social constructionist approach was adopted as the most effective means to affect this research, as the researcher envisioned contributing to the theory on HRD in South Africa. As Alvesson and Deetz (2000:39) suggest that theory can be construed as “a way of seeing and thinking,” the researcher recognized that theory-building could solve the research problem relevant to this research. A good theory about the nature and importance of HRD for South Africa would be valuable precisely because it would fulfil one essential purpose: to explain the meaning of HRD, its nature and challenges which are experienced daily, but which are not currently articulated in one instrument, so that HRD practitioners and scholars may use that knowledge and understanding to act in more informed and effective ways. This sentiment is supported by Lewin (1951), Van de Ven (1989), Whetten (1989), Campbell (1990) and Strauss and Corbin (1990) who are all cited in Lynham (2002:222). Good theory building should result in an increased understanding of how something works and what it means Dubin (1976) cited in Lynham (2002:223). As supported by Lynham (2000), it is envisaged that this theory-building research, as with any other HRD research, will play an important role in advancing professionalism and maturity in the field of HRD in South Africa, and also dissolve the tension between research and practice. A stringent theoretical sampling method was applied within a rigorous coding paradigm using open, axial and selective coding techniques. The researcher therefore accepted that a qualitative, social constructionist research approach, which would be triangulated by

an extensive literature study of HRD and informal reviews in the researcher's international work environment, was suitable for the purpose of this research.

It is evident that HRD is a critical issue in SA and that it needs to be well understood in order to improve HRD practices. The research methodology strategy employed made it possible to realise the purpose of this research and solve the research problem.

Contribution of the Study

The study attempts to add to the body of knowledge of HRD by identifying the most pertinent constructs that are necessary to acquire a sound understanding of the nature and importance of HRD in SA. These constructs are developed into a useful one-page model for this purpose, and its utility is manifested in the development of a facilitator's guide which provides any HRD scholar and practitioner with a tool and process to promote this understanding of HRD; the model is transcribed into a one-day HRD intervention. Furthermore, this model enables the evolution of HRD into social constructs that are commonly understood by all, and which ultimately will resonate, in a systematic manner, imagery remembered by HRD practitioners. The product of the research is a theoretical model presenting HRD as a sociological code and theory. This sociological code culminates in the contribution that this study makes.

The development of such a tool and a detailed account of how to utilise it, further distinguishes this study from previous research. NEXUS searches executed by the NMMU library have confirmed that no study of this nature has been or is currently being conducted in SA.

Scope of the Study

While most literature refers to the components of HRD, this research will concentrate on developing constructs into which all these components can be aggregated in order to develop a tool which will facilitate an understanding of the nature and importance of HRD in South Africa. International and local HRD literature on HRD was researched. Therefore, understanding the nature of HRD will serve as a lens through which HRD is studied, providing a window into a particular

aspect of HRD. Each window in turn will cumulatively provide a richer, fuller, and multidimensional picture of HRD in operation in different societal contexts.

Definitions

The researcher explored the range of definitions of HRD in a universal context, and like many other authors, concluded that internationally, definitions fluctuate significantly in terms of activities, anticipated audiences, beneficiaries, and national settings (McLean and McLean, 2001; Swanson and Holton III, 2001). Conversely, quite a few leading HRD scholars argue that it is unnecessary to define HRD (Lee, 2001; Ruona, 2001). Most of the literature, however, leans towards some specificity of understanding HRD. Therefore, considering that the purpose of this research is to facilitate a common understanding of the nature and importance of HRD, and that this understanding will serve as a lens through which HRD thoughts and practices can be improved upon, the researcher thought it necessary to define HRD for this purpose. As previously mentioned, this definition provides a number of windows into various aspects of HRD and each window in turn will add to the creation of a richer, fuller, and multidimensional picture of HRD in operation in different societal contexts. The researcher thus defines HRD as:

a process which pursues the realization of individual potential and the improvement of business performance through the application of human resource development and organizational development interventions using a values-based and accountability approach.

Structure of the Thesis

Chapter 1 serves as an introduction and orientation to the study and presents the problem statement and purpose of the research. In addition, it comments on the resources that were used for the study and the contribution made by the study. Thereafter, the demarcation of the field of study is explained, followed by a definition of the most important term used in the study, “HRD”, as well as an overview of the structure of the thesis.

In Chapter 2, the research design and methodology are presented. This chapter elaborates on the blueprint for the qualitative, social constructionist approach used for this study, which is triangulated through an extensive literature study, document analysis and informal reviews using theoretical sampling within a rigorously applied coding paradigm.

Chapter 3 will focus mainly on delineating the nature and importance of theory, and particularly demarcates a broad foundational theory of HRD that serves to articulate its theoretical composition. The philosophical underpinnings of HRD and the role that philosophy plays in understanding the theory and practice of HRD, are also explored.

The nature and importance of HRD is explored in Chapter 4 and results in an all-encompassing presentation of the various components of HRD. The challenges facing the future of HRD are also discussed briefly.

Chapter 5 presents the historical socio-political-economic background of South Africa and the legislative interventions which shape SA's national HRD strategy.

In Chapter 6, the results of the literature study, analysis of qualitative and quantitative results of the SAQA Cycle 1 and Cycle 2 reports are presented, as well as feedback from the informal reviews. The theoretical model and its utility are also presented.

The conclusions and recommendations of the research are presented in Chapter 7, the final chapter of this study. The contributions and limitations of the study will also be highlighted. Finally, recommendations for future studies will be made.

Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to place the study into perspective by presenting the research problem and research strategy employed. The next chapter presents the research methodology applied.

CHAPTER 2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Our true love of knowledge naturally strives for reality, and will not rest content with each set of particulars which opinion takes from reality, but soars with undimmed and unwearied passion till he grasps the nature of each thing as it is ... (Plato, Republic, 490b, cited in Mouton and Marais, 1990:2).

This “passion to grasp the nature of each thing as it is,” described by Plato, is manifested first and foremost in the statements we make about reality. Proclaiming that which exists, or is believed to exist, is an intrinsic part of all meaningful human experience. Even though it is true that people may hold many beliefs that are never articulated in words, it is also true that, to the extent that language is essential for meaningful human interaction, the making of statements about reality is a critical dimension of human existence. HRD as an applied discipline is dependent on good theory and statements about reality, to prevent it from becoming an impoverished domain. This dependence on theory is manifested in theory-building research, which unfortunately, is still considered to be a mystery, and which has emerged as the sphere of influence of a few who have little to do with practice. In HRD, it is necessary to build strong interrelationships between theory, research, and practice, which can only be achieved through leading-edge research and reflective practice. The quality of research findings is directly dependent on the research methodology employed (Mouton and Marais, 1990:192). Successful research cannot take place without a systematic and objective pursuit of the discovery of the meaning of information (Leedy, 1993:11). Effective research is, therefore, systematic in that it is a planned, organized, objective, goal-orientated scientific inquiry into a particular problem that needs a solution. The aim of this chapter is to explain the research methodology that was followed in order to solve the research problem mentioned in Chapter 1.

The Research Problem

Central to every research project “is the problem” which is of vital importance to the success of the research effort (Leedy, 1993:55). De Vos (1998:54) states that “for a problem to be researchable, it must demand an interpretation of the data leading to a discovery of the fact.” As stated in Chapter 1, the research problem is that no single tool exists which can enable HRD practitioners and scholars in South Africa to have a shared and common understanding of the nature and importance of HRD relevant to the South African context. While there is substantial literature on the nature and importance of HRD, the existing body of research on the nature and importance of HRD in South Africa is skeletal. National HRD thoughts and practices are fragmented, and are as diverse as the number of NQF stakeholders and partners that HRD serves, with no academically recorded study to aggregate and articulate these thoughts and practices into a tool which will serve to enable and enhance a shared and common understanding of HRD in South Africa. An enormous amount of international HRD literature is available, but the South African situation gives the notion of relevance of this literature to the South African context an intensity that is not usually matched in the international environment. Although many recent research papers show signs of acknowledging the distinctiveness of HRD in South Africa, the existing academic literature, at this time, still relies heavily on contributions of HRD made by leading non-South African scholars and practitioners.

According to the various reliable academic databases mentioned in Chapter 1, no similar research study of this nature has been previously undertaken in South Africa at doctoral level. The only similar study conducted was by Jones (2001), who compiled a model for HRD in South Africa as part of a treatise for a Masters degree in Business Administration.

The Epistemological Landscape

Social sciences research is a collaborative human activity in which social reality is studied objectively with the aim of gaining a valid understanding of it (Mouton and Marais, 1990:7). The following dimensions of research in the social sciences are emphasized in this definition (Mouton and Marais, 1990:8):

1. The sociological dimension, which implies that scientific research is a joint or collaborative activity
2. The ontological dimension, which implies that research in the social sciences is always directed at an aspect or aspects of social reality
3. The teleological dimension, which implies that as a human activity, research in the social sciences is intentional and goal-directed, its main aim being the understanding of phenomena
4. The methodological dimension, which implies that research in the social sciences may be regarded as objective by virtue of its being critical, balanced, unbiased, systematic, and controllable
5. The epistemological dimension, which implies that the aim is not merely to understand the phenomenon, but rather to provide a valid and reliable understanding of reality.

A number of social science researchers have written extensively about the epistemological foundations for research namely Cresswell (1994), Baert (1998), De Vos (1998), Burrell and Morgan (2000) and Denzin and Lincoln (2000). There is continuing debate in HRD literature concerning the positivist, relativist, and interpretivist research traditions. For the purpose of this research, only the positivist and interpretivist domains are explored. According to Chua (1986: 5), “positivist studies are premised on the existence of prior fixed relationships within phenomena which are typically investigated with structured instrumentation. Such studies are primarily to test theory...” Fundamental to positivism is the idea that the social world exists externally, and that its characteristics should be measured through objective methods, rather than being inferred subjectively through sensation, reflection, or intuition (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002). According to Chua (1986:5), interpretive studies, on the other hand, “assume that people create and associate their own subjective and intersubjective meanings as they interact with the world around them.... The intent is to understand the deeper structure of a phenomenon within cultural and contextual situations” Undisputably, interpretivist research has been most dominant and influential, with much of the published research being centred upon interpretivist assumptions (Lynham, 2000; Jones, 2001; Lee, 2001;

Swanson, 2001; Holton III, 2002; SAQA, 2004, 2005). Orlikowski and Baroudi (1991:3) suggest that “interpretivism asserts that reality, as well as our knowledge thereof is a social product and hence incapable of being understood independent of the social actors that construct and make sense of that reality.” A new paradigm that has emerged within interpretivism during the past 50 years stems from the view that reality is not objective and exterior but is socially constructed and given meaning by people. The idea of social constructionism, as developed by Berger and Luckman (1966), Watzlawick (1984) and Shotter (1993), focuses on the way people make sense of the world, especially through sharing their experiences with others by means of language (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002).

In order to select an appropriate research method, it was necessary to explore the methodological implications of the above-mentioned two epistemologies in social science research, the implications of which are illustrated in Table 1 below:

TABLE 1: Methodological implications of different epistemologies in social science

SOCIAL SCIENCES EPISTEMOLOGIES		
Elements of methods	Positivism	Social constructionism
Aims	Discovery	Invention
Starting points	Hypotheses	Meanings
Designs	Experiment	Reflexivity
Techniques	Measurement	Conversation
Analysis/interpretation	Verification/falsification	Sense-making
Outcomes	Causality	Understanding

Source: Easterby-Smith *et al.*, (2002:34)

The researcher realized that the acceptance of a particular epistemology would guide her to adopt research methods that are characteristic of that position. With due consideration to the above table, it appears that the positivist perspective assumes that there is a reality which exists independently of the observer, and hence the task of the researcher will be merely to identify, albeit with increasing difficulty, this pre-existing reality. The identification of reality is most readily achieved through the design of experiments in which key factors are measured

precisely in order to test predetermined hypotheses. The social constructionist perspective, on the other hand, originates from a point of view that does not assume any pre-existing reality. The aim of the researcher is to understand how people invent structures to help them make sense of what is going on around them. Consequently, a great deal of interest is given to the use of language and the conversations that take place between people as they create their own meanings. Furthermore, it is widely acknowledged that the researcher can never be separated from this sense-making process. Therefore, researchers are starting to recognize that theories that apply to the subjects of their work must also be relevant to themselves. Such reflexive approaches to methodology are recognized as being particularly relevant in HRD studies (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002; Anderson, 1993). For this reason, considering the research problem given above and the meaning of the various epistemological approaches, the researcher deems a social constructionist epistemological approach to be appropriate for this research.

The researcher was faced with a more problematic issue: that of selecting appropriate research methods to complement the chosen strategy mentioned above. While the above table represents the pure versions of each paradigm at the philosophical level, many authors argue, and the researcher has experienced, that when it comes to selecting the actual research methods and techniques to be used, the differences between the two paradigms are by no means clear and distinct (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Punch, 1986; Bulmer, 1988;). This is why many social constructivists select qualitative research methods (Jones and Hughes, 2002) because quantitative methods are better suited to the positivist approach. Van Maanen (1983:9), cited in Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2002:85) defines qualitative research techniques as “an array of interpretative techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, not the frequency, of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomena in the social world.” On the other hand, quantitative research takes universal propositions and generalizations as a position of departure, whereas qualitative research intends to understand phenomena within a particular context. Furthermore, according to De

Vos (1998:241-242), quantitative and qualitative researchers will have different approaches to questions about:

1. ontology, which is the nature of reality and human behaviour
2. epistemology, which is the relationship of researchers to reality and the road that they will follow in the search of truth
3. axiology, which as a methodology, is the know-how or scientific methods and techniques employed to obtain valid knowledge.

Table 2 below illustrates the differences between qualitative and quantitative research.

TABLE 2: Comparative summary of qualitative and quantitative research approaches

COMPARATIVE SUMMARY OF QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH APPROACHES	
Qualitative Research	Quantitative Research
Uses an inductive form of reasoning: develops concepts, insights and understanding from patterns in the data	Uses a deductive form of reasoning : collects data to assess preconceived models, hypotheses, and theories
Uses an emic perspective of inquiry : derives meaning from the subject's perspective	Uses an etic perspective : the meaning is determined by the researcher
Is idiographic : thus aims to understand the meaning that people attach to everyday life	Is nomothetic : aims to objectively measure the social world, to test hypotheses, and to predict and control human behaviour
Regards reality as subjective	Sees reality as objective
Captures and discovers meaning once the researcher becomes immersed in the data	Tests hypotheses that the researcher starts off with
Concepts are in the form of themes, motifs and categories.	Concepts are in the form of distinct variables
Seeks to understand phenomena	Seeks to control phenomena
Observations are determined by information richness of settings, and types of observations used are modified to enrich understanding	Observations are systematically undertaken in a standardized manner
Data is presented in the form of words, quotes from documents, and transcripts	Data is presented by means of exact figures gained from precise measurement
The research design is flexible and unique, and evolves throughout the research process. There are no fixed steps that should be followed and the researcher design cannot be exactly replicated	The research design is standardized according to a fixed procedure and can be replicated
Data is analyzed by extracting themes	Data analysis is undertaken by means of standardized statistical procedures
The unit of analysis is holistic, concentrating on the relationships between elements, contexts, etc.. The whole is always more than the sum.	The unit of analysis is variables which are anatomistic (elements that form part of the whole.)

Sources: Neuman (1994); Denzin and Lincoln, (2000); April (2004:65)

Considering the tabulated data above, it is obvious that the characteristics of the qualitative research approach are more aligned to the essence of social constructionist research. Internationally, the past few years have seen a growing interest in qualitative research paradigms and methods in HRD research (Turnbull, 2002:317). In addition, a resistance to ambiguity and inadequate acknowledgment of the structural, social, and power issues that exist in organizations have led many HRD scholars to turn to qualitative research. Research generated through qualitative methods is increasingly being valued by HRD scholars and practitioners in their quest to enhance performance, learning, integrity, and spirituality in organizations.

Deciding to adopt a qualitative approach involves “consideration of the underlying assumptions or basic characteristics of the qualitative mode of inquiry” (De Vos, 1998:45). Creswell (1994: 4-7) summarizes a few of these assumptions as follows :

For the qualitative researcher, the only reality is that constructed by the individuals involved in the research situation. Thus, multiple realities exist in any given situation namely, the researcher, those individuals being investigated and the reader or audience interpreting a study. The qualitative researcher needs to report these realities faithfully and to rely on voices and interpretations of informants.

In a qualitative methodology, “inductive logic prevails” (De Vos, 1998:46). “Inductive reasoning” means that supporting statements lend gradual support, from a little to a great deal, to the formulation of conclusions (Mouton and Marais, 1990:112). This emergence of conclusions provides valuable context-bound information which leads to patterns or theories that help to explain a phenomenon. In addition, the phenomenon being researched in this instance, namely the constructs which will enable a shared and common understanding of HRD within the South African context, must be described as accurately as possible. Therefore, considering the research problem and the research questions, a social

constructionist, qualitative mode of inquiry was deemed most appropriate for this study.

Research Design

The research design is a blueprint that establishes the framework through which the research questions arising from the research problem are investigated, using a method which will define the processes of evidence-gathering and analysis (Huysamen, 1993; Thyer, 1993). The blueprint, therefore, requires a research methodology which is a description of procedures, techniques, and processes that are used in approaching a problem and arriving at answers. The term “methodology” merely means the way in which one proceeds to solve problems, in other words, the “research process” (De Vos, 1998:37). The process of research, Leedy (1993:9) argues, “is largely circular in configuration” in that it begins with a problem and ends with the resolution of the problem. The present researcher required a methodology which would enable the inductive interpretation of the social world in which only socially constructed realities exist, which in themselves may develop and change, influenced by context and time. As Alvesson and Deetz (2000:39) suggest that theory can be construed as “a way of seeing and thinking,” the researcher recognized that theory building could solve the research problem relevant to this research. A good theory about the nature and importance of HRD for South Africa would be valuable precisely because it fulfils one essential purpose: to explain the meaning of HRD, its nature and challenges which are experienced daily, but which are not currently articulated in one instrument, so that HRD practitioners and scholars may use that knowledge and understanding to act in more informed and effective ways. This sentiment is supported by Lewin (1951), Van de Ven (1989), Whetten (1989), Campbell (1990) and Strauss and Corbin (1990) who are all cited in Lynham (2002:222).

Theory-building research is therefore a method of scholarly inquiry (Kaplan, 1964). Theory building in HRD is about developing informed knowledge frameworks about how to act on things in our world, thereby formulating ways in which to understand and address issues and problems in the world around us (Alvesson and Deetz, 2000). As mentioned in Chapter 3, theory is described by Gioia and Pitre

(1990:587) as “a coherent description, explanation, and representation of observed or experienced phenomena.” Theory building is then defined by Lynham (2000:162) as “the process or recurring cycle by which coherent descriptions, explanations and representations of observed or experienced phenomena are generated, verified and refined.” A profound characteristic and function of theory building is to “make explicit the explanations and understandings of how the world is and how it works, and, by doing so, make transferable, informed knowledge for improved understanding and action in the world explicit rather than implicit” (Lynham, 2002:223). Good theory building should result in an increased understanding of how something works and what it means (Dubin, 1976, cited in Lynham, 2002:223) and should also reflect rigour and relevance (Marsick, 1990) or what is also termed “validity and utility” (Van de Ven, 1989, cited in Lynham, 2002:223). Furthermore, it is not an activity that is conducted away from practice, but on the contrary, can be a critical element in the practice of HRD. Universally, HRD can benefit from the need and utility of good theory, and the various erroneous assumptions that exist about it, as mentioned in Chapter 3, can only be eradicated through engaging in theory-building activities which are accessible to the users of the developed theory. As supported by Lynham (2000), it is envisaged that this theory-building research, as with any other HRD research, will play an important role in advancing professionalism and maturity in the field of HRD in South Africa, and also dissolve the tension between research and practice.

The theory-building method used should be dictated by the nature of the theory building being engaged in, and not by the preferred inquiry methodology of the researcher or the practitioner (Lynham, 2002:224). However, one cannot ignore the fact that theorists engage in their work in ways that reflect their deep-seated values and assumptions about what constitutes knowledge (epistemology), the nature of being or existence (ontology), what constitutes value (axiology), and other basic ideological and philosophical beliefs. These beliefs are fundamental to the theorist’s choice of research purpose, subject, and methodology. Therefore, owing to the wealth of international literature and scholarly studies available on the nature

and importance of HRD, theory-building research was found to be the most justifiable means to address the research problem mentioned above.

As a result, various theory-building methods were explored and although alternative methods of theory building are available, six key methodologies were chosen for discussion. This section will also serve to further explain why the social constructionist theory-building method was selected as the method of choice for this research. To support this argument, Table 3 illustrates a distilled representation of these six methodologies.

TABLE 3: Contributions of research methods to theory-building research

TYPE OF RESEARCH			DRIVING RATIONALE		GENERAL THEORY-BUILDING RESEARCH PHASE				
Method	Quantitative	Qualitative	Deductive driven	Inductive driven	Conceptual development	Operationalisation	Confirmation or disconfirmation	Application	Continuous refinement and development
General	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Dubin	X		X		X	X	X	X	X
Grounded theory		X		X	X			X	
Meta-analysis	X		X		X	X	X		X
Social constructivist		X		X	X	O		X	
Case study	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

X= definite role; O = limited role

Source: Torraco (2002: 361)

Dubin's Theory-building Research

Dubin's (1978) method for theory building is a quantitative research approach, with strength in its ability to be used for the hypothetical-deductive creation of knowledge. Dubin's methodology cannot be used for inductive knowledge creation, and is linear, sequential, and unable to adequately represent the fluidity and emergent nature of many social and organizational phenomena (Lynham, 2002). It therefore would not support the inductive, interpretive reasoning needed for the content analysis of historical and literary data available for this research.

Grounded Theory Research

Grounded theory research is theory that is grounded in the interplay of data collection and theoretical analysis, which yields valuable social science knowledge. It is of particular value for generating new insights and tentative hypotheses, regardless of existing theoretical explanations of a phenomenon (Egan, 2002). As grounded theory research is closest to the quantitative paradigm, adopting the familiar language of hypothesis, testing and verification normally associated with the positivist tradition and following a rigorous set of procedures to develop theory from data through a primarily inductive process, it was not deemed appropriate for this research. However, the researcher did integrate best practices associated with this methodology, into the social constructionist methodology used.

Meta-analysis Research

This research involves accumulating and synthesizing the findings of separate but similar studies of an issue, and produces worthwhile new knowledge. Rigorous research design and statistical analysis allow the researcher to remain impartial and detached from the outcomes of the research. Meta-analysis is capable of integrating and synthesizing existing empirical studies of a phenomenon as the basis for theory building. Furthermore, this research method provides aggregate assessments of the relationship between explanatory factors and outcomes, thus revealing patterns of causal relationships. In this way, meta-analysis offers a unique evaluation of the efficacy of competing theories (Yang, 2002). However, as meta-analytic theory building cannot be used for inductive knowledge creation, it was deemed inappropriate for this research study.

Case Study Research

Case study research is consistent with positivistic, naturalistic or both paradigmatic approaches to the discovery of new knowledge, and it can thus reflect the values and assumptions of both paradigms. It is of particular value when a focus on single settings is the optimum context for theory building. As this method does not rely extensively on previous literature or prior empirical evidence, it was deemed inappropriate for this study, as internationally, a great deal is known about the nature and importance of HRD.

Social Constructionist Research

Social constructionist research is an inductive approach to theory building that has some parallels with the grounded theory approach, but differs in its social constructionist perspective (Turnbull, 2002). In this type of research, knowledge is created through the understanding and explanation of how social experience is created and given meaning in our world. The complexity of lived experience and the variability of social relations alleviate attempts to claim causality or generalisability in social constructionist theory. Social constructionist theory building can model and enhance our understanding of how people inter-subjectively create, understand, and reproduce social situations. By emphasizing the specific, the local, and the particular, social constructionist theory building more closely represents the lived experiences of those studied (Turnbull, 2002).

Strauss and Corbin (1997, cited in Turnbull, 2002:318), diverge from quantitative researchers by contesting the belief that theories are about uncovering pre-existing truth, suggesting instead that “theories are interpretations made from given perspectives as adopted or researched by researchers” and that “as conditions change at any level of the conditional matrix, this affects the validity of theories, that is their relationship to contemporary social reality” (Strauss and Corbin, 1998:171, cited in Turnbull, 2002:318-319). For these scholars, theory “consists of plausible relationships proposed among concepts and sets of concepts” (Strauss and Corbin, 1998:168, cited in Turnbull, 2002:319). Poststructuralists, on the other hand, such as Derrida, Foucault, Lyotard and Barthes (cited in Turnbull, 2002:319) focus on breaking down the truths of science, social order, and the human self, effectively assuming an

anti-theoretical position, and therefore do not accept theory building as a construct that is meaningful from their position of inquiry. Between these two extremes falls the “constructivist paradigm,” a term often used to encapsulate a variety of associated approaches, all of which emphasize the social construction of meaning and reality. Within this paradigm, we find ethnomethodology (Garfinkel, 1967), symbolic interactionism (Goffman, 1959; Blumer, 1969; Mead, 1999) and social constructionism (Berger and Luckman, 1966; Gergen, 1999). The contributions of Berger and Luckman (1966), Gergen (1999), Turnbull (2002), and Watzlawick (1984) and Shotter (1993), whose descriptions of the philosophy of social constructionism are influential, are acknowledged.

Social constructionists are engaged in developing theory that is derived inductively from the real world, in order to enhance understanding of how actors intersubjectively create, understand, and reproduce social situations. Berger and Luckman (1966:15) challenged existing thought on the nature of reality and truth, and claimed that “the sociology of knowledge will have to deal not only with the empirical variety of knowledge in human societies, but also the processes by which any body of knowledge comes to be socially established as reality.” They added that “the sociology of knowledge must concern itself with whatever passes for knowledge in a society, regardless of the ultimate validity or invalidity, by whatever criteria, of that knowledge.” For this research study, the researcher is not preoccupied with uncovering a truth or reality, but rather with understanding the sense of the nature and importance of HRD in South Africa. As supported by Berger and Luckman (1966:15), it is this everyday “commonsense” knowledge that constitutes the foundation of meanings without which any society or organisation could not exist.

Social constructionist theorists acknowledge and aim to understand the intimate relationship between the researcher and the researched, the situational constraints that shape inquiry, and the value-laden nature of inquiry (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994, cited in Turnbull, 2002:320). Embodied in the research from this paradigm is the concern with seeking explanations about how social experience is created and given meaning. The following suggestions capture the meaning and authenticity of theory building for social constructionists:

1. All research is value-laden, and it is preferable for the researcher to acknowledge any inherent assumptions and beliefs through a process of reflection.
2. Social constructionists view the “cause and effect argument as being in itself a social construction” (Gergen, 1999:91, cited in Turnbull, 2002:320).
3. Social constructionist emphasize the specific, the situational and the particular in their research and extract these insights to seek transferability of ideas in order to redefine existing theoretical frameworks.
4. The “increased powers of perception and understanding, as well as the desire to bring about change generated through interpretive forms of qualitative research, can be an end in itself, as well as contributing to the more general aim of generating transferable and useful theory” (Turnbull, 2002:320).
5. Constructionists can look for authenticity by using the direct accounts of those being researched and by remaining as close to the programme data as possible.

According to Turnbull (2002), there is no one right way to conduct a qualitative research project that holds theory building as one of its objectives. Qualitative research is fundamentally a process in which fieldwork, data collection, data analysis, production of an account, and theorising may take place simultaneously or through cyclical processes during which the researcher may complete these stages a number of times in the search for the advancement of understanding or knowledge. The process is hardly ever linear or sequential.

Therefore, this theory-building research was deemed appropriate, as the main purpose of this research is to aggregate and articulate HRD thoughts and practices into a tool which will serve to enable a common understanding of HRD in South Africa. The only limitation of this method is that it is restricted to the declared purpose of the research mentioned above. The process of social constructionist research and this research in particular is reflected in Table 4 below.

TABLE 4: The process of social constructionist research

STAGE	DESCRIPTION
1	Start with a question and select a social setting in which to conduct the study.
2	Decide what will be studied, under what circumstances, and over what period of time.
3	Gain access and entry to the site.
4	Select the appropriate research strategy.
5	Using inductive analysis, adopt a system of coding of filed notes and documents.
6	Look for the meaning and perspectives of the participants in the study.
7	Develop working models to explain the phenomenon in the study.
8	Present findings in narrative form, supported by evidence from the statements and behaviours recorded in interviews and notes; provide an interpretive commentary framing the key findings in the study.

Source: Turnbull (2002:324)

The above tabulated process was modified to better suit the nature of this research study and is re-tabulated and explained below.

TABLE 5: Research methodology

STAGE NAME	STAGE	DESCRIPTION
Research plan	1	The research strategy, aim and social setting
	2	Scope of research and timelines
	3	Data collection method
Implementation	4	Literature study
Data analysis	5	Coding
	6	Extraction of meaning
Interpretation and presentation of findings	7	Development of Theoretical Model
	8	Presentation of findings

Research Plan

In addition to the research design explained earlier on, the research plan is further expanded on in stages 1 to 3.

Stage 1: The research strategy, aim and social setting.

A phenomenological approach aims to understand and interpret the meaning that subjects give to their everyday lives, and in this case, is a study that describes the meaning that HRD has for various stakeholders (Cresswell, 1998). A researcher utilising this approach reduces the meaning to a central essence, and the product of this research is therefore a description of this essence. Seeing that this research study is an attempt to holistically explain the nature and importance of HRD in South Africa as a social unit, the researcher decided on conducting a qualitative study using a social constructionist approach within a phenomenological framework. This section represents a detailed explanation of the research strategy adopted.

The purpose of this research is to articulate the nature and importance of HRD within the South African context and to aggregate this understanding into a tool which will enable HRD practitioners and scholars to have a shared and common understanding of HRD with the overarching intention to facilitate the improvement of HRD practices in the country.

The researcher has nine years' experience as a people development practitioner and her daily work role entails developing and implementing people development solutions as well as providing business consulting and facilitation services to predominantly Coca-Cola Sabco bottling operations throughout Africa, the Middle East and South East Asia, and to various divisions of The Coca-Cola Company. In addition, the researcher's employer, BevServ HR Services, a subsidiary of Coca-Cola Sabco, is an accredited service provider with the Services Sector Education and Training Authority (SETA) in South Africa and provides the same services mentioned above to South African organizations across all business sectors. The researcher was explicitly acknowledged as an academic researcher with her employer. Furthermore, the aim of the research was common knowledge amongst the researcher's colleagues and the HR Managers within Coca-Cola Sabco. Therefore, like Watson (1994), the researcher's agenda was reasonably explicit within the organization as

well as with HRD practitioners outside of the organization, and trust relationships were established with all HRD practitioners with whom the researcher interacted. The importance of trust in the conduct of research is substantiated by Easterby-Smith *et al.*, (2002) and various other authors. Therefore, the researcher was able to observe, participate, talk to, check, understand, and make interpretations of colleagues' and practitioners' understanding of the nature and importance of HRD, while performing routine job functions. There was thus no need to select a specific site for observation, as she was already immersed in the HRD international environment. As recommended by Easterby-Smith *et al.*, (2002), the researcher became a partner in the research process. While all practitioners and colleagues willingly made contributions in the informal reviews that were held, their anonymity was ensured as this was not case study research.

Stage 2: Scope of research and timelines.

Various researchers emphasize the importance of identifying the unit of analysis, in order to maintain a coherent thread through the data collection and analytic phases (Yin, 1984; De Vos, 1998; Babbie and Mouton, 2001). Babbie and Mouton (2001) identify several types of units of analysis that include human beings (individuals or groups), social interventions (e.g. programs or systems), cultural objects (e.g. art, literature, technology), social organizations (e.g. political parties, gangs, clubs), institutions (e.g. schools, banks, firms), and collectives (e.g. cities, countries). In addition, Babbie and Mouton indicate that the unit of analysis represents the *What* of the research project. Researchers indicate that if the unit of analysis cannot be identified, then the overarching questions, or the scope of the research, may be too vague or broad (Yin, 1984; Patton, 1990; Babbie and Mouton, 2001). Deciding on the units of analysis for this research proved to be a challenge. The units of analysis for this research are an extensive collection of international and local South African literature by leading scholars in HRD, with the local literature focusing specifically on NQF Impact Study Reports published in 2004 and 2005, as well as the model for HRD developed by Jones (2001). Contrary to the units of analysis for this research, Lynham (2002) states that the utility of HRD theory is largely dependent on the context of the population that it serves. This means that the

national and organizational setting is very important, as this context will determine whether the research product is useful or not. Considering that this research is not a case study and that the aim is to provide a tool which will facilitate and enhance the understanding of the nature and importance of HRD in South Africa, according to Lynham (2002), Turnbull (2002) and Torraco (2002), social constructionist research need not present an explicit connection between the conceptualization phase and practice, and is not necessary, given the social constructionist tolerance for ambiguity. Therefore, by its own predispositions and limitations, and depending on the research strategy employed, social constructionist research can only partially play a role in the operationalisation of theory building. This means that for the purposes of this research, the product of this research will enable and enhance an understanding of the nature and importance of HRD in South Africa, and each category and stratum of the population for this research will extract the elements from this research product which are fit for the purpose and context of each of the NQF stakeholders and partners.

The timing of this research is appropriate and the product of this research is of significant benefit to South Africa at this particular moment in time, and relates directly to the needs and concerns expressed by various HRD scholars and practitioners.

Stage 3: Data collection method.

Several authors provide a survey of data gathering tools commonly used in qualitative research (Yin, 1984; Cresswell, 1994; Patton, 1990; de Vos, 1998). Table 6 summarizes some of the frequently used data collection methods and techniques.

TABLE 6: Summary of frequently used data collection tools

DATA COLLECTION TOOLS	STRENGTHS/WEAKNESSES	APPLICATION
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Documents and Archival Records 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Strengths: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Consistent replication; same each time retrieved -precise details: e.g., names, flow charts, presentations Weaknesses: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -unknown authors may cause undetermined bias -collection may be selective or incomplete -May be proprietary; no access 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Appropriate to corroborate or augment other evidence Publicly available information makes evidence gathering more efficient, providing background Documents provide a means of enhancing interview discussions
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Interviews: One-on-one 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Strengths: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Targeted focus on research area -Can be scheduled; time managed -Within real-setting dialogue with participants Weaknesses: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Structured or semi-structured questions may limit the creation of robust insights, while non-structured questions may provide eclectic and “shallow” responses -Relies on participant recall; participants may tell researcher(s) what they want to hear 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Most common data collection tool used in business research under the case study method. Interview, as a tool, can be combined with other tools such as document and archival information Fits with business environment where time is scheduled into finite periods or appointments
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Interviews: Focus Groups 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Strengths: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Facilitated interaction allows for data generated through group interaction -Speedier results if skilfully moderated Weaknesses: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Requires finding the right people to participate -Constructed social setting may introduce bias 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Used extensively in marketing research Used as a post-survey tool gain more insight into survey data Diagnose potential problems, or contributions, of social programs
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Participant Action Research 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Strengths: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Empowered, democratising research relationship; relies on local knowledge -Enhances participants’ powers of observation, awareness, and self-reflection Weaknesses: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Highly eclectic; must expand what is considered data. -Difficult to generalize 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Valuable in transitional “third world” setting, where people may have been marginalized Professional groups such as teachers or hospital staff where praxis develops new knowledge for improvement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Physical Artifacts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Strengths: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Insightful cultural or technical functionality Weakness: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Product functionality easy to see, especially when generated Objects such as awards hold social meaning for groups or individuals

	-May be perishable out of context -Selective bias—e.g., see objects that slant view point	
--	---	--

Sources: Yin (1984); Patton (1990); Cresswell (1994); de Vos (1998); Babbie and Mouton (2001); April (2004:79)

All the techniques, with the exception of the documents and archival records, support a collection effort in which the researcher and interviewee are different individuals. One of the data collection principles established by Yin (1984) and Parkhe (1993) is to use multiple sources of information. Other researchers (Kirk and Miller, 1986; Patton, 1990; Cresswell, 1994; Denzin and Lincoln, 2000; Babbie and Mouton, 2001) argue that multiple sources of evidence reinforce the construct validity and reliability of any research study. This is one type of triangulation to reinforce the construct validity and reliability of a research project. Other types of triangulation include using a team of researchers, a multi-method research approach, multiple theories to look at the same data set, and a longitudinal approach to collecting data at more than one time (Yin, 1984; Patton, 1990; Gallivan, 1997; Janesick, 2000; Miller and Crabtree, 2000; Babbie and Mouton, 2001).

The data collection method used for this research is significantly shaped by the contribution of Strauss (1993:26) who, like the researcher, shares the notion of ambiguity that is associated with the term "data collection". Many social scientists do generate their data through methods such as field observation, interviewing and taping proceedings of meetings. However, as supported in the table above, there are other sources of data collection such as literature, published documents and diaries. Therefore, initial data collected may seem puzzling to the researcher as he/she is inundated by their rich and often challenging nature. It does not remain so confusing for very long, because the analysis of this data starts when reading commences and becomes informed by the analytic questions that define the research study. This guidance becomes increasingly explicit as the analysis of the new data continues. Therefore, it must be emphasized that for this research study, data collection and data analysis are considered tightly interwoven processes and occur alternately, because the analysis directs the sampling of data, an approach that is supported by Strauss and Corbin (1990:58) and Strauss (1993:26). Furthermore, data collection

never stops entirely, because coding and analysis continue to raise new questions that can only be addressed by the gathering of new literature and data or the examination of previous literature and data.

Therefore, the researcher opted for triangulation consisting, firstly, of an extensive collection and study of international and local South African literature of leading scholars in HRD.

Secondly, the literature study was triangulated with a study of local literature, focusing specifically on the NQF Impact Study Reports published in 2004 and 2005, as well as the model for HRD developed by Jones (2001). This data and literature shaped the required South African context for this study. All of the above were then integrated with informal reviews with colleagues and clients, and the natural immersion of the researcher in an international HRD environment on a daily basis.

Implementation

Stage 4: Literature study.

An important element of research preparation to solve the research problem, according to Rubin and Babbie (1993: 365), is “to begin with a search of the relevant literature, filling in one’s knowledge of the subject and learning what others have said about it.” Chapters 3 and 4 present an extensive literature review that was conducted to explore the theory, philosophical underpinnings, and the nature and importance of HRD in various contexts. Chapter 5 provides a critical in-depth analysis of the historical and socio-political climate in pre- and post-apartheid South Africa, which serves to contextualize HRD for the unique South African environment. These three chapters serve to confirm and enhance the researcher’s HRD knowledge relevant to the South African situation. Guided by the process of theoretical sampling, the researcher made use of the NMMU’s library catalogue and inter-library loan system to obtain local and international copies of HRD literature which included books, periodicals, theses, dissertations, abstracts, and Internet search engines on HRD, predominantly beyond the year 2000. Furthermore, through extensive networking with local academics, the researcher was able to obtain international readings and research papers, some of which were products of doctoral studies, from international visiting lecturers.

A personal developmental visit by the researcher to the Hay Group in London in 2004 and the Return on Investment Institute in the United States of America in 2005, provided further access to relevant research material. Furthermore, the international and South African HRD environment in which the researcher functioned on a daily basis served as an ideal social setting for this research.

As the study conducted by Jones (2001) indicated, the responses from a sample would only serve to corroborate the findings in the literature. Jones's (2001) research methodology consisted of two open questions enquiring what the key components of a model of HRD in a globally competitive environment were, and also what the perceived best practice of each component was; it was up to the respondents to provide the elements or constituents of HRD. What Jones (2001) did not consider in his study were the variables which played a role in the primary contributors of his participants' responses, for example, human resources development knowledge levels and experiential capability, organisational maturity, fatigue, time, and circumstances at the time of inquiry. Therefore, with due consideration to Jones's (2001) approach, for the present study, the researcher asked colleagues and HRD managers the following question:

The purpose of this research is to produce a tool which will best assist HRD scholars and practitioners to have a sound understanding of the nature and importance of HRD. In your opinion, which constructs should such a model consist of in order to enable and enhance such an understanding?

As the researcher's understanding of the nature and importance of HRD increased in depth, she would return to colleagues and HR managers and solicit their understanding by asking them whether they thought the newly found element should be included with the constructs which they had recommended. In most cases, these practitioners were not aware of, or had not given thought to, this constituent's inclusion, and found the sharing of information enlightening.

Data Analysis

Stage 5: Coding.

The researcher used content analysis of local and international literature to understand the nature and importance of HRD within the South African context. Content analysis is a "research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts, or other meaningful matter, to the contexts of their use" (Krippendorff, 2004:18). The two domains, the texts and the context, are logically independent, and conclusions are drawn from one independent domain to the next by applying a systematic coding scheme to the data or literature being studied. Content analysis requires the availability of good and relevant data. Underpinned by theoretical sampling, data and literature were decided to be good and relevant if they met the criteria recommended by Beaugrande and Dressler (1981, cited in White and Marsh, 2006:3) namely, that the data has to meet the definitive principles of cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality. The literature that contributed to this study was selected as appropriate for content analysis because it is composed of linguistic elements arranged in a linear sequence that follow rules of grammar and dependencies, and uses devices such as ellipsis and conjunctions to cause the constructs of HRD to hang together to create a message (cohesion). Each paragraph throughout the literature study has meaning which was established through relationships or implicature that may not be linguistically evident, and draws on frameworks within the reader for understanding (coherence). The researcher intended each paragraph to convey meaning related to her attitude and purpose (intentionality). Conversely, recipients of the message understand the text as a message; and can expect it to be useful and relevant (acceptability). Some of the literature did contain new or expected information, allowing for judgements about its quality of informing (formativity). The situation surrounding the text affects its production and determining what was appropriate for the situation and culture, and was subsequently included or excluded (situationality). The text is often related to what precedes and follows it, other similar texts, for example, as in a conversation (intertextuality). Therefore, all the references read for this research as well as the integrative experience of the researcher and informal

review information provided by her colleagues, as presented in Chapters 3, 4 and 5, were subjected to these criteria and complied with them. Although content analysis proved to be time-consuming and costly, the researcher found this rigorous analytical method fit for the purpose of this research. This method allowed the researcher to draw key features out of the data while at the same time allowing the richness of some of the material to remain, so it could be used to evidence the conclusions drawn and help to “let the data speak” for itself (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002:119).

In order to facilitate the content analysis research procedure, a process of coding was used, which is well documented, especially by Strauss and Corbin (1990) as a critical element of their grounded theory research approach. Dey (1993) presents this process as sequential, but also states that it is iterative in that data collection, analysis, generation of the research product and the theorizing take place simultaneously or through a cyclical process.

The content analysis process was thus executed within a coding paradigm that became central to the coding procedures used. The coding paradigm explicitly and implicitly served as a constant reminder to code data for relevance to the specific phenomena referenced by a given category, against the following criteria:

- Conditions
- Interaction amongst the actors
- Strategies and tactics
- Consequences.

This means that after each section of literature or data was read, the researcher would determine relevance by checking the read section against the above criteria. For example, to check conditions, the researcher looked for the use of words like *because, since, as* or phrases like *on account of*. Likewise, consequences of actions were pointed to by phrases like *as a result, because of that, the result was, the consequences were* and *in consequence*. Strategies and tactics associated with tactics were clearly defined, as can be seen in Chapter 4. Interactions were also easy to discover, as is clearly highlighted in Chapter 4. Without the inclusion of the above-mentioned paradigm items whilst applying a research strategy of this nature, coding is not coding (Strauss, 1993:28).

Open coding

Open coding was employed to initiate the inquiry about the nature and importance of HRD by forcing the analysis of the literature and data collected, which resulted in social constructionist conceptualization of concepts and categories that fitted the data (see the product of this research in Chapter 6). In order to apply open coding appropriately, the researcher applied various best-practice techniques advised by numerous leading experts in the field, especially Strauss (1993). Firstly, she asked the following questions after reading each section of literature and data:

- What study is this literature/data pertinent to? (This question kept reminding the researcher that an original idea of what the study was might not turn out to be that at all).
- What category or property of a category or what part of the emerging theory does this reading indicate? (As the theory became increasingly well formulated, this question became easier to answer. The continual asking of this question helped the researcher not to get lost in the rich data, and forced the generation of codes that related to other codes).
- What is actually happening in the data? What is the basic problem faced by the participants or the author? What accounts for their basic problem? What is the main story here and why? (All of these questions forced the generation of a core category or categories which formed the centre of the theory and its eventual description as documented in Chapter 6).

The above process is thus a microscopic analysis of the data, and this approach to open coding minimized the overlooking of important categories and led to a conceptually dense theory. Furthermore it ensured that nothing of great importance was left out of the product of this research, and directed both verification and qualification of the theory. However, when a code seemed relatively saturated, the data was read quickly when repetitions were found in the line-by-line examinations until something new was noticed. Then the microscopic examination began again. Open coding thus facilitated the theoretical sampling approach used, and continuously redirected the data collection method.

Thirdly, coding was frequently interrupted in order to document categories and evolving sub-categories on a separate sheet of paper. This led to continuously accumulated conceptual thoughts, and moved the researcher further from the data and into a more analytical realm.

In conclusion, the researcher did not assume the analytical relevance of any traditional variable such as age, gender, category of work, social class or race, unless it emerged as relevant. None of these variables earned its way into the developed theoretical model as these variables were not the focus of the research.

The open coding approach used thus enabled the production of codes and categories, and the process later began to slow down through the continual verifying that each code really did fit; eventually the code became saturated and was placed in relationship to other codes, including its relation to the core category.

Axial coding

In addition to open coding, axial coding, an essential aspect of open coding, was also used. According to Strauss (1993:32-33), axial coding entails analyzing the axis of one category at a time. The researcher carried out an intense analysis of each category generated, in terms of the coding paradigm items mentioned above. This resulted in cumulative knowledge about relationships between that category and other categories and sub-categories, and is explained in detail in the literature study and assimilated in the product of this research in Chapter 6. Axial coding did not take place during the early days or weeks when the initial data was collected and analyzed. However, it became increasingly prominent during the lengthy period of open coding, before the researcher became committed to a core category or categories. During the open coding period, the much directed axial coding alternated with open coding, especially as the researcher examined new aspects of HRD under consideration. It also ran parallel to the increasing number of relationships becoming specified among the many categories, irrespective of whether this part of the coding was done as intensively as the axial coding or not. Furthermore, within this increasingly dense texture of conceptualization, linkages were also being made with the category, or categories that eventually would be chosen as "core".

Selective coding

Selective coding pertains to coding systematically and concerted for the core category (Strauss, 1993:33). This means that the other codes become subservient to the key code under focus. To code selectively, then, means that the researcher delimits coding to only those codes that relate to the core codes in sufficiently significant ways as to be used in a parsimonious theory. The core code thus became a guide to further theoretical sampling and data collection. The researcher looked for the coding paradigms that related to the core category, coding for them. Selective coding, then, is different from open coding, but occurs within the context developed while doing open coding. During selective coding, understandably, the analytic memos become more focused, and aid in achieving the theory's integration. Selective coding can begin relatively early, but becomes increasingly dominant, since it is more self-consciously systematic than is open coding. In this study, selective coding was employed, but only when finalizing the theoretical model towards the end of the research.

As described by Strauss and Corbin (1990:58) the researcher experienced that the lines between, for example, open and axial coding are artificial. Each type of coding did not take place in sequence and the researcher moved without hesitation between the types of coding used.

Therefore, with disciplined execution of the above-mentioned coding process, the researcher collected local and international literature on the nature and importance of HRD, and after acquiring an in-depth overview of this literature, she started creating categories, or coding. The identification of these categories was an interpretive process which emerged from the data through distinguishing recurring ideas and themes. To identify the initial patterns, the researcher looked over the themes that were produced while coding. Analytic notes were made, from which relationships and themes began to emerge. These themes were then organized on a hierarchical basis, with each major theme containing sub-themes. This hierarchy was later cut and moved as the nature and importance of HRD within the South African context began to unfold, and connections and linkages could be made across categories.

During this last level of abstraction, cross-validation of the key themes and patterns was made.

Theoretical sampling techniques (Strauss, 1993:38) were then employed, by which the researcher decided, on analytical grounds, what literature to collect next and where to find it. The basic question that was asked every time literature was read was:

“*What* groups or subgroups of populations, events, or activities (to find varying dimensions, strategies) do I turn to next? For *what* theoretical purpose?”

Therefore, this process of data collection was controlled by the emerging theory. This analytical operation proved very useful as it quickly and efficiently enabled the theory to be developed.

As mentioned, the above process occurred simultaneously with informal reviews which were held with colleagues and clients about the emerging themes. The research required that the researcher be flexible and move between the stages mentioned in this section in order to refine her thinking and revisit her analysis. While many computerized tools like Ethnograph, NUD*IST and *Atlas-ti* are available for qualitative research analysis, the researcher preferred to use a manual coding paradigm system incorporating colour, which was rigorously executed in each piece of literature and data read. The researcher felt that computer-mediated analysis might destroy the sense of the whole understanding of the nature and importance of HRD, and might promote mechanistic superficiality in coding (Charmaz, 2000). Also, while these programs cannot substitute for reflective thinking by the researcher, the researcher acknowledges that it could save time, provide a means of looking across literature quickly for cross-comparisons if necessary, and assist in collaborative coding efforts (Weitzman, 2000). The coding of the literature was labour-intensive and took 24 months to be completed.

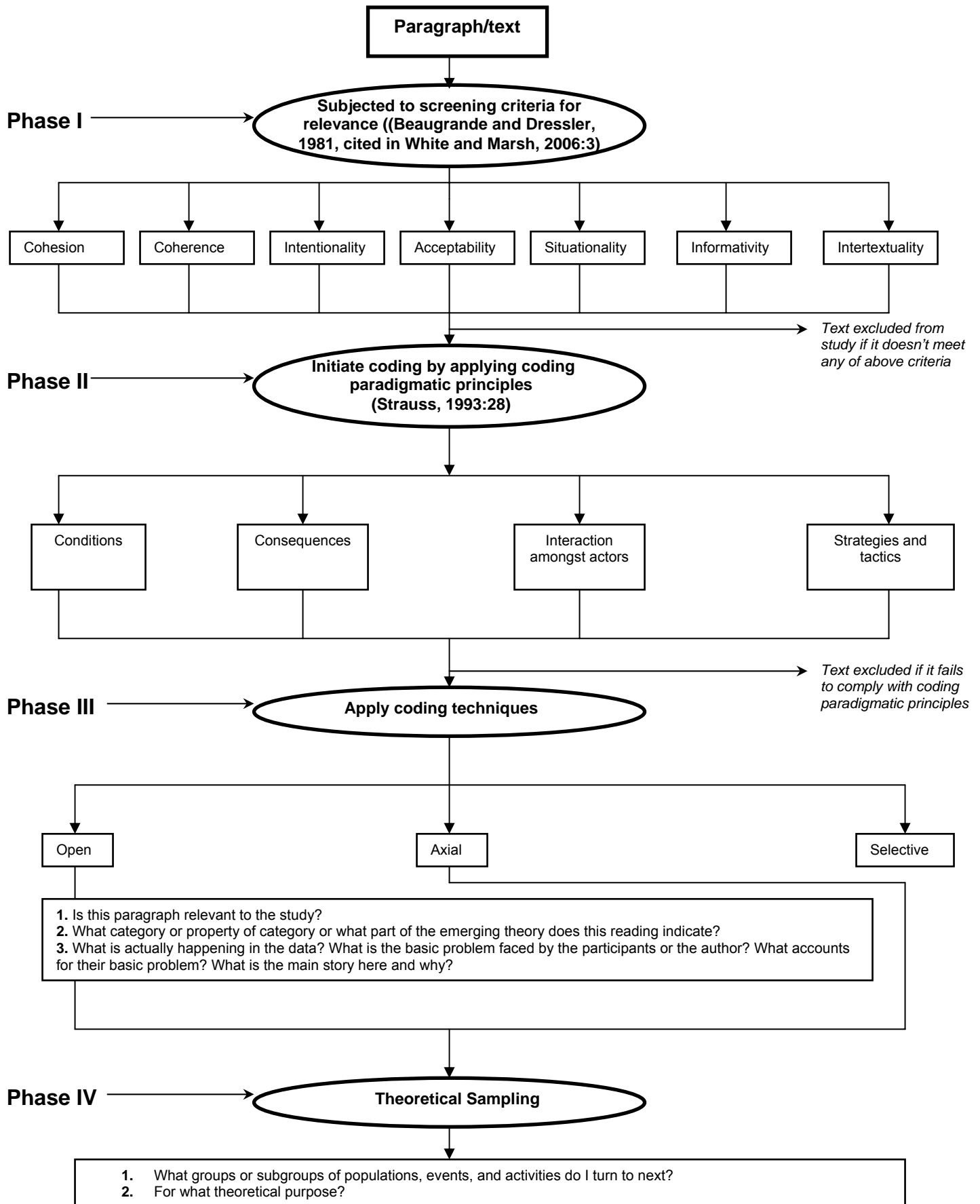
To support this analytical strategy, the researcher thus used social constructionist theory as an analytical construct on its own, which provided guidance for data analysis in this research. From Forrester’s (1980:557) perspective, “first-

hand knowledge can only be obtained by living and working where decisions are made.” With reference to this statement, the researcher lives in South Africa and works in an international HRD environment. During the analysis process the researcher had to give due consideration to the South African context; the time and events studied were of significant importance, especially the SAQA (2004, 2005) reports, which clearly indicated the South African need to evaluate the impact of the NQF after 10 years of democracy . Furthermore, the intention of the authors in their literary contributions became particularly important when using these publicly produced documents, and due consideration was given to all public documentation studied (Hodder, 2000; Tierney, 2000). The researcher used the theoretical sampling technique integrated with a snowball literature-collection technique, by asking leading scholars which books they recommended, studying the books read by good authors, and by sourcing literature from the year 2000 and beyond.

Throughout the analysis process, the researcher critically assessed all literature used as research evidence. The research process, as described above, was built on a chain of evidence to keep the process as transparent as possible, so that it is clearly visible how the literature was analyzed at each level of abstraction, to ultimately create a model which enables the desired understanding of local HRD.

In order to demonstrate the rigour of this process and make it more explicit, it is recommended that the diagrammatic representation of this process, illustrated as Figure 1 below, be consulted at this point, and read in conjunction with Appendix B.

FIGURE 1: Theory-building process using theoretical sampling and content analysis within a coding paradigm



Stage 6: Extract meaning.

The researcher was continuously immersed in the data, to allow the meaning and perspectives of the vast collection of authors to become evident, and to articulate from the information. Turnbull (2002:327) suggests that researchers, at this stage, undertake this step “with colleagues to allow for alternative explanations of the data to emerge, recognizing that each person will inevitably bring a single perspective to the data.” The researcher thus held informal reviews with colleagues who were HR and HRD practitioners in Africa, the Middle East, and South East Asia. Initially, the first question that these interviewees were asked was as follows:

The purpose of this research is to produce a tool which will best assist HRD scholars and practitioners to have a sound understanding of the nature and importance of HRD. In your opinion, which constructs should such a model consist of in order to enable and enhance such an understanding?

While the literature addresses the preparation and emphasizes the logistics, such as making appointments for the interviews, agreeing on the location, and respecting the time of the participants (Patton, 1990; Cresswell, 1994; Seidman, 1998), it was quite easy for the researcher to plan for such informal reviews as they were all linked to work-related interactions. In addition, the literature also deals with the interview process itself, offering important reminders such as establishing rapport, being aware of one’s own behaviour, listening critically and carefully, formulating other follow-on questions that may be necessary to more fully probe an issue, taking notes or requesting that the interview be recorded, and staying reasonably within the limits of the question protocols (Patton, 1990; Cresswell, 1994; Seidman, 1998). The researcher found that the reviews went smoothly, because it was part of the researcher’s daily function, and subsequently the researcher learned how to maintain self-awareness and self-objectivity. The researcher had established a rapport with colleagues and could thus use the informal review time efficiently.

After completing the informal reviews, the researcher would revisit the literature and document the categories advised by her colleagues and clients and incorporate

the contributions into the study. As the researcher gained more in-depth knowledge of the nature and importance of HRD, this information would be shared with colleagues and clients, and the only question they would be asked was:

Do you think that (a specific construct) will facilitate a shared and common understanding of HRD?

Their responses would once again be recorded and used during the coding process, especially axial coding. The researcher only engaged with the results of other studies of this nature (Jones, 2001) once coding and immersion in the information for this study had progressed substantially. As advised by Turnbull (2002), studying other available studies too early might have resulted in the likelihood of these influencing what the researcher saw in her own information, rather than allowing the information studied to speak for itself.

Interpretation and Presentation of Findings

Stage 7: Development of theoretical model.

This qualitative research study had theory building as its aim. At this stage in the process, the researcher was ready to put forward some tentative explanations to summarize the research undertaken. It is important to note that the knowledge sought by social constructionist research focuses on deepening our understanding of the social construction of reality within specific contexts, as well as understanding the social structures that create and constrain the meaning we put on our experiences. The model developed at this stage was developed for purposes of representation and for deepening understanding, preferring the more tentative possibility of looking for potential transferability into other situations and to more concrete assumptions of generalizability. This stage is presented in detail in Chapter 6.

Stage 8: Presentation of findings.

The presentation of the data is a crucial aspect of good qualitative research because the researcher does not have the support of quantitative data to legitimize findings. This means that the written account should be rigorous. It is likely that this will equate to “the social context in which the data has been gathered, the actors who

have been studied and the social action in which they have been involved” (Turnbull, 2002:328). The researcher considered a number of issues where progression took place from the literature study to developing the contribution of this study, as advised by Denzin and Lincoln (1994, cited in Turnbull, 2002:329). These considerations are also presented in Chapter 6.

Legitimacy of Using Social Constructionist Theory for Theory Building

The overall purpose of analyzing the information researched is to ensure that the theoretical model produced, which provides HRD scholars and practitioners with a tool that will enable a shared and common understanding of the nature and importance of HRD, is consistent with the literature study conducted. The researcher accessed as much local and international literature on HRD as was possible. Furthermore, information provided through informal reviews was analyzed, and all public SAQA documentation was studied, in particular the quantitative and qualitative results of the only longitudinal study conducted on the impact of the implementation of the South African NQF, as well as the model for HRD in South Africa developed by Jones (2001) as part of his Masters in Business Administration studies.

However, the use of the social constructionist approach to theory building continues to trigger debate. The main criticism of this paradigm lies in its rejection of objectivity and truth as being anything other than social constructs, and consequently, in its attachment to a definition of theory that rejects causal links in favour of explanation and illumination. Social constructionist theory building is derived from cases that are grounded in situated experience and practice, and are inductively derived. Although such theories are potentially transferable and applicable beyond the cases from which they emerge, social constructionists point to the complexity and variability of social relations to argue against any attempts to claim causality, generalizability, or repeatability in their theories (Turnbull, 2002:330).

In response to this criticism, the researcher defends this form of theory building as more closely representing an all-encompassing account of the nature and importance of HRD as a mixture of scholarly contributions, and to a lesser degree, the lived experience of HRD practitioners in South Africa, the United States of America and the United Kingdom, because some of the literature study included quantitative

and qualitative recordings of results from other research studies of which HRD practitioners were the samples (Ruona, 1999a; Jones, 2001; Lynham, 2002; SAQA, 2004, 2005). The researcher adopted this approach because the aim of the research was to present a much richer portrayal of the nature and importance of HRD in South Africa by robustly integrating and aligning the international perspectives with the unique South African context. Furthermore, the researcher aimed for an understanding and reconstruction of the reality of HRD in South Africa, and not for proof of what should or should not be included as an element of HRD. Supporting this approach is Hammersley (date, cited in Denzin and Lincoln, 1998a:288, cited in Turnbull, 2002:332) who state that “an account is valid or true if it represents accurately those features of the phenomena that it is intended to describe, explain or theorise”.

Validity and Reliability of the Research Method

Knowledge or theory accrues in a relative sense through the formation of ever more informed and sophisticated construction. However, Denzin and Lincoln (1998:414) believe that the claims inherent in this statement are as problematic as the claims made by those claiming validity using the old criteria. It is their opinion that a text can claim validity for the constructionist paradigm if “it is sufficiently grounded, triangulated, based on naturalistic indicators, carefully fitted to a theory and its concepts, comprehensive in scope, credible in terms of member checks, logical and truthful in terms of reflection of the phenomenon in question”. The technical language of reliability and validity was originally developed for use in quantitative research (Kirk and Miller, 1986). Social constructionist research has been reluctant to apply ideas of validity and reliability, as they might imply acceptance of one absolute positivist reality. However, there is a growing recognition of the significance of qualitative research which implies that social constructionists like the researcher must be able to persuade HRD scholars and professionals and the wider community that the results of such research should be taken seriously. Silverman (2000) suggests several principles which safeguard researchers from having their research dismissed, namely refutability, constant comparison, comprehensive data treatment, and tabulations. The researcher explored all possible examples relevant to the research purpose, and

the literature study bears testimony to the diverse range of examples which contest existing beliefs. By constantly comparing the international and South African literature, the researcher was also able to follow some of the principles of grounded theory by looking for new cases and settings which stretched the current theory. Furthermore, the researcher spent 2003, 2004 and 2005 carrying out an analysis of literature available on HRD, using a theoretical sampling technique subjected to stringent content analysis selection criteria within a rigorous coding paradigm before embarking on coding and categorizing the data. The researcher also tabulated data when organizing the themes into hierarchical and sub-themes, which resulted in greater rigour.

To further entrench the validity and reliability of the research method employed, Guba and Lincoln (1998:213) have proposed a number of criteria for judging the goodness or quality of qualitative inquiry. They are credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability, which replace positivism's internal and external validity, reliability, and objectivity. Before exploring these criteria, it must be borne in mind that the authenticity of the research inquiry should be judged according to the declared purpose of the research, which in this case is to advance knowledge of HRD and subsequently improve HRD practices. Social constructionist theory building does not rely on statistical generalization but upon analytical generalization, where the researcher strives to inductively extract from evidence a broader theoretical construct. Furthermore, the researcher found that the social constructionist theory building approach lacked guiding principles for filtering the great volumes of data, rejecting irrelevant information, taking relevant information, and structuring it into model components without using significant intuitive inference. This experience was also cited by Turnbull (2002:330-333). However, the researcher then used the seven criteria for defining a text and the stringent coding paradigm as a means to gather relevant literary works of leading local and international scholars, recordings of informal reviews with colleagues and clients, studying the qualitative and quantitative results of the SAQA (2004, 2005) longitudinal study and the Masters treatise of Jones (2001), and arriving at a well-coded chain of evidence, which addresses issues of rigour (Parkhe, 1993). As Minzberg (1979) says, all research

involves a creative leap from data to explanation, regardless of whether or not the evidence is quantitatively or qualitatively based. The literary works of leading HRD authors in the United States of America, the United Kingdom and South Africa were considered. To strengthen the robustness of social constructionist theory-building research, the research design had to address the replication logic in terms of selecting literature that dealt with HRD in general. Both research budgets and time parameters can be easily exceeded if the planning for a research project is not completed at a sufficient level of detail (Perry, 1998, cited in April, 2004). It is precisely for these reasons that the researcher opted for literary units of analysis. The researcher is of the opinion that this study clearly gained access to the perceptions of HRD scholars and practitioners on the nature and importance of HRD, albeit secondarily through the literature and covertly by the researcher. In addition, a detailed explanation has been given of how the researcher made sense of the raw literature on HRD. Also, the concepts and constructs derived from this study do have relevance to other settings, in that the product of this research could be used to elicit discussion about the nature and importance of HRD in academic and organizational settings internationally. Therefore, as suggested by Guba and Lincoln (1985, 1998:213), all research should respond to principles which stand as criteria against which the trustworthiness of any research should be evaluated. So, with due consideration to the above explanations and by reading of the rest of this thesis, the credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability of this research should manifest as follows:

1. Credibility: the researcher provides a comprehensive description and interpretation of the nature and importance of HRD as sourced from the literary works of leading international and local HRD scholars and practitioners. In addition, the unique South African context, amidst all its socio-economic-political and legislative complexities, has been explained in detail.
2. Transferability: data from international resources were utilized to corroborate, elaborate or illuminate the various constructs dealt with and developed in this research. Therefore, the researcher believes, as cited by de Vos *et al.*, (2002), that those who conduct research within the same or different parameters of this

research, can select those constructs developed in this research which are fit for the purpose of their context, or alternatively use the tool to initiate the re-development of a tool which would suit their context and purpose.

3. Furthermore, as supported by Guba and Lincoln (1985), the applicability of one set of findings to another context rests more with the investigator who is making the transfer than with the original researcher.
4. Dependability: this research attempts to account for changing conditions in understanding the nature and importance of HRD by including consideration to the future sustainability of HRD demonstrated by the insertion of Pathway 6 in the contribution of this research. This inclusion reflects a refined understanding of the setting in which HRD resides and its existence in a rapidly changing global environment, and should thus confirm dependability.
5. Confirmability: this research is confirmable in that it captures the traditional concept of objectivity as advised by Guba and Lincoln (1985). They emphasise the need to ask whether the findings of one study can be confirmed by another. Therefore, evaluation is removed from some inherent characteristic of the researcher, and places objectivity solely on the data and literary presentation in this research.

Alvesson and Skoldberg (2000, cited in Turnbull, 2002:332) suggest that good qualitative research should be “rich in points” by which they meant interpretively rich. They cite studies by Jackall (1998), Mintzberg (1973) and Kunda (1992) as being “rich in points” and examples of good theory building within the qualitative paradigm (Turnbull, 2002:332). Turnbull (2002) agrees with Alvesson and Skoldberg (2000) and is of the opinion that the study conducted by Watson (1994) is also interpretively rich. The researcher managed to obtain details of the study conducted by Watson (1994, cited in Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002) and Mintzberg (1973), in order to gain further insight into an example of a study which meets Guba and Lincoln’s (1985) criteria of being credible, transferable, dependable and confirmable.

Whatever the strategies adopted, the results of constructionist research should be believable, and they should be reached through methods that are transparent. It is

for this reason that the researcher has explained the research process in detail in this chapter.

Conclusion

Undoubtedly, qualitative research is still on trial by the HRD fraternity. The researcher therefore made sure to read the good example of the social constructionist theory building work of Watson (1994, cited in Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002) and Mintzberg (1973) to ensure that the appropriate principles were applied, so that rigour was not compromised in this study. Furthermore, the researcher replaced rigid techniques and procedures with interpretive and theoretical awareness and sensitivity as a means of achieving qualitative rigour. This research endeavour was exploratory in nature, and therefore suited to a qualitative, interpretive, content analytical design. The purpose was to provide a tool which will enable a shared and common understanding of the nature and importance of HRD within the South African context. Using the data-gathering techniques of informal reviews, document analysis, and an extensive literature study, this study has generated such an instrument, which can facilitate a richer and more comprehensive understanding of HRD in South Africa. The analytical techniques for both data gathering and analysis were mostly qualitative in nature; more specifically, manual colour coding formed the basis upon which a social constructionist theory building approach to analysis was used. Analysis of existing longitudinal studies by SAQA and the results of a study conducted by (Jones, 2001) were also included in the study design, to expand the understanding of specific research occurring in South Africa, as well as to cross-validate the international and South African literature. Informal reviews were included as another means of cross-validating findings. These informal reviews were conducted to provide the link with HRD practice. More importantly, the research process was iterative and cyclical, and though the process was documented in various stages, the steps were executed in an integrated and non-sequential manner.

A profound characteristic and function of theory building is to "make explicit the explanations and understandings of how the world is and how it works, and, by doing so, make transferable, informed knowledge for improved understanding and action in the world explicit rather than implicit" (Lynham, 2002:223). The following three

chapters will make explicit the understanding of the nature and importance of HRD in South Africa, and enable the production of a tool which will enhance HRD practice and be a significant contribution specifically to the discipline of HRD within the South African context, but which should find purpose and use in international contexts as well.

CHAPTER 3

THEORY AND PHILOSOPHICAL UNDERPINNINGS OF HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT

Introduction

There is a growing recognition of the significance of theory building in advancing and maturing the thoughts and practices in Human Resources Development. HRD is concerned with practice, and thus the discussions in the field often focus on the *how* rather than probe for deeper understanding of the *what* and the *why* of HRD phenomena (Chalofsky, 1996; Ruona, 1999b; Lynham, 2000:159).

The use of a good theory is most beneficial to HRD. Turnbull (2002:221) states that there are universal, erroneous assumptions that exist about the nature and utility of theory namely, that:

1. Theory is disconnected and removed from practice.
2. The process of theory construction happens in isolation of the real world.
3. Those who engage in theory building or development are not the same people who engage in practice or live in the real world.
4. Usefulness and application are optional outcomes of theory.

It is critical for HRD scholars to strive to eradicate these deeply held false assumptions by building sound HRD theory in order to enable:

1. Advancement and professionalism in and maturity of the field
2. Dissolution of the tension between HRD research and practice
3. Development of multiple and inclusive methods of research for the theory building and practice of HRD.

HRD practitioners need to draw situationally upon as many theories as required in pursuit of their work (Lewin, 1951, cited in Swanson, 2001). Critics have reprimanded the large number of HRD practitioners and commercial HRD products for being atheoretical (Holton III, 1996; Micklethwait and Wooldridge, 1996; Swanson, 1996), meaning that there is no thorough scholarly or scientific basis for the ideas and products that are being promoted. Furthermore, the HRD professional must encourage and respect a full continuum of theory engagement. All academic and

practising researchers should have forums where there is an opportunity for additional reflection, in an effort to advance and enrich development.

Lynham (2000) stresses the importance of theory building to the maturing of the HRD profession. All organizations and the people within them are faced with meeting the constant demand for high performance. In the absence of a theoretically sound model of HRD within the context of organization and improvement, practitioners have to start from scratch to build strategies for every HRD challenge they face, or worse, simply bulldoze ahead in a trial-and-error mode (Swanson, 2001:303). Ruona (1999b) adds that the non-existence of a specified theoretical foundation simply supports vacuums and negates direction, continuity, and a deep understanding of HRD.

Swanson (2001) is of the opinion that there are various theoretical constraints impacting upon HRD:

1. HRD is a relatively embryonic academic field of study and is still maturing; the stage of maturation varies within countries and between countries.
2. The majority of academic areas of study are applied fields, and draw upon multiple theories in articulating their disciplinary base.
3. Most disciplines are rooted in a set of theories that are uniquely blended for the purpose of the discipline. Often their core theories are shared by other disciplines.

Contrary to Turnbull's (2002) third assumption, the researcher actively engages in practice and works in an international HRD environment. According to the reliable academic databases mentioned in Chapter 1, only one postgraduate research study was conducted on the nature of HRD, which supports the belief of Holton III (1999), Micklethwait and Wooldridge (1996), and Swanson (1996), and the researcher can conclude that no thorough South African intellectual foundation exists for the HRD thoughts and practices that are being advanced. Furthermore, South African HRD practitioners start from scratch to develop strategies for the HRD challenges which they encounter, because no theoretically sound model of HRD within the South African organizational context exists. While the nature of HRD in South Africa is fairly embryonic, the researcher believes that this research will make a

significant contribution to the HRD discipline and simultaneously reduce any tension that may exist between HRD research and practice. This chapter thus serves to delineate the nature and importance of theory, and particularly demarcates a broad and able-bodied foundational theory of HRD that serves to articulate its theoretical composition. The philosophical underpinnings of HRD and its positioning in the theory and practice of HRD are also explored.

What is Theory?

The conceptualization of theory is defined in almost as many ways as there are authors. Kurt Lewin (1951, in Swanson, 2001:299), presents a profound explanation of theory namely that “a good theory is something that is thorough and that has been tested both intellectually and in practice.” Dubin (1978:26) defines “theory” as “the attempt of man to model some theoretical aspect of the real world.” Torraco (1997:115) simplifies this definition by stating that “a theory simply explains what a phenomenon is and how it works.” Bacharach (1989:496) states that theory is a “statement of relationships between units observed or approximated in the empirical world.” Alvesson and Deetz (2000:37) suggest that theory can be construed as “a way of seeing and thinking.” Senge *et al.*, (1994:29) describe theory as “a fundamental set of propositions about how the world works, which has been subject to repeated tests and in which we have some confidence.” The definition offered by Gioia and Pitre (1990:587) that “theory is a coherent description, explanation, and representation of observed or experienced phenomena” is also profound.

The choice of definition of theory is an essential issue in theory building. A lack of definitional consensus could be problematic because what is taken to be theory can range from unsupported models, metaphors, perceptions, and conceptual frameworks to rigorously researched, tested, and verified scientific knowledge claims of phenomena in the real world (Cohen, 1991; Reynolds, 1971, cited in Lynham, 2000:165). The definition of theory by Gioia and Pitre (1990) above, encouraged Lynham (2000:162) to define theory building as “the process or recurring cycle by which coherent descriptions, explanations and representations of observed or experienced phenomena are generated, verified and refined.” A profound characteristic and function of theory building is thus to make unambiguous the

explanations and understandings of how the world is and how it works, and, by doing so, make transferable, informed knowledge for improved understanding and action in the world explicit rather than implicit (Lynham, 2002). This is why recognizing that the gap between our espoused theories (what we say) and theories-in-use (the theories that lie behind our actions) is critical, as non-identification of this gap will not allow learning to take place (Senge, 1990). It is analysis of this gap and the synergy between what we say and how we act that ultimately indicates good HRD theory and will promote its utility.

The definitions provided by Senge (1990) that a theory is “a fundamental set of propositions about how the world works, which has been subject to repeated tests and in which we have some confidence” and that offered by Gioia and Pitre (1990) that “theory is a coherent description, explanation, and representation of observed or experienced phenomena,” cover all the meanings relevant to the purpose of this research. Both definitions imply that a theory should articulate the mechanisms of how our world functions, through using tools of thought, perception, and observation, while simultaneously generating trust and conviction in the contribution that it makes. This contribution will articulate the nature and importance of HRD within the South African context by using a rigorous qualitative, social constructionist research approach. Furthermore, considering the South African socio-economic-political history, eliciting confidence in the product of this research is critical to maturing the HRD profession in South Africa.

Theoretical Foundation of HRD

The nature and importance of HRD are discussed in greater detail in Chapter 4, but in order to provide substance to the theoretical underpinnings of HRD, it is important to provide an inaugural platform of the meaning and scope of HRD for the purpose of this research. After an extensive literature study (see Chapter 4), and finding appropriate South African significance in the contributions of Swanson and Holton III (2001:90), HRD is defined as a process of developing and/or releasing human capability through organizational development (OD) and people training and development (T&D) based on the premise of enhancing performance. According to this definition, the following hold true:

1. The domains of performance include the organization, work process, and group/individual levels.
2. OD is the process of systematically implementing organizational change for the purpose of improving performance.
3. T&D is the process of systematically developing expertise in individuals for the purpose of improving performance.
4. The three critical application areas of HRD include Human Resource Management (HRM), career development, and quality improvement.

In support of some beliefs (Ruona, 1999b; Lynham, 2000; Swanson, 2001) and with due consideration of the South African context, it is imperative to have a common mental model of HRD so that scholars and practitioners are able to make sense of the complexity and context surrounding the work and practice of HRD in South Africa.

The most widely recognized description of the theory underlying the discipline of HRD is contributed by Swanson (2001:93) and is represented as a three-legged stool. A summary will be provided of this most compelling and comprehensive depiction of HRD theory, which serves as a springboard on which the theoretical foundations of HRD for the South African context are based, and which is presented in detail in Chapter 5 and 6.

An Introduction to the "Three-legged Stool"

The three core HRD components of theories and their integration are visually portrayed as the three-legged stool which seats the unique and holistic theory of HRD that is a model for practice (Figure 2). The stool rests on the floor (or the host organization) and must be placed on a rug. The rug, representing ethics, acts as a permeable membrane, and ensures the preservation of the integrity of both HRD and the host organization

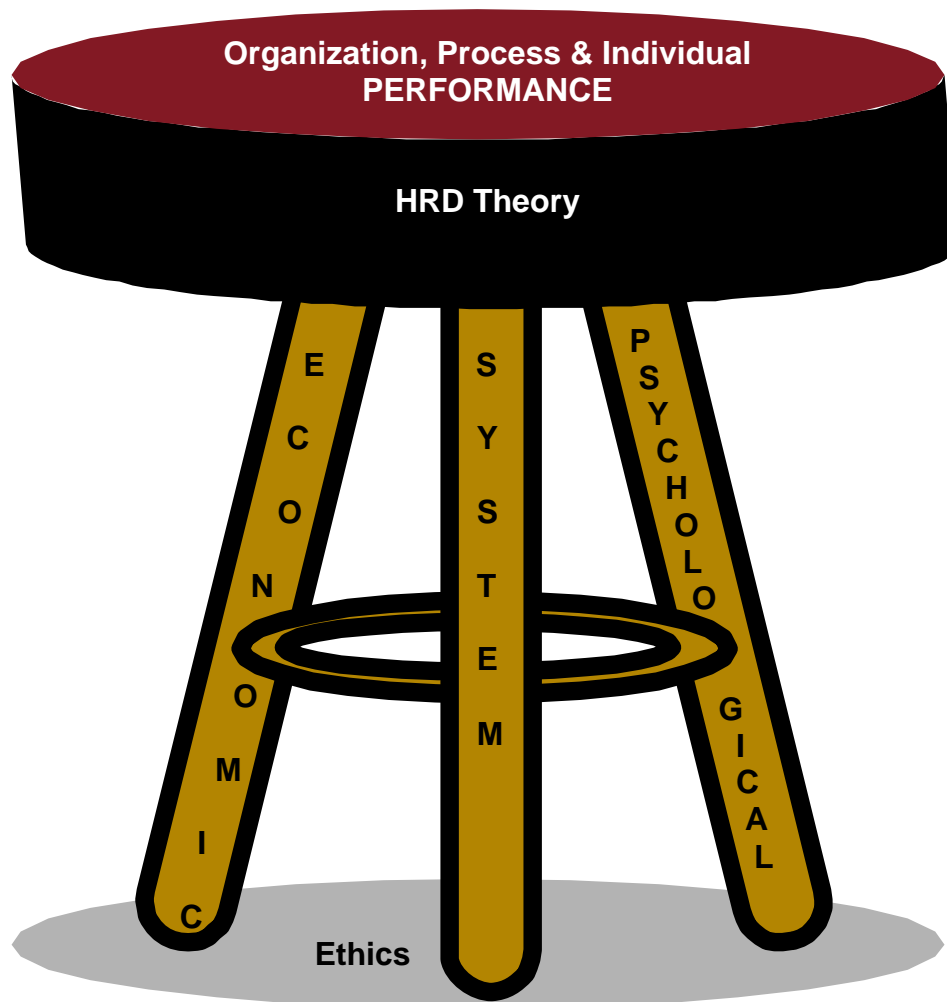
An Introduction to the Core Theories

It is extensively recognized that HRD is a discipline entrenched in multiple theories. These multiple entrenched theories serve as a solid foundation that is essential to the survival of HRD. Indeed, Warfield (1995:81) regards the specification of foundations as central to the progress of a discipline when he states that "science

is a body of knowledge consisting of three variously integrated components namely, foundations, theory and methodology.”

Currently, no universal view or accord exists on the theory or multiple theories that maintain HRD as a discipline. Contemporary practitioners have short-term perceptions of success without having a sound understanding or the ability to replicate results. Consequently, Swanson and Holton III (2001) propose a discrete and logical set of foundational theories for HRD. These comprise Psychological theory, Economic theory, and System theory (Passmore, 1997; Swanson, 1995). It is believed that these three theories, more than any others, make up the foundational theory of HRD and respond to the realities of practice. Each of these theories is unique, robust, and complementary to the others, and the integration of these three theories is at the heart of the discipline of HRD, while ethics plays a significant moderating role. The discipline of HRD thus relies on these three core theories so that it can be understood, explained, and executed. According to Swanson (2001) and a host of leading HRD scholars, it is unquestionable that Psychological, Economic and Systems theories are core to HRD.

FIGURE 2: The theoretical foundations of human resource development



Source: Modified from Swanson and Holton III (2001:303)

The contribution by Swanson and Holton III (2001) seems to be the most compelling aggregate of the foundations of HRD theory, and the essence of their proposal is considered below:

1. Psychological theory captures the core human aspects of developing human resources as well as the socio-technical interplay of humans and systems.
2. Economic theory captures the core issues of the efficient and effective utilization of resources to meet productive goals in a competitive environment.

3. Systems theory captures the complex and dynamic interactions of environments, organizations, work processes, and group/individual variables operating at any point in time and over time.

The overarching principles of HRD practice are that HRD must integrate the psychological, economic and system theories into disciplined thinking and action; they must be understood not only individually but more importantly in totality and integration. This Gestalt psychology and System theory inform us of the strength of having a sound understanding of the whole and the vigour of a fully functioning whole. The entirety of any integrated performance enhancement theory will be greater than the sum of the parts. On their own, the parts are insufficient, and would produce unsustainable results for HRD (Swanson, 2001). The core theories are expounded upon as follows:

The principles of economic theory for HRD practice.

Why does responsible HRD not include direct analysis, action, and measurement of economic outcomes? Arguments have been and are being made for including economics as a core element of HRD's theoretical foundation. Economics addresses the allocation of resources among a variety of human wants. It represents human wants and the scarcity of resources as essential and perennial elements in the study of any human activity (Swanson, 2001:109).

The economic principles of HRD revolve around managing scarce resources, and the production of wealth (Swanson and Holton III, 2001:95). When people talk about performance, they usually make mental conversions of performance units into monetary units. HRD itself has costs and benefits that need to be understood, and which are not always positive. A better understanding of the theory and practice of HRD will facilitate the maturity of the HRD profession. Therefore, at this stage, HRD must be addressed through sound economic theory and practice. Three specific economic theory perspectives are believed to be most appropriate to the discipline of HRD:

Scarce resource theory.

This theory informs us that there are limitations in money, raw materials, time (and so on), which require us to make choices as to how capital will be utilized in

order to gain the greatest return. HRD must therefore justify its use of scarce resources.

Sustainable resource theory.

This theory is much like scarce resource theory, except for the concern over the long-term versus the short-term agenda. This means that HRD must add value to creating sustainable long-term economic performance.

Human capital theory.

Like other social sciences, economics deals with human behaviour that cannot be controlled, as can, for example, the physical mechanism used by an engineer. Human capital theory is considered the branch of economics most applicable to HRD.

In the United States in the 1950's, the main factors of production consisted of four traditional issues, namely physical capital, labour, land, and management. In the early 1960's, economic growth accounting studies explained the growth of the economy in terms of these four traditional factors of production. However, the income growth accounting equations never balanced. There existed a gap, and Nafukho *et al.*, (2003) cites the observation of Shultz (1961), a Nobel Prize Winner, that the gap is human capital. This was the origin of the important term "human capital," despite Gary S. Becker generally being credited as the leading developer of human capital theory (Swanson, 2001:109). Emphasizing the social and economic importance of human capital theory, Becker (1993:27, in Swanson and Holton III, 2001:109) quotes the economist Alfred Marshall's dictum that "the most valuable of all capital is that invested in human beings."

Nafukho *et al.*, (2003) allude to Shultz (1961, in Nafukho *et al.*, 2003:6), who stated that "The fundamental principle that underpins human capital theory is the belief that people's learning capacities are comparable to other resources involved in the production of goods and services and when the resource is effectively utilized, the results are profitable both for the individual and the society at large." The well-respected theory of human capital, just like the field of HRD, has faced a great deal of criticism in its early development. Some scholars have even refused to define HRD; however, the HRD discipline is gaining ground in organizations and in all nations the world over.

Table 7 shows the points of analysis that were compiled from the review of the literature and published in the Referred Proceedings of the Academy of Human Resource Development Annual Research Conference (2003:975-981, in Nofukho *et al.*, 2003). These points of analysis include the scholar's name, date of publication, definitions associated with human capital, and the dependent variable associated with each definition.

TABLE 7: Definitions of the theory of human capital by leading economics scholars

AUTHOR	YEAR	DEFINITION	DEPENDENT VARIABLE
Shultz, T.W.	1961	Defines the theory of human capital as the knowledge and skills that people acquire through education and training as being a form of capital, and that [sic] this capital is a product of deliberate investment that yields returns.	Investment in people that yields returns.
Mincer, J.	1962	Defines the theory of human capital as education and schooling that will prepare the labour force.	Better prepared labour force.
Denison, E.F.	1962	Defines the theory of human capital as a form of education that contributes to economic growth by attributing a proportion of economic growth not explained by increases in capital, labour and educational levels in the labour force.	Improvement in the labour force.
Becker, G.S.	1964	Defines the theory of human capital as a form of investment by individuals in education up to the point where the returns in extra income are equal to the costs of participating in education. Returns are both private to the individual in the form of additional income and to the general society in the	Private and social returns.

		form of greater productivity provided by the educated.	
Bowman, M.J.	1968	Defines the theory of human capital as a form of investment and argues that expenditures on social services, health and education are analogous to investment in physical capital.	Investment.
Blaug, M.	1976	Defines human capital as the idea that people spend on themselves in diverse ways, by purchasing education and training not for the sake of present enjoyments, but for the sake of future pecuniary and non-pecuniary returns. Individuals and governments incur both direct and indirect costs and that [sic] there exists a link between investment in education and individuals' lifetime earnings.	Pecuniary and non-pecuniary returns.
Psacharopoulos, G. & Woodhall, M.	1985	Define human capital as investing in both formal and informal education and training which provides and enhances individual productivity by providing knowledge, skills, and attitudes and motivation necessary for economic and social development.	Productivity.
Romer, P.M.	1986	Defined [sic] human capital in the form of a "new growth theory" which regards knowledge creation as endogenous responding to market incentives such as improved profit opportunities or better education. This definition includes technology and uses this theory to explain the pace of technological change currently taking place in the world.	Improved profit.
Psacharopoulos, G.	1987	Defines human capital as being formed through investment in education and	Increased productivity.

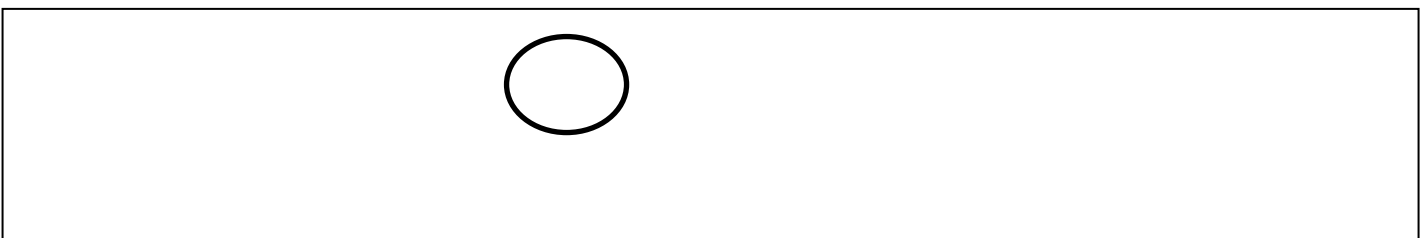
		training. This results in increased productivity among the employees at the work place.	
Romer, P.M.	1987	Defines human capital as a continuation of the growth theory, which regards knowledge as more endogenous. Increasing returns to organizations are due to investment in human capital through specialization.	Increasing stock of knowledge.
Romer, P.M.	1990	Defines human capital within the endogenous growth model as the amount of total stock of human capital that an organization, country, or economy has. The economy with a larger total stock of human capital will experience a faster rate of growth.	Faster rate of growth.
Becker, G.S., Murphy, K.M. & Tamura, R.	1990	Define human capital in the form of the fertility model and argues that there is a correlation between family size and the decision to invest in human capital. Therefore societies with small families have invested in human capital and have benefited from more economic growth.	Faster economic growth.
Cohn, E. & Geske, T.E.	1990	Define human capital as an investment in education and training that has both private and social returns.	Increased productivity.
Becker, G.S.	1991	Defines the theory of human capital in terms of investment in an individual's education and training which is similar to business investments in equipment.	Employment and earnings.
Bontis, N.	1996	Defines human capital theory in terms of expenditures made by individuals and governments by purchasing education and training as an investment. This investment is expected to yield future pecuniary and non-pecuniary returns.	Yields pecuniary and non-pecuniary returns.

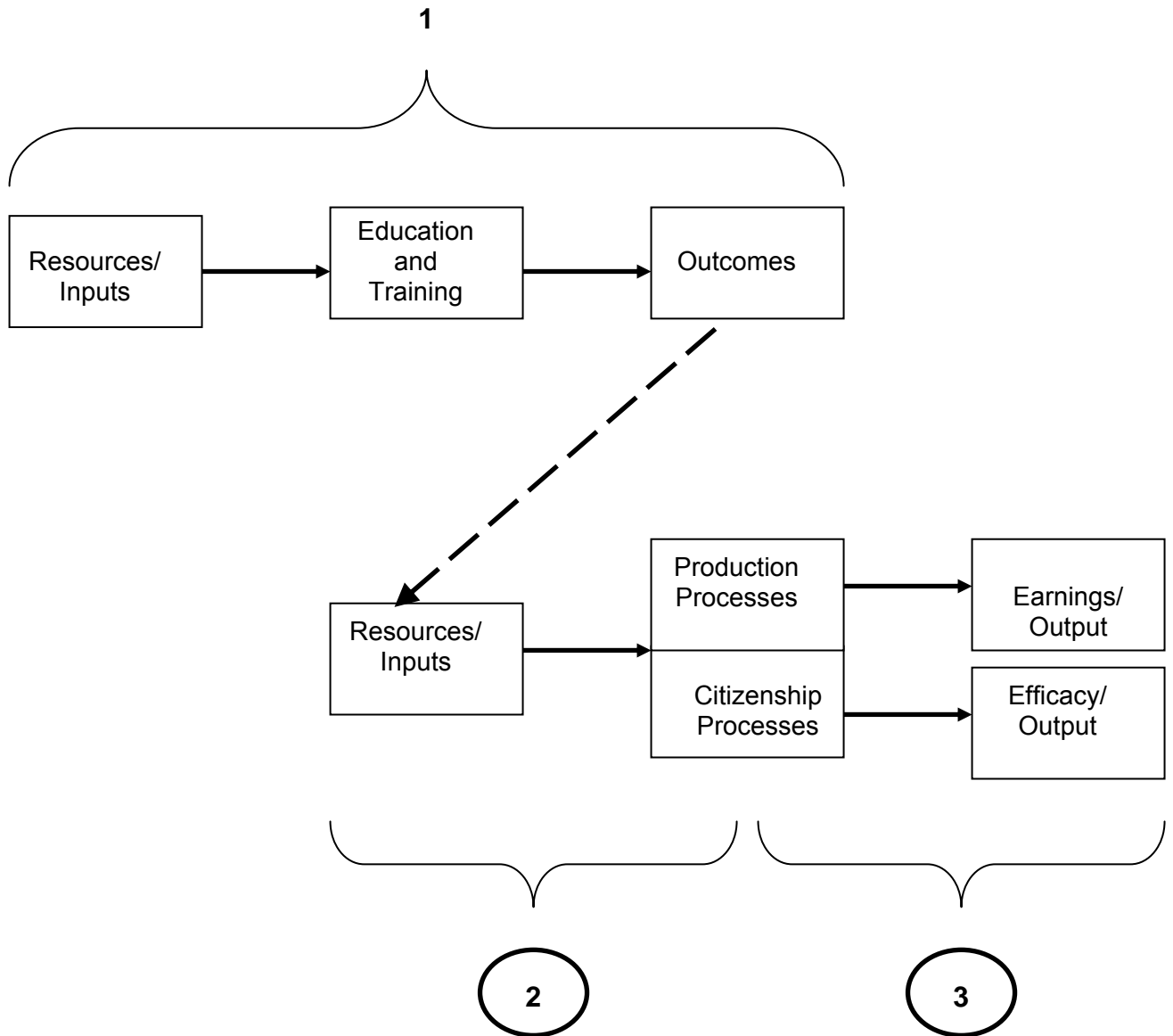
Fitz-Enz, J.	2000	Defines human capital as the traits one brings to the job: intelligence, fulfilling work energy, a generally positive attitude, reliability, and commitment. One's ability to learn: aptitude, imagination, creativity, and what is often called "street smart" savvy (how to get things done). One's motivation to share information and knowledge: team spirit and goal orientation.	Getting things done.
David, J. and Lopez, J.	2001	Define human capital as acquired human capabilities, which are durable traits, yielding some positive effects upon performance in socially valued activities.	Durable traits yielding some positive effects upon performance.

Source: Nafukho, F.M. *et al.*, (2003)

The above tabulated evolving definitions of human capital theory helped the researcher to understand the impact that this theory has had on HRD. Furthermore, this chronological scrutiny enabled the researcher to thoroughly view the contextual elements that cultivated the relationship between the theory and the field of HRD. Key relationships and assumptions of human capital theory are denoted in Figure 3 below, by the encircled numbers 1, 2, and 3.

FIGURE 3: A model of human capital theory





Source: Swanson and Holton III (2001:110)

1. *Relationship 1* represents the concept of production functions as applied to education and training. The key assumption underlying this relationship is that investments in education and training result in increased learning.
2. *Relationship 2* represents the human capital relationship between learning and increased productivity. The key assumption underlying this

relationship is that increased learning does, in fact, result in increased productivity.

3. *Relationship 3* represents the human capital relationship between increased productivity and increased wages and business earnings. The key assumption underlying this relationship is that greater productivity does, in fact, result in higher wages for individuals and earnings for business. An equally important human capital relationship represented by relationship 3 is the one between the citizenship processes affected by education (e.g. community involvement, voting) and enhanced social efficacy.

The entire human capital continuum represented in the figure, namely, all the bracketed relationships as a single continuum, is assessed using ROI analysis or cost-benefit analysis. According to Swanson and Holton III (2001), this means that HRD must add short- and long-term value from investments in the development of knowledge and expertise in individuals and groups of individuals.

Organizations are economic entities, and since HRD takes place in these economic entities, it must appeal to Economic theory at its core (Drucker, 1964).

The Principles of Psychological Theory for HRD Practice.

The psychology principles for practice revolve around the mental processes of humans and the determinants of human behaviour. The discipline and profession of HRD will mature as the three psychology sub-theories (referred to below) are interpreted in terms of the theory and practice relevant to HRD. While the psychological propositions appear to be basic and simple, they are habitually ignored in practice.

Gestalt psychology.

“Gestalt” is the German term for configuration or organization. Gestalt psychology states that people append something to experience that is not enclosed in the sensory data, and that we experience and encounter the world in meaningful wholes (Hergenhahn and Olson, 1993). HRD must therefore clarify the goals of individual contributors, work-process owners, and/or organizational leaders.

Behavioural psychology.

This psychology is concerned with that which is observable, and therefore, “behaviour” is what is studied. HRD must therefore develop the knowledge and expertise of individual contributors, work-process owners, and/or organization leaders.

Cognitive psychology (purposive behaviourism).

The term “purposive behaviourism” is the archetype in this important perspective from psychology (Tolman, 1932). It endeavours to elucidate goal-directed behaviour and the belief that human beings organize their lives around purposes. Cognitive psychology makes an effort to amalgamate theory from Gestalt and Behavioural psychology. HRD must therefore harmonize the goals and behaviours among individual contributors, work-process owners, and/or organization leaders.

Since HRD takes place in organizations that are psychologically framed by those who invented them, operate in them, and renew them, HRD must call on psychology as being core (Dubin, 1976; Argyris, 1993; Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1993). Table 8 below summarizes the three foundational theories discussed above, the leading representative scholars and their particular contributions to the discipline of HRD.

TABLE 8: Foundational psychological theories and their contribution

Foundation Theory	Representative Theorists	Contributions to HRD
Gestalt	Wertheimer, Kofka, Kohler, Lewin	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on the whole person • Holistic view of organizations and

		individuals
Behaviourism	Watson, Pavlov, Thorndike	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How external environments affect human behaviour • Reward and motivation systems • Goal setting
Cognitive	Piaget, Bruner, Tolman	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How humans process information • Foundation for instructional design • How humans make meaning of their experiences

Source: Swanson and Holton III (2001:102)

The Principles of Systems Theory for HRD Practice.

Systems theory is concerned with systems, wholes, and organizations (Swanson and Holton, 2001:114). The Systems theory principles for practice are rudimentary in nature. These ideologies require serious thinking, sound theory-building research, and the utilization of new tools for sound practice. Swanson and Holton III (2001) suggest that a comprehensive quest of the following uncomplicated propositions in HRD would reshape the HRD purpose and the tools utilized in practice. Three specific Systems theory perspectives are proposed:

General systems theory.

This theory forces us to talk intelligently about inputs, processes, outputs, and feedback. It informs us of the reality of open systems versus closed systems, of the fact that systems engineering focuses on the less dynamic aspects of organization, and of the limitations of a single personality theory in predicting human behaviour (Von Bertalanffy, 1968). This means that HRD must understand how it and other subsystems connect and disconnect from the host organization.

Chaos theory.

“Where chaos begins, classical science stops ... chaos is a science of process, rather a state of becoming than of being” (Gleick, 1987:3-5). This theory purposefully acknowledges and studies phenomena that are disorganized and that do not seem to abide by rules and regulations. This means that HRD must help its host organization retain its purpose and effectiveness, given the chaos it faces.

Futures theory.

This theory is “not necessarily interested in predicting the future, it is about the liberation of people’s insights” (Schwartz, 1996:9). The Futures theory in no way resembles the reductionistic view of most strategic planning efforts that end up with a single strategy. The purpose of the language and tools of alternative futures and scenario building is to create an accurate portrait of the facts, the potential flux in those facts, and the decision-making dexterity required of the future. Furthermore, Futures theory is critical for sustainable performance in that it prepares one to be acquainted with and able to cope with an evolving future state. This means that HRD must help its host organization shape alternative futures (Swanson and Holton III, 2001).

Von Bertalanffy (1968), who is widely acknowledged as the father of General Systems theory, does not offer one clear definition, but rather focuses on describing its scope and meaning. Its scope has been highlighted in the above discussion on General Systems, Chaos and Futures theories. A synthesis of literature illuminates the fact that the term “Systems theory” has a few distinct meanings. It can be:

1. *an ontology*: a philosophy of nature and systems. At its most fundamental level, it is a belief about the world, that the world is made up of set(s) of interacting components, and that those sets of interacting components have properties that, when viewed as a whole, do not exist within any of the smaller units (Heylighten and Joslyn, 1992).
2. *an epistemology*: a way to view or understand the world. Systems thinking (theory) fosters a way of understanding the world in a more holistic way, demanding that the pieces of the world are not viewed separately. Rather, it provides a way to see and know the world, realizing the connections and dynamics that make the whole something more than the sum of its parts.

Although “Systems theory” encompasses the two distinct meanings described above, Laszlo and Laszlo (1997:8) capture the somewhat indescribable meaning of the theory when they state that:

Systems sciences defy classification as constituting either an epistemology or ontology. Rather, they are reminiscent of the Greek notion of gnosis concerned with holistic and integrative exploration of phenomena and events. There are aspects of the systems approach that are ontological and aspects that are epistemological, and aspects that are both at once and should not be circumscribed to either.

3. *a unifying theory*: in that it provides a “framework or structure on which to hang the flesh and blood of particular disciplines and particular subject matters in an orderly and coherent corpus of knowledge” (Boulding 1956:10).

Systems theory provides us with a common conception of organizations; an organizer or conceptual frame, through which HRD can ensure holistic understanding of its subject. It also provides analysis methodologies capable of including multiple variables. For these two important reasons, it is viewed as the only meaningful way to comprehend the organization as a system (Swanson and Holton III, 2001:117).

Since HRD takes place in organizations that are themselves systems and subsystems functioning within an environmental system that is dynamic and embryonic, Systems theory is at its core (Buckley, 1968; Gradous, 1989) in Swanson (2001:100).

Emerging Foundational Theories of Psychology

Despite the acknowledgment of the three core foundational psychological theories discussed above, two other emerging psychological theories point out possible weaknesses in that acknowledgment. None of the three psychological theories fully recognizes the potential that humans have to grow and develop capabilities well beyond those immediately apparent; this is termed the “Individual Growth Perspective.” Gestalt psychology shares the closest proximity to this theory; however, it still primarily focuses on how people perceive, think, and learn in the here and now (Hunt, 1993). It continues to leave unexplained the human processes that trigger the motivation to grow and develop. It is this potential for growth and expansion of human capabilities that underpins human capital theory in economics. The possibility exists that the three psychological theories proposed earlier (Gestalt,

Behaviourism, and Cognitive) may fall short in supporting HRD's position that humans are capable of reaching a far higher potential, justifying long-term investment to build proficiency (Swanson and Holton III, 2001). Another area of concern is whether these three psychological theories, along with Systems theory and Economic theory, provide adequate theory to account for individuals within the social system of organizations. The unease is whether the core theories proposed provide an adequate foundation to understand the individual within the organizational social system. These concerns have led to the emergence of social psychology, which studies interactions between people and groups (Swanson and Holton III, 2001).

Wiggins *et al.*, (1994:17) define social psychology as "the study of behaviour, thoughts and feelings of an individual or interacting individuals and their relationships with larger social units." According to them, social psychology consists of four theoretical streams, the first two from psychology and the second two from sociology:

1. Behavioural perspective – social learning and social exchange theory
2. Cognitive perspective – field theory, attribution theory, and social learning of attitudes
3. Structural perspective – role theory, expectation states theory, and post-modernism
4. Interactionist perspective – symbolic interaction theory, identity theory, and ethnomethodology.

Swanson and Holton III (2001:104) suggest that social psychology is more of a placeholder than a foundational theory. They feel that what social psychology emphasizes, and which seems absent in this HRD discipline model, is some theory base that defines the social system of an organization. Social psychology simply emerged to fill the need to explain this human phenomenon that the others did not adequately explain. Psychology differs noticeably from sociology in that it focuses on individual experience rather than on social groups. However, social psychology – the study of the ways in which personality and behaviour are influenced by the individual's social setting – is closely related to sociology and draws on the knowledge and methods of both disciplines (Popenoe, 2000:10).

The researcher believes that the unique South African HRD situation, which is embedded in the socio-economic-political paradox to develop human capital while addressing issues of past inequality and redistribution of wealth, leads one to expect the inclusion of both psychology and sociology theories in order to better understand the nature of HRD as shaped by the unique South African national setting. Consideration thus has to be given to the following sociological theories.

Sociological Theories.

When exploring sociological theories, one notices that the various approaches are not mutually exclusive, and that most theories embrace assumptions from other theories, particularly psychology.

Motivational Models.

Lewin's *et al.*, (1994) Level-of-aspiration theory is, at core, a motivational model, for it explains how people set goals for themselves and their groups. The theory assumes that people enter achievement situations with an ideal outcome in mind. Over time, people may revise their expectations as they repeatedly fail or succeed in reaching their ideals. Lewin *et al.*, (1994) uses "level-of-aspiration" to describe the compromise between ideal goals and more realistic expectations.

Behavioural Approaches.

Many theories of group behaviour are coherent with Skinner's (1953, 1971) behaviourism. Skinner believed that psychological processes such as motives and drives may shape people's reactions in groups, but he also believed that such psychological processes are too difficult to index accurately (Forsyth, 1999). He recommended studying the things that people actually do, rather than the psychological states that may have instigated the actions. Skinner (1953, 1971), believed that actions tend to be consistent with the law of effect; that is, behaviours that are followed by positive consequences, such as rewards, will occur more frequently, whereas behaviours that are followed by negative consequences will become rarer (Blau, 1964; Foa and Foa, 1971; Homans, 1974). John Thibaut and Harold Kelley's (1959) Social exchange theory extended Skinner's behaviourism to

groups. They believed that individuals hedonistically strive to maximize their rewards and minimize their costs; in other words, the Social exchange theory is an economic model of interpersonal relationships, which argues that individuals seek out relationships that offer them many rewards, while exacting few costs.

Cognitive Approaches.

Cognitive processes are mental processes that acquire, organize, and integrate information. Cognitive processes include memory systems that store data and the psychological mechanisms that process this information. Joseph Berger *et al.*, (1992) offer a cognitive analysis of who will rise to the top of a group's status hierarchy and who will fall to the bottom. Their Expectation states theory is an explanation of status differentiation in groups, which assumes that group members allocate status to members who display positively valued, rather than negatively valued, status characteristics. Their theory assumes that while group members are interacting with one another, they intuitively take note of two types of cues as they allocate status within the group. Specific status characteristics are qualities that attest to each individual's level of ability to perform the specific task at hand. Diffuse-status characteristics are general qualities that group members think are relevant to ability and evaluation. Sex, age, and ethnicity can serve as diffuse-status characteristics if people associate these qualities with certain skills.

Socio-biology.

Socio-biology, a biological approach to understanding behaviour that assumes that recurring patterns of behaviour in animals ultimately stem from evolutionary pressures that increase the likelihood of adaptive social actions while extinguishing non-adaptive practices, is not considered here as it falls outside the scope of this research.

Contrary to Swanson and Holton III's (2001) belief that social psychology is merely a placeholder in the theory base of HRD, the researcher believes that social psychology and sociological theory play a vital role in understanding HRD in South Africa. The three-legged stool construct thus acquires another leg, namely sociological theory.

Ethics in HRD

The so-called “rug” underneath the three-legged stool positions ethics as a supporting theory and not a central theory for HRD (Swanson and Holton III, 2001). It serves as a filter among the three core theories within the performance improvement context, which permeates and ensures the integrity of both HRD and the host organization. HRD is the least likely of disciplines to be subjected to ethical inspection. It is often assumed that learning is a virtuous activity, and that organizations pursuing interventions designed to enhance learning must be well-intentioned towards their employees (Woodall and Douglas, 1999:1023). Ethics is the study of moral awareness, judgement, character, and conduct, in order to simplify the moral perspective in policies and practices. It serves to ... “help disprove some suggestions and throw up some confusions” (Raphael, 1994, in Woodall and Douglas, 1999:1023). It is not about arriving at absolute and ultimate standards of what is right and wrong. In practice, consideration of ethics might lead us to adopt an ethical framework that informs our personal, organizational and professional standards of conduct. We should be aware of the strengths and limitations of this framework (Woodall and Douglas, 1999).

The consideration of various ethical frameworks in Table 9 below indicates that Virtue Ethics (Solomon, 1993; Collier, 1995) and the Ethics of Care (Gilligan, 1982; Carse, 1996) provide relevant and important ethical frameworks for considering HRD policy and practice.

TABLE 9: A summary of ethical frameworks

Theoretical base	Type	Perspective	Brief description
Kantian Theory	Universality and reversibility	Rule-based	One must abide by the categorical imperative, such as what is right for one person is right for everyone, and do unto others as you would be done by.
	Respect for persons	Rule-based	Second formulation of the categorical imperative: people should be treated as ends in themselves,

			never as means to ends.
Utilitarian Theory	Act Utilitarianism	Act-based	Assess the act that will be for the greater good (or utility) as being ethical – the ends of the act justify the means. The aim is to achieve the greatest good for the greatest number.
	Rule Utilitarianism	Act/rule-based	Focus on the utility of a rule rather than the act; rules are fashioned on utility and conduct of rules. Assess the tendency for an act to improve happiness or utility if acts of this type are generally done rather than not done.
Social Contract Theory		Contract-based	Societal or contractual agreements must be abided by to ensure justice and the rights of individuals prevail.
Discourse Ethics		Communication-based	Assess the process by which decisions are arrived at. An ethical discourse is open, honest, suspends power differentials, and includes all relevant points of view.
Virtue Ethics		Character-based	Assess a person's character such that a good, virtuous person exhibits virtues such as honesty, kindness, and generosity. Intentions are as important as actions.
Ethics of Care		Situationally attuned	Assess the situation in a manner that shows empathy and responsiveness to all aspects of individuals' circumstances.

Source: Woodall and Douglas (1999:1025)

Virtue Ethics suggest that HRD professionals are obliged to lead a good or exemplary life in their work, implying that professionals should identify, publicise, and constantly uphold the key virtues for HRD, and that adherence to these virtues is not contingent upon organizational context and circumstances (Woodall and Douglas, 1999). These virtues include, but are not limited to, integrity, transparency, and respect for people.

By contrast, the Ethics of Care take us away from impartiality and formal abstraction in our ethical reasoning. This ethical orientation rejects impartiality as an integral part of what is moral, understands moral judgements as situation-attuned perceptions to other's needs and to the dynamics of particular relationships. Furthermore, it interprets that moral reasoning entails empathy and concern, and emphasizes norms of responsiveness and responsibility in our relationships with other (Carse, 1996). Ethics of Care suggest that sound moral judgement may be dependent upon being attuned to specific individual needs, and the idiosyncrasy of circumstances, and that morally relevant features of particular situations can sometimes be obscured through an overzealous reliance on impartial prescriptions (Woodall and Douglas, 1999:1024). This perspective contrasts with the Kantian and consequentialist approaches to ethics, which suggest that moral prescriptions be justified from an impartial standpoint. Thus, the extent to which HRD professionals blatantly endorse and exemplify merits in their relations with mercantile stakeholders, and the extent to which they also display an awareness of management issues around individual psychological safety, are critically imperative reflections for ethical HRD.

The ethical issue does not predominantly lie with performance, but rather with the dissemination of profit realized from performance. The ethical distribution amongst contributors and stakeholders is the gremlin behind most of the poignantly charged performance debates in HRD. Swanson and Holton III (2001) recommend that these ethical issues should be dealt with candidly, and distinctly separated from the pursuit of performance. Thus, HRD professionals have a myriad of ethical frameworks at their disposal, all of which can lead to a different interpretation of what honourable and decent HRD practice is.

The South African context is supported by a series of legislative codes of conduct which underpin the implementation of HRD strategies, policies, and processes. The context alluded to in Chapters 4 and 5 leads the researcher to believe that the establishment, execution, and measuring of sound organizational values, is more appropriate for the South African HRD context than the ethical rug presented by Swanson and Holton III (2001). The term “ethics” can be used synonymously with “values,” but “values” is the preferred term for the South African context. As suggested by Rokeach (1973) cited in Boyatzis *et al.*, (2000:4), conceptually, at the individual level, a value is “a discrete belief about something or someone.” A value can be an “absolute dichotomous belief as well as a conditional belief.” Individual values can be described as being “terminal and representative of a desired end state or instrumental, as a means to accomplishing a goal.” An attitude is said to be a “collection of values or beliefs bounded within a particular situation, or can be a value that transcends many situations” (Rokeach, 1973, cited in Boyatzis *et al.*, 2000:4). It all boils down to an organization needing to know who it is before figuring out what it stands for, where it is going and how it intends getting there. Studying 27 long-lived companies, de Geus identified that all organizations have an identity, whether explicit or not, that defines their coherence. Organizations in South Africa need to have the ability to manage the paradox of developing people while nurturing expectations of addressing inequality and redistribution of wealth. The researcher believes that central to this ability lie the basic organizational values of integrity and meaning, which are not governed by compliance with legislation, but by principle. At the heart of living organizational values is courage, which is the domain of the will that involves the capacity to make things happen (Koestenbaum, 2002). The philosophical roots of this dimension lie in fully understanding the centrality of free will in HRD issues, and the courage to do this entails both advocacy (the ability to take a stand) and the internalization of personal responsibility and accountability (Koestenbaum, 2002).

Paradigms of HRD

The “seat” of the three-legged stool represents the paradigms of HRD. As with the majority of professional disciplines, HRD embraces multiple paradigms of

research and practice. A paradigm is defined as a “coherent tradition of scientific research” (Kuhn, 1996:10). Paradigms therefore embody fundamentally different views of HRD, including its goals and aims, values, and guidelines for practice. It is important to understand each of these paradigms, and even more critical for HRD practitioners to develop a personal belief system regarding which paradigm or blend of paradigms will guide his or her practice. Swanson and Holton III (2001:127), among many leading HRD scholars, are of the opinion that two paradigms are the most clearly defined and dominate most HRD thinking and practice today, namely the Learning paradigm and the Performance paradigm. A third emerging perspective, the meaning of work, will not be discussed in this chapter as it falls outside the scope of this research.

Tabulated below is an illustration of the Learning and Performance paradigms. Table 10 highlights the outcome and intervention focus and representative research streams of each paradigm and is followed by a comprehensive description of each paradigm.

TABLE 10: Comparison of the learning and performance paradigms

	1 <i>LEARNING PARADIGM</i>			2 <i>PERFORMANCE PARADIGM</i>	
	(A) INDIVIDUAL LEARNING	(B) PERFORMANCE- BASED LEARNING	(C) WHOLE- SYSTEMS LEARNING	(A) INDIVIDUAL PERFORMANCE IMPROVEMENT	(B) WHOLE SYSTEMS PERFORMANCE IMPROVEMENT
Outcome focus	Enhancing individual learning	Enhancing individual performance through learning	Enhancing multiple levels of performance through learning	Enhancing individual performance	Enhancing multiple levels of performance
Intervention focus	Individual learning	Individual learning Organizational systems to support individual learning	Individual, team and organizational learning Organizational systems to support multiple levels of learning	Non-learning individual performance system interventions Learning if appropriate	Non-learning multiple-level performance system interventions Multiple-level learning if appropriate
Representative research streams	Adult learning Instructional design	Performance-based instruction Transfer of learning	Learning organization	Human performance technology	Performance improvement

Source: Swanson and Holton III (2001:129)

The Learning Paradigm

Watkins and Marsick (1995:2) define the Learning paradigm of HRD as follows: “HRD is the field of study and practice responsible for the fostering of a long-term work-related learning capacity at the individual, group, and organizational level.” These authors add that HRD “works to enhance an individual’s capacity to learn, to help groups overcome barriers to learning, and to help organizations create a culture which promotes conscious learning.” As depicted in the above table, this paradigm has three different streams. The first, Individual learning (Column 1A), focuses primarily on individual learning as an outcome and the individual learner as the target of interventions. Two characteristic approaches within this paradigm are adult learning (Andragogy) (Knowles *et al.*, 1998) and traditional instructional design (Gagne, 1965, Gagne *et al.*, 1992, Gagne and Medsker, 1996, in Swanson and Holton III, 2001:128). Most HRD practice has now advanced to the second or third streams, which are performance-based learning or whole-systems learning. The key change when moving from individual learning to these two streams is that the outcomes focus changes to performance, though it is still performance improvement as a result of learning. The primary intervention continues to be learning, but interventions are also focused on building organizational systems to maximize the likelihood that learning will improve performance.

Performance-based learning (Column 1B) is focused on individual performance resulting from learning. Performance-based instruction (Brethower and Smalley, 1998) and transfer of learning (Baldwin and Ford, 1988; Ford and Weissbein, 1997; Holton *et al.*, 2000) all cited in Swanson and Holton III (2001:128, 2001) are two examples of this paradigm. Whole-systems learning (Column 1C) centres on enhancing team and organizational performance. It accomplishes this by building systems that enhance learning at the individual, team, and organizational level. Most representative of this perspective is the learning organization theory (Watkins and Marsick, 1993, Marquardt, 1995 and Dibella and Nevis, 1998, in Swanson and Holton III, 2001:128).

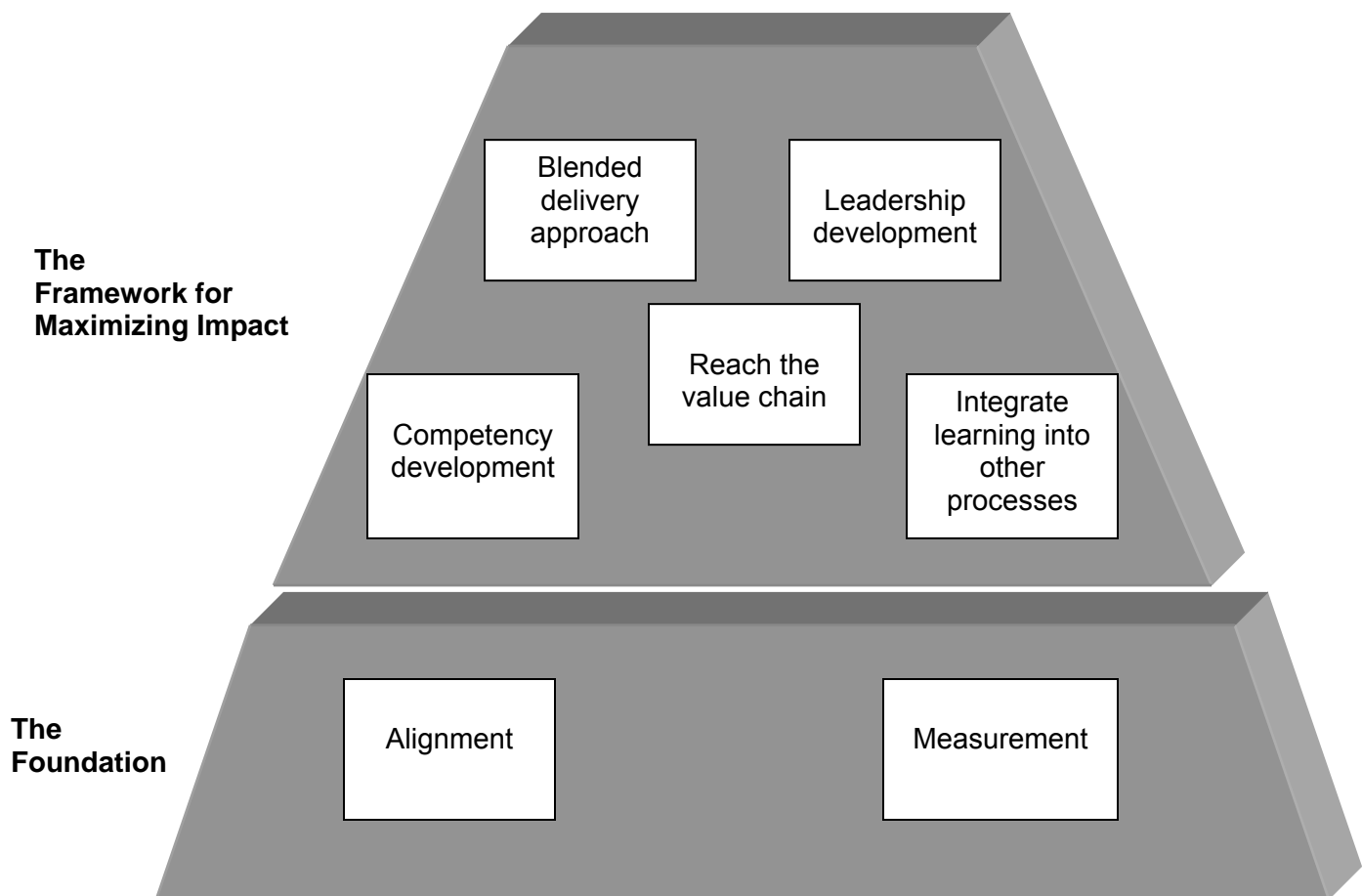
The conception of learning organizations originates from the rapid changes that organizations are confronted with in their environments. The only constant is change! Two key models adopted by organizations explain how they deal with change. In some organizations, change is dealt with according to the “tourist model.” This model states that initially, with or without much participation, one plans as accurate a blueprint as possible of the desired organization in terms of strategy, structure, culture, and systems. Then one begins to introduce the blueprint and teach everyone how to act in accordance with it. In a nutshell, think first, act later. However, in a learning organization, one does not know precisely where one is heading and certainly not what the destination is, so one chooses a direction and off one goes. This approach is called the “trekker model” and in this sort of approach, the processes of reorganization and behavioural change are integrated. The trekker model is pragmatic in that changes are happening faster and faster, in fact so fast that there is hardly enough time to precisely establish direction and destination (Swieringa and Wierdsma, 1992).

The central view of organizational development is that OD has the capability of unleashing human expertise, resulting in improvements at the organization, process, work-group, and individual level. OD constitutes the smaller realm of HRD practitioner activity when compared to employee training and development. Yet it can be argued that OD has a larger or more systemic influence on the organization. Considering the context of the three core theories mentioned previously, organizational development can be defined as the process of systematically unleashing human expertise to implement organizational change for the purpose of improving performance (Swanson and Holton III, 2001:260).

A decade later, the benchmark has become achieving the status of a High-Performance Learning Organization (HPLO). In 2004, Accenture conducted an HPLO study to uncover what constitutes a best-of-breed learning organization. This author surveyed 285 organizations, 24% of whose respondents were Fortune 500 companies across the finance/insurance, retail/hospitality, professional, government, energy/chemical, communication/high

technology, life sciences, manufacturing/construction, and technology sectors. The average organization size was 23 000 full-time employees, with an average annual revenue of \$7.6 billion. The results of the survey provided seven key ingredients which must be in place to create an HPLO. These key ingredients are illustrated in the figure below.

FIGURE 4: High-performance learning organization



Source: Modified from Accenture (2004, slide 9)

The alignment of learning to the overall strategy of the business provides value on two levels:

1. *Operational excellence and alignment*, delivered through leveraging a shared services model to properly align the learning engine with business goals and providing business insight from learning data and measures
2. *Strategic value*, which is delivered through proposed innovations to identify the best thinking on how learning can provide real business impact for the organization.

Alignment of learning to business includes more than just having a governing board. It also focuses on building the right skills sets within the learning organization, processes for aligning learning resources to business goals, and technologies to assist in identifying business insights resulting from an investment in learning.

An HPLO develops a system to measure and correlate training with business impact. It focuses metrics on:

1. *learning effectiveness*, by increasing the involvement of senior business leaders and redesigning learning to be integrated with work
2. *learning efficiency*, by leveraging shared services for enterprise-wide learning measurement systems, decreasing cycle time of course design and development, and vendor management
3. *business impact*, by re-tooling skills sets of the strategic workforce so that they have the right skills for success, decreasing the turnover rate of the strategic workforce, and using learning to enter new markets.

Furthermore, an HPLO has a competency development framework for strategic workforces where:

1. learning and development are the delivery of controlled information and practice in a manner that allows for evaluation
2. knowledge management is the way organizations create, capture, and reuse knowledge to achieve organizational objectives
3. resource management is the process of planning, deploying, and managing the workforce
4. performance management is a way of translating corporate strategy into individual actions to drive continuous improvement and business results.

Customer education offerings are becoming increasingly popular because they are a competitive advantage for the supplier, thus reaching the entire value chain. Learning must be integrated into the daily life of the employees, must consider their family commitments and their computer literacy to facilitate e-learning, and must strive to establish communities of practice.

A universally accepted best-practice approach to learning is “blended learning.” This approach mixes e-learning (the use of Internet technologies to deliver a broad array of solutions that enhance knowledge and performance) with other training formats, such as storyboarding, lecturettes, and role plays. This method allows one to select what will work best to meet the needs of the organization and the participants.

Finally, an HPLO places a high priority on developing leaders who help their subordinates to learn. Becton Dickinson’s 2001 Growth Strategy (in Accenture 2004:19) accelerates top-line growth through innovation and development of higher-value products and improves the bottom-line by improving operational effectiveness. As cited by Noel Tichy (Accenture, 2004:19), “We have looked at winning companies – those that consistently outperform competitors and reward shareholders and found they have moved beyond being learning organizations to being teaching organizations.” Organizational leadership and associate capabilities are thus strengthened by creating a teaching organization which focuses on leaders developing associates through the alignment of classroom and real work.

The Performance Paradigm

The Performance paradigm is quite familiar to those who have adopted performance enhancement or human performance technology (HPT) (Brethower, 1995, in Swanson and Holton III, 2001:128). These perspectives ensure that the outcomes focus is on total performance, but the intervention focus is on non-learning as well as learning interventions. It is the assimilation of the non-learning components of performance and associated interventions that separate this group from the learning systems perspective.

The performance systems perspective also contains two approaches. The individual performance improvement approach (Column 2A) focuses mostly on individual-level performance systems. HPT is representative of this approach (Gilbert, 1978, Stolovich and Keeps, 1992 in Swanson and Holton III, 2001). Whole-systems performance improvement is the broadest perspective, encompassing learning and non-learning interventions occurring at multiple levels in the organization. What is generally called “performance enhancement” (Rummler and Brache, 1995, Holton, 1999, cited in Swanson and Holton III, 2001:130) or “performance consulting” (Robinson and Robinson, 1995, cited in Swanson and Holton III, 2001:130) is representative of this approach.

The Central Theoretical Assumptions of the Learning Paradigm

Swanson and Holton III (2001:135) draw on Rouna’s (1998, 2000) good insights into the core beliefs of 10 scholarly leaders in HRD and the particularly strong arguments of the learning paradigm contributed by Watkins and Marsick (1995), Bierema (1997), Dirkx (1997) and Barrie and Pace (1998) all cited in Swanson and Holton III (2001:135). Drawing on these sources and those of others, the underlying nine core assumptions have emerged.

Assumption 1: Individual education, growth, learning and development are inherently good for the individual.

This assumption is at the heart of the learning paradigm and remains unchallenged by any paradigm of HRD.

Assumption 2: People should be valued for their intrinsic worth as people, not just as resources to achieve an outcome.

If it is the intention of HRD to value people solely with regard to their contribution to performance outcomes, this will invalidate them as human beings. The product of such an intention could be workplaces that devalue people and in which employees are abused. Therefore learning and development should be a means to enhance people and their humanness, not to accomplish performance goals.

Assumption 3: The primary purpose of HRD is development of the individual.

This paradigm stresses that the needs of the individual take precedence over the needs of the organization or that they are at least equally important. This perspective requires that the principal goals of HRD are to help individuals develop and realize their fullest potential to become all that they are meant to be.

Assumption 4: The primary outcome of HRD is learning and development.

In this paradigm, learning is considered to be the principal outcome of human resource development, performance being merely acknowledged.

Assumption 5: Organizations are best advanced by having fully developed individuals.

According to this paradigm, the explicit performance behaviours needed by the organization are best achieved by focusing on the individual's development. Performance is then a by-product which naturally emanates from development, instead of having performance drive development. As Bierema (1996:22 in Swanson and Holton III, 2001:136) states, "a holistic approach to the development of individuals in the context of a learning organization produces well-informed, knowledgeable, critical-thinking adults who have a sense of fulfilment and inherently make decisions that cause an organization to prosper."

Assumption 6: Individuals should control their own learning process.

This approach embraces the democratic and humanistic principles of Andragogy. Individuals are presumed to have the innate capacity and motivation to direct and regulate their own learning in a way that is largely beneficial to them. This assumption liberates HRD from focusing on performance outcomes, by striving to create nourishing learning situations.

Assumption 7: Development of the individual should be holistic.

This paradigm requires that HRD should concentrate on all aspects of individual development and not just specific skills or competencies for specific tasks. "Holistic development integrates personal and professional life in career planning, development, and assessment. Holistic development is not necessarily linked to the present or future job tasks, but the overall growth of the individual, with the recognition that this growth will have an effect on the organizational system" (Bierema, 1996:25, in Swanson and Holton III, 2001:136).

Assumption 8: The organization must provide people a means to achieve their fullest human potential through meaningful work.

This assumption broadens Assumption 3, to declare that organizations have an obligation and responsibility to assist individuals to develop and to realize their full potential. One of the primary vehicles for this is HRD.

Assumption 9: An emphasis on performance or organizational benefits creates a mechanistic view of people that prevents them from reaching their full potential.

This assumption is particularly noteworthy because it creates the largest gap and variance in the performance paradigm. Rather than releasing full-strength human capability, learning advocates argue that performance-based HRD creates a mechanistic approach to development. This approach falls short of tapping into the capabilities people have to accomplish great things, often leaving them alienated from the organization and ultimately hurting the organization. As Dee Hock, founder of Visa International stated, “Given the right circumstances, from no more than dreams, determination, and the liberty to try, quite ordinary people consistently do extraordinary things.”

The Central Theoretical Assumptions of the Performance Paradigm

Performance is not a unitary or consensually defined construct, within or outside of HRD (Holton III, 1999). Despite the lack of prescribed definitions in the literature, there are definitions of HRD that are performance-based (Weinberger, 1998). Holton III (2002:201), defines performance as “accomplishing units off mission-related outcomes or outputs.” A performance system is defined as “any system organized to accomplish a mission or purpose.” All organizations are performance systems, but some performance systems are not organizations. The performance paradigm of HRD thus holds that the purpose of HRD is to advance the mission of the performance system that sponsors the HRD efforts by improving the capabilities of individuals working in the system and improving the systems in which they perform their work.

The core assumptions expanded upon below provide a snapshot of the performance paradigm, and endeavours to accurately portray the intention of

HRD performance scholars from the earliest days to the current state of thinking (Holton III, 2002: 201).

Assumption 1: Performance systems must perform to survive and prosper; individuals who work within them must perform if they wish to advance their careers and maintain employment or membership.

Performance is not an elective in a performance system, but rather an obligation. The greatest service HRD can provide to the individual and to the performance system is to help improve performance by enhancing capability and building proficient performance systems.

Assumption 2: The ultimate purpose of HRD is to improve the performance of the systems in which it is embedded and which provide the resources to support it.

HRD's primary accountability is to the system it inhabits. The particular system's definition of its performance relationship with the external environment is completely captured by the mission and goals of the organization.

Assumption 3: The primary outcome of HRD is not just learning, but learning and performance.

Performance and learning represent two different levels of outcomes that are complementary and not in contention with each other. Individual learning should be seen as an essential part of achieving organizational and individual goals.

Assumption 4: Human potential in organizations must be nurtured, respected, and developed.

Performance advocates believe in the strength of learning and the capability of people in organizations to accomplish great things: they recognize that the releasing of human potential that creates great organizations. They prefer to embrace notions of empowerment and human development because this indirectly leads to better performance when properly executed (Huselid, 1995, Lam and White, 1998, in Holton III, 2002: 203).

Assumption 5: HRD must enhance current performance and build capacity for future performance effectiveness in order to create sustainable high performance.

Kaplan and Norton (1996) suggest two categories of performance measures, namely “outcomes” and “drivers,” but they do not provide definitions of either. “Outcomes” are measures of effectiveness or efficiency relative to core outputs of the system, sub-system, process or individual, for example, ROI and profit. They are often generic across similar performance systems. “Drivers” measure elements of performance that are expected to sustain or increase system, sub-system, process or individual ability, and capacity to be more effective or efficient in future. They are leading indicators of future outcomes and tend to be unique for particular performance systems (Holton III, 2002:204). According to Kaplan and Norton (1996:31-32):

Outcome measures without performance drivers do not communicate how the outcomes are to be achieved...Conversely, performance drivers without outcome measures may enable the business unit to achieve short-term operational improvements, but will fail to reveal whether the operational improvements have been translated into expanded business with existing and new customers, and, eventually, to enhanced financial performance. A good balanced scorecard should have an appropriate mix of outcomes (lagging indicators) and performance drivers (leading indicators) of the business unit’s strategy.

Therefore, long-term sustainable high performance, which is the goal of performance-oriented HRD advocates, requires a careful balance between outcomes and drivers.

Assumption 6: The HRD professional has an ethical and moral obligation that attaining organizational performance goals is not abusive to individual employees.

Performance advocates do not view performance as intrinsically unethical, especially considering Assumption 8, described below, which states that effective performance is beneficial to individuals and good for organizations. Rather, employee abuses that occur in the name of performance improvement are viewed as improper implementation of performance principles, and, as stated in Assumption 5, rarely result in sustainable performance in the long run. Heated debates usually arise as a result of the unfair distribution of the profits realized from performance enhancement.

Assumption 7: Training/learning activities cannot be separated from other parts of the performance system and are best bundled with other performance-improvement interventions.

The broadest approach by performance-based HRD is the whole-systems performance-improvement approach (see Table 10). Because HRD is entrenched in Systems theory which is a Whole-systems perspective of organizations, it is the logical discipline to take responsibility for the whole-system performance improvements in organizations.

Assumption 8: Effective performance and performance systems are rewarding to the individual and to the organization.

Performance is beneficial to the organization and individuals in many ways. Performance-oriented HRD is just as valuable to the individual as to the organization because individuals do not want to be unsuccessful while executing their work roles.

Assumption 9: Whole-systems performance improvement seeks to enhance the value of learning in an organization.

Interceding in only one element of the system without creating congruence in other parts of the system will not lead to systemic change. Individual development must be coupled with appropriate organizational system improvements in order for the skills to be effectively utilized. Whole-system performance improvement multiplies the value of individual learning and development by creating more effective systems.

Assumption 10: HRD must partner with functional departments to achieve performance goals.

The performance approach compels HRD practitioners to deal with organizational variables over which they have no control, for example, rewards, recruitment, and job design. Performance-oriented HRD recognizes this variable involvement and emphasizes that HRD must become a partner with functional units in the organization in order to achieve performance improvement, even through learning. Adversaries frequently suggest that HRD should focus on learning because practitioners can influence learning. Classroom learning is the only variable in the performance system over which HRD professionals have the primary influence. Learning organization advocates stress the fact that much of the really valuable learning that takes place in organizations occurs in the workplace, not the classroom (Watkins and Marsick, 1993). Performance-oriented HRD advocates suggest that if HRD is not willing to be a performance partner, then it is destined to play only insignificant roles in organizations, with minimal impact and with great risk of rationalisation and outsourcing.

Assumption 11: The transfer of learning into job performance is of primary importance.

There is widespread recognition that the transfer process is not something that occurs by chance, nor is it ensured by achieving learning outcomes; rather it is the result of a complex system of influences (Baldwin and Ford, 1988). Learning is a necessary, but not sufficient, condition for improving job performance through increased proficiency. Proficiency has emerged as a construct integrating the performance component of HRD with learning (Swanson and Holton, 1999, in Holton III, 2002:209). Expertise, defined as “human behaviours, having effective results and optimal efficiency, acquired through study and experience within a specialized domain” (Ibid:26) focuses on core outcomes from learning. Important performance outcomes in organizations are almost always measured in some manner. Thus, if HRD is to improve performance, it must measure its outcomes. Secondly, components of organizational systems that are viewed as contributing to the organization’s

strategic mission are usually able to demonstrate their contribution through measurement of some kind. Thus, if HRD is to be a strategic partner, it must measure results.

Implicit in the assumptions stated earlier is the premise that the organization and the individual should apportion control of the individual's learning if the organization is subsidising the intervention. From an economic point of view, if the performance system is responsible for the disbursement of the HRD efforts, then it has a right to derive benefits from it and share control over it. Performance advocates struggle to understand how organizations can be expected to pay for HRD efforts but yet have those efforts focus primarily on what is good mainly for the individual (Holton III, 2002).

Since 1995, there has been intense debate in the American literature around the learning versus the performance paradigms of HRD (Watkins and Marsick, 1995) and (Swanson, 1995, 1995) all cited in Holton III (2002:1999). This research attempts to capture the general position of the paradigms, whilst fully acknowledging the risks of such generalisation. Furthermore, the researcher believes that there is less of a gap between the performance and learning paradigms than the learning paradigm suggests. As Kuchinke (1998) has stated, it is probably not possible or even desirable to resolve paradigmatic debates, but the sharp dualism that has characterized this debate is also inappropriate, although it may be necessary.

Swanson (2001:145) observes that much vigour has gone into reconciling and unifying the two paradigms and finding common ground. A considerable overlap exists between the two paradigms, in particular with reference to the following:

1. a strong belief in learning and development as avenues to individual growth
2. a belief that organizations can be improved through learning and development activities
3. a commitment to people and human potential
4. a deep desire to see people grow as individuals

5. a passion for learning.

HRD must enhance the organization's effectiveness. The challenge is to consider how performance is incorporated in HRD theory and practice, not if it will be (Holton III, 2002). The performance paradigm is the approach most likely to play a strategic role for HRD in organizations. HRD will be perceived as having strategic value to the organization only if it has the capability to connect the unique value of employee expertise with the strategic goals of the organization (Torraco and Swanson, 1995). By being an advocate both for people and for performance, HRD stands to gain the most influence in the organizational system. If the field of HRD focuses only on learning or individuals, then it is likely to end up marginalized as a staff support group. While Holton and a significant majority of leading HRD scholars believe that HRD is probably best served by the integration of the two paradigms, it is easy to recognize bias in favour of the performance paradigm. Considering South Africa's historical context, which is expanded on in Chapter 5, the researcher believes that it would be highly beneficial for South Africa to embark on integrating the learning and performance paradigms.

The study of HRD theory is incomplete without due consideration being given to the philosophical underpinnings of HRD. Philosophy helps us develop skills to think critically about things concerning the nature of the world, justifications of beliefs, and the conduct of life, and engages us in the interpretation of texts and the criticisms of common wisdoms that are often taken for granted. Furthermore, it offers a context in which to view current issues being dealt with in HRD.

A Philosophical Framework for the Thought and Practice of HRD

The word "philosophy" is derived from Greek, meaning "the love of wisdom" (Cavalier, 1990:2). A traditional view of philosophy is that it is the field of ideas and thinking about life and everything in it. According to Lynham and Ruona (1999), philosophy is generally concerned with three basic issues:

1. Being (ontology)
2. Knowing (epistemology)

3. Acting (axiology).

Through these focal points, philosophers are interested in answering the following three questions:

1. What is real? (a question of ontology)
2. What is true? (a question of epistemology)
3. What is good? (a question of axiology)

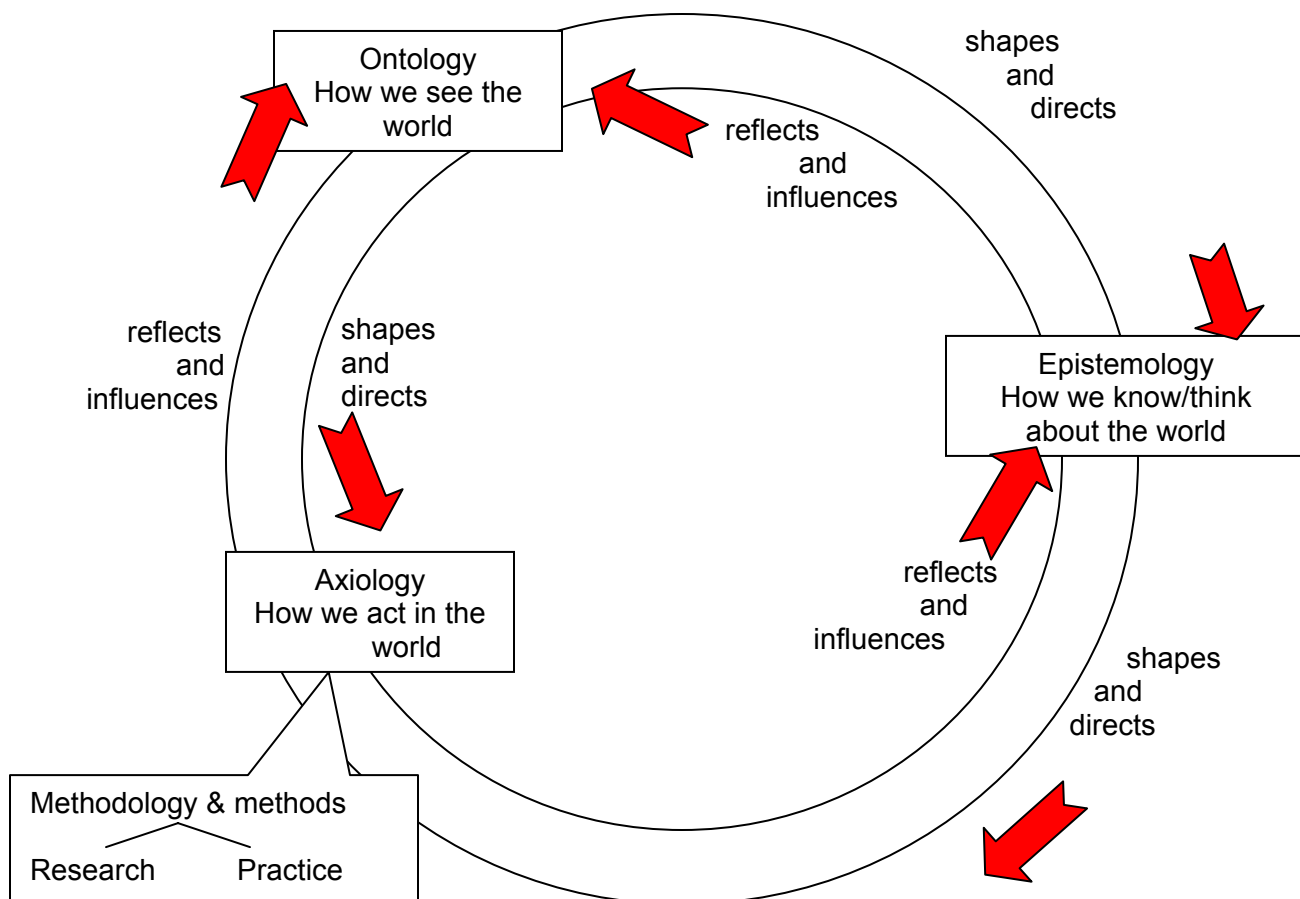
If one thinks of these focal points as disconnects of inquiry, then philosophy does not appear to provide much purpose at all. However, in reality, these three areas all work together to make philosophy what it is. In this sense, from a systems perspective, the whole is more than the sum of its parts. Systems theory, which has been advocated as a foundational discipline by many in HRD (Ruona, 1998) and (Gradous, 1989, Willis, 1997, Swanson, 1998 cited in Lynham and Ruona 1999:210), reminds us to observe the multiple tiers and relationships that exist between these components of philosophy.

Making intelligent use of the potentials of philosophy requires that one considers it as a system of thought and action (Bohm, 1994). This entails a process of disciplined reflection, ways of thinking about certain questions, interpreting texts, trying out ideas and thinking of possible arguments for and against them, and wondering about how concepts really work. The critical components of a philosophical framework for HRD thus consist of three key components (Lynham and Ruona, 1999:210):

1. *Ontology*: the component that makes explicit a view of the nature of the world and the nature of phenomena of interest to HRD (how we see the world)
2. *Epistemology*: the component that makes explicit the nature of knowledge in HRD, and the necessary and sufficient requirements to hold and claim knowledge in our field (how we know/think about the world)
3. *Axiology*: the component that makes explicit how we ought to act, individually as well as communally in our field. It outlines espoused aims, ideals, and proper methodologies and methods for HRD inquiry and practice (how we should *act* in research and practice).

These three components interact in a dynamic and systematic way, and together formed a guiding framework for the congruent and coherent system of thought about HRD that went into this research. Furthermore, the synergy of these three philosophical elements is not absent from the practice of HRD. Figure 5 below shows the interactive and dynamic relationship amongst the key components integral to a sound philosophical framework for research and practice in HRD. It elucidates the connections, demonstrating that how we see the world determines how we think about the world; how we think about the world determines how we act in the world, and how we act in the world, in turn, reflects how we think about and see the world. Each of these components reflects and influences the others (Lynham and Ruona, 1999:211).

FIGURE 5: A philosophical framework for thought and practice



Source: Modified from Lynham and Ruona (1999:211) © Lynham and Ruona (1998)

Philosophies can be individually believed, but are more commonly, shared. Characteristic of history are segments where different prominent philosophies influenced current conditions, actions, and events. Lynham and Ruona (1999) presuppose that HRD must begin to identify its own philosophy as a community of professionals who are engaged in enhancing individual and organizational performance through learning (AHRD, 1998).

The next section will describe each philosophical component by giving its definition and efficacy in order to facilitate an understanding of its placement as contributing to the philosophical underpinnings of HRD (Lynham and Ruona, 1999).

What is Ontology?

Definition: Ontology is concerned with fundamental assumptions about the nature of phenomena (Gioia and Pitre, 1990). It focuses on basic questions and assumptions about the nature of reality, such as:

1. What is real? What is “there” and what do we mean by “there?”
2. What is the world made of?
3. Is reality ordered in any way? Is reality “out there” or “inside us,” or a combination of both?
4. What are humans?

Kuhn (1970) introduced another way of thinking about ontology in his concept of a paradigm. A paradigm is a worldview, or a way of thinking that reflects fundamental beliefs and assumptions about the nature of phenomena. Ontology, ultimately, is how one sees and views the world and reality.

Utility: Mapping the ontology of a discipline entails making explicit the common understanding, beliefs, and assumptions of how those in the field see the world, and how they perceive the essence of reality and phenomena that constitute the field’s concern and focus.

The use of ontology is about identifying and articulating the core assumptions about reality that drive the thought and practice of a field.

What is Epistemology?

Definition: Gioia and Pitre (1990:585) describe epistemology as “fundamental assumptions about the nature of knowledge about phenomena.” Epistemology (also described as “theory of knowledge”) is the component of philosophy that raises questions about the nature of knowledge and reasonable belief. In so doing, it addresses the following kinds of questions:

1. What is knowledge?
2. How does knowledge differ from opinion or belief?
3. How is knowledge acquired? When is belief justified or reasonable?

At the core of epistemology is the Socratic, tripartite equation of knowledge, which states that knowledge = true, justified belief (Pojman, 1995). Epistemology is therefore concerned with the nature of knowledge, and it also examines the necessary and sufficient conditions required for these components of knowledge (Root, 1997). Epistemology is about how we know and think about the world.

Utility: Examining the epistemology of HRD involves articulating the common assumptions, thoughts, and understandings of what makes for knowledge of and about phenomena in HRD.

It also denotes the necessary and sufficient standards for knowledge in HRD. It therefore serves a purpose of both clarification of the nature of knowledge and standards for “good” knowledge in a field.

What is Axiology?

Definition: Axiology (sometimes referred to as “ethics”) is a third component of philosophy, and the filter which permeates and ensures the preservation of the integrity of both HRD and the host organization.

It is concerned with action. It is normative, speaking to issues of ethics and individual and organizational values, what is good, and what ought to be done. In other words, it indicates how one should act in inquiry and practice, and the extent to which this action should be congruent with ontological and epistemological aims and details.

Utility: Axiology urges congruence between the ontological and epistemological assumptions and the advocated actions of a field.

Thus, axiology plays an important role in putting in place the standards and requirements of acceptable methodology and methods for research and practice in HRD. Making the axiology unequivocal helps to set and clarify the guiding tone and rigour for action in HRD. It helps to define desired standards for methodology and methods in both research and practice.

What are Methodology and Methods?

Definition: There seems to be some ambiguity in philosophy about what comprises axiology. However, two elements of axiology are methodology and methods. “Methodology” is the system that influences the way things are done: how we choose and use methods, and conceptualise, analyse, collect, and design. “Methods” are means and manners of procedure (Lynham and Ruona, 1999).

Owing to the applied nature of HRD, methodologies and methods need to be considered in the context of both research and practice. Methodologies in research inform us of ways of studying phenomena (Gioia and Pitre, 1990), while methodologies in practice inform us of ways of carrying out interventions in HRD. Methods in each domain expand the methodologies by offering tools, techniques, and procedures. An example of how methodologies and methods are connected is depicted in Table 11 below.

TABLE 11: Two important elements of axiology

	METHODOLOGY	METHODS
Research	Positivistic	Experimental Quasi-experimental Survey
Practice	Training and development	ADDIE Performance-learning Satisfaction evaluation
	Organizational development	Action research Intervention models/processes

Source: Modified from Lynham and Ruona (1999:213)

Utility. Specifying methodology and methods for conducting research and practice enables us to energise research and practice in HRD. This “rigour” demands that we judge research and practice against desired standards that are inherent in axiology. Given the rising concern about increasing atheoretical practice (Micklethwait and Wooldridge, 1996; Swanson, 1996; Swanson and Holton, 1997) and non-useful theory in HRD, a framework and criteria for judging the utility of research and theory and the soundness of practice would seem to be both welcome and useful.

Reflections about philosophy (ontology, epistemology, and axiology) ensure that as practitioners, we are leading, in Plato’s words, an “examined life” (Cavalier, 1990), acknowledging that beliefs about basic ends and principles lead to concrete conclusions and action. Striving for the identification of key beliefs and assumptions about each of the three components mentioned above, and then being grounded in those articulated by the discipline of HRD, will undoubtedly result in better and more consistent practice.

Philosophy can impact three areas, namely practice, research and theory building, and the evolution of HRD (Lynham and Ruona, 1999:213). The implications for each of these areas are presented below.

Implications for Practice

HRD is an applied discipline driven by its practice and consequently, theory sometimes lags behind the challenges faced in organizations (Lynham and Rouana, 1999:214). Philosophy provides some structure on which to make decisions when research is not there to support a practice or policy. The logic of philosophy allows us to employ thinking that is at once disciplined and imaginatively creative. We are able to apply philosophical methods to practical problems, ascertain what the issues are, and see how different assumptions affect a problem. We can thus use philosophy to analyse and interpret practice.

Implications for Research and Theory-building

Critical work is being done to encourage and refine research methods and paradigms (Marsick, 1990, Swanson and Holton, 1997 cited in Lynham and Rouana, 1999:214) and to call attention to the critical significance of building theory in HRD (Chalofsky, 1996; Torraco, 1997; Hansen, 1998; Mott, 1998;). The motivation driving these efforts is to reinforce HRD with a solid, systematically acquired knowledge base. A key step in this evolutionary process is to acknowledge the philosophical framework in which these discussions are taking place. Philosophy ultimately requires us to consider what knowledge and theory really are. It drives a discipline like HRD to strive for great research. It therefore may suggest an imperative yardstick of rigour for research and theory-building that has yet to be considered (Lynham and Rouana, 1999).

Implications for the Evolution of HRD

Philosophy also plays an important role in the future of HRD. It can provide a framework for articulating the purpose of the field and explore the deep assumptions that drive the field. Philosophy can be a rigorous backdrop for judging whether and to what extent the field can accommodate multiple definitions and purposes. This same set of criteria can also be used to balance the long- and short-term interests of HRD, helping researchers and practitioners

to optimise the field. Philosophy can be an important mechanism to guide the nature of debates that need to be continually held in HRD.

Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter is to present a broad but well-defined perspective on the discipline and theory underlying HRD, as well as its philosophical underpinnings. Specifically, it has provided a framework for the theoretical foundations for HRD and principles for HRD practice. It has been recognized that theory can originate from practice, from stressful and/or large-scale change development efforts, or from research itself. In all instances, theory advancement must be a conscious effort (Swanson, 1997, cited in Swanson, 2001:309). Research in the realm of theory requires that theories be developed through rigorous theory-building research methods (Hearn 1953, Dubin, 1969, Torraco, 1997, cited in Swanson, 2001:309) or that espoused theories be rigorously evaluated against criteria for sound theory (Patterson, 1983 cited in Swanson, 2001:309 and Senge, 1990). HRD, with its roots in both psychology and sociology, is rich in theory. Some of these theories trace HRD back to psychological processes, the motivations of individual members, the mental processes that sustain their conception of their social environment, and even their instinctive urges and proclivities. Other theories focus more on HRD as a social system that is integrated in the surrounding community and society. These different theoretical perspectives are, however, not mutually exclusive paradigms struggling for the distinction of being the single explanation of HRD. What theory best explains HRD? Many of the great advances in understanding HRD have occurred, not when one theory has been pitted against another, but when two or more theories have been synthesised to form a new, more encompassing theoretical perspective. In Homans' (1950:4) words, "We have a great deal of fact to work with, [and] we also have a great deal of theory. The elements of a synthesis are on hand."

HRD is presently full of atheoretical models and adopted theories that are unsubstantiated. Systematically filling the performance improvement theory/practice vacuum is critical to the growth and maturation of the profession,

and is the task of both practitioners and scholars. Swanson (2001) contends that the demand for HRD theory is increasing, and that our present available theory has taken us about as far as we can go. What we do next is of the utmost significance.

The inclusion of philosophy in a theoretical framework for HRD is to encourage prompt debate, and to explore and position the contribution of philosophy to HRD theory and practice. This inclusion offers a framework in which to think of philosophy more systematically, and demonstrates the potential impact that philosophy can have on HRD. At its core, philosophy is disciplined reflection, and it is the activity that best enables us to reflect on the world around us. Philosophical activity in HRD has thus far been rather limited, with some notable exceptions (Barrie and Pace, 1998; Kuchinke, 2000; Marsick, 1991; Watkins, 1991 in Ruona, 2001:1). It is critical that the philosophy of HRD be rigorously pursued, to gain clarity about the assumptions that are driving practice and knowledge-building in HRD, and to stimulate dialogue about critical issues facing the discipline.

Identifying a few core beliefs is a critical first step in forming a philosophical foundation for the profession, on which values, morals, ethics, and best practices will be built. This activity is important in order to ensure the advancement and excellence of the profession, as well as to better differentiate HRD from other human resource professions (Ruona, 2001:8).

The theories presented in this chapter were extracted from a comprehensive literature study of the contemporary thoughts and practices of leading scholars in HRD, and additional theories were explored to ensure alignment with the unique South African HRD situation.

The consideration of philosophical underpinnings is critical to the HRD framework because philosophy helps develop capacities for thinking (Honderich, 1995). At its heart, philosophy is a systematic examination of the assumptions that underlie action. Theories-in-use are investigated and analysed to bring to the surface the essence of thoughts and ideas that, ultimately, drive actions (Lynham and Ruona, 1999). Magee (1971:45) tells us that “one of the tasks of

philosophy is mapping the logic of discourse..., laying out, so to speak, so that a person can make his way about successfully." Fulfilling this role affords practice in criticism. Philosophy thus provides us with practical ways of thinking about certain sorts of questions (questions of the nature of reality, truth, ethics and values) and the use of logical argument, disciplined reflection, and theoretical reasoning in this questioning process.

In closing, during the first century of science, a myriad of scientists considered themselves rejuvenators of knowledge. Similarly, the researcher has rejuvenated knowledge about HRD, and in this chapter specifically suggests the inclusion of the theory and philosophical underpinnings of HRD in order to foster an environment in which South African HRD practitioners can articulate the paradigmatic and methodological evolution of the discipline. Furthermore, the researcher suggests that this occurs within a framework that is driven by values and directed by accountability for HRD. This chapter serves as a foundation for exploring the nature and importance of HRD.

CHAPTER 4

THE NATURE AND IMPORTANCE OF HRD

Introduction

The existing dialogue within Human Resource Development (HRD) concerns its definition and scope. It is of the utmost importance to establish a sound definition and operationalization of HRD for the sole purpose of understanding its disposition with the intention of improving it. To develop and impose an artificially standardized definition for HRD which suits the South African context would result in the loss of integrity. The definition should remain fluid, so that it can acquire the shape of the various environments in which it functions.

It is of particular value to pursue defining and operationalizing HRD, despite its definition or non-definition being a contentious issue, so that research could continue with an appropriate degree of coherency and consistency. Contributing to this furore is the fact that HRD differs considerably from one country to the next as well as within countries.

The purpose of this chapter is to reflect on the need to define or not to define HRD, explore its strategic value and nature and share evolutionary definitions as contributed by leading scholars and practitioners in the field.

Towards Defining HRD

A question that is extensively asked in HRD is: "What is HRD?" (Rouna and Roth, 2000; McLean, 2001). "While it appears on the surface that this should be a relatively straightforward question, in fact, it is a very complex issue" (McLean, 2001:229). Weinberger (1998), for example, after exploring the various definitions existing in the United States, concludes that there is no common agreement as to its definition as illustrated in Table 12 below.

TABLE 12: Human resources development definition summary

NO.	AUTHOR AND YEAR	DEFINITION	KEY COMPONENTS	UNDERLYING THEORIES
1	Nadler, 1970	“HRD is a series of organized activities conducted within a specified time and designed to produce behavioural change” (p. 3).	Behavioural change; adult learning	Psychological
2	Craig, 1976	“HRD focus is on the central goal of developing human potential in every aspect of lifelong learning.” (page unknown)	Human performance	Philosophical; psychological
3	Jones, 1981	“HRD is a systematic expansion of people’s work-related abilities, focused on the attainment of both organization and personal goals” (p. 188).	Performance, organizational, and personal goals	Psychological
4	McLagan, 1983	“Training and development is identifying, assessing and -through planned learning – helping develop the key competencies which enable individuals to perform current or future jobs” (p. 25).	Training and development	Psychological
5	Chalofsky and	Discipline of HRD is the	Adult learning	Psychological

	Lincoln, 1983	study of how individuals and groups in organizations change through learning. (page unknown)		
6	Nadler and Wiggs, 1986	“HRD is a comprehensive learning system for the release of the organization’s human potentials – a system that includes both vicarious (classroom, mediated, simulated) learning experiences and experiential, on-the-job experiences that are keyed to the organization’s reason for survival” (p. 5).	Formal and informal adult learning	Systems; economic; psychological
7	Swanson, 1987	HRD is a process of improving an organization’s performance through the capabilities of its personnel. HRD includes activities dealing with work design, aptitude, expertise, and motivation. (page unknown)	Organizational performance	Economic; psychological; philosophical; system
8	Jacobs, 1988	Human performance technology is the development of human performance systems and the management of the	Organizational and individual performance	System

		resulting systems, using a systems approach to achieve organizational and individual goals. (page unknown)		
9	R. Smith, 1988	“HRD consists of programmes and activities, direct and indirect, instructional and/or individual that positively affect the development of the individual and the productivity and profit of the organization” (p. 1).	Training and development; organizational performance	Psychological; system; economic
10	McLagan, 1989	“HRD is the integrated use of training and development, career development and organizational development to improve individual and organizational effectiveness” (p. 7).	Training and development; career development; organizational development	Psychological; system; economic
11	Watkins, 1989	“HRD is the field of study and practice responsible for the fostering of a long-term, work-related learning capacity at the individual, group and organizational level of organizations. As such, it includes – but is not limited to – training, career	Learning capacity training and development; career development; organizational development	Psychological; system; economic; performance

		development and organizational development” (p. 427).		
12	Gilley and England, 1989	“HRD is organized learning activities arranged within an organization to improve performance and/or personal growth for the purpose of improving the job, the individual and/or the organization” (p. 5).	Learning activities; performance improvement	Psychological; system; economic; performance
13	Nadler and Nadler, 1989	“HRD is organized learning experiences provided by employees within a specified period of time to bring about the possibility of performance improvement and/or personal growth” (p. 6)	Learning; performance improvement	Performance; psychological
14	D.Smith, 1990	“HRD is the process of determining the optimum methods of developing and improving the human resources of an organization and the systematic improvement of the performance and productivity of employees through training, education and development and leadership for the mutual attainment of	Performance improvement	Performance system; psychological; economic

		organizational and personal goals' (p. 16).		
15	Chalofsky, 1992	"HRD is the study and practice of increasing the learning capacity of individuals, groups, collectives and organizations through the development and application of learning-based interventions for the purpose of optimizing human and organizational growth and effectiveness" (p. 179).	Learning capacity; performance improvement	System; psychological; human performance
16	Marquardt and Engel, 1993	HRD skills include developing a learning climate, designing training programmes, transmitting information and experience, assessing results, providing career counselling, creating organizational change, and adapting learning materials. (page unknown)	Learning climate; performance improvement	Psychological; human performance
17	Marsick and Watkins, 1994	"HRD as a combination of training, career development, and organizational development offers the theoretical integration need to envision a learning organization, but	Training and development; career development; organizational development; learning organization	Human performance; organizational performance; system; economic; psychological

		it must also be positioned to act strategically throughout the organization” (p. 335).		
18	Swanson, 1995	“HRD is a process of developing and unleashing human expertise through organizational development and personnel training and development for the purpose of improving performance” (p. 208)	Training and development; organizational development; performance improvement at the organization, work process and individual levels	System; psychological; economic

Source: Weinberger (1998: 77-79 in Swanson and Holton III, 2001: 4-8)

McLagan and Suhadolink’s (1989) definition, in which HRD is defined as containing organization development, training and development, and career development, has been very influential internationally and in the United States. Like McLean and McLean (2001), the researcher too explored the range of definitions of HRD in a universal context and also concluded that definitions fluctuate significantly internationally in scope of activities, anticipated audiences, beneficiaries, and national settings. McLean and McLean (2001:10) propose an inaugural attempt at a cross-national definition of Human Resources Development:

Human resource development is any process or activity that, either initially or over the long term, has the potential to develop ...work-based knowledge, expertise, productivity and satisfaction, whether for personal or group/team gain, or for the benefit of an organization, community, nation, or ultimately, the whole of humanity.

“HRD has no singular identity ...there is no single lens through which to view it nor should there be ... it is a socially constructed phenomenon ... a fluid and unfolding process of social accomplishment” (McGoldrick *et al.*, 2001:343-356). Luoma (2000:771) suggests that HRD refers to “the planned procedures through which the human capital of the organization grows; a set of intentional activities that increase a person’s skills, abilities and/or knowledge and direct them for a company’s benefit”.

Ruona (2000) writes that recent literature reviews conducted by various scholars have uncovered more than twenty different definitions of HRD. Evident in the various definitions and the debates they encourage is the fear of disintegration that some practitioners in the field express, which could threaten HRD’s contributions and, ultimately its sustainability. The existing state of the field is characterized by the unnecessary dominance of issues of definition in dialogue which supports Chalofsky’s (1992:176) assertions that HRD is “still looking for a unifying base to rally around.”

In a study conducted by Ruona (2000:3), using five leading HRD scholars who have occupied the role of President of the Academy of Human Resource Development and five leading HRD scholars who have been Chair of the American Society for Training and Development’s (ASTD) Research Committee, a powerful theme surfaced. The qualitative feedback from one participant in particular, who passionately argued against a definition for the profession is given below:

Who needs a definition? Our field is strengthened by having different schools of thought and by its diversity. I firmly believe that. I am equally as strong about saying that I’m not right because I’m here and you’re not wrong because you’re there. We’re different. We’re going to work with different organizations, we’re going to work for different objectives with different goals. Fine. I don’t need to control your definition and I’m certainly not going to let you control mine.[sic]

The qualitative feedback above suggests that defining for the purpose of influence or control will only meet with resistance. The last sentence in the above quotation clearly shows how attempts arise to prevent change as people try to present and project their own views of reality. How stakeholders who are academics frame the world governs what goes into syllabuses, and therefore what is communicated and taught to others. Walton (2001) suggests that perhaps the need to define exists to address the question of why a statement/definition is required and how it will help/serve the interests of different stakeholders. The definition of a field is not an explanation of the world, nor should it be the intention of appropriating or excluding other definitions and those who hold them. For any HRD definition, the question that should be asked is: *“Whose interests will be served and in what way by defining HRD thus?”* (Megginson, 1999, 2000, cited in Walton, 2001:6). Diversity of the discipline and the people in it are central values for some participants who argue against positions that are too normative and that tend to hide the unique qualities that people bring to the world. They comment as follows:

It’s always good to have an opening definition – open for conversation and exploration and differences of opinion. Nothing wrong with defining. What gets wrong, from my point of view, is when you say that I have the right definition. (Ruona, 2000:3 [sic])

Part of the complexity too is driven by the western ethno-centric mindset of having to put things in boxes. It’s supposed to be a continuum (Ruona, 2000:4 [sic])

Generally, people who occupy positions in HRD are lured by their desire to assist individuals and organizations in some or other manner (Ruona, 2000). Similarly, scholars are enticed into thinking about the profession itself, which is the impetus for the present study, and no doubt the stimulus for most scholarly works in this field. In order to ensure sustainable growth, the HRD profession

should embark on a conscious process of maturation. A critical ingredient to assist this profession to prosper entails reflecting on HRD's evolution: where the field has been, where it is going to, and where it needs to go to have optimal impact.

Meggison *et al.*, (1993) refer to the fog and bewilderment that have emerged in the HRD world. Anyone new to the world of HRD will quickly realise that one of the most important requirements for a speedy assimilation is to learn the jargon. Walton (2001) states that HRD practitioners must not assume that the people they are working with share their understanding of what this language is.

All of the above initiate some of the dilemmas articulated by Elliot (1998) when trying to review texts influential upon HRD in the United Kingdom. She felt the picture to be undefined and the originality made it an exciting field of work which enabled her to develop her own perception of the interdisciplinary nature of the field; at the same time, it led to a justifiable concern that her understanding of HRD was likely to be different from anyone else's and that because of this, there would be incongruence between her understanding of the discipline and that of others. Ruona (2000) echoes this concern by pointing out that a major barrier for HRD professionals is that their work and what they stand for is not yet well understood by others. Similarly, the researcher, like other critics and professionals, argues that HRD practitioners do not have a common understanding of what they do, although as a profession they have done much to identify who they are, what they stand for, and what their contribution is to those whom they serve. Even if an epistemological approach to HRD is embraced, which portrays that definitions have value, the quest for definitions is weighed down with difficulties, especially when one is trying to use jargon to deal with dynamic constructs in a rapidly changing world. This was reflected on by the philosopher and novelist, Iris Murdoch (1953:37), who stated that: "The fact is that our awareness of language (jargon) has altered in the fairly recent past. We can no longer take language for granted as a medium of communication. Its transparency is gone."

McLagan (1989:7) usefully defines HRD as a process which includes the “integrated use of training and development, organization development and career development to improve individual, group and organizational effectiveness.” These three areas use development as their primary process. The use of the term “HRD” was the subject of ongoing controversy, especially in the practitioner community, where many felt uncomfortable with the negative associations of people being a “resource”. The comments of Oxtoby (1992, cited in Walton, 2001:4) are typical of a view still held by many.

I hold the view that HRD should be eliminated from all official publications. The words “human resources” reduce people to the same level of importance as materials, money, machinery and methods, which are also resources. People need to be distinguished as the world’s greatest asset. HRD is without feeling for people. Who can define what HRD is? Those outside our profession must be confused, when those inside it cannot describe it in a consistent way. HRD is a phrase of the verbose. It takes three words to describe a process when one word is quite sufficient. The bleak prospect for the term “HRD” may be summarized as: A fashionable flavour of the late 1980s and early 1990s which was promoted by those whose motives for the profession may have been reasonable – but which attempted to gain professional recognition and growth without an everyday feeling for people and their community: a lack of understanding that real growth comes from within the hearts and minds of ordinary people.

In a United States study conducted by Ruona (2000), it is reported that if HRD makes no attempt to define itself, then the organizations in which HRD professionals work, will. This thought, including the quotation below, was debated at the January 2000 University Forum for HRD (UFHRD). This forum is a collaborative network of 30 universities, primarily from the United Kingdom, which promotes professionally focused qualifications, cooperative research, and consultancy initiatives. This debate symbolised the case for clarity of definition

and some consensus of perspective from the primarily United Kingdom audience: “We are all professing, ‘What is HRD?’ If it doesn’t make sense to us how can we explain it to others?” (Walton, 2001:6)

HRD professionals predominantly have a global outlook, but they infrequently articulate and systematically operationalize it for themselves, their colleagues, and their clients. Various factors influence variations in definition by country, including the economy, the influence of government and legislation and the influence of other countries. These factors will be discussed in Chapter 4 specifically within the South African context.

The researcher shares the view of Walton (2001) that it is very clear from the literature study that the majority of comments from those involved in definitional debates about HRD have related the need for clarity and specificity despite opposition from the minority not to define HRD.

Towards Not Defining HRD

Quite a few leading HRD scholars argue that it is unnecessary to define HRD (Lee, 2001; Ruona, 2001). Lee (2001:338) vehemently refuses to define HRD because of the belief that it “is indefinable, and to attempt to define it is only to serve the political or social needs of the minute; to give the appearance of being in control.” As an alternative, Lee suggests the establishment, in an ethical, value-laden and comprehensive way, what HRD practitioners envisage “HRD to become, in the knowledge that it will never ‘be’, but that practitioners might thus influence its ‘becoming’.” A philosophical, theoretical, professional and practical case for refusing to define HRD is presented below.

A Philosophical Case for Refusing to Define HRD

Parmenides’ view of reality is ontological and is conceptualized with one true reality, the units of which are tied together in a causal system. In contrast, the Heraclitean viewpoint offers a becoming ontology in which how an entity becomes constitutes what the actual entity is, so the two descriptions of an actual entity are independent. Its being is constituted by its becoming. This is the principle of process; the flux of things is one ultimate generalisation around which a philosophical system must be woven (Whitehead, 1929: 28, 240). Cooper

(1976) suggests that, within such a process epistemology, the individuals involved feel themselves to be significant connections in a dynamic network and are neither merely passive receivers nor dominant agents imposing their preconceived scheme of things on to that which they apprehend. Integral to living within a process epistemology is the personal quality of what might be called “hanging loose or negative capability,” as described by the early 19th century English poet, John Keats (1817). Therefore the Parmenidean abode which we construct around us to provide clarity, certainty, and delineation, will fail in the turbulence of close examination. In sharp distinction, from the Heraclitean perspective, the connotation and framework of concepts is negotiable (Lee, 2001:331).

A Theoretical Case for Refusing to Define HRD

In order to be meaningful, a definition should encapsulate the properties or qualities of that which is being defined, such that it can be inimitably identified from the definition and thereby distinguished from those that are not being defined. This sort of description of what a definition might be is, in itself, one of being rather than becoming (Lee, 2001). In order to expand on this belief, Lee (2001:331) attempted to develop a working definition of the word “development” and found four different ways in which it can be used, namely, as maturation, shaping, a voyage, and emergent.

Development as Maturation

“Development” refers to a prearranged step-by-step and inevitable progression of people and organizations. It is seen as a preordained unfolding, and thus the developmental force is the process itself, which in turn, defines the growth that the people and the organization achieve. The system (be it an individual, a group or an organization) is seen as being a coherent entity with clearly defined boundaries existing within a predictable external environment.

Development as Shaping

People are envisaged as tools who can be shaped to fit the organization. In this context, development is still seen to have known end-points, but these are defined by someone or something external to the process of development. The organization is stratified, and senior management define the end-point for junior management, which implies that the desires of the corporate hierarchy ultimately produce the development force.

Development as a Voyage

Development is seen as a life-long expedition upon uncharted intrinsic pathways, in which an individual interprets his or her triumphant frames of relevance and places his or her self-view within this, such that each of us constructs our own version of reality, in which our identity is part of the construct. This active process necessitates that the individual is repeatedly re-analysing his or her role in the emergence of the processes of which he or she is a part. While the external world may mirror or catalyse development, it is the individual who is the singular proprietor and clear driving force behind the process.

Development as Emergent

In this context, development is seen to arise out of the disarray by which societal aspiration becomes transformed into societal reality. It is the individual's unique perception of him- or herself within a social reality which is continuously socially (re)constructed (Checkland, 1994); in which "individuals dynamically alter their actions with respect to the ongoing and anticipated actions of their partners" (Fogel, 1993:34); and in which they negotiate a form of communication and meaning specific and new to the group and relatively unacceptable or indescribable to those who were not part of the process (Lee, 1994). This approach directly conflicts with the traditional ideas that organizational change is driven by senior management. However, Romanelli and Tushman (1994) offer empirical support for rapid, discontinuous transformation in organizations being driven by major environmental changes.

Lee (2001) displays these definitions of development in a two-by-two matrix.

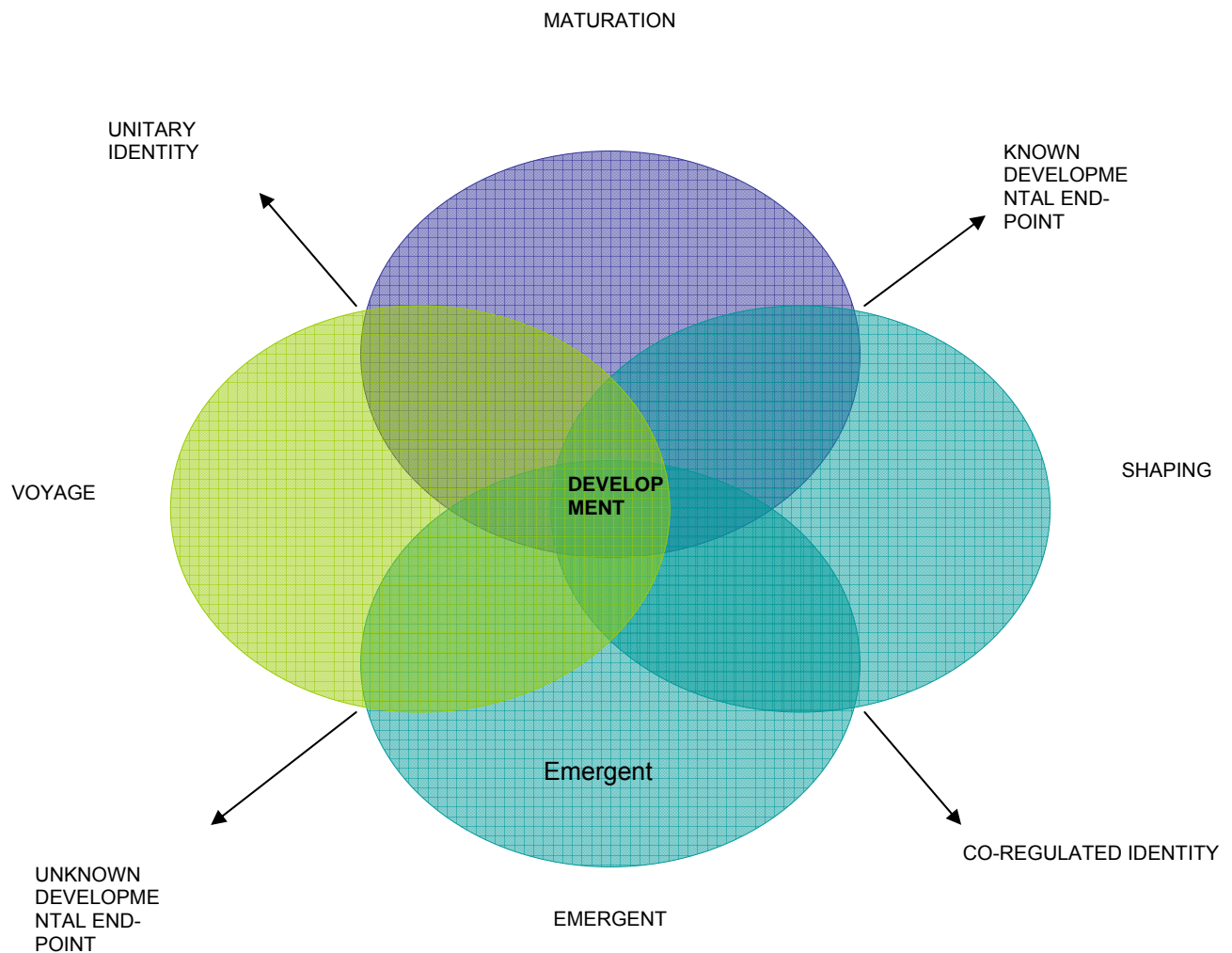
FIGURE 6: A two-by-two matrix of development

END-POINT	IDENTITY		
		UNITARY	CO-REGULATED
	KNOWN	<i>MATURATION</i> Development through inevitable stages	<i>SHAPING</i> Development through planned steps
	UNKNOWN	<i>VOYAGE</i> Development through internal discovery	<i>EMERGENT</i> Development through interaction with other

Source: Lee (2001:333)

Lee (2001:33) explains that the above two-by-two matrix is all-encompassing and well understood in management, but it is a tool of "being", rather than "becoming." The lines are solid and impermeable, and the categories are fixed. In contrast, the Venn diagram in Figure 7 below helps us imagine these different views of development as areas of concentration, in which the most concentrated essence of that which we are examining is in the centre of the area, and, as it diffuses outward, it mingles with the essences of the other areas.

FIGURE 7: Four forms of development



Source: Lee (2001:333)

There appear to be four fundamentally different working definitions of “development.” This is true despite finding alternative ways of representing these differences which might help address the problem of how to represent the types of working definitions associated with becoming. Each of these definitions transmits with it a particular view of organization, and of the nature and role of HRD, and is used under different circumstances. For example, when speaking of our own development, it is usually addressed as if it were a voyage. When senior managers talk of organizational development, they usually speak of it as if

it were being shaped. When social theorists talk of development, they usually adopt a maturational or emergent perspective, depending upon their theoretical bent. Development is thus clearly not a unitary concept (Lee, 2001).

A Professional Case for Refusing to Define HRD

The many uses for the word “development” are indicative of the many different roles that the professional developer might adopt. If one considers the Parmenidean view of the world and examines what is meant by the definition of HRD, one finds that the two-by-two matrix and four different definitions of the word “development” exist, only one of which can be the real meaning while the other three need to be renamed. When talking about HRD however, the situation becomes clearer. A “human resource” is a commodity: something to be shaped and used at the will and needs of the more powerful (Lee, 2001:334). The role of the HRD professional is clear and, by implication, so is the nature of organization and of management. Senior management sets the objectives within a clearly defined organizational structure, in which HRD is a subset of the larger HRM function. If we accept the ordinary meaning of the words, then there is no alternative to seeing HRD as an activity and profession in which development is about shaping individuals to fit the needs of the organization, as defined by senior management.

Lee (2001:335) states that there is a strong drive to define HRD, particularly within the professional and qualification awarding bodies in the field of practice. The professional bodies have, in general, abandoned (at least in part) theoretically derived definitions of HRD and instead adopted a practice-based view, in which they attempt to promote what they see as “best practice” through the establishment of their professional standards, which do not necessarily indicate what is happening in practice. As Lee (2001) argues, perhaps the only way to encapsulate what is meant by HRD is to draw permeable outlines around the multifaceted activities that we all know, and, for want of any other name, choose to call “HRD.”

A Practical Case for Refusing to Define HRD

The notion of a universally acceptable definition of HRD achieved via processes of standardization becomes particularly unrealistic when we look at the degree of diversity in practice across the globe. As McLean and McLean (2001) point out, it is simply not practicable to seek global standardization or definition based upon current practice. They conclude that definitions of HRD are influenced by a country's value system and the point of the life-cycle of the field of HRD in that country. They add that the perception and practice of HRD differs according to the status of the organization, whether it is local or multinational. Practitioners can tender, with some accuracy and completeness, localised definitions in practice, or working definitions. However, descriptions of practice become increasingly meaningless as the diversity in practice increases. Furthermore, as soon as these definitions are encased in course brochures, syllabuses, professional standards, organizational literature, or other such statements of fact, they stop "becoming" and they "are". In consequence, HRD is unable to "become" anything else, and so the core of the debate is reached (Lee, 2001:336).

HRD theorists and professionals are increasingly behaving as if the process that we call HRD is dynamic and emergent. Organizational theory and HRD theory are starting to explore areas of complexity, and the notion of process itself. In order to accommodate the diversity they found in definitions of HRD, McLean and McLean (2001, cited in Lee, 2001:334) offer a global processual definition, namely:

Human resource development is any process or activity that, either initially or over the long term, has the potential to develop adults' work-based knowledge, expertise, productivity and satisfaction, whether for personal or group/team gain, or for the benefit of the organization, community, nation or, ultimately, the whole of humanity.

Even such a global definition, however, does not meet everybody's requirements. Lee (2001) questions why it is limited to adults. What of all the

child workers in the world? The authors did not include them in the definition as they considered the fact of child labour to be one of the negating elements of HRD practice. Thus the definition is actually a statement of how the authors would like the field to become, and not how it “is.”

Regardless of the prevailing focus in the West (at least) on scientific definition and measurable outcomes, a broader view of the field shows that the practice or the “doing” of whatever we mean by HRD is also a process of “becoming.” There are significant parallels between this and the emergent system of development. This system reflects the disarray by which societal aspiration becomes transformed into societal reality. Society advances with no clear end-point and with its emergent activities as the drive behind change, rather than the edicts of the hierarchy (Lee, 1997b).

Lee (2001) was programme leader for a Master’s Programme at Lancaster University and refused to define HRD in this programme; through her repudiation she tried to ensure that each learner develop his/her own emergent view of HRD, rather than adopting the one propounded by a teacher, which they would end up sporting like an aged, ill-fitting garment. She claims that her approach ensured that HRD was different for each person, and emerged out of their experiences.

Currently in South Africa, the levels of understanding of HRD are as diverse as the NQF stakeholders and NQF partners that it serves. The researcher believes that it is only through exploring the nature of HRD that a shared and common understanding of HRD can be achieved. The majority of HRD literature originates in the United States of America and the United Kingdom, and scholarly work in South Africa is skeletal in comparison. The South African context gives the concept of relevance of this literature a potency that is not usually matched in international experience. Therefore, understanding the nature of HRD will serve as a lens through which HRD is studied, providing a number of windows into various aspects of HRD and each window in turn adding to a richer, fuller, and multidimensional picture of HRD in operation in different societal contexts.

Strategic HRD (SHRD)

A comprehensive analysis of the history of industrial relations reveals that Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM) and Performance Management (PM) first emerged in embryonic form out of a fundamental shift in Human Resource Management (HRM) paradigms that took place roughly from 1915 to 1925. According to Kaufman (2001), the year to be selected as a birth year would be 1919. This was the year when institutional economist, John R. Commons, published *Industrial Goodwill*, the first major work by an American academic who produced the following:

1. The idea that employees are valuable organizational resources (including explicit use of the term “human resources”)
2. A strategic choice framework with regard to alternative bundles of HRM practices
3. The concept of PM, why it might improve organizational performance and what particular models of HRM it best fits.

This new paradigm thus emphasizes the significance of employees as organizational assets or “human resources” and explicitly encases an integrated set of HRM practices aimed at achieving competitive advantage in a strategic business sense. This made employee participation in the operation of the business a central part of the new style of management. Definitions of SHRM vary, but most authors (Dulebohn *et al.*, 1995; Huselid *et al.*, 1997) suggest that the essence of the human resource perspective is that employees are viewed as valuable assets, and SHRM, in turn, is the development and implementation of an overall plan that seeks to gain and sustain competitive advantage by managing these human assets through an integrated, synergistic set of HR practices that both complement and promote the overall business strategy of the organization (Kaufman, 2001). Indicative of this point of view is a statement by Dyer and Holder (1988:1) that “the field of HRM has discovered, and indeed begun to embrace, a strategic perspective.”

“Strategy” was translated simply as an idea of how a company reaches its goals. Based on an article by Drucker (1964), strategy can also be described as a sum of three components:

1. First, there are assumptions about the environment of the organization: society and its structure, the market, the customer, and technology.
2. Second, there are assumptions about the specific mission, expressed as a far-reaching vision or more exact objectives, of the organization.
3. Third, there are assumptions about the internal resources, tangible and intangible, of the organization. Seen this way, strategy is about making the internal resources meet the external environment, so that future goals can be achieved.

The Emergence of SHRD

This section will review the literature on SHRD and explore the concept, specifically in the context of the work of Garavan (1991), which highlighted nine key characteristics of SHRD. Garavan's seminal paper is used as a starting point from which to examine the development of the concept of SHRD. McCracken and Wallace (2000) examine and review the literature, and redefine and enhance the nine characteristics, thus moving towards a new model and definition for SHRD.

Horwitz (1999) states that a strategic approach to HRD requires:

1. increased theoretical rigour
2. more robust methodologies for evaluating the effectiveness of HRD
3. resolution of responsibility for training
4. boundary roles of line managers and HRD specialists
5. more coherent alignment with organizational strategy.

Generally, strategic human resource development (SHRD) as a component of SHRM concerns alignment or fit between competitive strategy and HR practices (Horwitz, 1996; Schuler *et al.*, 1993 cited in Horwitz, 1999:180). This approach differentiates between internal and external fit. The idea of external fit deals with how an organization mobilizes its resources to compete in the external environment. Internal fit usually concerns implementing advocated strategic goals and policies, and the degree of alignment between intent (vision and mission), actual behaviour, and policy performance at operational level. Strategic fit models have developed typologies of human resource practices for

different competitive strategies such as innovation, quality enhancement, and cost reduction (Horwitz, 1999).

What Drives SHRD?

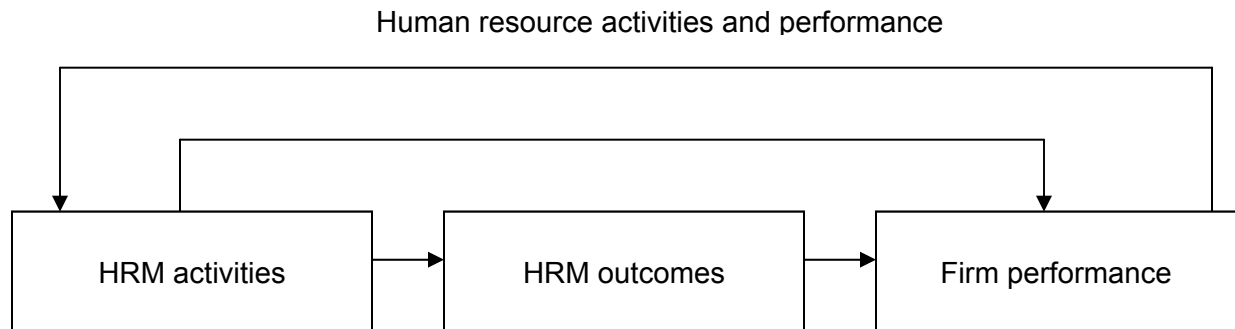
An insightful analysis of this is the work of various authors (Schuler *et al.*, 1993; Caligiuri and Stroh, 1995; Kamoche, 1997 cited in Horwitz, 1999:180). They reiterate that in a global economy, transfer of learning, new knowledge, and the notion of intellectual capital become as important to leveraging competitive success as does an understanding of local conditions. It is thus imperative that SHRD concerns policies and practices resulting from organizational strategies seeking competitive advantage in either domestic or international markets, or both. The extent to which an organization's HRD practices succeed in differentiating workforce competencies from those of competitors and facilitates transfer of learning across units, also contributes towards competitive advantage (Bartlett and Ghoshal, 1992). Furthermore, the strategic element of HRD emanates from new work processes driven by product markets, technology, organization, and the objective of redesigning work processes. These are responses to competitive pressures. Work reorganization to achieve performance goals affords the link between HRD practices and strategic intent. Training needs analysis, in this strategic sense, focuses on identifying required competencies at individual, work organization, team and leadership levels. Structural and systemic change following strategic plans and initiatives create the particular HRD needs.

How Robust is SHRD?

An appropriate and robust theoretical framework for SHRD as well as how to overcome methodological difficulties is still lacking and insufficient attention is paid to the practical implications of strategic HRM and to the development for decision makers. Unresolved debates occur around so-called best practice models versus contingent, resource-based and organization-specific HRD (Paawe and Richardson, 1997). This underlines the difficulty in establishing robust directional or cause-effect relationships between variables in survey

research. Empirical results are largely based on the framework shown in Figure 8 below, as contributed by Paawe and Richardson (1997).

FIGURE 8: A cause-effect relationship between firm performance and HRM activities



Source: Horwitz (1999:182)

This framework suggests a cause-effect relationship between organizational performance and human resource management (HRM) activities. An organization which performs better is more likely to make a greater investment in HRD. There is a necessity for more rigorous theory in the debate about SHRM, as statistical sophistication appears to have been emphasized at the expense of theoretical rigour. Consequently, the studies are “non-additive except in a very broad-spectrum way” (Guest, 1997:263-275). The focus of SHRD from a normative perspective would be on practices expected to raise the skills or competencies of employees to enhance functional flexibility.

Our comprehension of SHRD as an intrinsic contributor to SHRM and business strategy formation is at most embryonic. Contemporary views of business strategy consider the formal, rational model of long-range planning as passé, and critics question the assumption that intended strategies become actual strategies (Mintzberg, 1994). Strategy is considered rather as an incremental process, is iterative and strongly influenced by an organization’s culture, history structure and stage of life cycle (Horwitz, 1999). Continuous change limits a formal, rational model of strategy formation, which raises critical

issues for SHRD. Organizations need core competencies which can be bought, contracted, or internally developed.

The responsibility for skills development has shifted to the employee and in some countries, the government (or state). Models of SHRD may invariably be more robust if they make some attempt to integrate situational factors. However, contingency models seem to be the limit. This clearly highlights the necessity for more theoretical work on SHRD. There is convincingly sound evidence that human resource issues such as training and development are considered at the implementation phases of strategic decision-making, but there is a universal lack of HRD involvement in corporate strategy formation (Nkomo, 1988; Purcell and Ahlstrand, 1995). Corporate strategy and the strategic needs of an organization are considered as key determinants of HR activities. Generally, HR strategy follows organizational strategy with some interrelated linking.

Like Purcell and Ahlstrand (1995), one can argue that the literature has been too optimistic about possibilities for corporate and HR strategy, and that greater emphasis needs to be given to a strategic choice perspective. This perspective highlights the relationship between different forms of organizational design, such as multi-divisional structures, decentralized decision-making, organizational life cycle, size, and product market (Marchington *et al.*, 1996; McPherson and Roche, 1997, cited in Horwitz, 1999). SHRD requires a more holistic approach rather than traditional HRD, including organizational stakeholders beyond HRD specialists (Gerber *et al.*, 1997).

Horwitz (1999:182) states that integrated or holistic approaches to SHRD consider HRD as the following:

1. Overcoming labour market discrimination through addressing inequalities based on race, gender, physical disability, and other factors
2. An investment and not a cost
3. Intrinsic to human resources (HR) planning, which as part of a process or emergent approach to strategy, represents a potential area of cooperation between management and labour. Examples include collective agreements on HRD between Ford bus and trucking company and the UAW in Baltimore

and similar agreements between the National Union of Metalworkers and the Motor Industries in South Africa.

4. Facilitating a growing awareness of cultural diversity in organizations and developing an organizational culture valuing diversity and equal opportunity.

Contingency and situational frameworks within this context are distinguished as a process of reinterpreting societal level variables into organizational choices, characteristically acquiring a strategy preference that is flexible with an inflection on receptiveness to change (Tyson, 1997).

The Strategic HRD Agenda

In the South African environment, HRD occurs in the context of employment equity and affirmative action legislation. The South African society experienced decades of racial and ethnic discrimination, and HRD efforts entail addressing a distorted skills allotment. Strategic approaches to HRD can be differentiated from traditional approaches. Horwitz (1999:183) states that the following key features of SHRD practices include the following:

1. Integration into a human resource strategy, which in turn is aligned with an organizational or corporate strategy
2. Competency-based HRD derived from structural, systemic, technological and work reorganization needs: this in contrast to menu offerings by centralized training departments in large organizations
3. Line management responsibility for developing people as a key performance area in the appraisal and reward of a manager
4. Partnership between HRD specialists and line managers in developing employee competencies required to achieve organizational performance goals
5. Creating an organizational culture of continuous learning and transfer of learning between units
6. Measuring and evaluating the effectiveness of HRD practices on individual, team, and work unit performance. This is probably one of the most critical components of SHRD; the HRD profession has not found a generally acceptable methodology for evaluating the transfer of training and

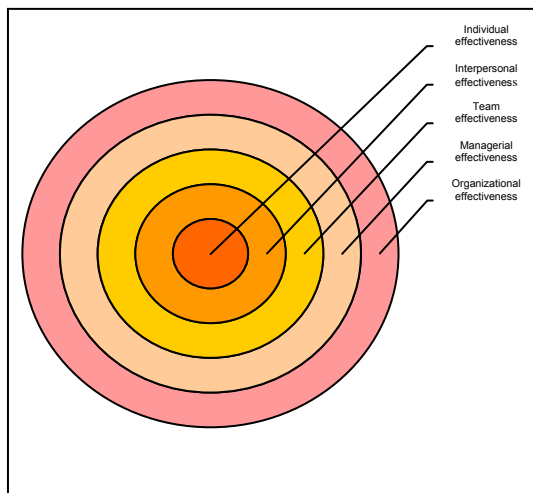
its effectiveness in the work place, which is a large and fundamental gap, limiting the extent to which HRD can be recognized as playing a strategic organizational role

7. Targeting value-adding performance areas for specific development initiatives which potentially enhance competitive advantage; these include service excellence, product innovation, creative problem-solving, leadership, and team development

8. Business and work process integration, which involves learning to work collaboratively across traditional functional disciplines in multi-functional/disciplinary teams, which requires both new interactive skills and organizational redesign. An example is Executive Development Programmes that increasingly emphasize integrated managerial and organizational processes. This requires learning in multi-functional flexible teams, rather than obsession with a “functional silo” where development is based singly on an individual rather than on collaborative learning processes.

Depending on contingency requirements at a particular point in time, SHRD focuses on development at numerous levels, which are depicted in Figure 9 below.

FIGURE 9: Levels of HRD



Source: Horwitz (1999:184)

The distribution of HRD resources, disbursement, and effort vary at different levels, depending on strategic priorities over time. Miscalculations are often made, resulting in training and developmental efforts which do not add value to the organization. This once again emphasizes the necessity to develop a methodology which evaluates the degree of alignment between HRD practice and organizational goals.

Evaluating HRD effectiveness

When you can measure what you are speaking about and express it in numbers, you know something about it; but when you cannot measure, when you cannot express it in numbers, your knowledge is of a meagre and unsatisfactory kind; it may be the beginning of knowledge, but you have scarcely in your thoughts advanced to the state of science, whatever the matter may be.

Lord Kelvin (1824-1907)

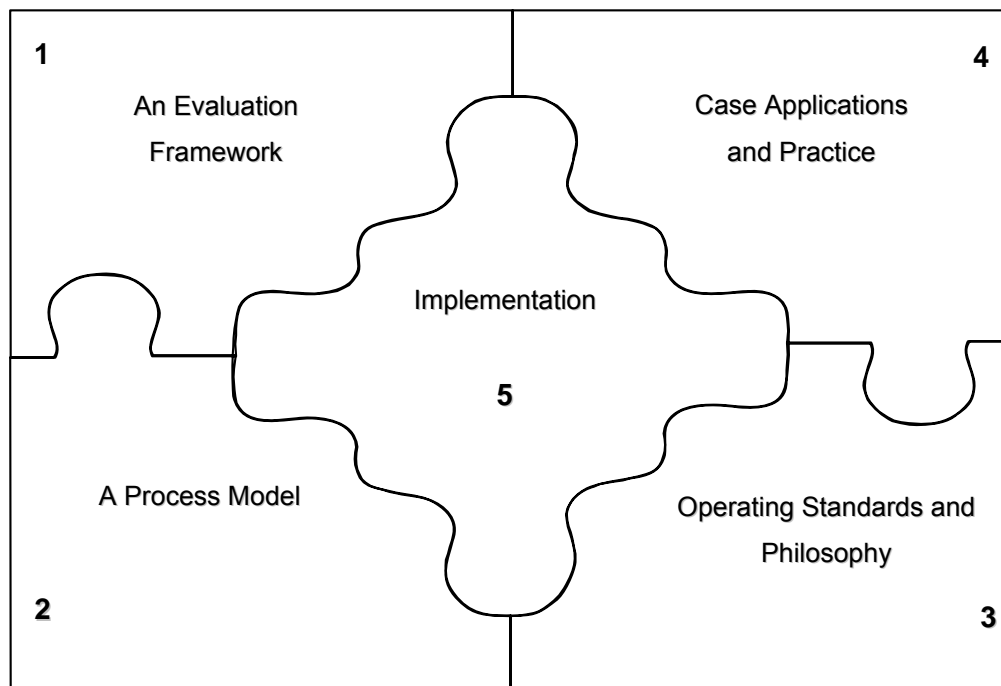
A key challenge facing organizations today is the need to assign a value to the benefits of training and development, human resources, performance improvement, change, quality, and technology. A study by a Corporate Executive Board shows that although 78% of those participating in the study have evaluating ROI on their wish list, only 11% percent are actually evaluating programmes using ROI (Drimmer, 2002).

There are five levels for evaluating the effectiveness of HRD interventions. Donald Kirkpatrick's (1998) first four levels are still the international benchmark in the field of training evaluation. In addition, the ROI Methodology, developed by Phillips (1997), the world's leading ROI expert, has proved to be an accurate, credible, and feasible approach to addressing the accountability issues for all types of organizations. The methodology was developed in response to specific client needs. The researcher is currently responsible for measuring the ROI of critical HRD interventions in Coca-Cola Sabco. In addition, the researcher will be

attending the ROI Methodology Certification session with Phillips in Virginia in May 2005.

The ROI Methodology constitutes the fifth level of evaluation of training and performance improvement interventions. It has been accepted and used in over 40 countries, and is the leading approach to ROI accountability. The elements of the ROI Methodology are depicted in Figure 10 below, and will be briefly commented upon.

FIGURE 10: Elements of the ROI methodology



Source: ROI Institute (2004:1)

The ROI Methodology is best explained by considering the five key elements depicted in the above figure. The first element is the framework for evaluation, which details five distinct levels of evaluation. These levels, shown in Table 13 below, categorize data reporting a chain of impact as reaction leads to learning, then

to on-the-job application, and to business impact, culminating in measuring a return on investment.

TABLE 13: Chain of impact

Evaluation Levels	
Level	Measurement Focus
1. Reaction and planned action	Measures participant satisfaction with the programme and captures planned actions.
2. Learning	Measures changes in knowledge, skills, and attitudes.
3. Application and implementation	Measures changes in on-the-job behavior and progress with application.
4. Business Impact	Captures changes in business impact measures.
5. Return on Investment	Compares programme monetary benefits to the programme costs.

Source: ROI Institute (2004:1)

Elaine Biech (2004, cited in ROI Institute, 2004:1) provides a comprehensive explanation of these levels.

Level 1 is a measure of how participants feel about the various aspects of a training programme, including the topic, speaker, schedule, and so forth. “Reaction”

is basically a measure of customer satisfaction. Another reason for measuring reaction is to ensure that participants are motivated and interested in learning. If they do not like a programme, there is little chance that they will make an effort to learn.

Level 2 is the measure of the knowledge acquired, skills improved, or attitudes changed as a result of training. Generally, a training course accomplishes one or more of these three things. Some programmes aim to improve trainees' knowledge of concepts, principles, or techniques. Others aim to teach new skills or improve old ones. In addition, some programmes, such as those on diversity, try to change attitudes.

Level 3 is the measure of the extent to which participants change their on-the-job behaviour because of training. It is commonly referred to as "transfer of training."

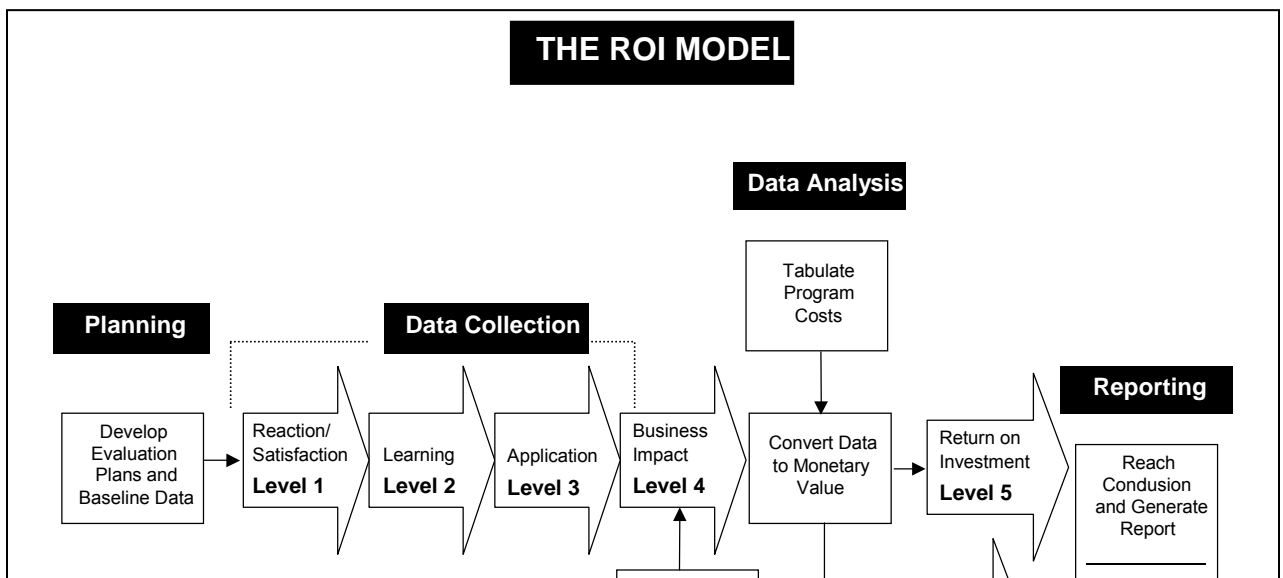
Level 4 is a measure of the final results that occur as a result of training, including increased sales, higher productivity, bigger profits, reduced costs, less employee turnover, and improved quality.

Level 5 compares the programme monetary benefits to the programme costs.

Evaluation becomes more difficult, complicated, and expensive, but much more important and meaningful, as it progresses from level 1 to level 5.

The second element is the ROI Model illustrated as Figure 11 below. As shown in Figure 11, the model provides a step-by-step process for collecting data, summarizing and processing data, isolating the effects of programmes, converting data to monetary value, and capturing the actual ROI.

FIGURE 11: The ROI model



Source: ROI Institute (2004:2)

The guiding principles, the third element (see Figure 10), serve as standards for using the process and processing the data. The standards are conservative in nature and essential for building essential credibility with crucial target audiences.

The fourth evaluation element illustrated in Figure 10 represents the actual application of the process. Application is critical for an early benefit as the ROI Methodology is implemented.

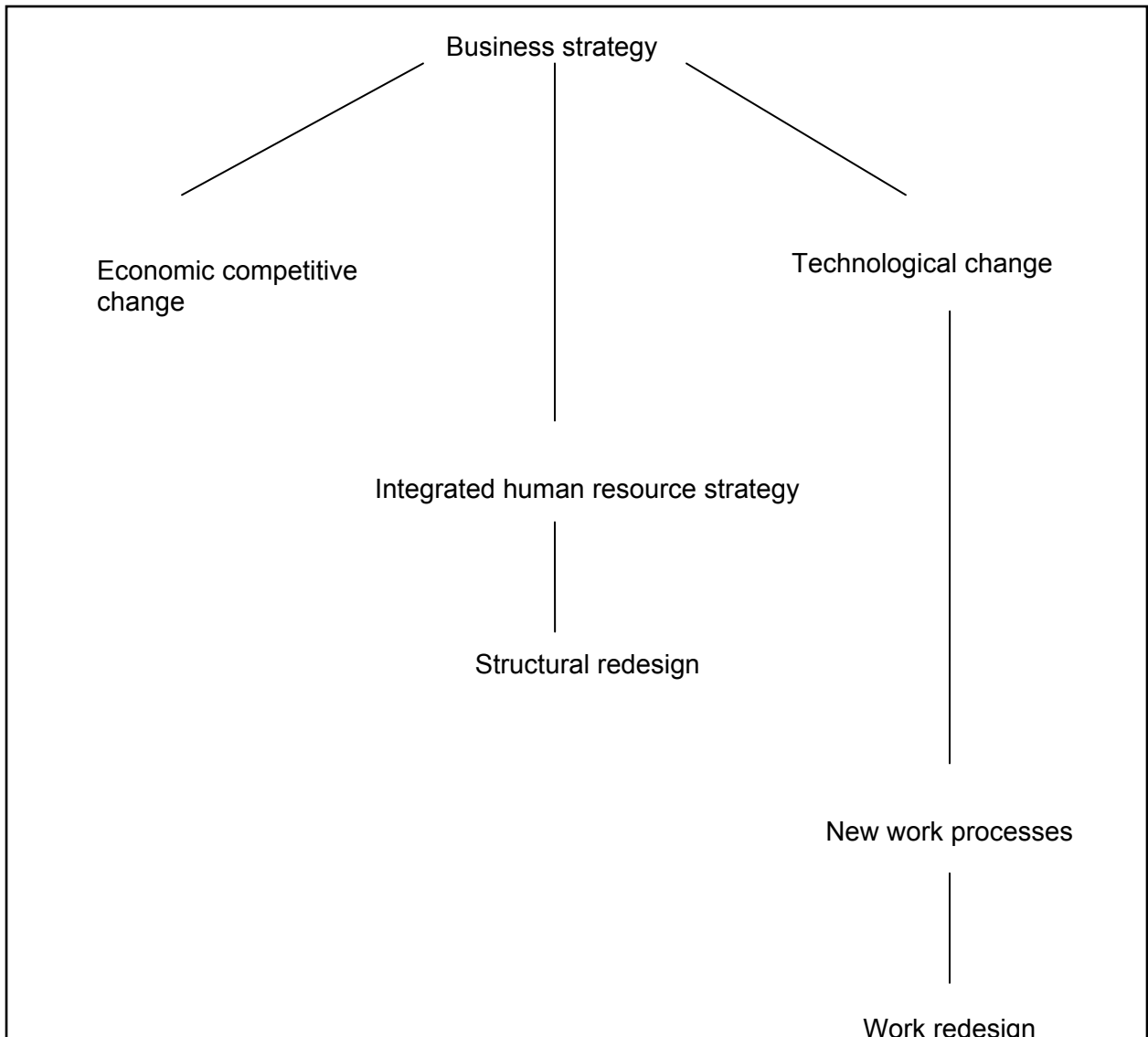
The fifth and final element illustrated in Figure 10, implementation, holds the other four elements together through integrating and sustaining the methodology over the long term. By means of implementation, organizations explore ways to guarantee that the methodology becomes a customary part of their activities and assignments. As part of this process, actions are taken and evaluation targets are set.

The ROI Methodology is the only process available to provide the employer with the evidence and assurance about employee capability in measurement and evaluation, including return on investment (ROI Institute, 2004:7).

The most significant challenge facing HRD practitioners is to ensure that all HRD activity meets the organizational requirements for strategic functioning, in order to centralize it in organizational life (Heraty and Morley, 1997). A strategic approach to the transfer of learning raises critical and frequently situationally dependent questions regarding roles, responsibility, accountability, performance management, and reward systems for training. The tendency to emphasize quantity of training,

that is, the number of employees trained, and training expenditure, rather than the effectiveness of training and the transfer of learning back on-the-job, remains challenging. “Transfer of learning” is the influence of prior learning on performance in a new situation. The transfer of learning is affected by organizational factors such as pay and promotion, and social variables such as peer group and supervisory support (Wexley and Latham, 1991, cited in Horwitz, 1999). The aspect of transferability also concerns cross-cultural applicability of HRD concepts, techniques, and practices. Key prerequisites for effective transfer of learning are management support (job linkage), relevance of HRD interventions to current work, links to managerial performance management, career advancement and rewards, and performance measures (Horwitz and Rip, 1989; Statham, 1985, cited in Horwitz, 1999:184). Figure 12 below illustrates the factors driving a strategic approach to HRD.

FIGURE 12: Strategically linked HRD



Source: Horwitz (1999:185)

Features of this approach include explicit and accountable links to business strategy, executive management endorsement and commitment as well as that of other organizational stakeholders, a recognition at strategic level that organizational capacity is a function of the competency and capabilities of its people, and executive requirements for information reporting and monitoring of HRD practices and effectiveness (Horwitz, 1999:184).

Expenditure on HRD

Expenditure on training and development remains a small percentage of remuneration budgets. The American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) is the world's leading organization in the field of workplace learning and performance. The Second Annual ASTD South African state of the training and HR Industry 2004 study and subsequent report sets the baseline for benchmarking, so that training and HRD practitioners can emerge as professionals who make decisions and implement training interventions based on a specific and professional approach to HRD. Comparing South Africa to global standards, several challenges have emerged from this study, such as the following:

1. The need for training managers to become business partners by aligning their training interventions more directly to overall business strategy
2. The need to measure the ROI from training.

This report is significant not only from a global perspective but also in the light of the South African skills revolution, kick-started by local legislative interventions.

The Skills Development Act No. 97 of 1998 and the Skills Development Levies Act No. 9 of 1999, which compel organizations to spend 1.5% of salary budgets on training, indirectly raises awareness of the need for training and investment in people development (Grobler *et al.*, 2002:350).

The key findings of the ASTD report are as follows:

1. South African organizations spend 4,5% of payroll on training, significantly above the 1,5% required by the SDLA and double the amount as reported in the United States benchmarking service (2,2%).
2. Training has been identified as the most prominent employee retention strategy.
3. Only 9% of organizations measure the financial ROI of training programmes, probably because only 16% of training managers have been trained in ROI measurement.
4. Measuring ROI should cost 3-5% of training budget.

Management Development and Strategic Alignment

Developing our executives is a process and not an event. It is conceptual, informational and experiential in nature, and occurs on the job and sometimes more formally in a classroom environment. Executive development as a component of SHRD has emerged as an important lever for gaining competitive advantage. A feature of SHRD is the internationalization of management development. This implies that executives and managers need to learn how to do business internationally, understanding cross-cultural/diversity issues, international finance and strategy, and international human resource practices which add value. SHRD at executive level deals with strategies for enhancing competitiveness, leadership development and team building, productivity improvement, flexible organization change, and people skills. Work study visits or “best practice visits,” as they are sometimes referred to, of employees and employee representatives (shop stewards) of multi-national companies to sites in other countries and attending training programmes abroad have become increasingly common amongst European and South African companies operating in Africa and other continents, for example, Volkswagen and Coca-Cola Sabco. This underlines the potential strategic role of

HRD in creating globally knowledgeable employees who understand the broader external factors affecting their organization's competitive capability. This is one way in which HRD can contribute to the process of external and internal strategic fit (Horwitz, 1999:185).

Human Resource Information: It's Role in the Development Process

If suitably implemented, HRD has the capability to boost economic competitiveness. Investing in skills development across organizational levels is vital, as is recognizing and rewarding managers who successfully coach, train, and develop their "direct reports" (subordinates). This implies flexible career paths which promote development through taking on real and meaningful responsibilities and learning by experiencing the core business of the organization.

Strategically linked HRD has to carefully consider socio-economic changes, increasing competitiveness, the disappearance of trade protection, and rapid technological change. Within SAHR, employment equity and diversity management are important sub-strategies. They are contributors to HRD, rather than being strategies themselves (Horwitz, 1999:187).

Who is Responsible for HRD?

The HRD literature is somewhat normative and rhetorical in encouraging line managers to take responsibility for training and development; however, the reality is that this is the exception rather than the norm. Designating this responsibility successfully to line managers is risky and has various problems. Line managers are not people development specialists, and while some kind of partnership between them and people development specialists is proposed, role ambiguity occurs (Horwitz, 1999).

In order for HRD to make a meaningful strategic contribution to enhancing organizational effectiveness, a systematic people development needs analysis has to be employed. HRD literature and practices fail to satisfactorily direct how line managers should develop their people. Furthermore, a deficiency in line management enthusiasm for this role is reinforced by findings that the least popular people development delivery mechanisms include coaching and mentoring. This may be the result of the large commitment of time and resources that is required to

coach and mentor, despite the fact that these activities have been consistently lauded for their critical contribution to SHRD (Heraty and Morley, 1997).

The process of decentralized HRD has been reversed in some organizations in order to facilitate overcoming these barriers and challenges. Johnson and Johnson, for example, had training experts in each of its business units (Horwitz, 1999). Through re-engineering they created a centre of training expertise, staffed by 12 HRD specialists who contract their services to business units. The notion of a centre of expertise is not the same as a service centre. Rather, it combines individuals and teams with a deep knowledge and expertise in various HR areas (Ulrich, 1997). Other organizations such as Old Mutual, a South African insurance company, have centres of expertise established on a consultancy and profit centre basis, doing work for both internal and outside clients (Horwitz, 1999). Kesler and Law (1987) offer an instructive paradigm for a focused HR organization, distinguishing between an expert resource pool, HR consultants as front-line partners with line managers, and a central service centre.

Defining HRD and SHRD

The term “human resource development” has been used in various contexts ever since its inception. This has led to considerable confusion with various individuals, organizations and professional bodies applying the label to widely differing activities. Nadler and Nadler (1989) define HRD as “organized learning experience provided by the employer, in a specified period of time, for the purpose of increasing job performance and providing growth for individuals.”

According to Garavan *et al.*, (1995:6) the ASTD states that HRD includes training and development, organization development, and career development, but that there are some commentators who would exclude the latter two activities. Other definitions contributed by Hall (1994) and Cacioppe *et al.*, (1990), place emphasis on the strategic dimensions of the concept. Harrison (1997) is of the opinion that the phrase “HRD” is now used to the displeasure of many who prefer softer phrases such as “employee development” or “training and development.” Harrison defines it in a strategic context as developing people as a portion of an overall human resource strategy. It involves the provision of learning experiences in the workplace in order

that business goals can be achieved. Harrison further contends that it entails the alignment of training and development activities with the organization's mission and strategic goals so that through enhancing the skills, knowledge, learning ability, and motivation of employees at all levels, there will be continuous organizational and individual growth. Garavan (1991) defines it as the strategic management of training development and management/professional education interventions aimed at facilitating the achievement of organizational goals, while simultaneously ensuring the full utilization of the knowledge and skills of employees. Guest's (1991) comments on strategic HRD support this definition because he asserts that human resources can be integrated into strategic plans. If human resource policies cohere, line managers have internalized the significance of human resources and this is reflected in their behaviour, and employees identify with the company, then the company's strategic plans are likely to be more successfully implemented (Garavan *et al.*, 1995).

Ogbanna and Wilkinson (1988) have defined "corporate strategy" as an organization's relationship with its environment, its main objectives, and its means of accomplishing them. Therefore strategic HRD must be viewed as a proactive corporate activity, and not reactive. This view is supported by Beer and Spector (1989) in Garavan *et al.*, (1995:6), who contemplate the differences between traditional training and development and strategic HRD to be as given below:

Strategic HRD can be viewed as a proactive, system-wide intervention, that is linked to strategic planning and cultural change. This contrasts with the traditional view of training and development as consisting of reactive, piecemeal interventions in response to specific problems. HRD can only be strategic if it is incorporated into the overall corporate business strategy. It is in this way that the HRD function attains the status it needs to survive and to have a long-term impact on overall business performance and respond to significant competitive and technological pressures.

Rothwell and Kazanas (1991) further expand on the differences between traditional training and strategic HRD as follows:

1. Strategic HRD is more constructive than traditional training. It encourages the involvement of many stakeholders rather than simply the training and development function acting as a training provider.
2. Strategic HRD places a reduced amount of emphasis on the role of experience. Traditional training activities provide individuals who are lacking in knowledge and skills, with structured opportunities to receive the fruits of deskilled organizational experience (Garavan *et al.*, 1995). When viewed this way, training and development is a maintenance subsystem, intended to enhance organizational efficiency by increasing optimization and predictability of human behaviour. It is appropriate to depend on experience if future events and situations will be similar to those of the past. Nevertheless, experience is not always appropriate in preparing for the future. Strategic HRD advocates that individuals should anticipate knowledge and skills required in the future rather than react after problems become evident.
3. Megginson and Pedlar (1992) state that HRD is not just about training, although training activities are a critical component. The inclination to equate one with the other is a fundamental misconception and therefore fogs people's expectations of what to expect from the training and development function. These authors further contend that training departments suffer from structural and management limitations, which means that on their own they can by no means give the quality of service and contribution to individual and organizational performance that is ultimately expected of the function. Recognition of a definition of HRD which has a strategic emphasis is a challenging task for the training and development function (Garavan *et al.*, 1995).

The use of the term "HRD" is the subject of ongoing controversy, especially in the practitioner community, where many feel uncomfortable with the negative associations of people being a "resource". The comments of Oxtoby (1992, as cited in Walton, 2001:4) are typical of a view still held by many.

I hold the view that HRD should be eliminated from all official publications. The words “human resources” reduce people to the same level of importance as materials, money, machinery and methods, which are also resources. People need to be distinguished as the world’s greatest asset. HRD is without feeling for people. Who can define what HRD is? Those outside our profession must be confused, when those inside it cannot describe it in a consistent way. HRD is a phrase of the verbose. It takes three words to describe a process when one word is quite sufficient. The bleak prospect for the term “HRD” may be summarized as: A fashionable flavour of the late 1980s and early 1990s, which was promoted by those whose motives for the profession may have been reasonable – but which attempted to gain professional recognition and growth without an everyday feeling for people and their community: a lack of understanding that real growth comes from within the hearts and minds of ordinary people.

SHRD is an augmentation of the above. It places particular emphasis on the development of comprehensive, coordinated, and dynamic approaches for major learning initiatives inside and outside an organization in order to facilitate the achievement of all stakeholder objectives in a competitive and turbulent environment. As the strategic significance of organizational and individual learning as a source of competitive and cooperative advantage gains recognition, a strategic need arises for appropriately positioned “learning architects” with the distinctive competences and consultancy skills to orchestrate learning initiatives on behalf of their patrons. They need to be seen as partners in the formulation of strategy as well as developers of quality people to deliver strategy (Walton, 2001: 3).

The continuous development of human resources should become a key element of every organization’s strategic plan. Managed properly, these resources can become a powerful competitive advantage. While some organizations relegate training and development activities to secondary status, these activities should be viewed as a critical strategic function that contributes directly to the bottom line, and

has a quick and sure impact on the company's competitive potency (Widgery *et al.*, 2004).

According to Blake (1995:22), "the field of human resource development defies definition and boundaries. It's difficult to put into a box." Despite this powerfully expressed perspective, a number of useful definitions of SHRD exist, including the following:

1. The strategic management of training, development and of management/professional education interventions, so as to achieve the objectives of the organization while at the same time ensuring the full utilization of the knowledge in detail and skills of individual employees. It is concerned with the management of employee learning for the long term, keeping in mind the explicit corporate and business strategies (Garavan, 1991:17).
2. Strategic HRD can be viewed as a proactive, system-wide intervention, linked to strategic planning and cultural change. This contrasts with the traditional view of training and development as consisting of reactive, piecemeal interventions in response to specific problems (Beer and Spector, 1989:25).

These definitions, amongst others (Stewart and McGoldrick, 1996; Harrison, 1997), stress the need for SHRD to function within and be linked to corporate strategy, and to and bear it in mind. This implies that SHRD should be responsive to corporate strategy. It would be much more robust and vigorous if SHRD could play more than the rather reactive role implied by this suggestion and then simultaneously challenge the perception that SHRD only flows out of corporate strategy (McCracken and Wallace, 2000). What does "more strategically focused" actually mean?

Garavan *et al.*, (1991) identified nine characteristics of SHRD which were redefined and enhanced into a new model for SHRD by McCracken and Wallace, (2000:282). It is important to stress that the nine characteristics are intricately linked and should complement and mutually support one another and have internal fit. All are important in their own right, but they are also interrelated. If any one is absent or weak, it will significantly weaken the development of SHRD (McCracken and Wallace, 2000). Table 14 provides a description of these characteristics (Garavan,

1991) and also displays the enhanced characteristics developed by McCracken and Wallace, 2000) and the differences between the conclusions of these two leading scholars.

TABLE 14: A comparison of SHRD characteristics

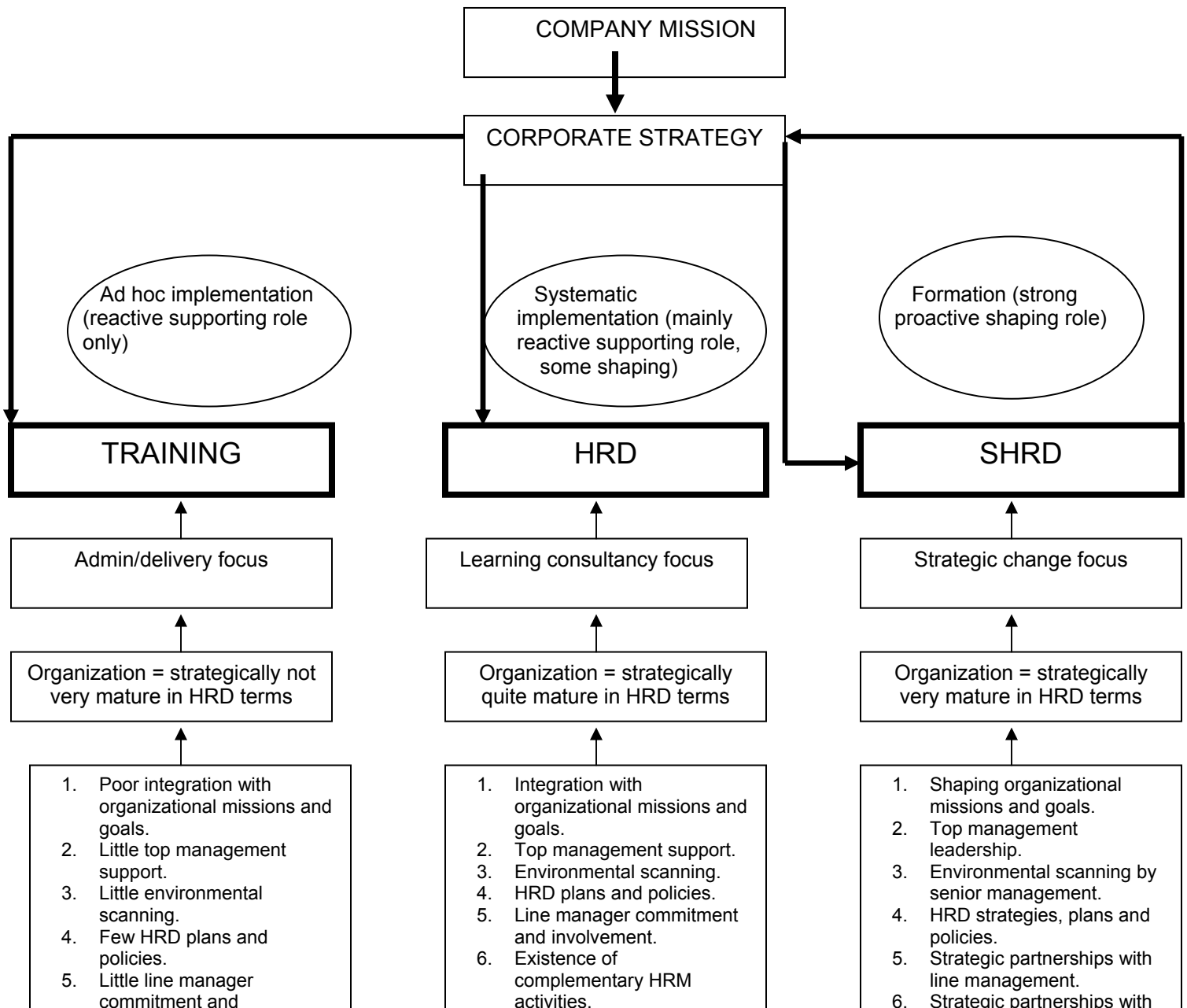
No.	SHRD characteristics (Garavan, 1991)	SHRD characteristics (McCracken and Wallace, 2000)
1	Integration with organizational missions and goals	Shaping organizational mission and goals
2	Top management support	Top management leadership
3	Environmental scanning	Environmental scanning by senior management, specifically in HRD terms
4	HRD plans and policies	HRD strategies, policies and plans
5	Line manager commitment and involvement	Strategic partnerships with line management
6	Existence of complementary HRM activities	Strategic partnerships with HRM
7	Expanded trainer role	Trainers as organizational change consultants
8	Recognition of culture	Ability to influence corporate culture
9	Emphasis on evaluation	Emphasis on cost-effectiveness evaluation

Source: McCracken and Wallace (2000:287)

The above characteristics named by McCracken and Wallace (2000), exist in an open system, each dependent on the others so that SHRD emerges and thrives. As SHRD emerges and thrives, then so does a learning culture. The new enhanced

version of the nine characteristics suggests that SHRD is about more than “keeping in mind” business strategies (Garavan, 1991:17). SHRD should have a much more proactive and influential role. The new model is illustrated below and then expanded upon.

FIGURE 13: A model of SHRD



McCracken and Wallace (2000:286) distinguish between the following in the above

Source: Modified from McCracken and Wallace (2000:287)

model.

Training

Training has a reactive and *ad hoc* implementation role in relation to corporate strategy. Training specialists tend to have an administrative and delivery role, providing standardized services to the organization (Brewster and Soderstrom, 1994, in McCracken and Wallace, 2000). Minimal evidence is found of the existence of any of Garavan's (1991) nine characteristics, even in their original version. The organization is strategically immature in HRD terms and has no discernible learning culture.

HRD

HRD has a systematic implementation role and shows some signs of beginning to shape corporate strategy. HRD specialists have developed an internal learning consultancy role (Philips and Shaw, 1989, cited in McCracken and Wallace, 2000), supplying non-standardized services to line managers (Brewster and Soderstrom, 1994). The organization is beginning to develop a maturity in HRD terms, with each of the nine Garavan (1991) characteristics in evidence and a learning culture beginning to develop.

SHRD

SHRD's role is proactive in both shaping and responding to corporate strategy. SHRD specialists have developed a strategic, innovative and catalytic role

as organizational change consultants (Philips and Shaw, 1989, cited in McCracken and Wallace, 2000) in leading, as well as facilitating change. The organization has become strategically mature in terms of HRD and evidence exists of all nine of the enhanced Garavan (1991) characteristics, as well as a strong learning culture.

It is of vital importance to emphasize that the roles described above are not mutually exclusive. They have been partitioned to facilitate analysis, but in reality probably represent more of a continuum. In particular, the various roles of HRD specialists (Brewster and Sodestrom, 1994) may well coexist at any one time in one organization.

McCracken and Wallace (2000) refined and redefined the nine characteristics of SHRD suggested by Garavan (1991), leading to a new conceptual model of SHRD. SHRD could thus be defined as the creation of a learning culture, within which a range of training, development, and learning strategies both respond to corporate strategy and also help to shape and influence it (McCracken and Wallace, 2000). Furthermore, HRD entails meeting the organization's existing needs, while simultaneously enabling the organization to change and develop, and to thrive and grow. It is the reciprocal, mutually enhancing, nature of the relationship between HRD and corporate strategy (Butler, 1988; Legnick-Hall and Legnick-Hall, 1988) which is at the heart of the development of a learning culture.

Traditional approaches to HRD

There are three drivers which energizes and creates strategic thrust of HRD. A discussion about these drivers follows.

HRD driven by needs.

An ordinary view of the role of HRD in relation to strategy is to see it as a means to assess and address skill deficiencies in the organization (Mabey and Salaman, 1995:143, cited in Luoma, 2000:771). This implies that the organization can pursue its strategy if its entire staff live up to their roles and possess the appropriate competencies. The required competencies can alter if a change in the environment or in the resources of the organization renders the ones previously defined as obsolete. When individuals fail to execute their roles, they face a skill performance gap, and this fracture can then be closed with the assistance of HRD. To be of strategic value, gap-

closing HRD must toil with those skill deficiencies that are seriously keeping the organization from achieving its objectives. The adaptation of this type of HRD calls for a relentless evaluation of factors affecting the expected performance of an individual or a group of people in the organization or the employees of the organization as a whole. A modification of these factors has to be translated into new competence profiles, and the gap thus formed has to be closed by HRD Initiatives. This is frequently referred to as the single means of managing strategic HRD; the word “strategic” customarily implies that the development needs are derived from the objectives of the organization rather than from those of the individual. There is no doubt that this approach is strategic in nature, in the sense that unless the emerging needs are being taken care of, the implementation of strategy is compromised. According to this approach, HRD helps strategy to happen (Luoma, 2000).

HRD driven by opportunities.

When HRD is driven by needs, it is viewed as a response to the deficiencies inside the organization. Several concepts of SHRD alternatively have their interest in the outer world of employee development, in the interventions and techniques that are employed as catalysts to mental growth in organizations (Luoma, 2000). This approach is based on views which build on the idea that several “right ways of development” exist, which are not necessarily connected to “actual” development needs in the organization. This approach implies that HRD has its impetus in factors outside the organization (Luoma, 2000:773). In modern organizations, those responsible for HRD inevitably encounter a constant stream of developmental options available (for example, teambuilding and empowerment), and one part of their profession is to recognise such modes that can possibly add value to the organization’s performance. It can be assumed that the reasoning for organizations delivering interventions based on current trends is not only in the direct benefit they get for their businesses, but also in the risk of losing in competitiveness if the trends are ignored. The approach based on using external development opportunities is termed the opportunity-driven approach to HRD (Luoma, 2000). Instead of understanding HRD as a treatment to well-articulated development needs, organizations adopting this approach emphasize the learning potential in their

people. Typically, HRD of this nature is utilized for providing employees with non-vocational skills, such as systems thinking and business process analysis. Nevertheless, it is assumed that this approach can also mean a large-scale utilization of programmes directed to increase the vocational proficiency of the workforce, for example, the enthusiasm of many organizations in Finland and some other European countries for applying the National Vocational Qualifications (NVQ) System as a means of personnel development. This system is a reflection of the opportunity-driven approach because the targeted skill profile of the workers often exceeds the requirements of traditional work roles (Luoma, 2000).

The needs-driven approach has a reactive disposition; it can be described as opportunistic, because the activities carried out are not indispensable dismissals of flaws in performance, but possibilities for an organization to improve performance. According to this approach, HRD supports strategy, either in the making or during implementation. The traditional approaches can be summed up as follows:

1. Strategy translates into development needs within the organization.
2. Development needs act as triggers for HRD.
3. HRD utilizing the available opportunities, acts as a catalyst for mental growth in the organization.
4. Interventions facilitate the process of strategic planning.

Towards a capability-driven approach.

This approach is based on the contemporary theory of organizational capabilities as a source of competitiveness. Somewhat incongruent to the idea of competitive advantage, it is accomplished through a rational environmental analysis and a set of financial, technological, and product/market-related decisions (Luoma, 2000). Capabilities are closely linked to the resource-based theory of the organization. As cited by Ulrich (1997:10), “capabilities are the DNA of competitiveness. They are the things an organization always does better than its competitors do.”

It is worth noting that traditional sources of competitiveness, namely financial, technological, and product/market-related factors, all deal with resources, but they give the tangible resources a priority over the intangibles (human resources).

Alternatively, capabilities instead turn this relation the other way round. They are behaviours that are not directly linked to the tangible resources, but they ignite in a certain organizational setting. It has been argued that capabilities should be emphasized as the primary intention of strategy, and managerial attention should be focused on factors that support the capabilities (Prahalad and Hamel, 1990, Stalk *et al.*, 1992, cited in Luoma, 2000:775).

Capabilities are about how people act. The word refers to a behavioural pattern conducted by several people in a certain organizational environment. Capability is therefore a combination of several skills and abilities. They are challenging for competitors to replicate because they are based on knowledge, skills, and processes developed over time into a workable combination within the context of a particular organizational setting. For precisely the same reason they are also difficult to change suddenly. Long and Vickers-Koch (1995, cited in Luoma 2000:776) note that “if these capabilities create value for the customer, they can become a source of a lasting competitive advantage.” These skills and abilities can be related to “hard” competitive factors mentioned above, but they can also be addressed to “softer” areas of expertise such as communications, interaction between individuals, problem-solving, and decision-making. HRD can be used to enhance people’s proficiency in both hard and soft areas.

HRD has to be coupled with all other practices that guide people’s behaviour in the organization in order to effectively feed the targeted behaviour. Irrespective of their importance, knowledge, skills and abilities which are affected by HRD alone, only partly compromise the wholeness of human behaviour. Competencies are generated by HRD, but that is not enough to convert them into capabilities; they also have to be sustained and reinforced with the help of other domains of HRM such as recruitment and selection, appraisal, rewards, and communications (Ulrich *et al.*, 1989, cited in Luoma, 2000:777). HR strategy gives the guidelines for these practices and accordingly creates a structure for human assets to be exploited and developed.

Luoma (2000:777) states that the above-mentioned thinking makes the third role of strategic HRD apparent. HRD can be used for creating organizational

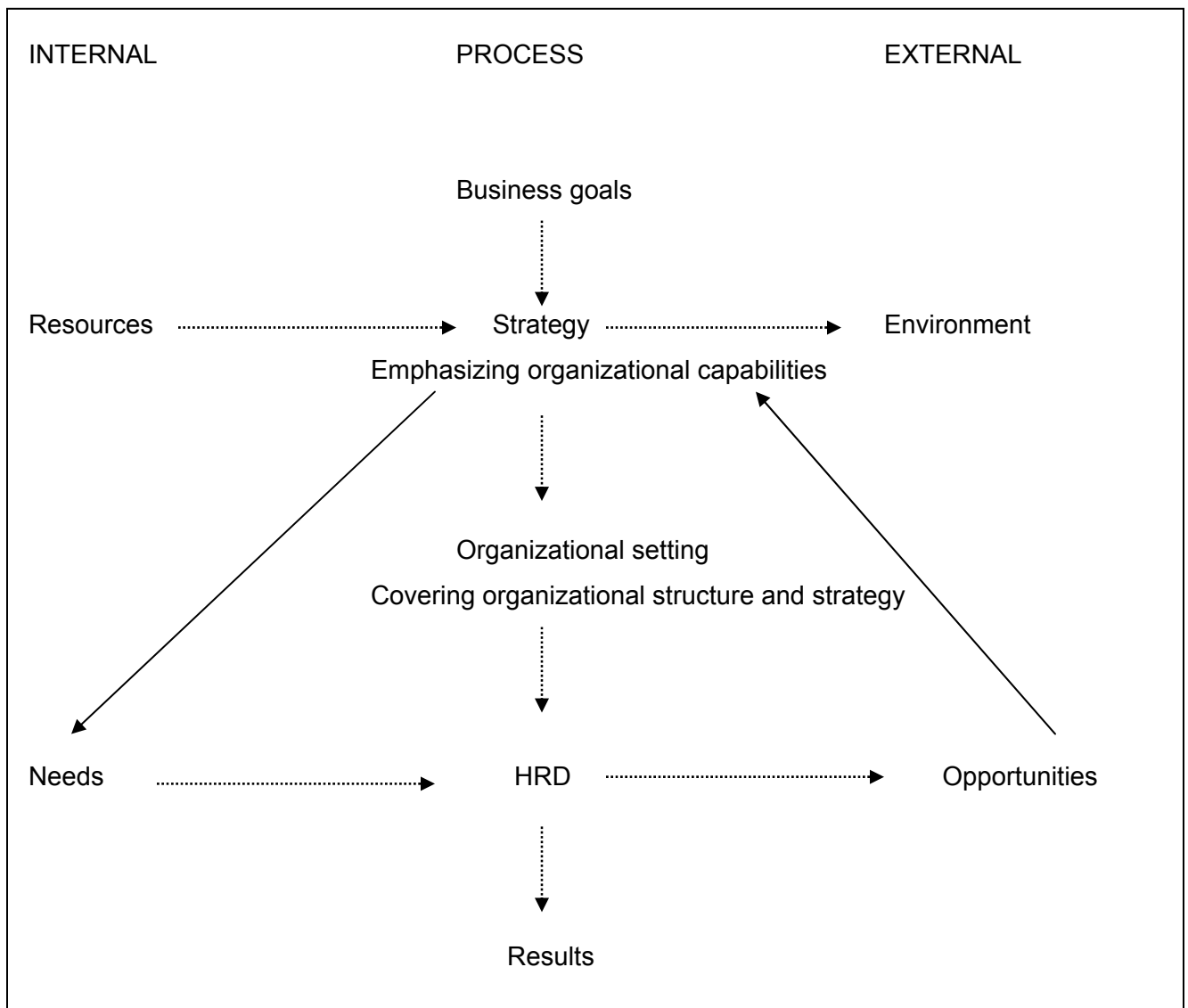
capabilities, but unlike the traditional approaches, this calls for the alignment of other HR practices and the modification of organizational structure. Since an organization emphasizing capabilities has expressed its strategy in behavioural terms, and HRD is targeted directly at generating the desired behaviour, HRD no longer assists or supports strategy. According to the capability-driven approach, HRD works in the process of making strategy happen! It is important to note that although essential to creating capabilities, knowledge, skills, and abilities provided by HRD are not perceived as renovations to existing skill performance gaps. The need for HRD activities comes from the aspired future state expressed in strategy, not from the daily operations of the organization. This makes capability-driven HRD proactive in nature.

“Strategy” was translated simply as an idea of how a company reaches its goals. Based on an article by Drucker (1994, cited in Luoma, 2000: 778), strategy can also be described as a sum of three components:

1. First, there are assumptions about the environment of the organization: society and its structure, the market, the customer, and technology.
2. Second, there are assumptions about the specific mission, expressed as a far-reaching vision or more exact objectives of the organization.
3. Third, there are assumptions about the internal resources, tangible and intangible, of the organization. Seen this way, strategy is about making the internal resources meet the external environment so that future goals can be achieved.

In order to obtain a holistic picture, one must link this view of strategy with the needs, opportunities, and capability-driven approaches discussed above. The result is illustrated in Figure 14 below.

FIGURE 14: The framework of strategic HRD



Source: Luoma (2000:779)

Clearly identifiable are the needs, opportunities, and capability-driven approaches. One can also observe that the framework consists of elements that are both internal and external to the organization, and a process that combines the two components.

1. The needs-driven approach is particularly connected to the developmental needs that are internal to the organization.
2. The opportunity-driven approach originates from the opportunities external to the organization.
3. The capability-driven approach plays itself out starting from strategy that emphasizes capabilities, progressing through the organizational setting that is created or modified to go together with the capabilities, and ending in the actions of HRD.

This model appropriately answers the research question: “What is the linkage between HRD and strategy like?” (Luoma, 2000:779). The characteristics of these three approaches are summarized in Table 15.

TABLE 15: The three approaches to HRD

	NEEDS-DRIVEN	OPPORTUNITY-DRIVEN	CAPABILITY-DRIVEN
Daily tasks of HRD	Close the performance gaps	Improve activities and processes	Execute strategy
Target of HRD	Maintain competitiveness	Strengthen competitiveness	Create new competitive advantage
Nature of HRD	Reactive	Opportunistic	Proactive
Prerequisite for HRD	Defined work roles and skill requirements	Awareness of developmental opportunities	Targeted capabilities defined in strategy
Basis for evaluating HRD	Efficiency in operations	Ability to carry out interventions	Delivery of targeted behaviours

Source: Luoma (2000:783)

Distinguishing these three approaches does not imply that only three different types of organizations exist relative to HRD. Instead, these approaches serve as

components, and combining them leads to numerous variations in HRD. There is no reason why all the approaches could not be present in one organization at the same time, yet weighted in different ways by HRD decision-makers. It is also possible to prioritize different approaches at different periods of time in one organization. However, thinking in terms of distinct approaches helps interpret differences in the nature and use of HRD in different organizations (Luoma, 2000:779).

In the study of strategic HRD, one cannot look only at the practices themselves, or the amount of money being spent in HRD. It is very important to explore the situational factors of the business and proceed towards the thinking that has led to the various activities.

The natural role of any HRD organization is to be driven by the strategic needs of the business. A clear benefit of this role is that the activities carried out are certainly of direct value to the organization but, on the other hand, it can be questioned whether the entire potential contribution is secured when more attention is given to the skills people are incapable of executing than those they can or could execute. Adopting a needs-driven approach can lead to a reliable, smoothly-operating development system, where skill requirements and developmental needs are constantly monitored by the line management, and the delivery of training is well-planned, accurate, and cost-efficient. Furthermore, being driven too much by the supply side can lead to a situation where people responsible for HRD, whilst trying to keep the organization up-to-date with the trends of the industry, create confusion with the latest fad that has nothing to do with the real needs or the direction of the business. What this approach can offer instead is a healthy shake-up for a stagnated organization, or it can help a young company discover ways of operating through which to establish its own distinctive culture. The capabilities-driven approach can be beneficial if HRD specialists realise that the organizational setting does not need to be reconstructed every day, but when an organization is seriously renewing the behavioural aspects of its strategy, there is no doubt that this approach should be dominant in HRD (Luoma, 2000).

The Emergence of SHRD

Porter's (1985) notion of competitive advantage contends that an organization needs to identify the key elements of its value chain in order to achieve competitive advantage. The literature of Ouchi (1981) and Peters and Waterman (1982), all cited in Garavan *et al.*, (1995:4) suggests that employees' values and philosophies should be guided by, and be consistent with, the strategies proposed by the organization. HRD is seen as a way of forging a relationship between human resources and strategy. Fombrum *et al.*, (1984) portrays the objective of strategic HRD in terms of aligning the formal structure and human resource systems so that they drive the strategic objectives of the organization. The term "SHRD" has considerable international currency and is used widely in the HRD literature (Beaumont, 1993; Storey and Sisson, 1993; Wilkinson *et al.*, 1993, in Garavan *et al.*, 1995:4) to mean the "planned learning and development of people as individuals and as groups to the benefit of the business as well as themselves."

There are many critical factors which organizations must consider as they face the future, such as those given below:

1. The frenetic advance of technology, especially in relation to the transfer and accessibility of information and the increasing ease of establishing communication networking facilities
2. The consequent globalization of markets
3. The volatility of consumer demand within existing markets
4. Currency fluctuations
5. Political upheaval.

These are by now familiar characteristics of an environment where "all is flux" (Garavan *et al.*, 1995:4). The capability of people to cope and manage within such an environment is a critical element in the success of any business and ultimately a determinant of national economic performance. This novel business context is stimulating senior management to take a greater interest in the development of the human resources in their organization.

As an essential cog in the machinery of managing organizations, the HRD function, is being looked at to provide effective and valuable solutions to many business issues. Significant forces and triggers are underpinning the promotion of

strategic HRD in more organizations. Garavan *et al.*, (1995:5) state that the following are important strategic pressures relevant to HRD activities:

New technology.

1. Technical changes in products processes and information systems
2. Redesigned managerial work
3. Decision support systems eroding the difference between technical and general managers
4. More information, power and knowledge at lower levels
5. Market need for more rapid product development.

The drive for quality.

1. Business pressures for higher quality design of products and delivery of service
2. Top quality programmes requiring deeper understanding of international customer-supplier practices
3. Knowing how to deliver what the customer wants.

New competitive arrangements.

1. Change in regulatory contexts such as privatisation, deregulation, conversion to agency status
2. Increase in strategic alliance and joint venture arrangements
3. Increasing number of acquisitions, mergers, takeovers and diversifications.

Internationalization of business.

1. Globalization of business markets
2. Redrawing of new economic groupings e.g. single European market, Pacific Rim.

More flexible and responsive organization.

1. Decentralization in mature and declining industries
2. Short-term performance improvement pressures
3. An increased number of people operating at the boundary of the organization
4. Moving from bureaucracies to adhocracies

5. Reduced rules and formalisation, product and national boundaries within the organization
6. Accelerated movement of small firms through start-up, maturity and decline stages.

Supply of resources.

1. Demographic pressures reducing the supply of human resources
2. Limited mobility of staff: creating the need to manage with what is available
3. Educational provision unable to match organizational demand
4. Long-term shift from a buyer's to a seller's labour market in specific regions of the country specifically in British and Irish organizations.
5. Growth of the "me" culture with demand for individual development.

A move to strategic HRM is a powerful signal of a subsequent emphasis on HRD. Three specific signals are identified by Bratton and Gold (1994 cited in Garavan *et al.*, 1995:5):

1. The replacement of the phrase "training cost" with "investment" should allow people involved in HRD to take a long-term view of its outcomes
2. HRD acts as a triggering mechanism for the progression of other HRM policies that are aimed at recruiting, retaining, and rewarding employees (who are recognised as the qualitative difference between organizations).
3. HRD harbours the prospect of releasing the potential of all employees.

Bratton (1994 cited in Garavan *et al.*, 1995:5) maintains that the inspiration for Western organizations to reap the benefits from HRD has come from the success of Japanese businesses. Brown and Read (1984 cited in Garavan *et al.*, 1995:5) highlight the conviction of Japanese management that business success based on high standards of performance is reliant on a highly trained and developed workforce. These authors found that training and development policies were always constructed in the same context as business plans, and were strongly related to them.

Assumptions and Philosophies of SHRD

Harrison (1993) and Rothwell and Kazanas (1991), amongst others, demarcate a series of values and assumptions which underpin SHRD. Strategic HRD assumes the following:

1. An overall mission statement exists for the organization, and the HRD effort is aligned to it.
2. Every main plan of the organization is contemplated in terms of the human skills available to execute it, and alternative ways of obtaining those skills.
3. People across all levels in the organization share responsibility and accountability for people development.
4. There are formal systematic and holistic planning processes within the organization.

"Philosophy" refers to the systems of beliefs and values which training and development practitioners possess. Zemke (1985 cited in Garavan *et al.*, 1995) surveyed the philosophies of HRD practitioners and found that many practitioners believed that the most appropriate philosophy for HRD was to prepare employees to develop explicit skills necessary to perform successfully in their current jobs. However, fewer than 40% of practitioners suggested that this statement reflected their own values. Practitioners also indicated the least appropriate value, also one associated with long-term employee development, as being "to help employees recognize and realize their full potential as human beings" (Zemke, 1985, cited in Garavan *et al.*, 1995:7). Nonetheless, this was ranked the second highest statement reflecting their personal values. Zemke (1985) interprets this incongruity between what HRD practitioners valued and what they considered appropriate as accentuating the pressure they faced to adapt to a short-term orientation. These comments, however, differ significantly from SHRD, which promotes proactive long-term perspectives.

Stakeholders and SHRD

Ruona (2001) states that the past two decades have seen a "frenzy" in the literature about what the purpose of HRD is. The responses that have become apparent thus far have emerged as two factions, each advocating its objective,

namely that HRD is for the ultimate purpose of improving performance (Swanson, 2001) or for the purpose of learning (Watkins and Marsick, 1995).

The spotlight has been on the perceived dualism between these two goals, and the issue has taken centre stage at international conferences, dominated entire monographs, and is debated in numerous articles. It should not be hurriedly assumed that these two emerging paradigms are performance versus learning, or that these two paradigms are the only two that exist (Ruona, 2001:1)

Philosophy at its core is disciplined reflection, and reflection is the activity that best enables one to execute discipline. Philosophical activity in HRD has thus far been rather limited, with notable exceptions of Marsick (1991), Watkins (1991), Barrie and Pace (1998) and Kuchinke (2000), all cited in Ruona (2001:1). It is critical that the philosophy of HRD be rigorously pursued to gain clarity about the assumptions that are driving practice and knowledge-building in HRD, and to stimulate dialogue about critical issues facing the discipline. Is HRD about developing the human resources of an organization (serving organizations) or about developing the resources of the human (serving individuals), multiple stakeholders?

HRD serves individuals and organizations.

Ruona (2001:6) conducted a qualitative study to explore who HRD really serves. An analysis of the results indicates that professionals with principle state that for them HRD is defined by its work with people, and as a result, there must be a deep commitment to help people grow, actualize, achieve self-fulfilment, and become all that they are meant to be. A few participants did acknowledge that there would be an eventual pay-off for the organization that invests in people, but there remained a clear distaste for organizations that focus too heavily on profit. The polar opposite of the above principle is the belief that HRD serves organizations. Here value is placed on serving the needs of the organization, and assisting the organization that sponsors HRD to achieve its mission. It is implied that HRD is basically defined by its work in and for organizations.

These two positions (serving people and serving organizations) appear to agree with the logic that effective people practices make for effective organizations. However, they have more to do with how one approaches that belief. The group that

perceived HRD to serve organizations, focused intensely on the organization's effectiveness, and advocated effective people practices as the most important tool to help achieve that success; the group that advocated serving individuals approached this primarily from the individual's perspective. This is a very fine but significant distinction between these two beliefs. Of more significant interest is that the participants who grounded themselves in the belief that HRD serves organizations did not indicate that they would prefer the organization above the individual. It was not an either/or dichotomy for them, as it appeared to be for the other group where individuals were preferred over the organization. A reasonable number of participants in the study spoke about the challenge of balancing the sometimes conflicting needs of organizations and the individuals. This was characterized as a "skirmish," and appeared to be an issue that they actively dealt with in their current work (Ruona, 2001: 6-7).

These skirmishes can be seen as paradoxes which are the simultaneous existence of apparent opposites. Although dubious at first glance, paradoxes are often true, and life demands that both opposites are accounted for in a responsible way. So, for example, a healthy social structure exhibits both stability and change. Systems theorists explain that these two opposing processes always occur simultaneously in any system. The components of the system and the relationships between them are constantly subjected to change, while the identity of the system remains unchanged (Wildervanck, 2005:23-24).

HRD serves multiple stakeholders.

Ruona (2001:7) adds that a very important idea for HRD, the idea of win-win for multiple stakeholders and in multiple ways, can almost be characterized as an expansion of the sub-theme that emerged above, which reflected on balancing the needs of the individual and the organization. Of particular significance here, though, is the explicit robustness of who potential stakeholders might be, what objectives each might have, and how all parties involved could optimize around those goals. As understood from the literature study and the results of this study conducted by Ruona (2001), the discussion of who is served by HRD has traditionally been dominated by an either/or paradigm. Consequently, the dialogue has concentrated

on selecting one or the other rather than exploring the true intelligence of balancing multiple stakeholders and multiple aims. There is a distinct need for better and more explicit models of partnering for win-win and for managing divergent needs.

In order to succeed with paradoxes, it is necessary to take cognizance of an important paradigm shift. We no longer function in a world of “either/or” but a world of “both/and” and consequently we need to embrace the dualities of paradoxes (both/and). In order to give effect to this, we are relentlessly holding conversations with ourselves and others about balance. The Webster International Dictionary, cited in Wildervanck (2005:24) defines balance as:

an aesthetically pleasing integration of elements as in a work of art achieved usually by giving each element only its due prominence or significance and often by allowing one element to stand in contrast to, oppose or otherwise be matched by another element.

“Balance” thus means harmonious living and ultimately winning with paradoxes. This thought needs to be consciously and deliberately cultivated, and implies having the ability to co-exist with contradictions, ambiguity, and polarities, and upon occasions, to transcend them (Wildervanck, 2005). Furthermore, the complexities of life and business in the 21st century have moved beyond the outdated mechanical worldview, where the employee is just another cog in the commercial wheel. This change indicates the presence of a new order in which the primary doctrine of this living, life-affirming web is holistic balance (Wildervanck, 2005). After 400 years of reductionistic thinking, which promoted breaking down the smallest part so that one could understand how the universe works (an either/or paradigm), the current world of work is moving towards the paradigm held by quantum theorists (Niels Bohr amongst others) in the 1930s, that sub-atomic particles do not behave in a regular pattern, and that the whole is much greater than the sum of the parts (a both/and paradigm). This does not mean that we do not need reductionist thinking; we just need to merge it with the concept of holism.

This new order recognises every employee as a co-creator of the whole (the organization) and recognizes that his/her contribution not only adds value in a functional sense, but also produces greater harmony and definition/distinction within the organization (Wildervanck, 2005). Such organizations are in fact, aesthetically inspiring, one might say “soulful,” and give one what Clem Sunter (1987) calls a “warm, glowing feeling.”

Stakeholders are defined as those groups who have an investment in or claim on the organization. Translated to the HRD context, it is proposed that each stakeholder group has a right not to be treated as a means to some end, and should therefore participate in influencing the future direction of HRD-related activities within the organization (Garavan, 1995). In the context of SHRD, a stakeholder is anyone whose behaviour can affect the management of strategic HRD activities within the organization. Tsui (1987) uses the alternative term “constituencies,” which she defines as clients, customers, or other stakeholders who depend on, but simultaneously exert control over, HRD policies and activities within the organization. As a result of this mutual dependency, each stakeholder is in effect an advocate who furthers the goals of the HRD function.

Freeman and Reed (1983, cited in Garavan, 1995:11), identify two definitions of the term “stakeholder.” The narrow definition comprises those groups who are vital to the survival and success of the business/function. A broader definition comprises any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the business/function. In addition, the attitudes of internal and external stakeholders will be strongly influenced by the cultural context of the organization.

Garavan (1995:12) states that two premises form the basis of stakeholder analysis:

1. Firstly, the current state of the HRD function is the result of the supporting and the resisting forces brought to bear on the function by the stakeholders.

Therefore, the present status of the HRD function is a temporary balance of opposing forces. Some of these forces impart resources and support to the function whilst others serve as barriers or impediments. The forces are generated by

stakeholders in the course of engaging in their specific interests, goals, and objectives.

2. Secondly, the outcomes of the HRD function's strategies are the combined results of all the forces brought to bear on it by its stakeholders during implementation.

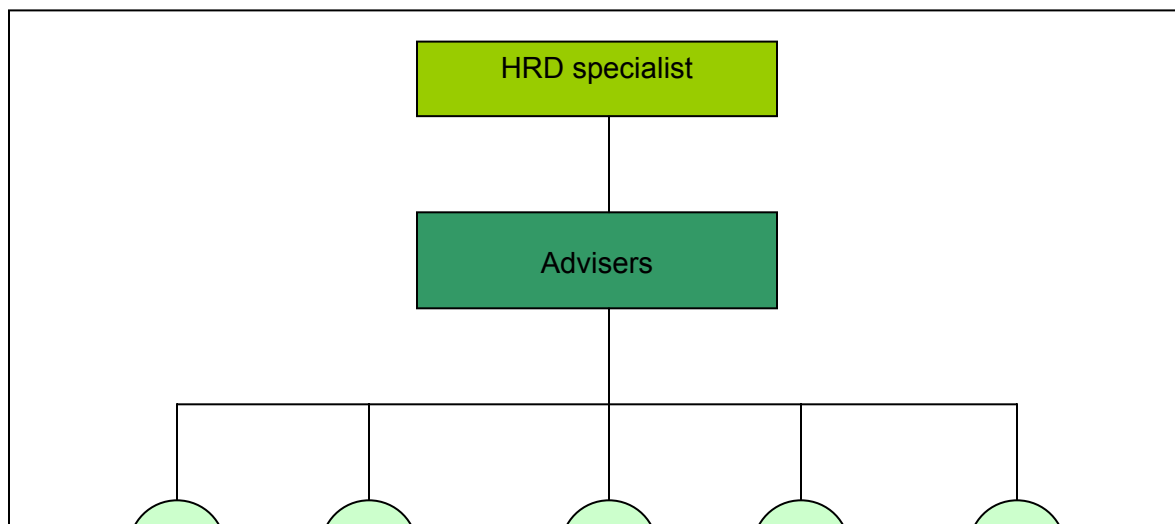
The function is always in a state of quasi-equilibrium as it attempts to balance the various stakeholder forces. Every time that the HRD function performs and its stakeholders respond, a new temporary balance is achieved. The status and performance of the HRD function at a given point in the future is dependent on the equilibrium it achieves throughout the period it is implementing its strategies.

A critical conclusion can be drawn from these two premises. The validity of the strategies implemented by the HRD function always depend on the assumptions that are made about its stakeholders and about the steps they will take during the planning and implementation of HRD strategies to involve key stakeholders (Garavan, 1995).

Models of HRD Stakeholder Management at the Strategic Level.

According to Garavan (1995:12-13), a detailed examination of the training records, interviews with key stakeholders, and documentary analyses of 16 Irish companies resulted in the formulation of two models which explain how the HRD specialist copes with the diverse priorities of stakeholders, and how they structure their strategy formulation and implementation activities to account for the conflicting interests of different stakeholders. A Single Sovereign and Steerer Model of HRD Management is illustrated in each of Figures 15 and 16 below.

FIGURE 15: A single sovereign model of HRD stakeholder management

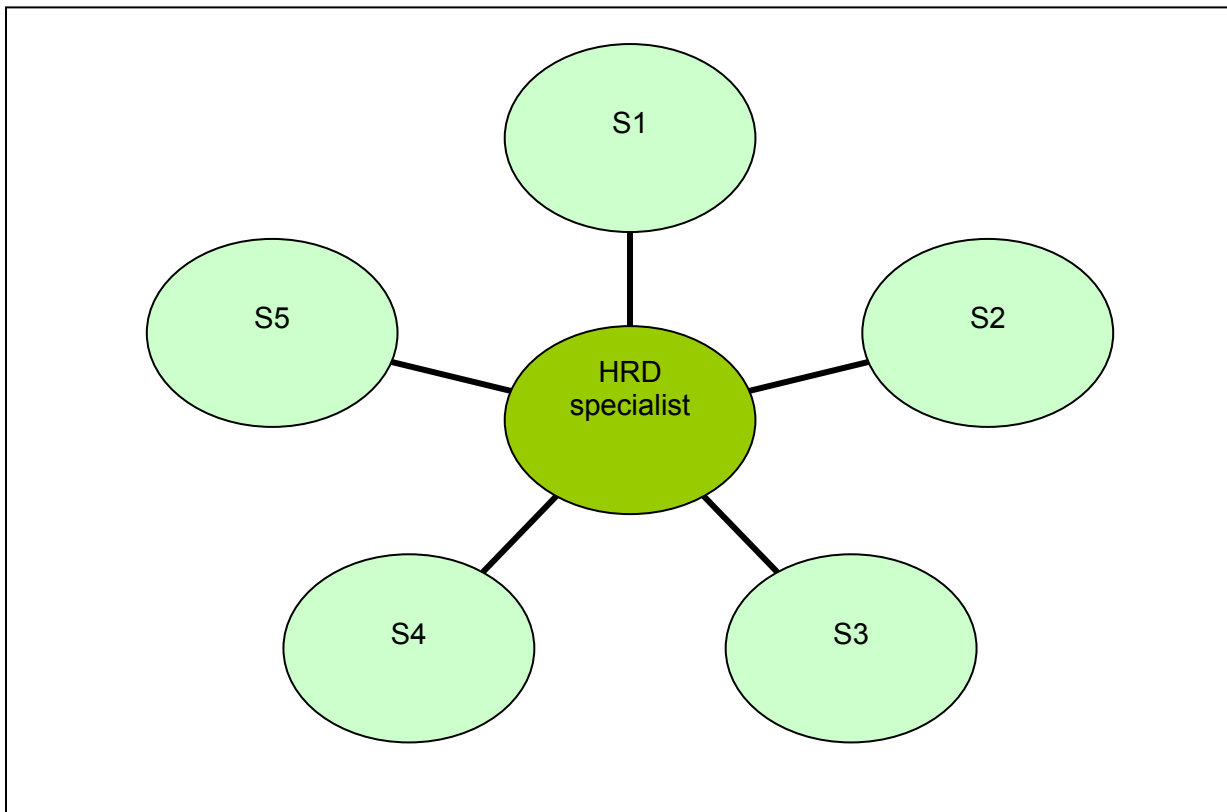


Source: Garavan (1995:12)

This model is based on the principle that the right and authority to manage the HRD function are vested in a single ultimate authority, the HRD specialist. Figure 15 represents the relationship between the specialist and his/her stakeholders. The function tends to be reactive in nature, with a strong maintenance philosophy underpinning its HRD provision, namely the reinforcement of existing values and systems.

The essence of the model illustrated as Figure 16 below, is that the right and authority to manage the HRD function are disseminated amongst many individuals and groups, each of whom has a crucial interest in the function.

FIGURE 16: The steerer model of HRD stakeholder management



Source: Garavan (1995:13)

As steerer, the human resource specialist attempts to achieve equilibrium amongst the competing interests by forming coalitions and enabling artificial or compromise situations for key training and development problems. In this role, the HRD specialist perceives him/herself in terms of guiding the HRD function through the turbulence of diverse pressures and demands. This model appears to be the most appropriate model in the context of a strategically focused HRD function.

HRD at operating level: the role of stakeholders.

Tsui (1987) defines the operating level of an organization as those units involved in the transformation process of the organization. Daft (1995, cited in Garavan, 1995:15) and others suggest that managers at the operating level are primarily responsible for plan implementation. Tsui (1987) further elucidates that these managers operate within short time spans and that their performance is regularly evaluated. They may also have to operate in reactive mode. It thus makes

sense that the HRD challenges which they face are different from those confronting managers located at business or corporate level within the organization. Research by Tsui (1987) and Garavan (1995) suggests that HRD activities at the operating unit level, supply the interests of a wide range of groups. In that case, SHRD will be concerned with both strategic and operational requirements. For example, line managers may be worried about business issues whereas lower-level managers and employees may have more operational or personal concerns when it comes to HRD. The HRD function is also expected to implement corporate HRD issues. This probable difference in perspectives suggests that a stakeholder approach has application at the operating level. Therefore, one can safely conclude that different stakeholders may have different expectations about the role and function of HRD, as well as using different criteria to evaluate its effectiveness.

Core Beliefs

Identifying just a few core beliefs is a critical first step in forming a philosophical foundation for the profession. These core beliefs will serve as the foundation on which values, morals, ethics, and best practices will be built. This pursuit is critical in order to ensure the advancement and excellence of the discipline, as well as to better differentiate HRD from other human resource professions (Ruona, 2001).

A common perception is that HRD professionals are generally too busy to articulate their core beliefs. Yet almost all decisions and actions taken by HRD professionals are primarily influenced by subconscious core beliefs. Core beliefs motivate and contextualise the HRD profession. The following set of core HRD beliefs as contributed by Swanson and Holton III (2001:10), ties in with those contributed by Ruona (1999a):

1. *Organizations are human-made entities that rely on human expertise to establish and achieve their goals.* This belief recognises that organizations are variable and vulnerable. Organizations, created by humankind, can either improve or disintegrate, and the fate of any organization is intricately linked to HRD.

2. *Human expertise is developed and maximised through HRD processes and should exist for the mutual long- and/or short-term benefits of the sponsoring organization and the individuals involved.* HRD specialists have influential and powerful tools available to get others to think, accept, and act. The ethical concern is that these tools not be utilized for exploitation but rather for the benefit of all.
3. *HRD professionals are advocates of the individual/group, the work process, and/or organizational integrity.* HRD specialists characteristically have a very privileged position of accessing information that transcends the boundaries and levels of individuals, groups, work processes and the organization.

Getting valuable information and observing things that others may not have a chance to see, also carries a responsibility. Sometimes harmony is required, and sometimes blatant honesty is required.

Gilley and Maycunich (2000:79-89, cited in Swanson and Holton III, 2001:10), have positioned a set of fundamental principles that guide HRD. They believe that the following characterize effective HRD practice:

1. Integrates eclectic theoretical disciplines
2. Is based on satisfying stakeholders' needs and expectations
3. Is responsive but responsible
4. Uses evaluation as a continuous improvement process
5. Is designed to improve organizational effectiveness
6. Relies on relationship mapping to enhance operational efficiency
7. Is linked to the organization's strategic business goals and objectives
8. Is based on partnerships
9. Is results-oriented
10. Assumes credibility as essential
11. Utilizes strategic planning to help the organization integrate vision, mission, strategy, and practice
12. Relies on the analysis process to identify priorities
13. Is based on purposeful and meaningful measurement
14. Promotes diversity and equity in the workplace.

The majority of these principles are based on core beliefs that may or may not be made explicit. As previously mentioned, the demand for stating principles of practice are greater than for stating overarching core beliefs. HRD professionals have to come to realise that both have an essential place in HRD, which warrants profound attention by the profession.

The Future of HRD

“Yesterday is not ours to recover, but tomorrow is ours to win or lose”

Cook (1993, cited in Ruona *et al.*, 2002:1)

There is wisdom in this statement, especially for the HRD profession. HRD professionals are striving to make a difference in the critical interface where learning, performance, and the workplace converge. One method for HRD to shape the future is to identify and encourage dialogue about the assumptions and concerns underlying HRD's strategic thinking and vision, and the variables that will fundamentally affect the profession during the next 15-20 years. The underlying surveys could provide a convincing insight into the profession's ability to identify key future challenges facing the profession (Ruona *et al.*, 2002:3-5). The following are areas which may affect HRD in the future:

1. Will HRD keep up?
2. Globalization
3. Changing organizations and workforce
4. Technology.

HRD's role in the future:

1. Learning
2. Change and organizational systems
3. Knowledge management/capital.

Challenges facing HRD:

1. Organizational presence and recognition
2. Evaluation and return on investment
3. HRD's identity
4. Identifying HRD's stakeholders
5. Standards and professionalism

6. Scholarly leadership.

Learning is portrayed as the most powerful differentiator and competitive advantage that HRD has. The future will demand that learning occur faster, in more diverse places, across more cultural and national boundaries, and with greater efficiency (Flanagan, 1999; O'Connell, 1999). What is less clear is how this activity will be sustained. The real challenge for HRD is to find innovative ways to implement learning technologies that are efficient and effective, and that deliver immediate, strategic, and influential results. The literature and some survey respondents to a study conducted by Ruona *et al.*, (2002), call for more critical attention from HRD on issues related to knowledge management. Incessantly however, training issues dominate.

The above data represents another paradox that the profession must face, namely that the discipline is finding it challenging to earn organizational respect and acquire influence and resources and simultaneously, is struggling to define, demarcate, and rigorously evaluate itself. There is still debate about whether HRD should confine itself to an organizational context and whether it should justly embrace a performance-improvement mission that addresses organizational systems as well as the traditional training role. It is this inability to articulate its strategic competitive advantage that essentially restricts HRD's potential and makes the profession vulnerable in the future (Ruona *et al.*, 2002:7). Furthermore, HRD must clarify its relevancy, contribution, and impact on organizational strategy and bottom line, and build a research and knowledge base that supports this, if it is to thrive in the future.

The impact of these trends will have significant incidental implications, including an increasing need for HRD to articulate and demonstrate its strategic competitive advantage and role in future organizational survival and performance (Anderson, 1997; Ferris *et al.*, 1999; Woods, 1999). It is to this end that future trends needs to be seriously researched and their potential effects explored in greater depth. HRD professionals should be empowered and encouraged to examine the current state of the profession, and in so doing, discharge their duties in

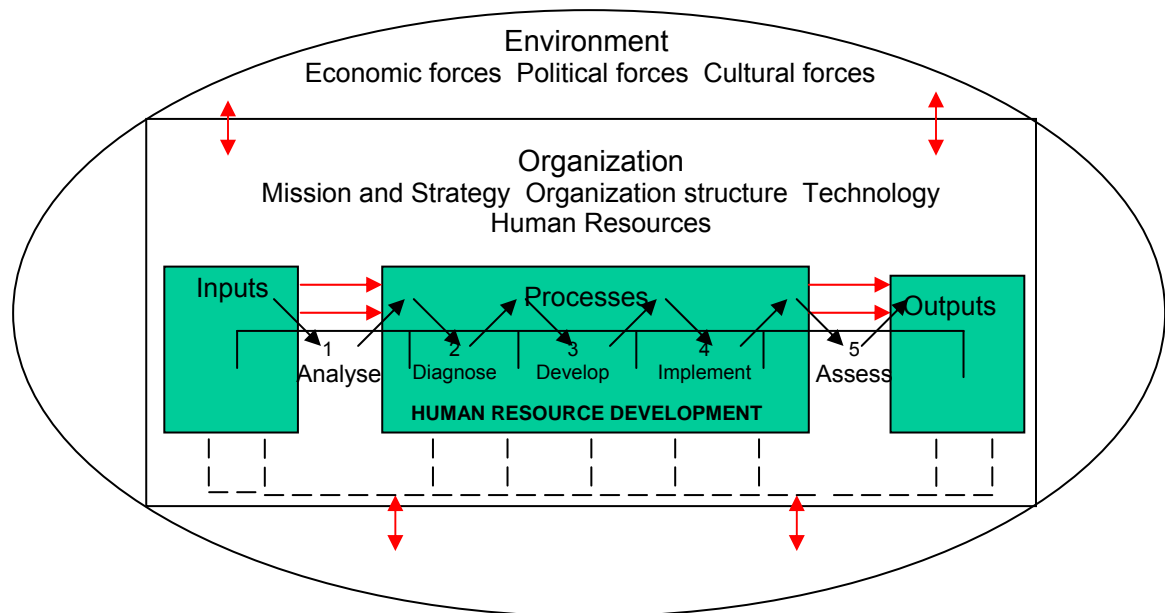
such a way as to ensure that 15-20 years from now, the profession will be robust and viable, and doing valuable work for people and organizations alike.

An HRD Model of Human Resource Development

Various HRD Models have been developed and circulated through consulting undertakings, conferences, and other scholarly activities. These models are usually established on extensive practical experience with development and improvement (Weisbord, 1987; Jones, 2001; Schwartz, 1991, cited in Swanson and Holton III, 2001:91; Nadler *et al.*, 1992; Swanson, 1994; Rummier and Brache, 1995). Other models have been adopted as ways to solve problems by simply calling them “multidimensional,” and demanding multidimensional thinking. However, a model derived from logic is no substitute for sound theory. “You can have a model and no theory, you can have a theory with no model, and you can have a theory accompanied by a supporting model. A model by itself is not theory” (Swanson and Holton III, 2001).

The Model of HRD of Swanson and Holton III (2001:91) below, illustrates HRD as a five-phase process appearing with other core organizational processes, all functioning in the organizational context and the greater environmental context. It is based on a Systems theory model for understanding a range of group-level processes, which assume that the multiple components of a group interact with each other over time (McGrath 1964; Hackman, 1987; Forsyth, 1999).

FIGURE 17: Model of human resource development within the organizational environment



Source: Swanson and Holton III (2001:91)

The organizational system and its inherent processes each have their inputs, work processes, and outputs. The environment in which the organizational system functions is further illustrated in the model. The organizational system is seen to have its unique mission and strategy, organizational structure, technology, and human resources. The larger environment is characterized by its economic, political, and cultural forces. As expected, this is an open system where the influence of any element can slide up and down the levels of the model, from the global economy down to the nature of an executive development programme sponsored by a particular HRD department in a specific company (Swanson and Holton III, 2001:19). Therefore HRD is a process within the larger organizational and environmental systems. As such, it has the potential of harmonizing, supporting and/or shaping the larger systems.

Swanson and Holton III (2001) portray HRD with its subsets of training and development (T&D) and organizational development (OD) as a five-phase process. An adaptation in the wording for the HRD, T&D and OD process phases encapsulates the common thread and altering terminology. All three variations are presented below.

TABLE 16: Interplay between the phases of the HRD process

Phase	HRD	T&D	OD
1	Analyse ↓	Analyse ↓	Analyse/Contract ↓
2	Propose ↓	Design ↓	Diagnose/Feedback ↓
3	Create ↓	Develop ↓	Plan/Develop ↓
4	Implement ↓	Implement ↓	Implement ↓
5	Assess ↓	Evaluate ↓	Evaluate/Institutionalize ↓

Source: Modified from Swanson and Holton (2001:23)

The following section briefly discusses the process phases for T&D and OD respectively, as described by Swanson and Holton III (2001:214-221, 271-280).

Process phases for T&D

1. Phase 1: Analyse

During this phase, the performance requirements of the organization that can be improved through training are diagnosed, and the expertise required to perform in the workplace, is documented.

2. Phase 2: Design

Here, one creates and /or acquires general and specific strategies for people to develop workplace expertise, for example, design training programmes and design lesson plans.

3. Phase 3: Develop

At this stage, one develops and/or acquires participant and facilitator training materials required to execute the training design, including pilot-testing the programme.

4. Phase 4: Implement

Here it is expected of one to manage individual training programmes and their delivery to participants.

5. Phase 5: Evaluate

The final phase is about determining and reporting training and development effectiveness in terms of performance, learning, and perceptions.

Process phases for OD

1. Phase 1: Analyse and contract

During this phase, one analyses the perceived performance problem and the need for change. Through the above outcomes, the contract records agreements about how the OD process will proceed.

2. Phase 2: Diagnose and give feedback

This stage entails diagnosing the performance and provides feedback to the performance system on the change needed and the accompanying human expertise required to address and advance performance.

3. Phase 3: Plan, design, and develop

First one has to compile the plan required to ensure corrective action and development of the necessary human expertise to address the performance requirement in multiple performance domains (individual, group, and organizational) in an enduring manner. Second is the design, through creation and/or acquisition of general and specific change strategies (or interventions) for people to develop the expertise to implement and sustain workplace change and performance. The third step involves the development, or acquisition, of specific participant and change agent materials needed to execute the planned change strategy(ies) and/or programmes.

4. Phase 4: Implement

During this stage one implements (manages) the planned change strategies selected, designed, and developed in phase 3.

5. Phase 5: Evaluate and institutionalise

The final stage entails establishing the effectiveness of the planned change strategies/programmes in terms of performance, learning, and satisfaction. The first step is to evaluate multiple aspects of the actual outcomes of the planned change

strategies and compare these against the envisaged outcomes of those strategies. It is much easier to ignite change than to preserve and conserve it, and therefore, it is imperative that the new behaviours, practices, and processes that accompany planned change strategies are embedded into the organization's culture and become a part of the way business is done on a daily basis in the organization. This entrenchment of the new ways means institutionalising the change strategies/programmes and constitutes the second step of phase 5. Institutionalizing the change strategies/programmes for integrated and long-term performance requires both management of the institutionalisation process and reinforcement of the changes through further feedback, rewards, and development of human proficiency.

The most profound professional challenge facing HRD practitioners is honouring all phases. Studies of HRD practice reveal shortcomings at the two most strategic phases of the HRD process, namely at the analysis and assessment/evaluation phases. These disconcerting shortcomings are compounded because relationships between the phases rely on the analysis phase for direction and substance. Furthermore, organizational commitment to HRD is dependent on positive performance results reported at the assessment/evaluation phase (Kusy, 1984 and Mattson, 2001, cited in Swanson and Holton, 2001:23).

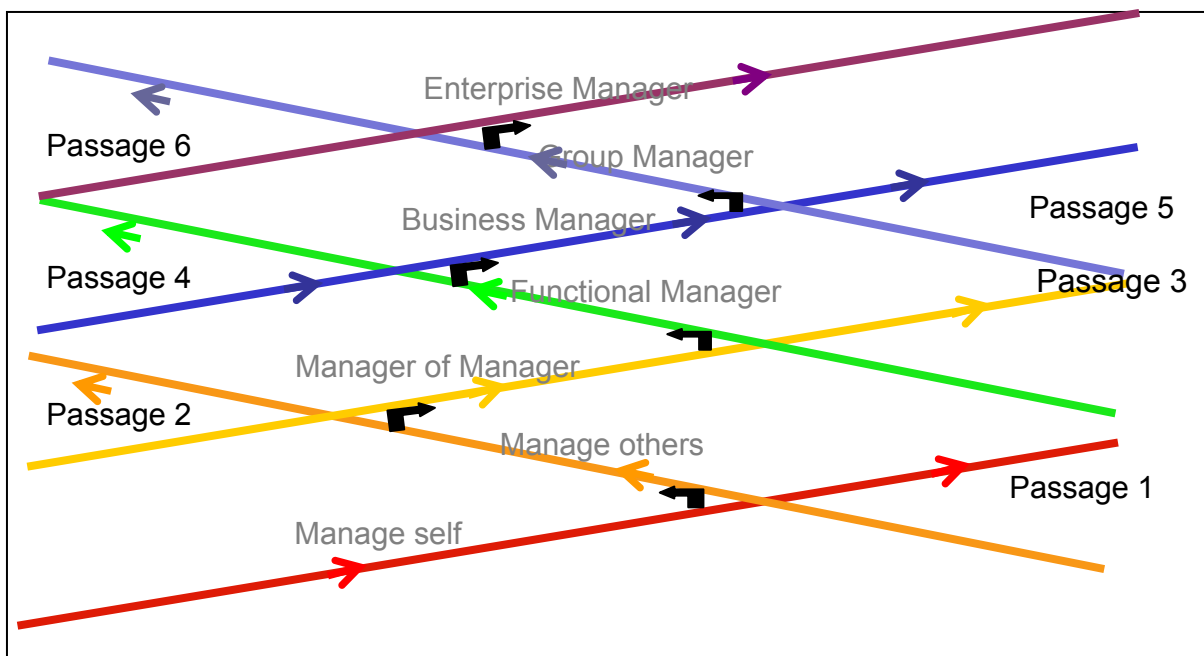
Succession Planning

Watson Wyatt's research indicates that only 24% of organizations are confident of their ability to staff leadership positions over the next five years, and 84% predict that leaders with substantially different skills sets will be required to fill the vacant positions. The United States Bureau of Labour Statistics projects a shortfall of 10 million qualified workers by 2010 as "baby boomers head" into retirement. This means that companies must take traditional succession planning to a higher level of actual talent management, which entails identifying and developing the internal talent required to fill executive and management positions (Successfactors, 2003:1)

Various succession planning models exist, and the one most utilized internationally is the Leadership Pipeline Model (Charan *et al.*, 2001). Traditionally,

succession planning is equated with replacement planning (Charan *et al.*, 2001:166). The concept of a talent inventory drives some succession planning, but the problem, of course, is that talent inventory advocates equate potential with performance. It has been found that high-potential people do not necessarily translate into high-performance people. Therefore, Charan *et al.*, (2001:167) suggest the following alternative for succession planning: “Succession planning is perpetuating the enterprise by filling “a pipeline” with high-performing people to assure that every leadership level has an abundance of these performers to draw from, both now and in the future.”

FIGURE 18: Critical career passages in a large business organization



Source: Modified from Charan *et al.*, (2001:7)

Each passage represents a major change in job requirements that translates into new skills requirements, new time horizons and applications, and new work values. The model is based on work initially done by Walter Mahler and called “Critical Career Crossroads.”

From a pure talent and HRD perspective, the most significant benefit of the pipeline methodology is that one does not need to bring in high-potential outsiders to keep the pipeline active. One can create quality leaders, beginning at the first level when people make the transition from managing themselves to managing others. Jammed pipelines are created by managers who cannot let go of behaviours that made them successful at lower leadership levels; they hold fast to certain ways of managing. Coaching is an excellent way to help them drop these behaviours. (Charan *et al.*, 2001).

Charan *et al.*, (2001:8) further argues that each passage requires that people acquire a new way of managing and leading, and leave the old ways behind in the following three areas:

1. Skill requirements: the new capabilities required to execute new responsibilities, for example contemporary HRD knowledge and competencies.
2. Time applications: new time frames that govern how one works, and how one's time is allotted
3. Work values: what people believe is important, which then becomes the focus of their effort.

“Potential” does not have to be a bad word in the Leadership Pipeline lexicon. In fact, if one starts to think of potential as the work one can do in the future, one can use the concept constructively (*ibid*). Businesses are full of intelligent, competent people from top schools who are failing because they do not know how to get anything done. “Potential” is a useful succession term only if it is filtered through the Leadership Pipeline Model (Charan *et al.*, 2001:8)

It is critical to look at HRD as integral to business strategy. A common mindset is to view jobs as work to be done, and not as developmental assignments. There should be a focus on personal traits and technical competence. One should believe in human beings' ability to grow, the Individual Growth Perspective mentioned in Chapter 3, as society cannot achieve economic as well as cultural progress without it. Matching an individual's potential with a series of requirements

is how pipelines are built. Table 17 below represents the three categories of potential.

TABLE 17: The three categories of potential

THREE CATEGORIES OF POTENTIAL	
Turn potential	Able to do the work at the next level in three to five years or sooner.
Growth potential	Able to do the work of bigger jobs at the same levels in the near term
Mastery potential	Able to do the same kind of work currently being done, only better.

Source: Modified from Charan *et al.*, (2001:169)

These categories offer distinct benefits in that they provide a common target for decision-makers armed with diverse data from a variety of contexts. For example, instead of talking about how an employee has the potential to be a good leader, the discussion can be more tightly focused on whether the employee's potential is for a turn, growth, or mastery (Charan *et al.*,2001:170).

Managers can use the word "potential" to talk to direct reports about their future. In succession planning it is important to have meaningful discussions with people so that they receive a clear picture of how they are viewed by the organization. Once they know whether they have a turn, growth, or mastery potential and once they know the requirements for each leadership level, they can make realistic choices about what to do next and how aggressively to pursue their own development. Thirdly, incorporating this language into succession planning helps banish the term "fast track" from everyday usage. The pipeline is not represented as a straight line, but one with six 90° bends or turns. At each one of these, people need to slow down, reflect, learn, and develop. People who lack any type of potential may need to be taken out of the succession system and placed at a lower leadership level or perhaps even asked to leave (Charan, 2001; Collins, 2001).

The Pipeline Model's greatest value is that it provides a framework upon which new organizations can be built and old ones can reconfigure themselves. In the future it may be that the six passages delineated above will change. As e-

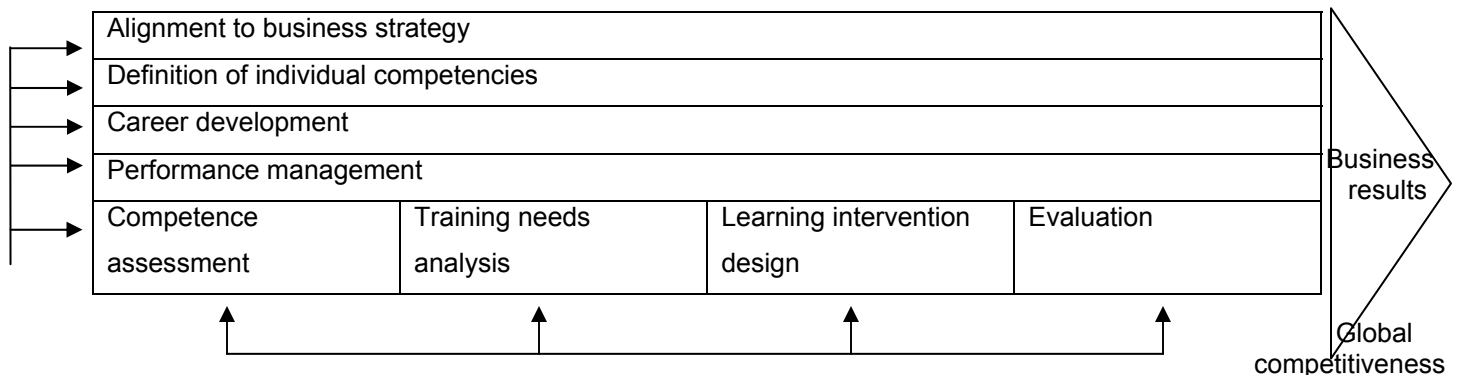
commerce affects almost every organization, and other major trends force organizations to rethink what they are and what they must do, leadership passages will evolve. The Pipeline Model will remain viable because its essential message is timeless in that leadership entails a series of passages that come with very specific values, skills, and time requirements; leaders must not skip passages as they take on more responsibility and influence in an organization, or they will end up working at the wrong level and will clog the pipeline. With these principles in mind, any organization can develop its own talents for maximum leadership capacity now and in the future (Charan *et al.*, 2001).

A fundamental principle is that the quality of an organization's senior management team is the strongest influence on the talent pipeline. Senior management must be held accountable for skilled stewardship of the talent pool under their management. The Chief Executive Officer (CEO) should have a strong capability to assess and develop management talent. In addition, managers ought to be trained to think about HRD within an ROI framework that takes into account the likelihood of achieving the desired performance target.

A South African Model for HRD

In South Africa, Jones (2001) conducted a telephonic survey of 30 HRD practitioners within South Africa to ascertain what the key components of HRD are as well as what the perceived best practices for each of these components were. The findings of the research and the resultant HRD Model was based on Porter's Value Chain Model and is presented below.

FIGURE 19: A model for human resource development



Source: Jones (2001:121)

As can be seen from the model, the survey identified the following primary activities which will enable the realisation of global competitiveness for any South African organization:

1. Alignment to business strategy, which implies that HRD must ensure that all its activities are designed to assist the business to meet its strategic goals
2. Definition of competence, which implies that HRD must understand the business strategy and use this as a starting point for defining the individual competencies required to implement this strategy successfully
3. Career development, which implies the critical ability of HRD to attract, retain and develop talent
4. Performance management, which is highlighted as a key system in ensuring that the knowledge and skills developed are actually transferred and show a measurable improvement in workplace performance.

In addition, Jones (2001) found that the components of HRD and their associated best practices are as diverse as the respective organizational contexts that exist. Jones recommended that organizations could use the tool as a benchmark to check whether they were implementing all the components of the model and subsequently identify gaps that required closing in their current HRD practices. A limitation of the study was that it was not statistically verified, and Jones recommended it as a future research possibility. This study emphasized the role that organizational context plays in understanding the nature, importance and associated best practices in HRD. One's understanding of the nature and importance of HRD will depend on the organizational and national setting in which the organization resides. This understanding further served to justify the purpose of the present doctoral study, which is to produce a tool which will enable HRD scholars and practitioners to acquire a comprehensive understanding of the nature and importance of HRD in the South African organizational and national context.

Conclusion

The evidence from available research suggests that many organizations do not implement a total strategic type HRD. Instead, they adopt short-term

perspectives, view HRD in “soft” terms, and lack the coherency required of a strategic approach (Garavan *et al.*, 1995:9).

The needs of contemporary organizations are not met by traditional approaches to HRD. There is a crucial requirement to move from supplying a narrow technical skills base to acquiring competencies in an ever-expanding range of skills. The concept of an organization that learns faster than its competitors, as a sustainable competitive advantage, has led to a growing interest in continuous development and the idea of a learning organization (Heraty and Morley, 1997). Learning occurs at individual, work group, and organizational levels. A key focus of SHRD is therefore the creation of a learning environment and structural design, which promotes learning and development for performance improvement and competitiveness.

Additional robust theoretical and empirical work is required around a viable methodology for strategic alignment, HRD effectiveness and evaluation, transfer of learning, strategically required core competencies, and the design of HR performance management systems which support and reinforce HRD practices and role responsibilities. The point of view of a strategic partnership between HRD specialists and line managers has to move beyond normative exhortations, towards a rigorous unpacking of role boundaries, key performance criteria, and rewards for effective HRD performance. HRD can play a credible value-adding role in improving organizational effectiveness and assuming a pivotal role in strategy formation (Horwitz, 1999).

SHRD is the creation of a learning culture, within which a range of training, development, and learning strategies both responds to corporate strategy and also helps shape and influence it. It is the reciprocal, mutually enhancing nature of the relationship between HRD and corporate strategy which lies at the heart of SHRD and at the heart of the development of a learning culture (McCracken and Wallace, 2000).

Strategy is universally understood as an idea of how an organization reaches its goals. The process of forming the idea is called “strategy making” or “strategic planning,” and a company’s progress in this direction is called “strategic

implementation” (Luoma, 2000:770-771). Strategy is therefore about making the internal resources meet the external environment, so that future goals can be achieved.

Complex challenges for the global economy are characterized by the globalization of economic activity, the fragmentation of markets, paradigm shifts in production relations, and massive leaps in technological infrastructure (Freeman *et al.*, 1993; Hammel and Sampler, 1998, cited in McCracken and Wallace, 2000). In order to deal with such global shifts, organizational theorists and practitioners agree that organizations must understand the vital role which learning and development will play in ensuring their survival (Salamon and Butler, 1990, cited in McCracken and Wallace, 2000). The fundamental element of this will be the requirement of organizations to ensure that any investment which is made in human capital with the promotion of HRD strategy is clearly linked to the wider corporate strategy.

As previously shown, the training and development literature in the last decade has displayed an intense exploration of the concept of SHRD (Higgs, 1989; Keep, 1989; Garavan, 1991; Noel and Dennehy, 1991; Holden and Livia, 1993; Saggars, 1994; Sloman, 1994; Garavan *et al.*, 1995; Rainbird, 1995; Torraco and Swanson, 1995; Lee, 1996; Stewart and McGoldrick, 1996; Harrison, 1997; O'Donnell and Garavan, 1997; Garavan *et al.*, 1998) but there has been only a modest contribution on what characterizes an organization with a strategic approach to HRD.

This chapter thus provided an all-encompassing understanding of what HRD is, including the benefit of leveraging HRD strategically within a framework that is driven by values and directed by accountability for HRD. The next chapter will expand on HRD within the unique South African context and establish the foundation for an HRD Model which will facilitate understanding and improvement of HRD in South Africa.

CHAPTER 5 THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT OF HRD

Introduction

The World Commission on Environment and Development (Stewart and Bradshaw, 2004:5) defines “sustainable development” as “development that meets the needs of the present, without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.” It is necessary for the government of any country to commit to integrating sustainable development into its decision-making processes. This approach is supported by three key fundamentals (Stewart and Bradshaw, 2004:5):

1. A long-term focus that seeks to preserve and enhance economic, social and natural (resources) capital to improve the quality of people’s lives and ensure a continuing legacy for the future.
2. A coordinated and integrated approach to decision-making and horizontal issues in government, incorporating social, economic and environmental considerations.
2. Recognition of the interdependence of domestic and global activities.

Integrated decision-making is the essence of evolving towards a more sustainable future. The value of incorporating economic, environmental, and social considerations into decision-making is incalculable. However, it requires innovative ideas on the best method to integrate sustainable development principles into our national and organizational structures and individual behaviour. The main purpose is to enhance the quality of life of South Africans, now and in the future, through taking action, and by changing policy and practices if necessary.

South Africa has, over the past decade, undergone noteworthy transformation as a developing country with a particular overhaul to its National Human Resources Development (NHRD) framework. Harbison and Meyers (1964) suggest a holistic and integrated approach to human resources development (HRD) which reinforces that HRD must be analyzed and understood in the context of a country’s historical roots, encompassing its social, political and economic environment. Goethe, a German philosopher, proposed that in order to move forward we must first understand our past.

The intention of this chapter is thus to explain the South African national context for HRD by reflecting on the historical issues which set the platform for the emergence of the current nationwide approach to HRD needs. The strategy and legislation which have been created to ensure that South African business can accomplish organizational greatness through their people and thus enable future generations to endorse South Africa as a winning nation, will be expanded upon.

A National Perspective of HRD in South Africa

As previously mentioned, the political, economic, and socio-cultural environments of a country influence the nature and role of NHRD in that country, and it is this context and intent that ultimately profile and enlighten what makes for responsible HRD (Lynham *et al.*, 2006).

There is a swiftly emerging emphasis on defining HRD as a national agenda. This framework is one of open national Systems thinking, but before examining the rationale behind this approach, it is necessary to further examine some aspects of Systems theory, after the discussion given in Chapter 3.

Systems Theory and Thinking

A “system” is defined by Warren (1984) as an organization of pieces which interface or work together to achieve the purpose for which they were designed. Swanson and Holton III (2001:16) states that the basic Systems theory was first described by Boulding (1956) and Von Bertalanffy (1962), and the model includes the (1) inputs, (2) processes, and (3) outputs of a system as well as a feedback loop. When the system is capable of being influenced by external forces, it is referred to as an “open” system. Nadler (1982:6) adds that an open system, “is one that considers that outside factors exist which can have an impact ...”. Swanson and Holton III (2001) points out that Systems thinking is a product of Systems theory, and it entails people engaging in broader thought processes. The fundamental requirements of engaging in Systems thinking and analysis about systems and processes (sub-systems) and which demonstrate the basic application of systems thinking in practice, entail the following:

1. Naming the system and explicitly defining its purpose so that people can make sure that they are all thinking about the same system

2. Identifying the parts or elements of the system so that perceptions of the system are realistic
3. Analyzing the relationships between the parts and the impact of those relationships.

In this context of national open Systems thinking, there is a need for a united, synthesised approach to such planning within each country. South Africa is one of many countries (Republic of Korea [South Korea], New Zealand, Singapore, India, and Finland) that have developed a radical approach to NHRD. Understanding why South Africa has moved HRD into national policy will serve as a valuable model, not only for other countries, but also for researchers in their respective countries so that they might study the movement towards elevating HRD to national policy and make additional recommendations for continuous improvement in accessing HRD for national improvement (McLean *et al.*, 2003:1).

Macro-level Perspective of HRD in SA

Sunter (1987:41) identifies education as a “primary prerequisite for the success of a country.” He has the following to say about education in South Africa: “On the brink of the knowledge-intensive 1990s, the foremost characteristic of a ‘winning nation’ has to be the quality of its education system. I could have covered the chart with education, education, education and education” (Sunter 1987:40). He ranks education as the most important attribute of a successful engaging nation.

The focus of HRD at the macro-level is “crucial for the economic prosperity of all South Africans” (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003:418). It is essential to apply an open Systems-thinking approach and understand the broader national developments in HRD, as these provide the context within which organizations can train and develop their employees, to ensure that they realize their full potential and ultimately sustain the business, thus securing and preserving a seat in the economic and social global arena.

Innumerable authors talk about the remarkable changes that South Africa has experienced over the past decade. “Previously sequestered from the realities of globalization and internationalization, South Africa is being bombarded by internal and external demands for change, supporting the need to reskill and multiskill its

current predominantly semiskilled and unskilled labour force” (Cunningham and Lynham, 2004:1). It is acknowledged that the “enormous task of developing policies aimed at the promotion of economic growth and social development” (Van Dyk *et al.*, 2001:9) can no longer be accomplished through South Africa’s natural resources. Rather, it is through the development of its human resources, and national public education, development, training and job creation programmes that better social equity, economic sharing and prosperity are being sought. This recognition of the criticality of the country’s human resources to its future success means that the development of human resources can no longer be left just in the hands of industry. Rather, the challenge of HRD has become one of national concern and an issue of national policy making and implementation (Cunningham and Lynham, 2004:1).

According to Dorrian (2005:196), South Africa must do more to develop the single most important asset to economic growth in the modern globalized world, namely human capital. The table below puts this need into perspective by setting out some key statistics from the United Nations’ Human Development Report for 2004.

TABLE 18: Key statistics from the United Nations' 2004 Human Development Report

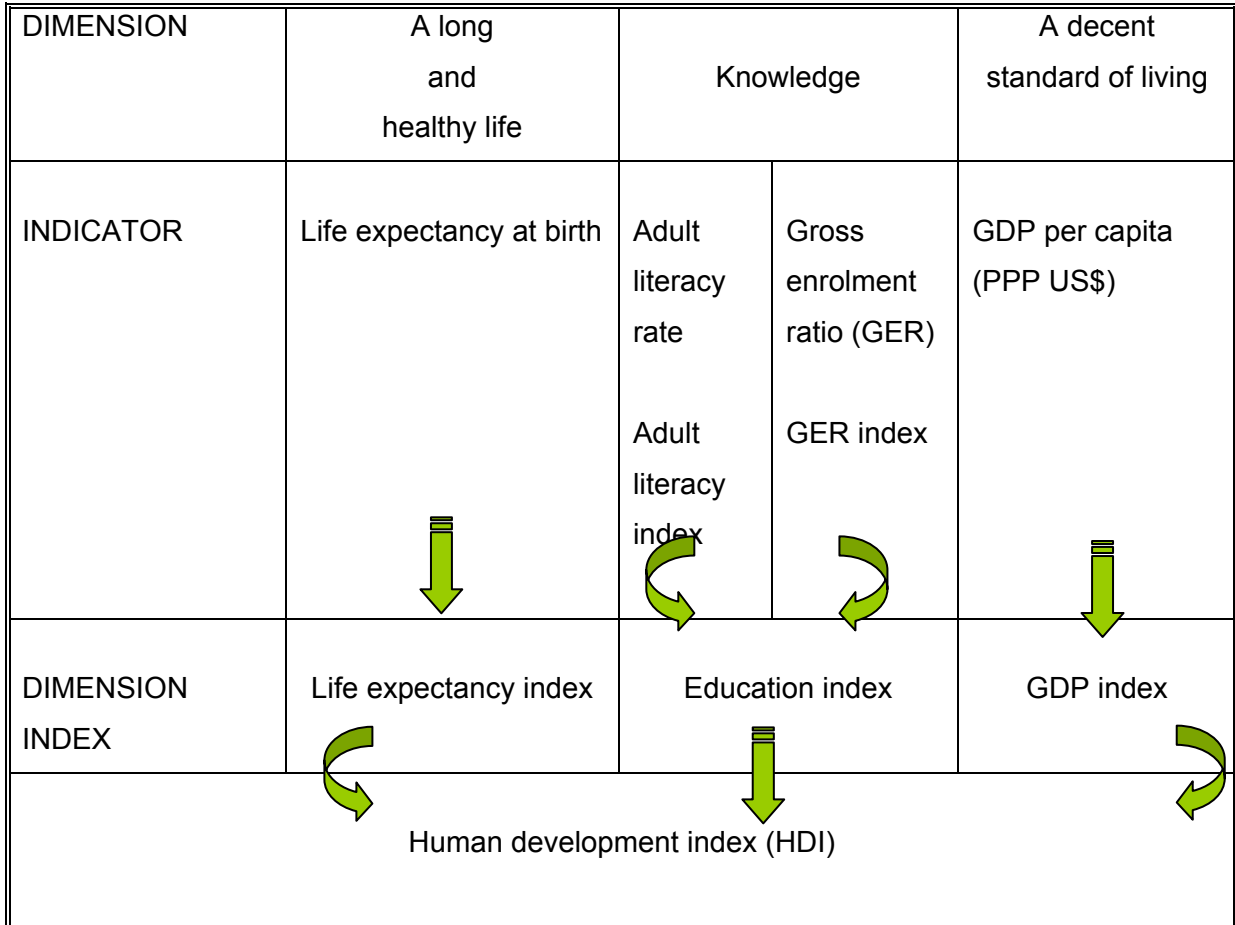
Criteria	Norway	Brazil	South Africa
Overall ranking out of 177 countries	1	72	119
Life expectancy at birth (2002 estimate)	78.9	68	48.8
Combined gross enrolment ratio for primary, secondary and tertiary schools % (2201/2002)	98	92	77
GDP per capita (ppp US\$)	36 600	7 770	10 070
Life Expectancy Index	0.90	0.72	0.40
Education Index	0.99	0.88	0.83
GDP Index	0.99	0.73	0.77
Human Development Index	0.956	0.775	0.666
Inequality in income or consumption – richest 10% to poorest 10%	6.1	85.0	65.1
Inequality in income or consumption – richest 20% to poorest 20%	3.9	31.5	33.6
Gini Index	25.8	59.1	59.3

Source: Dorrian (2005:196)

For the purpose of this research, we focus on the Gini Index and the Human Development Index (HDI). The Gini Index measures equality over the entire distribution of income or consumption. Perfect equality would be represented by an evaluation of zero, whilst imperfect inequality would carry an evaluation of 100. South Africa, with an evaluation of 59.3, needs to focus its priorities appropriately, as it has a long way to go to achieve ideal quality (Dorrian, 2005: 244).

The HDI is an overall rating for the state of human development in the country. The sketch below highlights how the HDI is constructed.

FIGURE 20: Calculating a human development index



Source: Dorrian (2005:243)

One can assume that by addressing each component in the spirit of incubating, nurturing, and protecting it, the country will produce strong human capital capable of competing against other nations in the global arena. South Africa can then further develop each category of human capital into a force that can help to develop South Africa further (Dorrian, 2005).

Based on a structure proposed by Cunningham and Lynham (2004), there follows a chronological review of the historical elements which provide the context for HRD in South Africa.

HRD: The South African Context

South Africa’s transforming national context and its effect on the evolving nature of HRD are entrenched in three decades of high-impact changes

(Cunningham and Lynham, 2004). These changes brought with them noteworthy implications for the concept and practice of HRD in the country.

The 1970s

The time leading up to the 1970s saw Personnel Management as a field of study, research, and practice in South Africa as fairly well established by the time South Africa reached Republic status (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003:50). Research indicates that by 1969, Personnel Management in South Africa had the following characteristics (Langehoven and Verster, 1969; Marx, 1969 cited in Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003:50-51):

1. The majority of organizations did not have a separate personnel department.
2. Personnel departments were relatively small and consisted mainly of personnel without formal post-matriculation qualifications.
3. Use was made of personnel specialists, particularly in areas such as employment, salary and wage administration, and training and development.
4. The most general subsections into which personnel departments were organized were (in order of priority): general personnel administration, employment (including recruitment and selection); training and development; welfare, sport, pension and related personnel services; salary and wage administration; and medical scheme and medical services.
5. The emphasis in personnel work fell on administrative/clerical, routine work, and also, to some extent, on paternalistic, welfare-related activities.
6. Most of those in the personnel field who did in fact have formal qualifications were graduates in the social sciences.

The emphasis during this era was more on individualism than collectivism, and Marx (1969:58-60) warned that collectivism (the trade union movement) was going to need more attention. He added that a greater emphasis had to be put on actually getting people to add value and contribute to the success of the organization. This implied a shift to better-qualified and more highly trained employees. Friedman (1987:33, cited in Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003:52) states that:

None of the African union movements before the 1970s endured because none could turn worker support into a permanent source of power...By the 1970s new pressures were building which forced those in power to concede that they could no longer simply resist unionism: by then a new generation of unions was beginning to grow.

The real renaissance of African collectivism hit employers early in 1973, with the biggest wave of strikes in the country since the Second World War (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003). Of all of these strikes, Cunningham *et al.*, (1990:2, 16) state that:

There was a shift in the political economy of South Africa. Blacks became aware of their economic power...there was a restructuring of the power balance within the employment relationship...A non-racial (although predominantly black) trade union movement established itself as a permanent feature...In 1975 there were 25 exclusively black trade unions, representing 66 000 workers.

Therefore, entrenched in the 1970s was a move by the South African government to reorganise labour law and construct non-racial trade unions. The establishment of an independent, nonracial trade union movement saw unions playing an active role in reshaping, amongst other things, workplace policy that would govern the development of human resources (Cunningham and Lynham, 2004).

In 1975, Professor Langenhoven of the University of the Free State, created his own definition of personnel management, which encapsulates the South African perspective at that time:

Personnel management is one of the responsibilities of management and the fulltime function of personnel specialists in regard to the human resources of the organization to develop, apply and manage a complete network of interdependent processes and systems with a view to achieving the organisation's and its people's objectives, with due consideration to the

concepts, principles and techniques of the behavioural sciences and the practical requirements of the situation (Langenhoven, 1975:7).

This definition minimized the collective dimension of trade unions, albeit that organized labour, worker representation, and industrial action were becoming more and more prominent. Two significant HRD-related inquiries were initiated by the government in order to address international and national pressure, namely the Wiehahn and Riekert Commissions. The Wiehahn Commission, led by Professor Nic Wiehahn of the University of South Africa, explored South African labour legislation. This Commission recommended that racialism no longer be a consideration in the South African Labour dispensation – a period where black employees were no longer to be excluded from the statutory labour machinery of the country (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003). These inquiries led to a break with statutory racialism, and to subsequent democratisation of the workplace, and opened access for all employees to workplace education, training, development, and advancement. In keeping with the Wiehahn Report, race and culture were played down and the role of the market emphasized (SAQA, 2004:7)

The year 1979 saw the publication of some very interesting research results stemming from a survey on developments in personnel management in South Africa conducted by the University of the Orange Free State (Verster, 1979, cited in Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003:53-54). The findings revealed the following:

1. Many organizations had independent personnel departments.
2. In most cases the top personnel official was called a “personnel manager”, often a “group personnel manager” or “personnel director.”
3. As a rule, this top-level personnel official reported to the general manager or to a member of the Board.
4. People performing personnel work exclusively held more clerical positions than managerial or professional positions, especially in the case of black personnel staff.
5. The ratio of people performing personnel work to total staff establishment was in the region of 1,26:100.

6. Approximately 21% of those performing personnel work had post-matriculation qualifications.
7. Approximately 3,4% of the personnel staff had degrees with Industrial Psychology as the major subject.
8. Another approximately 3,65% had postgraduate qualifications in a behavioural science.
9. Changes in emphasis in personnel management practice from 1976 to 1979 resulted in the emergence of the following top three priority areas: (1) upgrading of black workers; (2) employee training; and (3) industrial relations.
10. More money, time, and manpower were spent on administrative personnel work than on professional aspects of personnel management.
11. Personnel research work was neglected and viewed as the black sheep of personnel work.

The 1980s

During the 1980s the government made a final attempt to cling to a policy of apartheid. This was met with political turbulence and a spate of unrests. The passing of the Manpower Training Act No. 56 of 1982 encouraged skills development throughout the labour force, but a declining economy acted as a barrier to its implementation (Cunningham and Lynham, 2004:2).

Swanepoel *et al.*, (2003:55) state that trade union membership figures increased throughout the 1980s, and coupled with this there was increasing antagonism between black employees and their trade unions on the one hand, and employers who were mostly represented by white managers in the workplace on the other. The unions displayed an exceptional amount of revolutionary behaviour, and industrial action became a frequent challenge in the area of HRM in South Africa, unfolding as follows:

1. For the decade 1970-1979 there were 179 reported strikes; the corresponding number for the five-year period 1983-1987 was 3 135.
2. Statistics also revealed that South Africa lost more man days owing to strike action over the period 1985-1990 than during the entire preceding 75 years.

Swanepoel *et al.*, (2003) add that the individual component of personnel management in South Africa matured somewhat during the 1980s as journal articles emphasized manpower planning, selection, training and development, organization development, job evaluation and remuneration, career planning, performance appraisal, manpower information systems, and especially black advancement and labour productivity. October 1983 saw the inauguration of the first South African Board for Personnel Practice (SABPP) which realized an overwhelming response and support from South African organizations.

In 1985, Pasengrouw added the dimension of “strategic HRM” (Pasengrouw, 1985:22-30) to the conception of personnel management in South Africa, followed by Hill’s (1987) recommendation for South African organizations to adopt a “strategic approach to human resources management” (Hill, 1987:6-9). Hill (1987:6) suggests that the “responsibility for decision-making with regard to people-related issues had been transferred to the personnel and/or industrial relations departments of South African organizations.” According to Horwitz (1988:6-7), however, this was contrary to a typical international shift from “functionally oriented personnel management” to a more line-driven, general management conception of HRM. In the same article, in which Horwitz speculated about the differences between “functional, specialist and professional personnel management,” on the one hand, and “a generalist, organizational conception of HRM” on the other, it was proposed that the differences should be viewed as “orientational rather than as substantive, and that the two approaches linked to the terms should not be regarded as being mutually exclusive” (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003:55-56).

Industrial relations became a distinctive and extremely important area of people management during the 1980s, and collective bargaining, dispute handling, strike management, and fair discipline and labour practices took centre-stage in the management of South African businesses.

Towards the latter part of 1988, HIV and AIDS, worker participation, and violence began to feature strongly in South African literature on personnel management.

Towards the end of the 1980s, the role of human resource practitioners in South Africa started changing (Van Wyk, 1989:13-14):

“The HR practitioner’s role is shifting away from the traditional view of personnel management to one of strategic planning for manpower utilization in partnership with the relevant line function. His role is to support the managerial population in its quest for obtaining and growing a successful work team ...the practitioner must develop a business orientation and ensure that it is reflected in the HR interventions in which he is involved...The HR practitioner should also reflect a philosophy ...where he actively seeks out new business ... A proactive approach ... also in providing the required consulting service to implement the relevant programmes... All in all, the HR practitioner will play a key role in guiding organizations into and through the nineties. The vision and appropriate framework of strategy changes will be driving forces in such organizations, with regard to the adaptations we are all going to have to make.”

Cunningham and Lynham (2004) suggest that this decade, typified by frustration as a result of increasing sanctions from overseas, the building of mass-movement boycotts spearheaded by the trade unions and community-based organizations, and the declaration of a State of Emergency during 1984, saw organizations adopt a philosophy of organizational leanness.

The 1990s: a Period of Transition

According to Swanepoel *et al.*, (2003), at the end of the 1980s the South African economy was in recession owing to political instability, disinvestment and sanctions imposed by overseas countries, and rising labour unit costs (lower labour productivity and higher wages). Poor economic growth had resulted in large-scale unemployment, and job creation had become one of the major challenges. While 44 800 new job opportunities had been created during the 1960s, the corresponding figure for the 1980s was 28 000 (Finnemore and Van der Merwe, 1992:37). Against this background of an ominous economic situation, the socio-economic backlogs

suffered by the majority of black South Africans became increasingly more apparent. South Africa was in the midst of political and socio-economic turmoil – a situation felt by virtually every employer and employee (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003). President F W De Klerk then announced the government's intention to resolve the socio-political problems through negotiations with all stakeholders. This set the stage for major transformation in the country and the idea of a "new South Africa" and "post-apartheid era" ricocheted through the land. (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003:57).

Wilhelm Crous, the then Executive Director of the Institute of Personnel Management (IPM) SA stated that as the political problems were solved, other areas of pressing concern such as unemployment, housing, education, training, and health had to be addressed (Crous, 1990:3). Many of the personnel-related publications during the early 1990s dealt with these types of issues.

Furthermore, the SABPP published a Generic Competency Model for Human Resource Practitioners, as developed by the Human Resources Group of Eskom – the national electricity utility; it became a guide to the identification, development and evaluation of the competencies (knowledge, skills, experiential and behavioural base) required of professional specialists at the various levels in the human resource profession in South Africa (SABPP, 1990:4-5).

Simultaneously, the role of HR practitioners in South Africa expanded, and many managers were turning to them to act as catalysts and change agents, and to help with a diverse and complex range of demands and problems that organizations were facing. The figure below highlights these critical functional and behavioural competencies.

FIGURE 21: The generic competency model for human resource practitioners

COMPETENCE = EDUCATION + TRAINING + APPLICATION + BEHAVIOURAL BASE				
<i>Level</i>	<i>Knowledge base</i>	<i>Skills base</i>	<i>Experiential base</i>	<i>Behavioural base</i>
Managerial	Social sciences 1. Industrial psychology 2. Industrial sociology 3. Industrial Law/Labour Law Business sciences 4. Business Management 5. Economics 6. Accounting 7. Statistics 8. Computer systems	Functional 1. Research methodology 2. Measurement 3. Assessment 4. System design 5. Group process 6. Mentoring 7. Consulting Managerial 8. Leadership 9. Planning 10. Budgeting 11. Communication 12. Marketing and promotion 13. Negotiating 14. Change management 15. Monitoring 16. Reporting	Employee level <i>Deployment</i> 1. Recruitment 2. Selection 3. Career management 4. Termination 5. Retirement planning <i>Administration</i> 6. HR policies 7. HR procedures 8. Job evaluation 9. Compensation management 10. Employee assistance Programmes 11. Occupational health 12. Industrial relations agreements 13. Disciplinary procedure 14. Grievance procedure 15. Accommodation and feeding 16. Recreation <i>Performance development</i> 17. Course design 18. Induction/orientation 19. On-the-job training 20. Off-the-job training 21. Performance Assessment 22. Development	Professional 1. Systemic thinking 2. Measurement Orientation 3. Objectivity 4. Judgement 5. Innovation 6. Assertiveness 7. Accountability 8. Integrity 9. Confidentiality 10. Flexibility Interpersonal 11. Respectfulness 12. Recognition 13. Responsiveness 14. Empowerment 15. Consultation Managerial 16. Customer focus 17. Quality focus 18. Cost focus 19. Results focus

			<p>Counselling</p> <p>23. Job advancement</p> <p>24. Educational assistance</p> <p>Group level</p> <p><i>Intragroup functioning</i></p> <p>25. Team development</p> <p>26. Conflict management</p> <p>27. Participation</p> <p><i>Intergroup functioning</i></p> <p>28. Matrix management</p> <p>29. Cross-cultural environments</p> <p>30. Industrial relations structures</p> <p>31. Trade union relationships</p> <p>32. Collective bargaining</p> <p>Organisational level</p> <p><i>Corporate strategy</i></p> <p>33. Business planning</p> <p>34. Manpower planning</p> <p>35. Succession planning</p> <p><i>Corporate structure</i></p> <p>36. Organization design</p> <p>37. Job design</p> <p>38. Resource utilisation</p> <p><i>Corporate functioning</i></p> <p>39. Corporate values</p> <p>40. Employee motivation</p> <p>41. Opportunity Equalisation</p> <p>42. Human resource surveys</p>	
--	--	--	---	--

Source: Swanepoel *et al.*, (2003:58)

Unions and management soon realized that continuation of existing animosity between them would only lead to their mutual demise, especially within the context of existing economic conditions and business confidence which was at treacherously low levels (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003). From early 1992, representatives of business and labour engaged in bilateral negotiations with the aim of setting up a national, tripartite economic forum which would include representatives of the government.

Shaw (2001) states that with the new constitution of democracy and Bill of Rights in place in the mid- to late-1990s, South Africa was on a route of reform. It was, however, rated 47 out of 59 countries in terms of competitiveness, with its labour force being amongst the least skilled (Popenoe *et al.*, 1997). This competitiveness ranking pointed to a decline in training departments and employer commitment to training, and sharpened the need for industry to invest in the education and training of its workforce (Cunningham and Lynham, 2004). A 1994 report by SPA Consultants indicated that, on average, South African industry was investing between 0.5 and 1.0% of the payroll in education and training, compared to 4-6% and 10% equivalent investments in Europe and Japan respectively (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003).

Swanepoel *et al.*, (2003) mention that in 1994 the SABPP requested the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) to initiate an investigation to determine the supply and demand of personnel practitioners in South Africa. Some of the more important findings were as follows:

1. Managers in South Africa realized anew that quality and well-being of the workforces of organizations are key influences on their productivity.
2. The role of HR specialists was changing from the provision of primarily support services to involvement in the core business of organizations (strategic management).
3. HRM was devolving from human resource specialists to line managers, thus freeing the HR specialists to focus more on human resource development and play the role of consultants.
4. The importance and high priority of affirmative action in organizations was being recognized.

5. An increasingly strong focus on HR development was growing, which was aligned to affirmative action programmes and other sociopolitical changes taking place in South Africa.
6. HRD was becoming more modular, and the trend was towards matching it with a “national qualifications framework.”
7. Emphasis on the development of basic skills such as literacy, numeracy, and accelerated development programmes was increasing.
8. Revolutionary developments in the field of information technology were further affecting the work of personnel practitioners.
9. In the work domain, aspects such as HRD and organizational change and development were increasing in relative prominence. Furthermore, industrial relations remained important, and employee welfare, community upliftment, and social investment were also becoming important.
10. Administrative skills became less important.
11. The market for HR professionals was becoming increasingly competitive as they became highly skilled in the ability to adapt to a rapidly changing environment.
12. Entrepreneurial and strategic thinking abilities were growing in relative importance.

After the 1994 political miracle, the Department of Labour initiated a new labour legislative environment for South African business. The National Economic Development and Labour Council (NEDLAC) came into existence on 5 May, 1995, through Act 35 of 1994. This body was created to facilitate social dialogue between the representatives of the major stakeholders and roleplayers, namely labour, business, government, and the socially excluded, (the unemployed), on all socio-economic and labour matters.

A stream of new laws provided momentum for a renewed awareness of what the people-centred philosophy of the new government meant for South African organizations. Labour-related statutes that went this route are:

1. The Labour Relations Act No. 66 of 1995
2. The South African Qualifications Authority Act No. 58 of 1997

3. The Basic Conditions of Employment Act No. 75 of 1997
4. The Employment Equity Act No. 55 of 1998
5. The Skills Development Act No. 97 of 1998
6. The Skills Development Levies Act No. 9 of 1999

Relevant aspects of some of these Acts will be discussed later.

One can thus conclude that this era provided the context which set the platform for the formulation and launch of a strategic network of legislation in pursuit of education, training and development of human resources as a national point of leverage (Council on Higher Education, 2002; Erasmus and van Dyk, 2003).

The 21st Century: a Period of Executing HRD as a National Priority

Upon entering the new millennium, the world has found itself to be in the midst of multifaceted and radical change. From the perspective of world politics and international power relations, an era has emerged in which the world is demonstrating a rapidly growing appreciation and acceptance of more democratic systems. A shift has been taking place from a largely bipolar world order towards a multipolar order. By considering the variables and forces that are experienced internationally, such as increased competition, the accelerated pace at which economies and organizations have to operate, the free flow of money, information, products and people, the wave of high-tech developments and the general trend towards more democratic value systems, one finds that the world of work and HRM in South Africa, as elsewhere in the world, is faced with a multitude of complex challenges.

Apart from the generic factors that are experienced worldwide, there are some variables and forces that are unique to the idiosyncratic South African situation (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003:77). South Africa's complex socio-political-economic setup is founded today to a large extent on the history of the country. The legacies of apartheid have permeated every aspect of the lives of South Africans. The pressures and demands facing South Africa in a global context must be seen against the background of the two major challenges facing our country. On the one hand, South Africa's major objective is to stimulate the country's economy in order to create the means to improve the quality of life for all its inhabitants. However, this

dynamic takes place within the context of gross socio-economic inequality in this society. Reconciling these two realities of growth and inequality is one of the greatest challenges facing the country. The essence of the debate concerns what comes first: wealth creation or wealth redistribution? This tension boils over into HRD and people relations in the workplace (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003:78).

Within the South African context, the 21st century is characterized by a renewed national commitment to the importance of “peoplepower” and the “democratization of knowledge” (Council on Higher Education, 2002:5). Also influencing this century are the devastating effects of HIV and AIDS on the populace and workforce, and increasing pressure to become a regional leader in an emerging global economy and society (Bowmaker-Falconer *et al.*, 1997; Horwitz, 1999; Indabawa *et al.*, 2000; Mani, 2001; Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003).

As South Africa moved from a dual labour system in which access to a job and career development gave preference to whites in terms of custom and legislation, there was a realization by government and employers of the critical need to develop the country’s human capital to compete on the international market (Horwitz, 1999; Council on Higher Education, 2002; Haasbroek, 2002). As a result, a strategic framework of policy and supportive legislation was enacted during the 1990s and 2000s which aimed at correcting the historical imbalances in the labour market (Cunningham and Lynham, 2004:5).

A number of realities in the South African environment are important in understanding the context in which this policy and legislation are placed (Blunt and Cunningham, 2002). Some of these realities include, although they are not limited to, the following:

1. The labour force and unemployment
2. Literacy and education
3. An emphasis on science and technology
4. Problems with and deficiencies in past training funding.

A brief explanation of each of these demographic and social variables follows.

The labour force and unemployment.

Barker (1999) has estimated that the South African economically active population (EAP) was in the order of 14.2 million in 1996, with more than 70% being African and about 46% women. Unemployment increased from an estimated 34% in 1996 to nearly 42% in 2001. According to Barker (1999), between 300 000 and 400 000 persons are entering the labour market annually, looking for work. This is compounded by the affirmation that the size of the African population and the numbers of people of working age have been growing much faster than the size of the African employed labour force; the consequence is that “a substantial portion of those entering the labour market will not find work” (Haasbroek, 2002:442, cited in Cunningham and Lynham, 2004:3).

Literacy and education.

Over the past decade, education and training have undergone significant shifts. Critical to this shift is the rationale to address the high illiteracy rate, which is 65% of the economically active population (Erasmus and van Dyk, 2003). This does not compare favourably with countries such as Japan (1%) and the United States (13%). Cunningham and Lynham (2004:4) add that since the demise of apartheid, the educational system has sought to address the racial imbalances in education by broadening the base of access to formal education, incorporating more adult learners, and being more student-focused. Driven by state economic policy, the education system has increasingly shifted to focusing on technology and the acquisition of skills-based competences, and underpinning this is a commitment to the creation of a self-employable entrepreneurial class.

Emphasis on science and technology.

Simultaneously with the trends in international relations and the world political-economic order, a revolution has been taking place in the field of technology, especially in information and communication technology (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003); the world has become non-peripheral and more and more interconnected.

South Africa is currently estimated to have “938 scientists engaged in research and development per million people” (Haasbroek, 2002:440, cited in Cunningham and Lynham, 2004:4), compared to 6 309 in a developed nation like

Japan. Addressing this will require accentuating mathematics and science, and HRD is looked to for improving levels of knowledge creators (Mani, 2001). Cunningham and Lynham (2004) state that this emphasis was underscored in one of the goals of the 1996 White Paper on Science and Technology (Republic of South Africa, 1996), namely HRD and capacity-building. This initiative sought links with the Growth and Development Strategy, a macroeconomic strategy aimed at aligning South African industry more closely with international competition and increasing its ability to attract local and foreign investment. The resulting initiative consisted of: an HRD investment strategy; a training strategy; the improvement of the quality of education with the priority on skills for employment, growth and democracy; a plan for effective backlog provision; and the forging of social partnerships in HRD with specific reference to partnerships with the private sector on education, health and training.

Problems with and deficiencies in past funding for training.

The 1980s and 1990s saw a number of national legislative initiatives including tax-incentive schemes for employers. The 1982 Manpower Training Act provided for industries to establish a training levy scheme, and was followed by the introduction of the Skills Development Levies Act (No.9) in 1999, which made provision for the funding of training (Cunningham and Lynham, 2004). Haasbroek (2002:447) suggests that “some of the serious deficiencies of the industry-based training levy schemes [at that time] were the inefficient collection of levies, inadequate coverage of the workforce, and a weak linkage between training and labour market skills needs.”

A 1994-1995 study by the Department of Labour looked “into the fundamental mechanisms for training in South Africa” (Haasbroek, 2002:447). According to Haasbroek (2002, cited in Cunningham and Lynham, 2004:5), a number of major deficiencies regarding training funding were recognized, and a number of proposals to reconsider the funding mechanism were proposed. These deficiencies included the following:

1. The training system was not well co-ordinated.

2. Employer expenditure on training was low, with limited external pressure to train.
3. Individual attitudes toward training were restricting investment.
4. There were gaps in the provision of training.
5. The introduction of a qualification and accreditation framework was required.
6. Competition in the training market was constrained.
7. Barriers prevented suppliers from entering the market.

These contextual realities, together with a national need for economic, social and cultural growth and development, have been instrumental in shaping HRD in South Africa. They are also important in defining the strategic framework and construct of National Human Resources Development (NHRD) in this context.

Definition and Framework of NHRD

The South African context has produced an explicit definition of HRD. This definition harmonises with a national framework of driving policy and legislation.

Emerging Definition

From the literature consulted, HRD in South Africa appears to have some specific point of prominence (Cunningham and Lynham, 2004). For example, HRD must be nationally framed, include learning and performance, and bridge multiple performance boundaries (Erasmus and van Dyk, 2003). It also needs to pursue individual, organizational, community, and national capacity-building and competence-based goals of competitiveness, increased productivity and performance, and social equity and growth (Mani, 2001; Haasbroek, 2002).

Within this context, the following definition of NHRD in South Africa is proposed by Cunningham and Lynham (2004:5):

...process or processes of organized capability and competence-based learning experiences undertaken within a specified period of time to bring about individual and organizational growth and performance improvement, and to enhance national economic, cultural, and social development.

If a country wishes to experience economic growth and utilise citizens as effectively as possible, a national training strategy is of utmost importance. It is essential, among other things, that the training and development of South Africa's current and future workforce takes place within an appropriately structured framework, which is efficiently governed by legislation. A brief exploration of the legislative interventions which frame NHRD in South Africa follows.

Policy Framework and Legislation

April 1994 saw the success of the first free and democratic elections in South Africa (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003; Cunningham and Lynham, 2004). Besides explicating the inalienable principles of citizenship and governance, the new constitution provided a platform from which the thought and practice regarding the development of human resources in the country would be reconceived (Shaw, 2001; Erasmus and van Dyk, 2003). The table below provides an overview of the NHRD-defining framework in South Africa, provided by Asmal (2001:1-13).

TABLE 19: An overview of South Africa's NHRD policy framework

The Mission	The three overarching goals	The five supporting strategic objectives
<p>“To maximize the potential of the people of South Africa, through the acquisition of knowledge, skills and values, to work productively and competitively in order to achieve a rising quality of life for all, and to set in place an operational plan, together with the necessary institutional arrangements, to achieve this.” (Asmal, 2001:2)</p>	<p>“To achieve an improvement in the UNDP Human Development Index for South Africa, as a result of improvements to the social infrastructure” (Asmal, 2001:3)</p>	<p>“To improve the foundations for human development.” (Asmal, 2001:4)</p>
		<p>“To improve the supply of high-quality skills, especially scarce skills which are more responsive to social and economic needs.” (Asmal, 2001:4)</p>
	<p>‘To reduce disparities between the rich and the poor, reflected in an improved <i>Gini co-efficient</i> rating.’ (Asmal, 2001:3)</p>	<p>“To increase employer participation in lifelong learning.” (Asmal, 2001:4)</p>
	<p>‘To improve the country’s position in the International Competitiveness League’. (Asmal, 2001:3)</p>	<p>“To support employment growth through industrial policies, innovation, research and development.” (Asmal, 2001:4)</p>
		<p>“Ensuring the above four initiatives are linked.” (Asmal, 2001:4)</p>

Source: Asmal (2001: 1-13)

The anthology of legislation and policy that drive NHRD in South Africa is embedded within an NHRD framework, which is also seen as a key supporter to the President’s vision (Mbeki, 2001) of “a nation at work for a better life for all” (Asmal, 2001:1). Simply, three overarching goals have been set which can be accomplished by realizing five strategic objectives. The overarching goals and supporting strategic objectives depicted in the table are self-explanatory.

A significant means to wealth creation and redistribution lies in the modification of legislation and the enactment of laws. The rest of this chapter is dedicated to specific aspects of South Africa’s labour-related legislation, as this facet of the macro-external environment has an unequivocal impact on the nature of HRD in our organizations. The purpose of this overview is to briefly explain the existing legislative interventions and to point out the objectives of the various statutes.

The Labour Relations Act No. 66 of 1995

After extensive negotiations between labour, employers, and the state, NEDLAC tabled a report on 21 July, 1996, in which the adoption of the amended draft Labour Relations Bill was recommended. The Act, after a number of postponements during 1996, finally came into force on 11 November, 1996. The Act seeks to balance the demands of international competitiveness and the protection of the fundamental rights of workers, so as to give effect to the stated goals of the Reconstruction and Development Plan. These include the achievement of high productivity, improved efficiency, social justice, the inclusion of all sectors under the new Act, and the establishment of collective bargaining at national, industrial, and workplace levels (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003:102).

The South African Qualifications Authority Act No.58 of 1995

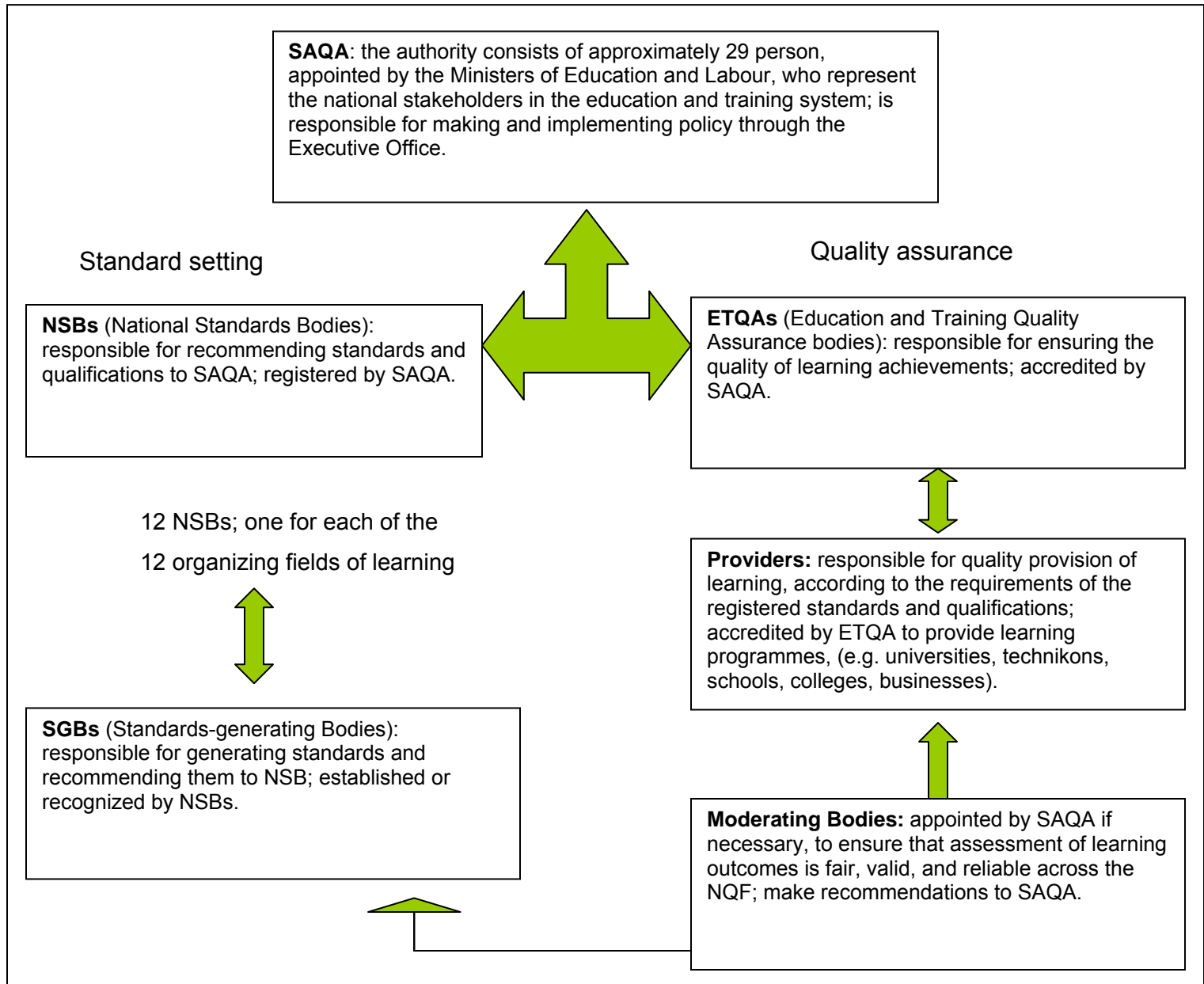
The cornerstone of HRD legislation is the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act (SAQA, 2004:12), with its emphasis on constituency representation on SAQA that is itemized below:

1. One (member nominated) by the Director General: Education
2. One by the heads of Provincial Education Departments
3. One by the Director General: Labour
4. One by the National Training Board
5. Two each by organized labour and organized business
6. One each by the bodies representing principals of universities, technikons, technical colleges, teachers' colleges and other colleges respectively
7. One each by the national bodies representing Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET), early childhood development, and special education needs respectively
8. Two by the organized teaching profession
9. Two by national bodies representing lecturers and trainers.

The SAQA Act was established to provide for the development and implementation of a National Qualifications Framework (NQF), and led to the development of such a framework. Furthermore, it gives national recognition to learning that takes place after compulsory education, to encourage the growth of

skills and redress the skills imbalance as well as the values deficit in South Africa (Grobler *et al.*, 2002). To ensure enactment, the Act allows for the establishment of a body known as SAQA, that accredits education and training quality assurance (ETQA) bodies which are “primarily responsible for developing standards and qualifications” (Haasbroek, 2002:453). In addition, “to ensure general acceptance of, and confidence in, the NQF, a comprehensive quality-assuring process has been put in place” (Haasbroek, 2002:453). The resulting system for education and training programmes accepted by SAQA requires NQF accreditation and is informed by an outcomes-based education (OBE) philosophy (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003). An organogram for SAQA is depicted below.

FIGURE 22: SAQA organogram



Source: SAQA (2002)

In *Quality Management Systems for ETQAs* (SAQA, 2002:12), the following useful role distinctions were drawn in terms of what the document refers to as the “NQF organisation.” In many ways the NQF is comparable to a large organization, having a clear and shared purpose laid out in the Act. Within the NQF organization, SAQA creates the vision, sets the policies, defines the timetable, delegates the

tasks, and defines the quality of performance. It is the equivalent of the Board and senior executive of an organization. The Standards Generating Bodies (SGBs) define the service standards in terms of the specific outcomes that should match the vision described by SAQA. The providers are the powerhouses, the productive unit, the creators and constituent providers of the service. The ETQAs have the role of quality audit and assurance. The role of the National Standards Bodies (NSBs) and the suggested Moderating Bodies are, however, complex and diverse. This diversity is managed by creating multiple NSBs, which act as agents of SAQA. SAQA requires that each NSB include representation from the various stakeholders for the ultimate service. In this way, SAQA is seeking to ensure that the standards developed by individual SGBs reflect the vision, address the problems identified, and meet the needs of the diverse stakeholders. Their primary role is thus to assure quality for those setting the standards.

The potential Moderating Bodies have a similar role. To simplify operations, providers are to be served by a single ETQA, but the implementation of standards is not to be limited to a particular sector of providers. Indeed, this would be contrary to the two goals of the Act, namely, the development of an integrated framework and enhanced mobility between the different parts of the system of providers. So different ETQAs will provide quality-assuring services based on the same standards. Mobility and credibility will depend on an adequately consistent interpretation of the standards by all who use them. The role of the Moderating Bodies will be to assure this consistency across ETQAs. They, too, are agents of SAQA.

Let us briefly look at the inter-relationships that exist amongst some of these structures, and the systems and procedures that have been designed to support their functionality.

Isaacs (2000:3-7) points out that “the really difficult issue is the management of the relationship between ETQAs”. Samuels (2000:26-33) describes one aspect of the difficulty as follows:

On the one hand the statutory bodies will, to a large extent, play the role of an ETQA, but an ETQA cannot be the SGB. In terms of agreements reached,

statutory bodies will be able to lead, facilitate, co-ordinate, and participate in standard generation without actually being the SGB.

NSBs were initially deficient in effective stakeholder participation, but this shortage has since been remedied (Department of Education (DOE) and Department of Labour (DOL), 2002).

The Skills Development Act (SDA) enabled the establishment of Sector Education and Training Authorities in each economic sector. These authorities fall under the DOL and are responsible for administering the Skills Development Levy (SDL). Their functions therefore closely relate to the improvement of training opportunities, and they also have a quality assurance function as they “have the legislative power to be ETQAs” (Isaacs, 2000). In their recent consultative document, the DOE and the DOL (2003:5) note that: “for the first time in South Africa there is now a full set of industry-based education and training bodies in the form of Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) which provide an organized voice in every sector.”

Difficulties in the management and implementation of the NQF
Various conceptual and practical tensions have been experienced in the management and implementation of the NQF.

Conceptual Tensions

The words “paradigm shift” are frequently mentioned in relation to the NQF, and the clue to some of its problems lies there (Breier, 1998:70). The NQF does not represent a paradigm shift. If the NQF were a paradigm shift in the Kuhnian meaning of the word, there should be an inevitable upsurge towards its principles. It would not require the level of social engineering that is currently underway. This upsurge has not taken place, because of various factors, of which the most relevant are discussed below:

1. Gender issues

Samson (1999:451-453, cited in SAQA, 2004:17) offers a feminist critique arguing that gender issues have been addressed in a “startlingly uneven and unsystematic way” in NQF documents which have been “based on implicit

assumptions that simply offering the same programmes to all South Africans is a sufficient form of redress.” Furthermore, Samson suggests that the documents have “failed to acknowledge and accommodate the structural constraints which form part of black working-class women’s identities and creates barriers to their accessing programmes.”

2. Curriculum-related tensions

In the Consultative document cited in SAQA, (2004:17), the Study Team noted the development of strained relationships between the constituencies representing workplace-based and institution-based learning, that may have developed in part because their respective roles in the NQF are not clearly enough defined and acknowledged in the relevant regulations of the NQF. Furthermore, the Study Team felt that the organizing fields of the NQF deliberately obscure the distinction between types of learning sites by cutting across learning contexts. They further suggested that the NQF bands serve little or no functional purpose in workplace learning, although the NQF levels “are in principle highly functional for pegging standards and qualifications for the workplace and providing the framework for progression along learning pathways.” They add that a design flaw in the NQF led to “the distinct purposes of the constituencies responsible for institutional and workplace learning, including professional practice, not being sufficiently acknowledged.” The document also points to “a demarcation in practice between the two modes of learning that represent a structural fault line in SAQA’s current architecture.” The following recommendations are made to fully accommodate differences between typical learning processes associated with institutions and the workplace in the next phase of NQF implementation:

1. The DOE should have responsibility for all school, Further Education and Training (FET) college and general Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) standards and qualifications up to level 4.
2. Above level 4, the responsibility should be split between the Council for Higher Education (CHE) and the SETAs, using the perceived

difference between unit standards-based qualifications and whole qualifications as the organizing principle.

3. NSBs should be disbanded in their current form and replaced with Qualifications and Quality Assurance Councils (QCs) which would have a structural relationship with SAQA, help create and implement NQF regulations, and submit all national standards and qualifications for registration by SAQA. The executive capacity of QCs would shift the operational centre of gravity from SAQA to QCs.
4. It is proposed that 3 QCs should be established:
 - a. TOP QC – Trade, Occupational and Professional Qualifications and Quality Assurance Council – responsible for co-ordinating qualifications mapping and design, standards generation and quality assurance for competence standards and registration criteria in trade, occupation, and professional practice and qualifications unique to the workplace and their own nomenclature distinct from qualifications within the ambit of other QCs. Reports to the Minister of Labour.
 - b. GENFET QC – responsible for co-ordinating qualifications mapping and design, standards generation, and quality assurance up to level 4, except for qualifications under the ambit of TOP QC. Its main organizational base would be the General and Further Education and Training Qualifications and Quality Assurance Council (Amalusi). Reports to the Minister of Education.
 - c. Higher Education QC – responsible for co-ordinating qualifications mapping and design, standards generation, and quality assurance in Higher Education except for qualifications under the ambit of TOP QCs.

Practical Tensions

Various practical difficulties are prevalent, namely the lack of stakeholder participation, policy communities, and the fear of replicating historical fractures.

Embedded in these tensions was the critical debate of integrating education and training. An integrated framework has been one of the most intensely contested ideals of NQFs internationally (DOE and DOL, 2002). One reason for the debate is that so many interpretations of the idea abound, and there is no common understanding of what is meant by “an integrated approach.” Currently the understanding of integration seems to emerge at a number of different levels:

1. The macro-understanding, which proposes that education and training should be integrated. It seems that the confrontations evident between the two sponsoring departments, the DOE and the DOL, are the result of the decision not to have a single Ministry of Education and Labour in the post-1994 government. This resulted in what Badat (2002:20, cited in SAQA, 2005:25) called the “lack of a shared language, understanding and agreement around areas of initiative and cooperation.”
2. The meso-understanding, which refers to the epistemological differences between education and training. Young (2003:10) suggests that that the power of different types of learning is a reality that any NQF has to start from. If it does not, it will be a barrier to progression and not a way of overcoming the barriers.
3. The micro-understanding is viewed in terms of the inclusion of theory and practice in qualifications, curricula and learning programmes, and learning in the context of application (Kraak, 2000:40 cited in SAQA, 2005:25).

The DOE and DOL are responsible for education and training in South Africa, but the political differences between them as well as the lack of attempt to analyze how the integrated approach to education and training should be operationalized, especially in areas where the Departments differ in opinion, are a challenge. The National Professional Teacher’s Organization of South Africa (NAPTOSA), voiced their frustration with the lack of direction from the DOE and DOL (SAQA, 2005:1). NAPTOSA finds it perplexing and frustrating that the tensions between the DOE and DOL are such that there is a very real danger that the rift will result in “territorial imperatives” and protection of sectoral interests in the DOE and DOL, in the matter of education, training and academic, and a vocational divide at the cost of integration

across education and training and across formal versus non-formal education and training opportunities. While pace-setters in Europe are embarking on a process of developing integrated qualifications frameworks, South Africa, because of inter-departmental differences and the absence of a political will to drive the process, is preparing to make a 180° turn and head back in the direction from where it emerged in 1994.

Now is the time to “put political contestation aside” and honestly engage with ways in which an integrated framework can become a reality to ensure the development of an integrated NQF as the country moves to the concept of a Ministry of Learning in principle, if not in practice (Heyns and Needham, 2004:45; Mehl, 2004). The political confrontations of the two Departments are therefore perceived as a major stumbling block for engagement with “complex adaptive systems such as education and training” (Mehl, 2004:21). Jansen (2004) is much more direct in his assessment of the apparent lack of political will displayed by the Departments, which is “the result of naked contestations by people and/or departments who are, or should be, on the same side” (NAPTOSA 2003:71).

Issues of Power in the Implementation of the NQF

Market Forces versus Social Transformation

The basic political choices between the liberation and manipulation of market forces, and difficult social transformation policies, underpin the development and implementation of the NQF in subtle ways. Young (2003, cited in SAQA, 2004:31) argues that “most of the countries introducing an NQF have a history of education and training systems which until recently were characterized by sharp inequalities, deep divisions and low rates of participation in post-compulsory education and training” and that the NQF therefore “seemed an obvious reform.” He points out that “at the same time it offered opportunities to employers to have a bigger say in the kinds of skills and knowledge that that 16-19-year-olds were expected to acquire.” He notes the “tension between these two goals” of, on the one hand, “democracy and greater equality”, and on the other, employers’ needs, and argues that “democratic goals of wider participation with which the NQF was associated in South

Africa in the early 1990s have all too easily been transformed into a defense of stakeholder interests and a skepticism of any kind of expertise.”

In this complex environment, macro-economic policy is sharply relevant. Samson (1999:444), for example, argues that “while redress has always been tied to economic goals, in the post-election [post-1994] period, the economic goals have narrowed and have come to dominate and define those related to redress.” With specific reference to the NQF, Samson (1999:444) argues that “as with the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), the NQF also underwent numerous transformations as it moved to its current stage of implementation.” Samson’s (1999:445) assessment is that: “the transmogrification of the NQF into a narrow, economically oriented policy is intimately related to the shift away from the RDP towards the more neo-liberal Growth Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) macroeconomic policy.”

Samson (1999:448) cites arguments to the effect that “GEAR has had significant influence in privileging economic development over social justice considerations in the NQF ...It has also, therefore, been pivotal in narrowing and redefining the social justice goals themselves.” In addition, Samson suggests that “NQF-related documents, as well as similar policies in countries such as Australia clearly invoke human capital theory and continue to assert a necessary relationship between education and training and economic growth” and that “a trend closely related to the resurgence of human capital theory has been the adoption of outcomes and competency-based models of education by an increasing number of countries” (Samson, 1999:450).

Cooper (1998, cited in SAQA, 2004:31) argues that the labour movement “may have injected the NQF with emancipatory potential,” but that employers and post-Fordist theorists promoting a market-oriented pedagogy associated with the modification of knowledge and an emphasis on flexibility, mobility and retrainability, may gain in the long run, since the “impact of the global economy and pressures towards market responsiveness will mean an NQF increasingly dominated by the second of these social projects, with workers’ training needs reduced to a reflection of the labour needs of capital.”

McGrath (1996, cited in SAQA, 2004:31), though from a different analytical perspective, agrees with Cooper (1998), maintaining that the “NQF vision as formulated is itself closely connected to a post-Fordist standpoint” and that “many employers will see new technologies as a means of intensifying production, improving surveillance and increasing automation, all elements of a Lean Production paradigm.” This, McGrath argues, will force trade unions into defensive strategies.

Allais (2003:3) contends that South Africa’s transition from authoritarianism to democracy “has captured the imagination of many around the world, and has had the support of the majority of South Africans,” but that a parallel transition “from a highly regulated and relatively isolated economy to a ‘neo-liberal’ or ‘open-market economy’ has been less in the public eye both locally and internationally”: “While the ANC has led the democratization process, it has also led the process of liberalizing the South African economy, with the consequence of increased economic inequality together with increased formal democracy.”

Rather than identifying the NQF with the process of democratisation, Allais (2003:3) argues that “the content of the NQF in fact is more derivative of the ...transition to a neo-liberal economy” and suggests that “the euphoria of the transition to democracy has to a large extent disguised the real nature both of the broader economic policies of the new South African government, and also more specifically of its education policies.”

Samson and Vally’s (1997:9-10) analysis of the “promise and potential pitfalls of the NQF” is that “the model which the Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU) developed provided the basis for the development of the NQF once the ANC came into office,” but that “the proposals went beyond the development of an integrated, unified education and training system.” They report that “COSATU argued that in order to be effective, such an initiative had to be accompanied by active labour market policies...reliant upon an interventionist state as well as consensus between capital, labour and the state.” They conclude that “the government’s present emphasis on ‘fiscal discipline’, export-led development and global competitiveness [as expressed in the macro-economic policy framework] put pressure on the notions of redress and redistribution.”

The Relationship between SAQA, DOE and DOL

The key role of SAQA in the development and implementation of the NQF is tempered, if not challenged, by the DOE and DOL (DOE and DOL, 2002, cited in SAQA, 2004:33):

The objectives of the NQF do not belong exclusively to the NQF. SAQA is a leader in transformation, but it is neither the sole leader nor the prime leaderSAQA is required to perform its role in such a manner that the objectives of the NQF are achieved. There are five objectives. The first is 'to create an integrated national framework of learning achievements.' This is the tangible objective, an obvious outcome of the NQF, for which SAQA in collaboration with its partners has legal responsibility, and it is well on the way to being realized. The other four objectives envisage the NQF contributing to processes that are central to the agenda of democratic change in education and training.

The democratic change processes to which the NQF must contribute are facilitating access, mobility, and progression in education, training and career paths; enhancing the quality of education and training; accelerating redress in learning and employment opportunities, and contributing to full personal development and national social and economic development.

The DOE and DOL (2002:5, cited in SAQA, 2004:33), argue that goals that relate to these processes are:

wider and deeper than the NQF and represent the major part of the permanent combined education and training agendas of the Ministries of Education and Labour that must be translated into 'appropriate laws and policies, institutions, budgetary allocations, infrastructure development, professional development for teachers and trainers, and provision of learning resource materials'.

They further argue that SAQA has an implied “leadership role,” but that this role “must be exercised in a consultative manner and in cooperation with the state departments, statutory bodies, stakeholders and providers.” They also describe the NQF as the “joint responsibility of two Ministers and two Departments,” the implementation of which “depends upon the actions of several government departments, all provinces, employers and a civil society.”

Achievements of the NQF

A key achievement of the NQF, as presented by the Study Team (DOE and DOL, 2002) is that internationally South Africa is an active participant in exchanging practices of the South African NQF. SAQA makes a significant contribution to the movement to harmonise qualification systems within the South African Development Community (SADC) and is a member of the international benchmarking group of nations that share experience regarding the development of standards and qualifications frameworks.

Towards a Typology of a National Qualifications Framework

This section is included as a conceptual tool that may shed some light on the debates on the SA NQF.

According to Tuck *et al.*, (2004:6), at one time the term “NQF” was closely associated with anglophone countries such as Scotland, New Zealand, and Australia, but increasingly many other countries are exploring and developing qualifications frameworks. Some member states of the European Union, the Accession countries, some former Soviet Republics, and many of the SADC countries such as Mauritius, Namibia, Botswana, Tanzania, Zambia, and the Seychelles, are at various stages of NQF development and implementation. The proposed and perceived benefits of NQFs are immensely appealing, to the extent that the international community is now talking about first-generation NQFs and emerging second-generation NQFs. The South African NQF is considered as a first-generation NQF, despite the limited time for implementation. Raffe (2003) provides some clues for possible models for NQFs and problems with implementation. He points out that NQFs can be understood in terms of five characteristics, namely purpose, scope, and level of prescription, which are broadly related to the debates

on integration, and incrementalism and policy breadth, which relate to debates on leadership. A brief explanation of these components is provided below.

Purpose.

All NQFs can be conceptualized at their most basic level as a “set of principles in terms of which qualifications can be classified” (Richardson n.d., cited in Blackmur 2003:6, cited in SAQA, 2005: 31). In most cases, though, NQFs are seen to have far-reaching purposes, such as addressing issues of social injustice, improving access to the qualifications system and progression within it, and establishing standards, achieving comparability and intra-national or international benchmarking (Tuck *et al.*, 2004:7). In South Africa, the NQF is considered to be a “set of principles and guidelines which provide a vision, a philosophical base and an organizational structure” for the construction of a qualification system (SAQA, 2000:1).

The purposes of qualification frameworks could include “frameworks of communication” and “regulatory frameworks” (Young, 2005:13). In “frameworks of communication,” the framework provides a map of qualifications and possible progression routes between levels, and, in principle, across sectors. In “regulatory frameworks,” there is a more deliberate political intervention that seeks to effect change in education and training, using an NQF as a vehicle. Such frameworks are usually “associated with concerns about quality, for example, within the training providers’ market or as a lever for ambitious qualifications reform as in South Africa and New Zealand” (Tuck *et al.*, 2004:3). The South African NQF can be considered to be a regulatory framework with the purpose of communicating a common format.

Scope.

Most NQFs seek to increase their scope by developing relationships between all categories of education and training. A useful classification of the scope of NQFs was developed by David Raffe (2003, cited in SAQA, 2005: 32), namely a “tracked, linked or unified system.” In a tracked system, each of the separate components of the education and training system has a distinctive purpose and a different ethos associated with each track. In a linked system, there are common elements across tracks, and the purposes and ethos overlap. A unified system

displays multiple purposes, has a pluralistic ethos, and integrates academic and vocational learning. The South African NQF is currently the best example of a unified system. The differences are tabulated in Table 20 below.

TABLE 20: Scope and policy breadth of NQFs

Tracked	Linked	Unified
Vocational and general education organized in separate and distinctive tracks	Different tracks exist with emphasis on similarities and equivalence. Common structures. Credit transfer between tracks.	No tracks Single system

Source: SAQA (2005:32)

Level of prescription.

In relation to prescriptiveness, Young (2003) distinguishes between strong and weak frameworks. Tuck *et al.*, (2004) refer to the level of prescriptions as “tight” and “loose” frameworks because of the possible derogatory connotation with the word “weak.” Generally, a tight framework refers to a high level of prescription about qualification design, quality assurance, and key system features, while loose frameworks are based on general principles which “accept that there are valid differences between types of learning or education/training sectors, and to work with the grain of education and training institution practice” (Tuck *et al.*, 2004:5). This understanding is tabulated below:

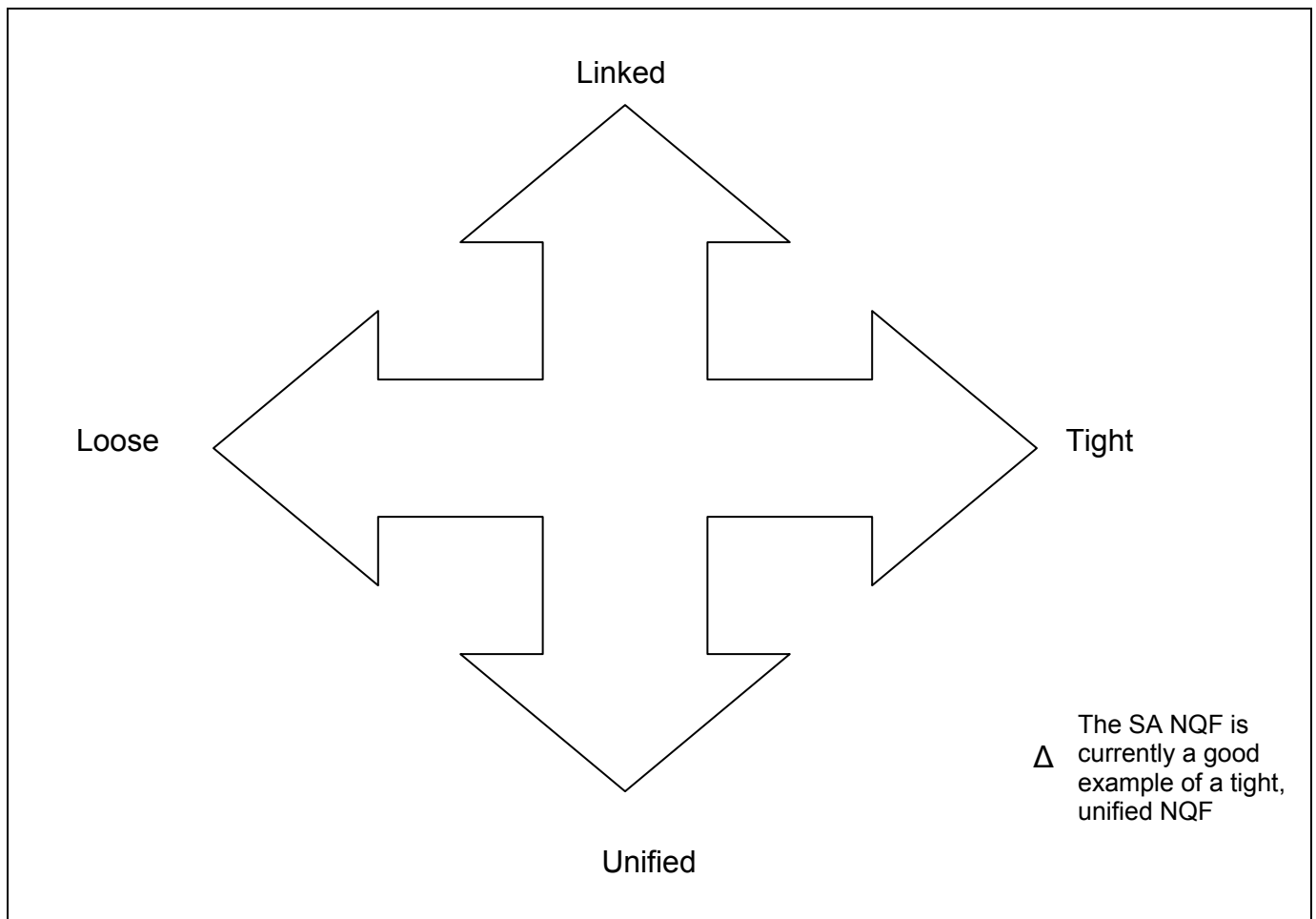
TABLE 21: Prescriptiveness of NQFs

Tight	Loose
Prescriptive about qualification design and quality assurance Regulatory purpose Aim to achieve wider social goals Tend to apply common rules and procedures across all sectors	Based on general principles Seek to communicate Regulate to some extent Accept differences between sectors

Source: SAQA (2005:32)

Tight frameworks are often associated with controversy and contestation. The tightness or looseness of a framework may illuminate the discussion on integration. In the current integration debate, the focus is on a unified, linked or tracked system, but such a system may also have the added dimension of being tight or loose. The diagram below explains the concept.

FIGURE 23: Scope and prescriptiveness of NQF



Source: SAQA (2005:33)

Incrementalism.

The degree of voluntarism in terms of the participation of different components of the education and training system, such as vocational and academic, and further and higher education, is characteristic of the scope of a system, and

implementation of the system usually takes place on an incremental basis. This means that the system is implemented over time and at differing paces amongst the components of the system. The Irish NQF, for example, came into being over a period of 20 years (Granville, 2003). In Scotland, the framework was also built over a long time, with a relative absence of conflict and controversy. However, as Tuck *et al.*, (2004:13) suggest, “countries such as South Africa, aiming for radical transformation, understandably wish to build their frameworks more quickly” and therefore aim to include all sectors and levels of education and training.

Policy breadth.

Raffe (2003:242) describes policy breadth as “the extent to which the establishment of the framework is directly and explicitly linked with other measures to influence how the framework is used.” The South African NQF is seen to be one of three pillars to transform education and training, and by implication society, with its association with the Human Resources Development Strategy (HRDS) and National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS). Tuck *et al.*, (2004:13) point out that it is the policy breadth that may lead to “exaggerated and unrealistic impressions of what the building of an NQF can achieve in isolation from other developments.” As argued by the SAQA study team, despite the justifiably high expectations that South Africans have of the NQF to transform education and training, the NQF was never intended to achieve transformation on its own, and could not do so (DOE and DOL, 2002:66). There is sufficient evidence from the Irish and Scottish experiences that a single strategy is not enough to lead to deep change in the education and training system. It is therefore interesting to note that the other two legs of South Africa’s national approach to HRD, namely the HRDS and NSDS, are not nearly as contested, and certainly not as reviewed, as the NQF has been and continues to be.

Policy breadth is also linked to the concept of “intrinsic” versus “institutional logic” (Raffe, 2003:242) and to communities of trust (Young, 2003:18). If the focus in reforming an education and training system is only on the building of a framework, then only the intrinsic logic is addressed. Tuck *et al.*, (2004:8) maintain that the intrinsic logic of an NQF arises from its design features, such as flexible pathways and the establishment of equivalences between different qualifications. However,

deep change in the way that practitioners behave in practice needs to be supported by wider policies and initiatives that will address institutional logic, for example, the relative status of different fields of study, the influence of the labour market, and the social structure. A qualifications framework may be ineffective if it is not complemented by measures to reform the surrounding institutional logic.

It is evident from international practice, that it is insufficient to focus only on building progression pathways into a framework. Young (2003:18) maintains that it is also necessary to build “communities of trust and/or practice with shared experience which provide people with the basis for making judgements.”

In South Africa, the political rather than the educational purpose of the NQF seems to dominate (Young, 2005). Jansen (2004:50), for example, is of the opinion that “the first ten years of policy-making in South Africa, following official moves towards a new democracy, hinged largely on the symbolism rather than the substance of change in education”. The NQF Impact Study Reports 1 and 2 (SAQA, 2004, 2005), which will be discussed in Chapter 6, are a “political intervention intended to revisit, revise or even reverse policies around which the political agenda has shifted.”

The Architecture of the NQF

The NQF is a framework on which standards and qualifications, agreed to by education and training stakeholders throughout the country, are registered. Registered unit standards and qualifications are structured in such a manner that learners, on successful completion of accredited prerequisites, are able to move among components of the delivery system, thus allowing for multiple pathways to the same learning end (Haasbroek, 2002:451). The components of the NQF are tabulated below:

Objectives of the NQF

The objectives of the NQF are to:

1. Create an integrated national framework for learning achievements
2. Facilitate access to mobility and progression within education, training, and career paths
3. Enhance the quality of education and training

4. Accelerate the redress of past unfair discrimination in education, training and employment opportunities
5. Contribute to the full personal development of each learner and the social and economic development of the nation at large.

There are 8 levels within the NQF that are distributed across three bands.

TABLE 22: The architecture of the NQF

NQF Level	Band	Qualification type	
8	Higher Education and Training	Post-doctoral research degrees Doctorates	
7		Master degrees Professional qualifications Honours degrees	
6		National First Degrees Higher diplomas	
5		National diplomas National certificates	
Further education and training certificates			
4	Further Education and Training	National certificates	
3			
2			
General Education and training certificate			
1	General Education and Training	Grade 9	ABET level 4
		National certificates	

Source: SAQA (2002)

Level one falls within the General Education and Training (GET) Band and includes qualifications that are classified as National Certificates, Grade 9 and ABET level 4.

1. Levels 2 to 4 fall in the Further Education and Training (FET) Band and include National Certificates.

2. Levels 5 to 8 fall into the Higher Education and Training Band and include qualifications such as National Diplomas and Certificates at level 5, National First degrees and Higher Diplomas at level 6, Masters and Honours degrees and professional qualifications at level 7, and doctoral degrees and post-doctoral research degrees at level 8.

Various comments and critiques suggest that the architecture of the NQF is complex, unsustainable, and over-regulated. Radical proposals for restructuring of the NQF architecture have been proposed, central among these being disbanding the NSBs and establishing three Qualifications and Quality Assurance Councils (QCs) to take responsibility for the management of the national quality assurance system under SAQA's management (DOE and DOL, 2002). These three QCs would be the following:

1. Trade, Occupational and Professional Qualifications and Quality Assurance Council
2. General and Further Education and Training Quality Assurance Council
3. Higher Education QC.

The proposal to establish QCs, particularly in light of the proposal to create a vocationally oriented QC, falls within the scope of the first NQF objective cited earlier, of creating an "integrated national framework for learning achievements" and the first NQF "principle of integration" (SAQA, 2004:39). It should also be noted that more radical critiques have been cited, to the effect that the new proposal constitutes a "rearranging of the various quality assurance structures rather than a fundamental re-design of the basis for transformation in education and training."

The fields of learning of the NQF are as follows:

- | | | |
|----|---|--------|
| 1. | Agriculture and Nature Conservation | NSB 01 |
| 2. | Culture and Arts | NSB 02 |
| 3. | Business, Commerce and Management Studies | NSB 03 |
| 4. | Communication Studies and Language | NSB 04 |
| 5. | Education, Training and Development | NSB 05 |
| 6. | Manufacturing, Engineering and Technology | NSB 06 |
| 7. | Human and Social Studies | NSB 07 |

- | | | |
|-----|--|--------|
| 8. | Law, Military Science and Security | NSB 08 |
| 9. | Health, Sciences and Social Services | NSB 09 |
| 10. | Physical, Mathematical, Computer and Life Sciences | NSB 10 |
| 11. | Utility Services | NSB 11 |
| 12. | Physical Planning and Construction | NSB 12 |

International origins of the NQF

The NQF is a distinctively South African phenomenon that has been developed in a unique political and historical context. The initial conceptualization of the NQF, however, was influenced by experiences of outcomes-based education in other countries. The Report of the Study Team on the Implementation of the NQF (DOE and DOL, 2002, cited in SAQA, 2004:7) records this influence as follows:

Although the NQF is home-grown, its concepts and organizing principles are in a line of lineal descent from similar movements in Scotland, England, New Zealand and Australia in the mid to late 1980s. These movements were closely investigated by the South Africans who worked in the National Training Board's National Training Strategy Initiative, the ANC's education and HRD policy process prior to 1994, the Inter-Ministerial Working group in 1994-1995, and the NQF development process from 1996 onwards.

Local origins of the NQF

McGrath (1997, cited in SAQA, 2004:7) provides a concise introduction to the local origins of the NQF:

At the center of the emergent formulations is the notion of an integration of education and training into a single National Qualifications Framework (NQF). This notion appeared in South African policy debates at the beginning of the 1990s largely through elements of the Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU). Their work itself drew on similar thinking in the other countries of the old Commonwealth notably Australia and England. Such a vision was also partly developed in response to the continued policy direction of the former state from the De Lange Report to the Curriculum Model for

Education in South Africa (CUMSA) and the Education Renewal Strategy (ERS).

A dominant theme of this report was the call for three parallel streams, namely academic, vocationally oriented, and vocational in the senior secondary phase, thus mirroring initiatives in Britain at the time and reflecting the divide-and-rule mentality of the old regime. The employer representative, influenced by the New Zealand and Scottish systems, advocated a seamless framework.

The second intervention came in 1991, when the Minister of Manpower decided to invite members of the democratic trade union movement to join the National Training Board for the first time. Despite various intense debates at these sessions, it was eventually agreed that more representative Task Teams (Working Groups) had to be established to drive the process. Eight working groups were established to develop a new national training strategy. The NQF was formally proposed for the first time in Working Group 2, where the employers and trade unionists reached agreement about the broad objectives of a new integrated framework (SAQA, 2004).

The Ministerial Committee for Development Work on the NQF (SAQA, 2004:17) provides a useful chronological list of the early policy documents that began to give shape to the embryonic NQF:

1. As early as 1992, the National Education Policy Investigation and the Education Renewal Strategy emphasized the importance of integrating general education and vocational training into a coherent system.
2. The NQF itself was first proposed in the ANC Education Department document, "Policy Framework for Education and Training," in January 1994.
3. In April 1992, a National Training Board Report, named "Discussion Document on a National Training Strategy Initiative," fleshed out the concept for the training world.
4. The ANC's Centre for Education Policy Development released its Implementation Plan for Education and Training, with a chapter on the NQF, in May 1994.

5. Towards the end of 1994, an inter-Ministerial Working Group was mandated by the Ministries of Education and Labour respectively to consider, amongst other issues, the implementation of an NQF.
6. In March 1995, the White Paper on Education and Training again detailed elements of a proposed NQF.
7. Three months later, on 2 June, 1995, The Draft National Qualification Framework Bill was published, and on 4 October, 1995, The South African Qualifications Authority Act 1995 (Act No. 58 of 1995) was gazetted.

The National Education Policy initiatives were thus a key policy thrust. The ANC and COSATU found common cause in a high-participation and high-skill HRD strategy advocating a single Ministry for education and training and the notion of a ladder-like qualifications framework with credit transfer to foster learning and worker mobility. It is thus evident that the development and implementation of the NQF has been favoured by political impetus but hampered by political contestation.

A new NQF landscape

A respondent in the Cycle 1 report (SAQA, 2004:27) noted that:

Here is a framework, which if you use it well, will enable you to accomplish whatever it is that you do. So, if there is a coherent way in which one is able to assess what the human resource challenges and needs for the country are, then it's possible by a framework of this kind, to plot the movement of people towards achieving what is required in terms of strategy.

The Cycle 1 and Cycle 2 reviews and the draft discussion document dealing with the Higher Education Qualification Framework policy regarding the architecture of the NQF, have significant implications for how the new landscape may look in the near future. A study team for the DOE and DOL (2002) recommends that a permanent NQF strategic partnership consisting of the DOE, DOL and SAQA be formed, and enacted in law. They also recommend that standards writing and quality assurance bodies be grouped together.

An interdepartmental task team of the DOE and DOL (2003) recommend that a permanent inter-departmental NQF strategic partnership be established that would interact with a National Human Resource Development Forum. They also recommend the introduction of QCs and a ten-level NQF. The draft Higher Education Qualification Framework (HEQF) (DOE, 2003) recommends a permanent inter-departmental NQF committee reporting to the Minister of Education, and that only two new standards generation and quality assurance bodies be constituted namely, the Higher Institution and Education (HI ED) Qualification Council and the General and Further Education Qualification Council. The table below reflects how these ongoing NQF review processes might be viewed in the light of the suggested typology of national qualification frameworks.

TABLE 23: The shifting typology of the SA NQF

	Current conceptual model	Study Team Report (DoE and DoL 2002)	Consultative Document (DoE and DoL 2003)	Draft Higher Education Qualifications Framework (DoE, 2004)
Purpose	Social justice Improve access Establish standards	Social justice Improve access Establish standards	Social justice Improve access Establish standards	Silent on these issues
Scope	Unified	3 tracks linked	3 tracks linked	Tracks not necessarily linked Recognize differences in purpose, content, outcomes or equivalence but similarity in terms of levels
Prescription	Tight	Tight	Tight	Tight
Incrementalism	Regulatory	Regulatory	Regulatory	Regulatory
Policy breadth	Combines intrinsic and institutional logic	Sees the NQF as an element of transformation	Sees the NQF as one of three pillars in transformation, with HRD and SDS	Sees HEQF as part of other policy initiatives in higher education and within the broader NQF

Source: SAQA (2005:35)

*Measuring the Impact of the NQF on the Transformation of Education and Training
in South Africa*

The NQF, enacted in legislation in 1995, is still in its infancy. Despite this, a landmark national and international study was embarked upon to review the national qualifications system which was developed at a national level. The importance of the NQF objectives was continually emphasized. SAQA commissioned a longitudinal research project to achieve the effective measurement of the impact of the NQF on the transformation of education and training in South Africa, with reference to the stated objectives of the NQF. The purpose of the research was to identify the factors that would indicate the successful achievement of these objectives. The intention was to come up with a range of indicators that could be used regularly and repeatedly to measure the successful implementation of the NQF (SAQA, 2004:13).

The Research Team formulated three research questions which provided a point of entry into the domain of HRD and the possible indicators. The research questions were clarified as a result of an extensive process of analysis. It was found helpful for operational purposes and to facilitate the research process, to categorize this fairly long list of indicators into four general sets of indicators. The research design that emerged, and that is briefly described in this chapter, has as a central spine, the relationship between the NQF Objectives and the Impact Indicators.

A formidable range of policies, laws and strategies that characterized the early stages of post-apartheid transformation in education and training appears below.

The following Acts have contributed to the establishment of the NQF:

1. National Education Policy Act, 1996 (Act No. 27 of 1996)
2. Mine Health and Safety Act, 1996 (Act No. 29 of 1996)
3. Higher Education Act (Act No. 101 of 1997)
4. Further Education and Training Act, 1998 (Act No. 98 of 1998)
5. Skills Development Act, 1998 (Act No. 97 of 1998)
6. Council for the Built Environment Act, 2000 (Act No. 44 of 2000) and five other built environment professional council Acts
7. Adult Basic Education and Training Act, 2000 (Act No. 52 of 2000)

8. General and Further Education and Training Quality Assurance Act, 2001 (Act No. 58 of 2001)

The Employment Equity Act (EEA) No. 55 of 1998

One of the more significant pieces of augmenting legislation is the EEA (South African Tourism Services Association, 2002), which makes provision for an Employment Equity Plan (EEP) and Employment Equity Report (EER) for employers who have more than 50 employees, or whose total annual turnover equals or exceeds the applicable turnover of a small business in terms of Schedule 4 of the Act. What is crucial is the requirement that companies assess current employment and recruitment practices (Cunningham and Lynham, 2004). The purpose of this Act is to achieve equity in the workplace by promoting equal opportunities and fair treatment in employment, through the elimination of unfair discrimination and implementing affirmative action measures to redress the disadvantages in employment experienced by designated groups. "Designated groups" include people who have been previously racially classified as black, coloured, and Indian, as well as women and people with disabilities. The overall intention of this Act is to ensure the equitable representation of these designated groups in all occupational categories and levels in the workplace (Grobler *et al.*, 2002).

The Skills Development Act (SDA) No. 97 of 1998 and the Skills Development Levies Act (SDLA) No. 9 of 1999

As a further development in the government's overall HRD strategy, and adding to the government's policy of economic growth and social development, two Acts, the SDA and the SDLA, were established. These acts aim at developing the skills of the workforce and transforming workplaces into sites for quality learning (Lee Botti and Associates, n.d.). They therefore seek to improve the quality of life of workers, improve productivity, promote self-employment, increase the level of investment in education and training, and use the workplace as an active learning environment. The intention is to enable employees to acquire new skills, enable people to enter the labour market, improve the quality of training, enable the unemployed to find work, and establish an institutional and financial base for training (Republic of South Africa, 1998).

The purpose of the SDLA is to provide for the imposition of a skills development levy. According to Section 3 of the Act, every employer must pay a skills development levy, and the South African Revenue Services will be the national collection agency. The levy from April, 2000 was 0.5% of the employer's payroll, and from April, 2001 it increased to 1% (Harvard, 2000). The levy pays for the administration of SETAs as well as for creating additional jobs and learnerships, especially for the unemployed and previously disadvantaged. Learnerships are intended to address the gap between the current provision of education and training and labour market needs. They consist of a structured learning component and practical work experience of a specific nature and duration, which leads to a qualification registered by SAQA and is related to an occupation. Learnerships replace the old apprenticeships (Grobler *et al.*, 2002).

These two Acts are the subject of widespread criticism, as some businesses with a short-sighted approach to HRD view the imposition as *de facto* tax. Maguranyanga (2000) maintains that those who take a long-term view will recognize that the enhancement of employee skills must go beyond purely legal compliance with specific strategic business objectives.

Sector Education and Training Authorities

The SDA included the creation of a number of statutory components, for example SETAs. The main purpose of the SETAs is to regulate training and education in specific industrial sectors. Adding further muscle to the Act, in April, 2001, regulations were promulgated requiring companies to register a skills-development facilitator and a workplace-skills plan, or forfeit their levy. Such a plan entails training and development needs analyses and the identification of skills needed in the workplace (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2003), enabling employee development needs to be identified. These needs are linked to the objectives of the EEA. Such capacity building is monitored by a quality assurer. For recognition, an accredited assessor must provide training. Despite the laudable intentions of the Act, it is fraught with administrative bureaucracy to access the levy claims and set up learnerships.

Some possible future challenges which are critical to the continuous development and implementation of NHRD in South Africa will be discussed in the Conclusion, as well as future supporting strategies for NHRD.

Concluding Reflections on NHRD Policy and Implementation

During the past decade, HRD has transformed itself, not only to address the internal economic and social needs of South Africa, but also to address international demands. Some success- and failure-related issues remain, however.

Cunningham and Lynham (2004:9) point out that, despite the creditable philosophical underpinning of HRD-related legislation, the bureaucracy associated with its implementation is a major impediment to realizing its objectives. Not only is it embedded in jargonised language that is foreign to many employers and employees, but also its implementation lacks sufficient coordination and adequate monitoring mechanisms. Furthermore, the majority of companies lack real succession-planning policies, making NHRD initiatives a cause for irritation for many employees who see their efforts as futile.

As a transforming economy, on the one hand, South Africa is restricted in introducing advanced technology because of skills shortage and fears that the already high unemployment rate will be aggravated. Simultaneously, on the other hand, it has to improve its global competitiveness to sustain and enhance economic growth; the latter is no longer dependent exclusively on the exploitation of its natural resources, but depends also on the development of its human capital (Cunningham and Lynham, 2004). In addition, South Africa is forced to develop its human resources in small, medium, and micro industries because the formal economy is in a phase of jobless growth.

The impact of HIV and AIDS has and will continue to have an omnipresent negative impact on the labour force profile in South Africa and the rest of Africa. Together with the current brain drain (the flight of potentially economically active people) and the high percentage of people with HIV and AIDS, the country, irrespective of the rigorous labour legislation to correct the situation, could, in the medium term, be in a situation in which it is unable to adequately sustain an Information- Technology-based economy (Cunningham and Lynham, 2004).

Cunningham and Lynham (2004) suggest that future strategies to overcome weaknesses and build successes need to aim at streamlining policy in such a way as to bridge theory and practice. These strategies will simultaneously have to take into account the gap between the policy framing and implementation, attend to growing unemployment, and acknowledge the HRD-related consequences of a strengthening economy increasingly threatened by export-led growth. This is no meagre challenge to HRD and the South African nation.

Factors Impacting on Effective Implementation of the NQF

This section will draw together the various key aspects of the social, economic, and political environment in which the NQF has been developed and implemented, and assess the favourable and unfavourable factors that have an impact on its implementation.

Favourable Factors

The political environment, certainly in the phase of conceptualization of the NQF and its related structures, was generally favourable. The idea received the support of organized labour, organized business, mass democratic movement structures, education, non-governmental organizations (NGO) community, and the relevant public officials who were working with these bodies in anticipation of the democratic transition. This broad range of interested parties shared an understanding of the major challenges in the education and training sector, and generally gave support to the formidable range of policies, laws, and strategies that characterized the early stages of post-apartheid transformation in education and training (SAQA, 2004:40). Exceptions to this broad band of support are noted as unfavourable factors below.

Unfavourable Factors

According to SAQA, (2004:40), many unfavourable factors have impacted on the development and implementation of the NQF.

The Task of Constructing the NQF

Practically no elements of the NQF existed prior to the establishment of SAQA. The objectives and principles of the NQF were a radical departure from previous discriminatory policies and practices in education and training, and the envisaged

structures were also entirely innovative. Realizing this helps one to understand both the complexity of SAQA's task and the lengthy process of development that would be required.

Consultation Requirements

Consultation and consensus were and are key requirements in every aspect of the development of the NQF. Agreement, in many instances, requires negotiation rather than consultation. The statutory requirements have taken time to implement, and appear to explain a great deal of what some commentators perceive as slow delivery of the NQF objectives.

Architectural Complexities

Challenges regarding the "locus of authority and delineation of responsibilities" between the band ETQAs and the field/sector ETQAs are particularly complex (SAQA, 2004:40). The existence of statutory bodies, established in terms of other Acts that have quality assurance functions, is a further complication, as SAQA is obliged to consult and cooperate with these bodies. A high level of management effort has been devoted to the attempt to construct the interlocking network of quality assurance structures that is envisaged in the legislation. Challenges persist in the complex inter-relationships among ETQAs themselves, and indeed among all the structures of what could be referred to as "NQF organization."

Difficulties in the Integration of Education and Training

The challenge is conceptual, as can be seen in the difficulty of defining equivalent outcomes for education in the classroom and training in the workplace, while attending to the holistic development of the individual. It also has practical dimensions from the existence of two relevant Ministries with responsibilities for education and training, to the tense relationships between the constituencies representing workplace-based and institution-based learning. This practical tension is challenged in some quarters as inappropriate to the needs of industry, but is defended by SAQA as essential in a context of rapid economic and societal change (SAQA, 2004: Annexure 2:40).

Differing and Conflicting Positions

Contradictory positions amongst the many role-players and stakeholders in the development and implementation of the NQF are inevitable. The most persistent contestation is between the Higher Education (HE) constituency and SAQA. The HE sector needs space and flexibility within the NQF, particularly with regard to whole qualifications rather than unit standards. In addition, the HE sector is subjected to complex challenges and pressures inherent in the process of transformation within the sector. The varied interpretations of the role of SAQA and the challenge of implementing the NQF as a joint responsibility of the DOL and DOE, temper the centrality of the role of SAQA in the development and implementation of the NQF.

Social Divisions

The NQF is being implemented in a context of historical discrimination and repression along the lines of race and gender, which has led to widespread relative and absolute poverty and to unequal access to education and training opportunities. The construction of the NQF is a contribution to the creation of an integrated and equitable society; the task necessarily faces obstacles that emanate from apartheid policy and practice. One could refer to this as fragmented and fractured arguing that different policy communities have adopted different stances with regard to the NQF, and that divisions along the lines of race and class persist, partly because of these conflicting approaches. Others note that an imported “technocratic” NQF vocabulary has inhibited broad involvement in NQF development and implementation processes (SAQA, 2004: Annexure 2: 41).

Availability of Resources

There is a relative lack of resources to develop and implement the NQF. Isaacs and Nkomo (2003:90) note the budgetary constraints within which SAQA has operated:

South Africa’s NQF is ambitious, but is it unachievable? Given the enormity of the task, and that the public and private education and training expenditure in South Africa is in the order of R75 billion, and that SAQA projected a full documented budget of R60 million for 2003/2004 within a five-year business

plan to provide the steering mechanism for overseeing the NQF, the financial resourcing of the NQF is not an unreasonable expectation or incongruent with the task at hand. SAQA requires less than 0.1% of the total expenditure in education and training. Their budget for 2003/2004 is presently pegged at R33.6 million, with R11.27 million received from government, self-generated funds of R1.3 million, and with donors [largely the European Union] providing the balance. This is viewed as the “greatest risk that SAQA must manage at the levels of realistic implementation, enabling power and alignment of available resources.” It is beyond question that the implementation of the NQF has been made possible by European Union funds, whose local value has increased as the exchange value of the South African Rand has declined. As indispensable and highly valued as donor support has been, SAQA’s overwhelming reliance on it to undertake its statutory functions has come at a considerable administrative cost. SAQA has had to invest significant amounts of time in advocacy, persuasion and negotiation in order to secure commitments from the development cooperation agencies. Furthermore, reliance on donor funding requires significant levels of management and administrative effort, not only to raise funds but also to ensure compliance with donor requirements (SAQA, 2004:Annexure 2:30).

Isaacs and Nkomo (2003:90) assert that “political will is what is needed to adequately fund SAQA’s management role”.

Economic Policy

In the early phase of the development of the NQF, political direction appeared to favour hard social transformation policies. The tendency in the implementation phase has been towards fiscal restraint and the liberation of market forces. Several authors argue that macro-economic policy trends have shaped the nature of the NQF towards “market responsiveness” with increasing domination of the needs of employers rather than labour, with “active labour market policies” and “redress and redistribution” largely replaced by policies of “fiscal discipline” and “global competitiveness” (SAQA, 2004: Annexure 2: 41).

It is clear that a great deal has been achieved in the implementation of the NQF, in an extraordinarily difficult historical, political, economic, and social context, in which unfavourable factors have predominated. The NQF finds itself in the undesirable position of being perceived as too slow and/or too fast. This challenging situation is typical of the South African transformation, which is characterised by multiple hopes as well as disparate fears. The type of transformation envisaged in the objectives and principles of the NQF is one that may have to straddle generations and therefore decades rather than years of work, and strategic changes of direction are required before a fair evaluation of the impact of the NQF can be undertaken. A premature assessment is likely to be negative and therefore arguably damaging to the process of transformation. Achievements in the development and implementation of the NQF need to be viewed positively, given the limited resources that have been allocated to the task and the many unfavourable factors analyzed.

There is a need to situate HRD within the current macro- and micro-context of education and training in South Africa. This will provide an operational framework for the socio-political context within which the NQF operates (macro level) and the levels of understanding that various stakeholders might have in respect of NQF (micro level). Fortunately, SAQA has encouraged intellectual scrutiny by dedicating time and resources to long-term studies, the most significant of which will be discussed in Chapter 6.

Conclusion

The first of the five objectives of the NQF, which held the promise of an integrated framework, was central to the idea of the SA NQF because it was envisaged that such a framework could overcome the “traditional division between different types of qualifications and between education and training” (Tikly and Motala, 1994, cited in Chisolm *et al.*, 2003:122, cited in SAQA, 2005:24). An integrated framework has been one of the most intensely contested ideals of NQFs internationally (DOE and DOL, 2002). Two reasons for the controversy are that many interpretations of the idea exist, and there is no common understanding of what is meant by “an integrated approach”. Currently, the understanding of integration seems to emerge at a number of different levels:

1. The macro understanding means that education and training should be integrated. It appears that the controversy between the two sponsoring Departments, the DOE and DOL, is the result of the decision not to have a single Ministry of Education and Labour in the post-1994 government. This resulted in what Badat (2002:20, cited in SAQA, 2005:25) called the “lack of a shared language, understanding and agreement around areas of initiative and cooperation.”
2. The meso understanding refers to the epistemological differences between education and training. Young (2003:10) states that the power of different types of learning is a reality from which any NQF has to start. If it does not, it will be a barrier to progress and not a means of overcoming the barriers.
3. The micro understanding refers to the inclusion of theory and practice in qualifications, curricula, learning programmes and learning in the context of application (Kraak, 2000:40, in SAQA, 2005:25).

Furthermore, there are political differences between the DOE and DOL, which are responsible for education and training in SA, and the lack of effort to analyze how the integrated approach to education and training should be operationalized, especially in areas where the Departments do not see eye to eye, creates a challenge to HRD in South Africa. NAPTOSA (National Professional Teachers' Organization of South Africa) voiced its frustration with the lack of direction from the DOE and DOL (SAQA, 2004:1). NAPTOSA found it perplexing and frustrating that the tensions between the DOE and DOL are such that there is:

a very real danger that the rift will result in territorial imperatives and protection of sectoral interests, along the DOE:DOL/education:training/academic: vocational divide, at the cost of integration across education and training and across formal:non-formal education and training opportunities. Furthermore, it would seem that while pace-setters in Europe are embarking on a process of developing...integrated qualifications framework[s], South Africa, because of inter-departmental differences and absence of a political

will to drive the process, is preparing to make a 180° turn and head back in the direction from where we emerged in 1994!

Other authors agree, for example, Mehl (2004:21, cited in Heyns and Needham, 2004:45) states that political controversy should be set aside and that the DOE and DOL should engage with ways in which an integrated framework can become a reality, to ensure the development of an integrated NQF as the country moves to the concept of a Ministry of Learning, in principle, if not in practice. The political conflicts between the two Departments are therefore perceived as a major stumbling block for engagement. Jansen (2004) is much more direct in his assessment of the apparent lack of political will displayed by the Departments which is “the result of naked contestations by people/departments who are, or should be on the same side” (NAPTOSA, 2003:71). Tuck *et al.*, (2004:3) adds that where the establishment of an NQF in SA was strongly linked to issues of social justice as well as improved systemic coherence, other NQFs are being developed to improve access and progression within qualifications systems and to establish standards for comparability and benchmarking in the interests of systemic coherence. From very early on, the debates about the NQF were characterised by these opposing epistemologies: discipline-based (or institution-based) learning versus workplace-based learning. The HSRC (1995:3) summarised this crucial debate as follows:

Training-minded participants were concerned about the inclusion of theoretical or academic [competence] and felt that competence might “not reflect sufficiently” the measurable demonstration of performance standards in explicit behavioral terms...Education-minded participants were concerned about those whose standards would be used to determine competence and didn't want education to “become the handmaiden of the economy.”

One can therefore conclude that, while the SA NQF is still considered completely central to the reconstruction of a post-apartheid society and still enjoys widespread support, the issues of leadership of the NQF have not yet been

resolved. In addition, the fact that different sectors are governed by different sets of legislation, not necessarily aligned to the first Act promulgated after the ANC took power, namely the SAQA Act (No. 58 of 1995), is creating confusion and controversy about the supremacy of the Acts promulgated for each sector.

This chapter sets the context for the theoretical model that constitutes the product of this research, and which is explained in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6

INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS AND PRESENTATION OF A THEORETICAL MODEL

Introduction

The aim of the research is to aggregate and articulate HRD thoughts and practices into a sociologically constructed tool which will serve to enable a common understanding of HRD in South Africa. In order to develop such a tool, a vast amount of literature and data was rigorously analyzed through a theoretical sampling process using arduous content analysis criteria within a stringent coding paradigm (Please refer again to Figure 1 and Appendix B). In addition, informal reviews were held with HR managers and practitioners in the researcher's world of work, which is an international HRD environment, and integrated with the literary analysis.

Before presenting the interpretation of these results and product of the findings, it is critical to contextualize the presentation of these findings in terms of two sets of codes, namely in vivo codes and sociological codes.

An "in vivo" code is a code taken directly from the language of the substantive field (Strauss, 1993:33) which in this case is the field of HRD; in vivo codes are essentially the terms used by HRD practitioners in the field. In vivo codes are unique in two ways; they have analytic usefulness and imagery. Their analytic usefulness relates the given category to others, with specified meaning, and carries it forward easily in formulation of the theory. Imagery is useful insofar as the researcher does not have to keep illustrating the code in order to give it meaning. Its imagery implies data that have sufficient meaning so that the researcher does not have to clutter his/her writing with too many illustrations. In vivo terms have a very vivid imagery, inclusive of much local interpretative meaning; they captivate the actors and they are seldom forgotten by readers because their terms are colourful. They also have much analytic force since the actors use the term with ease and with sufficiently precise meaning.

On the other hand, sociological codes, also known as "social constructs", are codes formulated by a sociologist (Strauss, 1993:34). These constructs are "based on a combination of the researcher's scholarly knowledge and knowledge of the

substantive field under study”, for example, HRD. As a result, they can add more sociological meaning to the analysis than in vivo codes. They add scope by going beyond local meanings to broader social science concerns. They have much analytic utility because they are constructed clearly and systematically. They may have little imagery, and some researchers would prefer them to resonate with more imagery.

It is this researcher’s intention to enable the evolution of in vivo HRD codes into social constructs that are commonly understood by all and which ultimately will resonate imagery remembered by HRD practitioners in a systematic manner. These codes are a provisional matter in that they are pliable and easily changed if better terms are invented later. Practitioners can coin the appropriate terms with some facility, the facility being not just a linguistic matter but a matter of improving one’s theoretical sensitivity and associated analytic ability. Within this construct, possible core categories should be given a best-fit label as soon as possible so that there is a "handle" for thinking about them. The results of these findings are thus first presented as in vivo codes, while the product of the research is presented as a sociological code and ultimately a tool which enables the transition of HRD in vivo codes to social constructs of HRD. This sociological code culminates in the contribution that this study makes.

Research Results and Analysis

The contribution of this study was produced through making sense of the data aggregated during the informal reviews, the results of the findings of Jones’s (2001) research, and the rigorous analysis of data that the researcher highlighted in the literature study. The contribution by Jones was only considered when the researcher had already acquired an in-depth view into the topic. A presentation and interpretation of information from the above-mentioned data collection sources follows.

SAQA Longitudinal Study

SAQA has commissioned a longitudinal, five-cycle research project which aims to achieve the effective measurement of the impact of the NQF on the transformation of education and training in South Africa. According to Walters

(SAQA, 2005), this study is a world first, as no other country that has implemented an NQF has as yet attempted to measure the progress of their NQFs in such a comprehensive and empirical manner. SAQA has thus set a standard for similar initiatives worldwide and has also provided South African policymakers with a rich source of information that can be used to inform future NQF developments. The quantitative and qualitative evidence documented in the appendices of the National Qualifications Framework Impact Study Reports, Cycle 1 and Cycle 2, was critically analyzed and utilized in this study.

The purpose of the first cycle was to establish the criteria against which to measure the progress of the NQF. The specific objective of the second cycle was to establish the baseline against which to measure progress of the NQF. The Cycle 1 Report was released in 2004, the Cycle 2 Report in 2005, and the Cycle 3 report is due to be released in 2007. The Research Team (SAQA, 2004) formulated three research questions which provided a point of entry into the domain of HRD (SAQA, 2004:1).

Research question 1: To what extent has practice changed as a result of the implementation of the NQF?

Research question 2: To what extent have mindsets changed as a result of the introduction of the NQF?

Research question 3: To what extent has the NQF enabled the development of education and training relevant to a changing world?

The three research questions reflect three different dimensions of the concept of a qualifications framework. The main function of the qualifications framework is to enable learner progress and development. However, international experience confirms that qualifications frameworks can also be used as drivers of policy and practice in education and training. In that context, the three reference points for the research questions, namely practice, mindset and relevance, point to aspects of the NQF that impinge on both the personal (the learner) and the political (the education and training system) elements (SAQA, 2005). Presenting a question on practice gave an opportunity for practitioners and policy makers to reflect on the extent to which institutional practice, especially in workplaces (and in education and training

institutions), has changed or needs to be changed in order to realize these objectives.

The question regarding mindset is related to the social and political domains within which the education and training systems operate. The achievement of mindset change is perhaps the most significant in that it is likely to shape practice and culture in a deeper and longer-lasting manner than institutional regulations or legislation would. The research questions were clarified as a result of an extensive process of analysis.

The NQF study is encapsulated in certain assumptions and limitations. Firstly, the NQF objectives are taken as a given. There is no attempt to evaluate the rationale for these objectives or to question whether these are the most appropriate objectives for South Africa. Secondly, the study is undertaken in the knowledge that definitive judgements on the attainment of the NQF objectives cannot be made with any degree of finality for a number of years. Thirdly, the drawing of firm conclusions will only be fully achieved once the Cycle 3 results, scheduled for 2007, are compared to the Cycle 2 baseline data (SAQA, 2005:9).

As previously mentioned, the first cycle was concerned with establishing the criteria against which to measure the progress of the NQF, and the specific objective of the second cycle was to establish the baseline against which to measure progress of the NQF. Using a process of contextualization and tests of fitness for purpose, one of the outcomes of Cycle 1 was the development of 17 indicators that would form the basis for making comparisons over time. It was found helpful for operational purposes and to facilitate the research process, to categorize this fairly long list of indicators into four general sets of indicators. These indicators are presented in Appendix A.

The only concern expressed about this product of Cycle 1 was voiced by French (SAQA, 2005), who suggested that the impact study did not address the fundamental political and legislative issues that had influenced its development, and that such inclusion would have been of great importance to the impact study. The following continuum of levels of impact was used in Cycle 2 and proposed for continued use in subsequent cycles of the NQF Impact Study.

TABLE 24: Levels of impact

HP: High positive impact	The research evidence shows a marked positive change across most of the education and training system as it pertains to the NQF
M: moderate impact	The research evidence shows moderate positive change across the education and training system
MM: Minimal/mixed impact	The research evidence shows minimal positive and/or a mix of positive and negative change across the education and training system
N: negative impact	The research evidence shows a marked negative change across the education and training system

Source: SAQA (2005:5)

The specific objective of the second cycle was to establish the baseline against which to measure progress of the NQF. The 17 impact indicators were used to develop a survey questionnaire, determined on a purposive quota sample basis, and a response was received by 623 stakeholders, which exceeded the SAQA suggested quota of 494. In order to ensure adequate triangulation of these responses, five different modes of investigation were used, namely interviews and focus groups, national survey, quantitative analysis of the National Learners' Record Database, and qualitative analysis of qualifications in three sectors. International experts provided external professional scrutiny.

For the purpose of this research only the results of indicators number 16 and 17 are reflected, and are illustrated in Appendix A as Indicator Set 4. The NQF was found to have had a high positive impact (HP) on indicators number 16 and 17. Maja (SAQA, 2005:10) suggests that this indicator set is a critical indicator to the NQF process. He adds that the core of the NQF system enables South Africa and its citizens to participate competitively in a rapidly changing globalized world. NQFs and their respective quality assurance processes are increasingly attracting attention from the international education and training fraternity as a new approach to

education systems and HRD within the workplace. However, it is only the South African NQF that places such emphasis on “addressing issues of social justice” (Tuck *et al.*, 2004:7). Jansen (2004:87) points out that “[t]here are few policy initiatives which have consciously dubbed [their] major reform as a social construct with all the risks entailed in such an open-ended conception of the NQF.” In addition, moral imperatives of the first post-apartheid government resulted in a proposal for reform that was, according to Jansen (2004:88), meant to:

Address employment opportunities as well as economic development as well as career paths and of course redress past unfair discrimination. I know of no policy in the world that can address all of these things in the ways envisaged, let alone at the same time. Nevertheless it is evident that it is the moral imperative which has sustained the development of the NQF in the first phase of implementation.

Evidence in the study suggested significant organizational and societal benefits of the NQF. While there were fewer comments on the economic benefits, it appears that stakeholders believed that there had been benefits for skills development in South Africa. However, a few were suggesting that this had not yet translated into economic benefits. Respondents pointed to a number of ways in which the NQF was making an impact, including employee empowerment, enhanced self-esteem for learners, more awareness of learning opportunities, improved responsiveness on the part of providers, clearer learning pathways, and the rising importance of NQF qualifications in recruitment (SAQA, 2005:83). Respondents also believed strongly that the NQF was contributing to other national strategies like the HRD and National Skills Development (NSD) strategies, and was seen to be well aligned with and supportive of these other key national policies and strategies. Examples they gave included reducing illiteracy, upskilling the labour force, enabling communities to take control of their socio-economic situation, and improving HIV and AIDS awareness.

The implications of these baseline findings contribute significantly to current debate and future research in South Africa. French (SAQA, 2005:86) states that “indicators are no more than their name implies, an indication of the main trends in the system which offer a big picture view over time.” He felt that indicators did not provide the intricacies of HRD practice or point to solutions except in the most general terms, but did, however, indicate where more research might be valuable.

The release of these findings in 2005 positioned this NQF study as a pioneering study which is susceptible to criticism but also open to intellectual scrutiny and public debate. The NQF Impact study presents NQF stakeholders within and beyond SA with empirical data that can be used to improve NQF development and implementation in the years to come, hence its inclusion in this research.

As recently indicated by SAQA (2005:8), the researcher fully agrees that there is a need in South Africa to situate HRD within the current context of education and training in South Africa (SAQA, 2005:8) and provide an operational context both at a macro level, which is the socio-political context within which the NQF operates, and at a micro level, which includes the levels of understanding that various stakeholders may have in respect of the NQF and HRD.

Informal Reviews

Informal reviews were conducted with colleagues and fellow practitioners of the researcher and sporadically included in the research, depending on which site the researcher was delivering consulting services. The biographical data of the colleagues and clients were not obtained as they were not the focus of the study, but their insights about the literary findings of the researcher were explored.

Content analysis was used to analyze the data gathered in response to the above question. The researcher interacted with 54 colleagues in South Africa, Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Namibia, Ethiopia, Nepal, Vietnam and Sri Lanka, and 7 practitioners in South Africa and Namibia. Informal reviews were thus conducted with 61 participants. The responses of the researcher’s colleagues and fellow practitioners were noted during the informal reviews. These responses were then transferred to the matrix shown in the table below. The number of times each

construct was mentioned was tallied, and it was given a ranking according to the number of times that it was mentioned. These responses are an example of in vivo HRD codes.

TABLE 25: Matrix to understanding the nature of HRD

Construct	Origin of HRD	The elements of HRD	The effect of national and organizational context on HRD	Sustainability of HRD
Frequency	54	61	58	57
Ranking	4	1	2	3

The primary element considered as important was what HRD is comprised of. One hundred per cent of the respondents believed that it was essential for scholars and practitioners to have a common understanding of what HRD is made up of. They believed that there had to be core understandings, with deviations of knowledge and understanding occurring only as a result of organizational and/or national context. The second most important requirement, supported by 95.1%, was due consideration of the impact that the uniqueness of an organization and the residing country's socio-economic-political circumstances has on this understanding. They felt that it was the context of the organization and country that ultimately decides what comprises HRD. Ninety-three per cent were concerned about whether the elements within HRD could be sustained over time, considering the pressure that organizations were under to achieve business results and competitive advantage in the various markets they served. Of lesser importance but still significantly high, was an 89% concern about where HRD originated. It was clear from the responses that practitioners needed to understand whether the term "Human Resource Development" was just a matter of semantics and a new term for "Human Resources knowledge and practices", which already exists. An understanding of where it comes from would eliminate misconceptions and ensure a common understanding.

The constructs that were provided were integrated with the theoretical sampling approach used, which shaped the literature search on HRD and the product of this research.

Literature Study

The researcher believes that HRD practitioners and scholars should consider the importance of ascertaining the relevance of international HRD literature for South Africa, because in South Africa relevance is entrenched in the wider process of transformation and post-apartheid reconstruction, involving redress and parity of esteem. The literature study was carried out from this frame of reference.

As the researcher's understanding of the nature and importance of HRD increased in depth following the literature study, she returned to colleagues and HR managers and solicited their understanding by asking them whether they thought that the newly found element resides in any of the constructs depicted in Table 25. For example, on discovering the theoretical background of HRD, the researcher made contact with colleagues and clients and solicited their feeling about whether an understanding of theory was necessary to explain the origin of HRD. Repeatedly, the response was based on the HR maturity of the organization at that point in time, and remarkably, none of the inclusions by the researcher through the literature study were recommended for exclusion by the colleagues and practitioners. In fact, these practitioners were either not aware of, or had not given thought to, the inclusion of the constituent item, and found the sharing of information by the researcher enlightening. Besides this proving that variables like level of capability of respondents, scope of knowledge and experience, and even fatigue, could impact a response, the researcher realized that a generic tool for South Africa would suffice, and that each organization and region or city could use the tool as a basis to understand HRD and through this activity, select the elements of HRD which best suited their unique context.

Model for Understanding the Nature and Importance of HRD

After consistently moving between informal reviews and the literature study, and using a process of content analysis, the researcher was able to create a tool which will enable and enhance an all-encompassing understanding of the nature and

importance of HRD. The researcher is of the opinion that, in order to have a comprehensive understanding of HRD, the constructs provided through the informal reviews and discovered from the literature study, should be revised as follows:

TABLE 26: Amended matrix to understanding the nature of HRD

New Construct (Category)	HRD theory	Philosophical underpinnings of HRD	HRD Paradigms	SHRD	Composition of HRD	The future sustainability of HRD
Old construct	Origin of HRD			The effect of national and organizational context on HRD	The elements of HRD	Sustainability of HRD

The new constructs above are examples of sociological codes.

These new constructs can be classified as core categories and have several important functions for generating theory, namely:

- It is relevant and works
- Most other categories and their properties are related to it, which makes it subject to much qualification and modification.
- In addition, through these relations among categories and their properties, it has the prime function of integrating the theory and rendering it dense and saturated as the relationships are discovered.
- These functions then lead to theoretical completeness – accounting for as much variation in a pattern of behaviour with as few concepts as possible, thereby maximizing parsimony and scope (Strauss, 1993:35).

After the several workable coded categories had been developed, the researcher attempted to theoretically saturate as much as possible those which seemed to have explanatory power. Thus relations among categories and their properties became apparent and conceptually dense. She is certain about the chosen core categories,

as extensive data was collected and then subjected to rigorous analysis through a theory-building process illustrated in Figure 1 and explained in Appendix B.

Some criteria for judging which category should serve as the core category follow.

- It must be central – that is, related to as many other categories and their properties as is possible and more than other candidates for the position of core category.
- The core category must appear frequently in the data. More precisely: the indicators pointing to the phenomena represented by the core category must appear frequently.
- The core category relates easily to other categories. These connections need not be forced; rather, they come quickly and abundantly. But because the core category is related to many other categories and recurs frequently, it takes more time to saturate the core category than the others.
- A core category in a substantive study has clear implications for a more general theory.
- As the details of the core category are worked out analytically, the theory moves forward appreciably.
- The core category allows for building in the maximum variation to the analysis, since the researcher is coding in terms of its dimensions, properties, conditions, consequences, strategies and so on. All of these are related to different subpatterns of the phenomenon referenced by the core category.

What follows is a presentation of the core categories the researcher suggests will enable a sound understanding of HRD in South Africa. Coupled with this is an explanation of the significance of each category to the purpose of the research, as well as the provision of reasonable conclusions of significance which evidence the rigour of the findings.

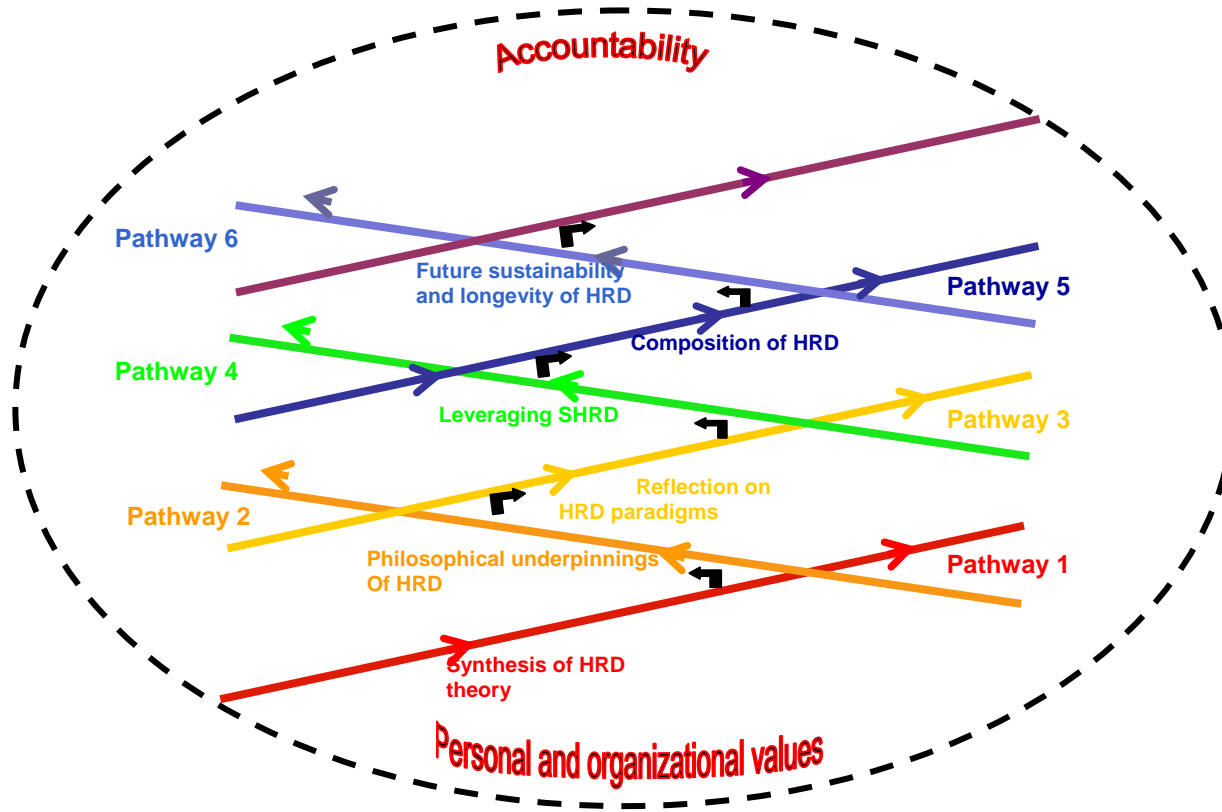
Therefore, in order to acquire a sound understanding of the nature and importance of HRD, a scholar or practitioner would need to be exposed to thoughts and practices in the following core categories:

1. Synthesis of HRD theory
2. Philosophical underpinnings of HRD

3. Reflection on Paradigms of HRD
4. Leveraging Strategic HRD
5. Composition of HRD
6. The future sustainability and longevity of HRD.

This matrix is then converted into a model, the design idea of which was taken from the Leadership Pipeline Model of Charan *et al.*, (2001) which was in turn developed from the Critical Career Crossroads Model of Walter Mahler (Charan *et al.*, 2001:29). The selection and placement of the intellectual components of the model are the researcher's own construction. The model is depicted below as Figure 24.

FIGURE 24: HRD Model: Pathways to understanding HRD



The model constitutes six constructs or pathways illustrated in Figure 23. These pathways are the route that an HRD scholar or practitioner must travel through in order to acquire a sound understanding of the nature and importance of HRD. This understanding will in turn enable and enhance a common understanding of HRD in South Africa, which will consequently improve HRD practices. The definition, rationale for inclusion, and utility for each of the pathways will now be explored.

Understanding the Pathways of the HRD Model

Knowledge about each pathway is critical and will help to reveal fundamental gaps in understanding HRD. Too often, organizations do not realise that their HRD community is not performing at full capacity, because it is not being held accountable for the right things. If, however, an organization was acutely aware of these HRD pathways, the problem could be quickly diagnosed and a development programme could be created targeting these deficiencies.

There are six critical pathways to understanding HRD. Each of these pathways represents a change in thinking about HRD and creates a significant impact in how HRD is approached in organizations. Recognizing the basic requirements associated with each pathway is crucial to enabling optimum performance by translating renewed thought into practice.

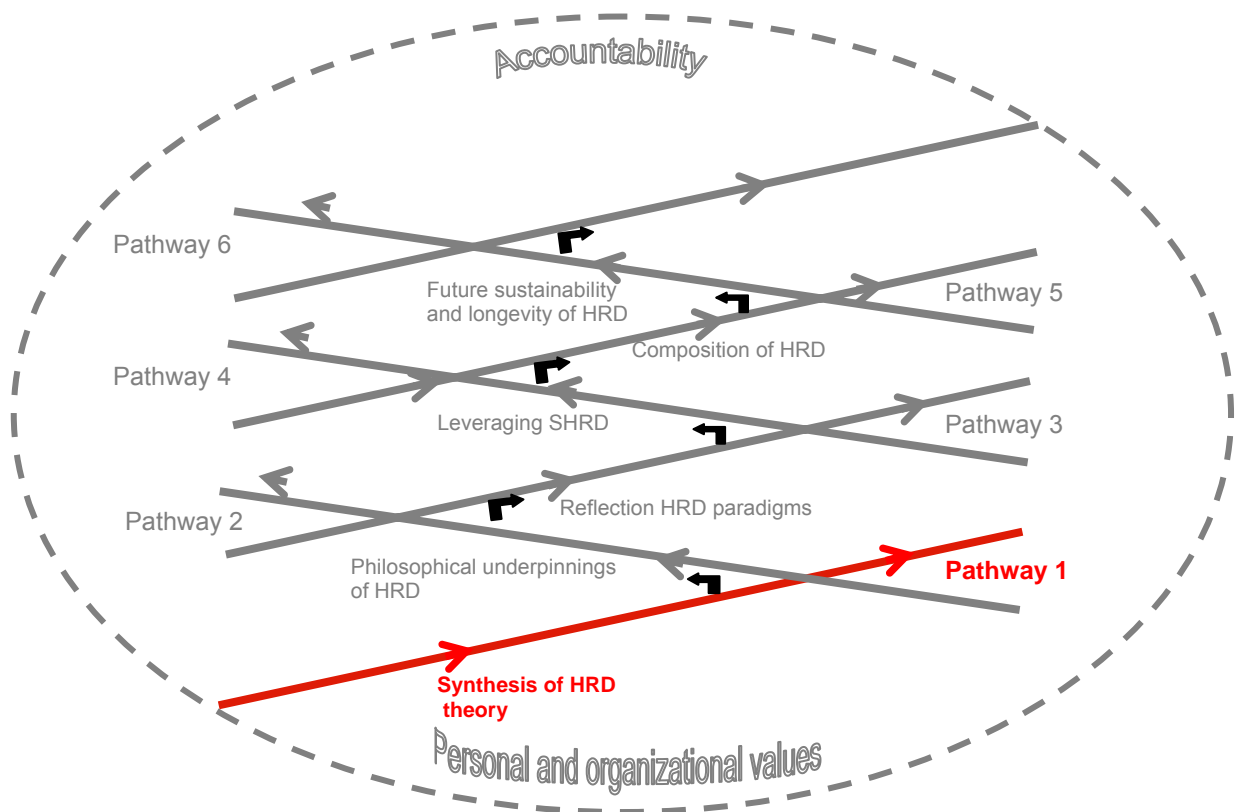
The six turns or pathways are fundamental to understanding HRD. Once HRD scholars and practitioners understand what each passage entails, and the challenges involved in moving from one pathway to the next, they will be in a better position to purify their organization's HRD thoughts and practices and facilitate their personal growth. By reading about each pathway, HRD scholars and practitioners will hopefully be tempted to apply the thoughts and practices mentioned to their own organizations. Micklethwait and Wooldridge (1996) and Swanson (1996) believe that HRD professionals should encourage engagement of HRD thoughts and practices; similarly, the researcher believes that this tool will serve to initiate and promote dialogue about HRD, through forums that provide opportunities for additional reflection, in an effort to advance and enrich development of the HRD profession in South Africa.

The information relevant to each pathway is summarized below but is discussed in detail in Chapters 3, 4 and 5.

Pathway 1: Synthesis of HRD Theory

The first pathway in the model comprises a synthesis of theory fit for use in HRD. The researcher believes that, as the definition of theory offered by Gioia and Pitre (1990:587) states, “theory is a coherent description, explanation, and representation of observed or experienced phenomena,” as well as that offered by Senge *et al.* (1994:29), who describe theory as “a fundamental set of propositions about how the world works, which has been subject to repeated tests and in which we have some confidence,” the inclusion of HRD theory is critical to understanding the nature of HRD, as the theory clarifies HRD by providing an explanation of its origins of birth.

Figure 24a: Pathway 1: Synthesis of HRD theory



Furthermore, and with due reflection on the arguments put forward in Chapters 3 and 4, the researcher believes that HRD theory for South Africa comprises an

integration of psychological, economic, systems, and sociological theory, into disciplined thinking and action.

In support of Swanson and Holton III's (2001) contributions, and as explained in Chapter 3, the researcher believes that Gestalt, behavioural and cognitive psychology are core theories to HRD because they capture the critical human elements of developing people as well as the sociological relationship between humans and the systems with which they interact. Since HRD takes place in organizations that are psychologically framed by those who invented them, operate in them, and renew them, HRD must call on psychology as being at the core (Argyris, 1993; Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1993).

However, contrary to Swanson and Holton III (2001), who view sociological theories merely as a placeholder, the researcher believes that the South African situation prescribes the inclusion of sociological theory as a core theory. The unique South African HRD situation, which is embedded in the socio-economic-political paradox to develop human capital while addressing issues of past inequality and redistribution of wealth, leads one to expect the inclusion of both psychological and sociological theories in order to better understand the nature of HRD as shaped by the unique South African national setting. South African employees lack knowledge and skills as a result of past economic and social imbalances; at the present moment, therefore, the inclusion of sociological theories like Lewin's *et al.*, (1994) motivational model and John Thibaut and Harold Kelley's (1959) social exchange theory are deemed appropriate. It is universally accepted that people have the potential to grow and develop. Their environment should thus acknowledge that people enter achievement situations with an ideal outcome in mind (Lewin's motivational model) and that they seek out relationships that offer them many rewards while exacting few costs (social exchange theory).

The inclusion of economic theory as presented by Shultz (1961, in Nafukho *et al.*, 2003) and Becker (1993:27, in Swanson and Holton, 2001) in Chapter 3, is supported, as economic principles of HRD revolve around managing scarce resources and the production of wealth. South Africa currently faces the economic challenge of developing its people, so that they can reach their optimum potential,

and for the organizations which employ them to achieve a competitive advantage; all of this is taking place in the context of redressing past imbalances and redistributing wealth. In supporting Swanson and Holton III (2001:117), the epistemological view of Systems theory is the only meaningful way to comprehend an organization as a system. It must be included as a core theory to understanding HRD. It is therefore recommended that the “three-legged stool” proposed by Swanson and Holton III (2001:303) should be modified to suit the South African context and become a four-legged stool, the fourth leg being sociological theory.

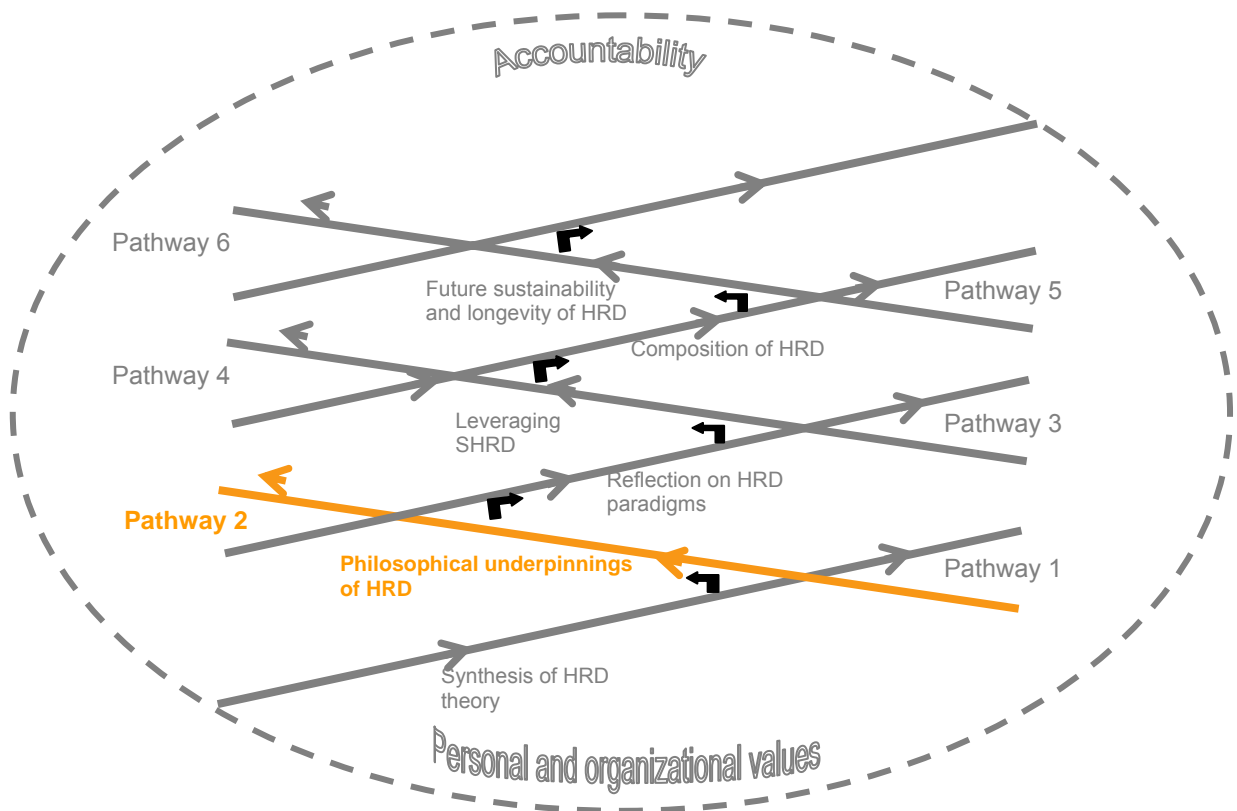
The inclusion of theory as a means to understand the nature of HRD will thus serve to advance the maturity of the profession in South Africa and dissolve the tension between HRD research and practice. The researcher supports the belief held by various international scholars who emphasize that in the absence of a theoretically sound model of HRD within the context of organization and improvement, practitioners have to start from scratch to build strategies for every HRD challenge they face, or worse, simply bulldoze ahead in a trial-and-error mode (Swanson, 2001:303). As supported by Ruona (1999b), the non-existence of a specified theoretical foundation simply supports vacuums and negates direction, continuity, and a deep understanding of HRD. In addition, the inclusion of theory reduces any tension that may exist between HRD research and practice. A profound characteristic and function of using theory to understand HRD, makes unambiguous the explanations and understandings of how the world is and how it works, and, by doing so, makes transferable, informed knowledge for improved understanding and action in the world explicit rather than implicit (Lynham, 2002). This is why recognizing that the gap between our espoused theories (what we say) and theories-in-use (the theories that lie behind our actions) is critical, as non-identification of this gap will not allow learning to take place (Senge, 1990). It is analysis of this gap and the synergy between what we say and how we act that ultimately indicates good HRD theory, and will promote its utility. Inclusion of HRD theory in this tool will therefore elicit confidence in the product of this research which is critical to maturing the HRD profession in South Africa. Furthermore, this exercise will generate trust about where

HRD comes from, and allow scholars and practitioners to explore the theories that are relevant to their unique organizational and national context.

Pathway 2: Philosophical Underpinnings of HRD

The second pathway requires consideration of the philosophical elements which strengthen HRD. Universally, it is taken for granted that scholars and practitioners in any field should have updated knowledge and understanding of the functional and behavioural aspects of that field. This is quite a dangerous assumption as very few individuals and organizations have the financial and human resources to remain abreast of leading-edge thoughts and practices in their field. Philosophy could rescue this situation.

FIGURE 24b: Pathway 2: Philosophical underpinnings of HRD



Philosophy means “the love of wisdom” Cavalier (1990:2) and could help scholars and practitioners to develop the skills to think critically, for example about HRD, by engaging them in the interpretation of the thought and practice of HRD that is often

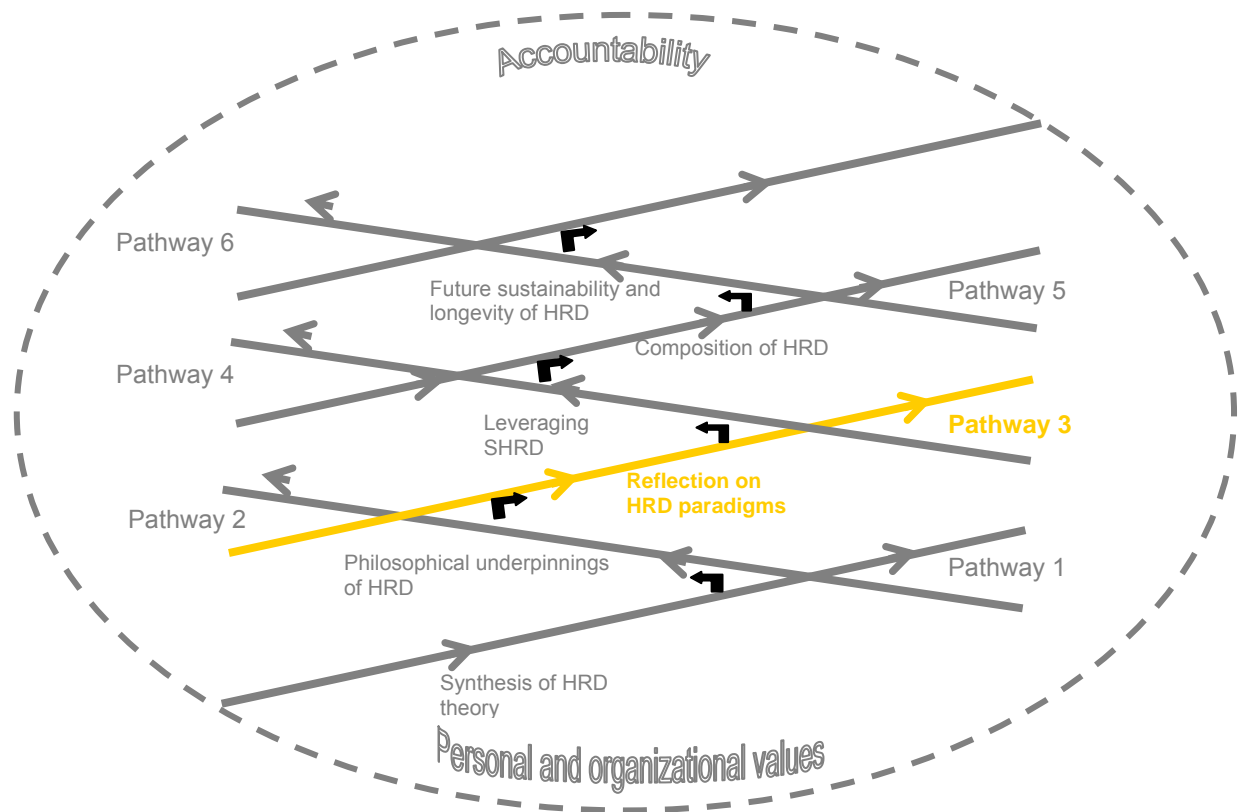
taken for granted. In addition, it is a field of ideas and thinking about life and everything in it. This supports Lynham and Ruona (1999:210), who state that the critical components of a philosophical framework for HRD consist of three key components. Firstly, there exists ontology, which is the component that makes explicit a view of the nature of the world and the nature of phenomena of interest to HRD. Secondly, there exists an epistemology, the component that makes explicit the nature of knowledge in HRD, including the necessary and sufficient requirements to hold and claim knowledge about HRD. Thirdly, there exists an axiology, which is the component that makes explicit how we ought to act individually, as well as communally, in the field of HRD. It outlines espoused aims, ideals, and proper methodologies and methods for HRD inquiry and practice. One can thus conclude that how South African scholars and practitioners see HRD (ontology), how they think about HRD (epistemology), and how they should act in HRD research and practice (axiology) together form a guiding context for a congruent system of thought and practice in HRD. The relationships between these key components of philosophy are interactive and dynamic. Consequently, it will serve to make explicit the common understanding that scholars and practitioners have of HRD (ontology), articulate their understanding of what makes for knowledge of HRD (epistemology), and urge congruence and alignment between their ontological and epistemological assumptions and the encouraged actions of HRD (axiology). For example, two of the objectives of the NQF are to “accelerate the redress of past unfair discrimination in education, training and employment opportunities” and to “contribute to the full personal development of each learner and the social and economic development of the nation at large” (SAQA, 2004: 8). Various legislative interventions like the Labour Relations Act (LRA), SDA, SDLA and EEA are in place to facilitate the achievement of these objectives. A common debate in South Africa is the reason behind the execution of HRD interventions; are these interventions only executed because of compliance with legal requirements or do they include a sincere commitment to assist employees to realise their full potential? An exploration into the ontology and epistemology of an organization's HRD strategy will shape thought and practice of HRD in that organization and highlight any axiological malfunction which may exist.

If one thinks of these focal points as disconnects of inquiry, then philosophy does not appear to provide much purpose at all. However, in reality, these three areas all work together to make philosophy what it is. In this sense, from a systems perspective, the whole is more than the sum of its parts. Systems theory, which has been advocated as a foundational discipline by many in HRD (Ruona, 1998) and (Gradous, 1989; Willis, 1997; Swanson, 1998, cited in Lynham and Ruona, 1999:210), reminds us to observe the multiple tiers and relationships that exist between these components of philosophy. Therefore, making intelligent use of the potentials of philosophy requires that one considers it as a system of thought and action (Bohm, 1994). This entails a process of disciplined reflection, ways of thinking about certain questions, interpreting texts, trying out ideas and thinking of possible arguments for and against them, and wondering about how concepts really work. Philosophy thus offers HRD practitioners and scholars a context in which to view HRD.

Pathway 3: Reflection on HRD Paradigms

The third pathway requires reflection on the paradigmatic axioms underlying HRD. A paradigm is a “coherent tradition of scientific research” (Kuhn, 1996:10). Of critical importance to HRD scholars and practitioners is the ability to develop a personal belief system regarding which paradigm or blend of paradigms will guide his/her practice.

FIGURE 24c: Pathway 3: Reflections on HRD paradigms



Rigorous debate prevails about whether the needs of the individual take precedence over the needs of the organization or whether they are equally important. Do we embark on HRD interventions primarily to enable the individual to realize his/her full potential (learning paradigm), or is it to advance the purpose of a performance system or organization that sponsors that HRD effort (performance paradigm), which means that the individual realizes his/her potential by default? The assumptions underpinning these two paradigms are extensively explained in Chapter 3. HRD will be perceived as having strategic value to the organization only if it has the capability to connect the unique value of employee expertise with the strategic goals of the organization (Torraco and Swanson, 1995). By being an advocate both for people and for performance, HRD stands to gain the most influence in the organizational system. If the field of HRD focuses only on learning or individuals, then it is likely to end up marginalized as a staff support group. While Holton (2002) and a significant majority of leading HRD scholars believe that HRD is probably best

served by the integration of the two paradigms, it is easy to recognize bias in favour of the performance paradigm.

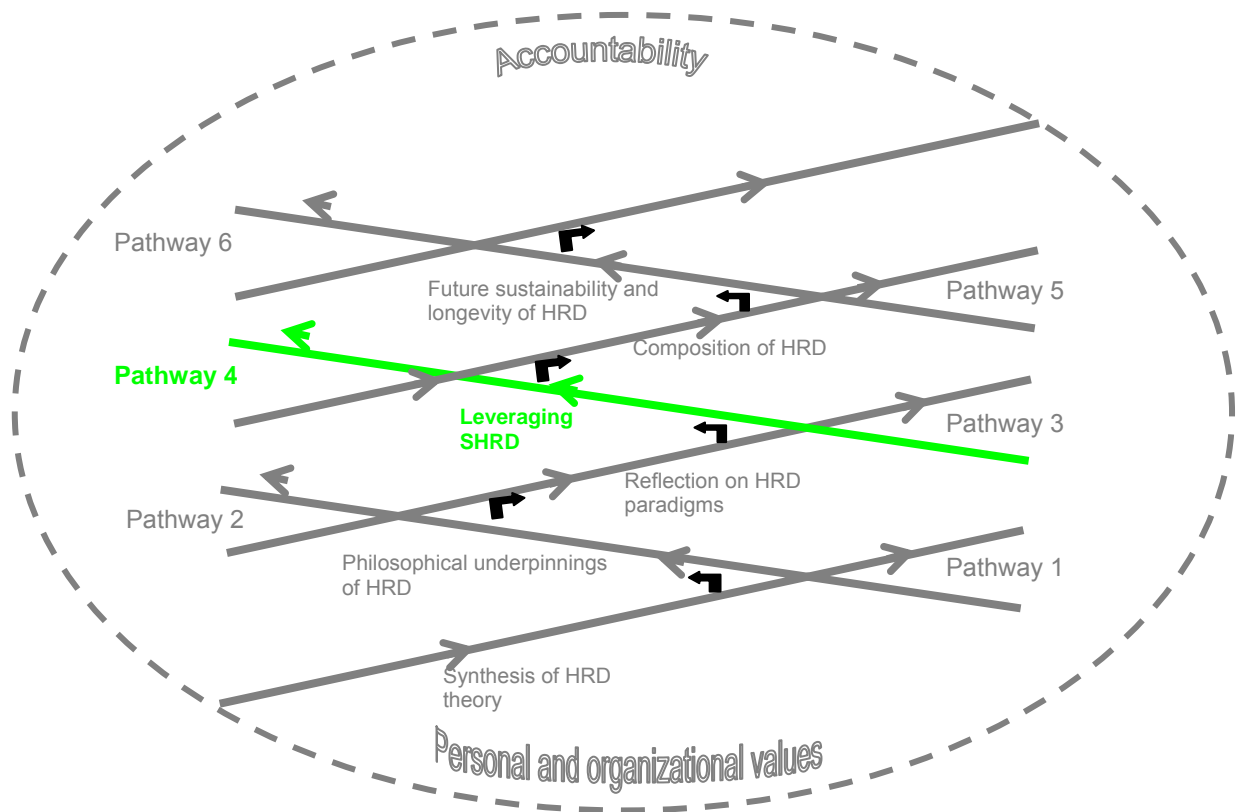
Considering South Africa's history as explained in Chapter 5, and with specific reference to the NQF objective "contribute to the full personal development of each learner and the social and economic development of the nation at large" (SAQA, 2004:8), it would be in South Africa's best interest to integrate these two paradigms and strive to achieve some balance when practising them. HRD will only be perceived as having value to the individual, the organization and the country if it has the capability to align the unique value of employee proficiency with the strategic objectives of the organization and the national socio-economic-political needs of the country.

Pathway 4: Leveraging Strategic HRD

The fourth pathway requires consideration of ways to strategically leverage HRD. As previously explained in Chapter 4, while the training and development literature in the last decade has displayed an intense exploration of the concept of SHRD (Higgs, 1989; Keep, 1989; Noel and Dennehy, 1991; Garavan, 1991; Holden and Livia, 1993; Saggars, 1994; Sloman, 1994; Garavan *et al.*, 1995; Rainbird, 1995; Torraco and Swanson, 1995; Lee, 1996; Stewart and McGoldrick, 1996; Harrison, 1997; O'Donnell and Garavan, 1997; Garavan *et al.*, 1998), there has been only a modest contribution on what characterizes an organization with a strategic approach to HRD.

HRD should be performing a robust, proactive shaping role by both responding to corporate strategy and also helping to shape and influence corporate strategy (McCracken and Wallace, 2000). This implies that HRD should assist an organization to meet its existing needs in a catalytic manner while simultaneously enabling the organization to change, develop, grow and prosper. Practising this belief is essential if HRD wants to contribute to the economic development of the South African nation.

FIGURE 24d: Pathway 4: Leveraging Strategic HRD



The purpose of SHRD is to enable a lasting competitive advantage for any organization, and this goal can be realized in three ways. One is by a needs-driven approach, which has a reactive disposition as it results from gaps identified in the organization. Adopting a needs-driven approach can lead to a reliable, smoothly operating development system, where skill requirements and developmental needs are constantly monitored by the line management, and the delivery of training is well planned, accurate, and cost-efficient. A second is by an opportunity-driven approach which has a proactive disposition as it occurs because organizations are aware of the learning potential of their employees and the competitive advantage and value they and their employees can derive from exposure to trends in HRD. Being driven too much by the supply side can lead to a situation where people responsible for HRD, while trying to keep the organization up-to-date with the trends of the industry, create confusion with the latest fad that has nothing to do with the real needs or the direction of the business. What this approach can offer instead is a healthy shake-up for a stagnated organization, or it can help a young company discover ways of operating

through which to establish its own distinctive culture. The third is by a capability-driven approach, which is about how people act in an organization, and is the “DNA of competitiveness” (Ulrich, 1997:10). This last one is difficult to replicate because it is based on knowledge, skills and processes developed over time into a workable combination within the context of a particular organizational setting. The capabilities-driven approach can be beneficial if HRD specialists realize that the organizational setting does not need to be reconstructed every day, but when an organization is seriously renewing the behavioural aspects of its strategy, there is no doubt that this approach should be dominant in HRD (Luoma, 2000).

The natural role of any HRD organization is to be driven by the strategic needs of the business. A clear benefit of this role is that the activities carried out are certainly of direct value to the organization, but, on the other hand, it can be questioned whether the entire potential contribution is secured when more attention is given to the skills people are incapable of executing than those they can or could execute. Subsequently, additional robust theoretical and empirical work is required around a viable methodology for strategic alignment, HRD effectiveness and evaluation, transfer of learning, strategically required core competencies, and the design of HR performance management systems which support and reinforce HRD practices and role responsibilities. The point of view of a strategic partnership between HRD specialists and line managers has to move beyond normative exhortations, towards a rigorous unpacking of role boundaries, key performance criteria, and rewards for effective HRD performance. HRD can play a credible value-adding role in improving organizational effectiveness and assuming a pivotal role in strategy formation (Horwitz, 1999).

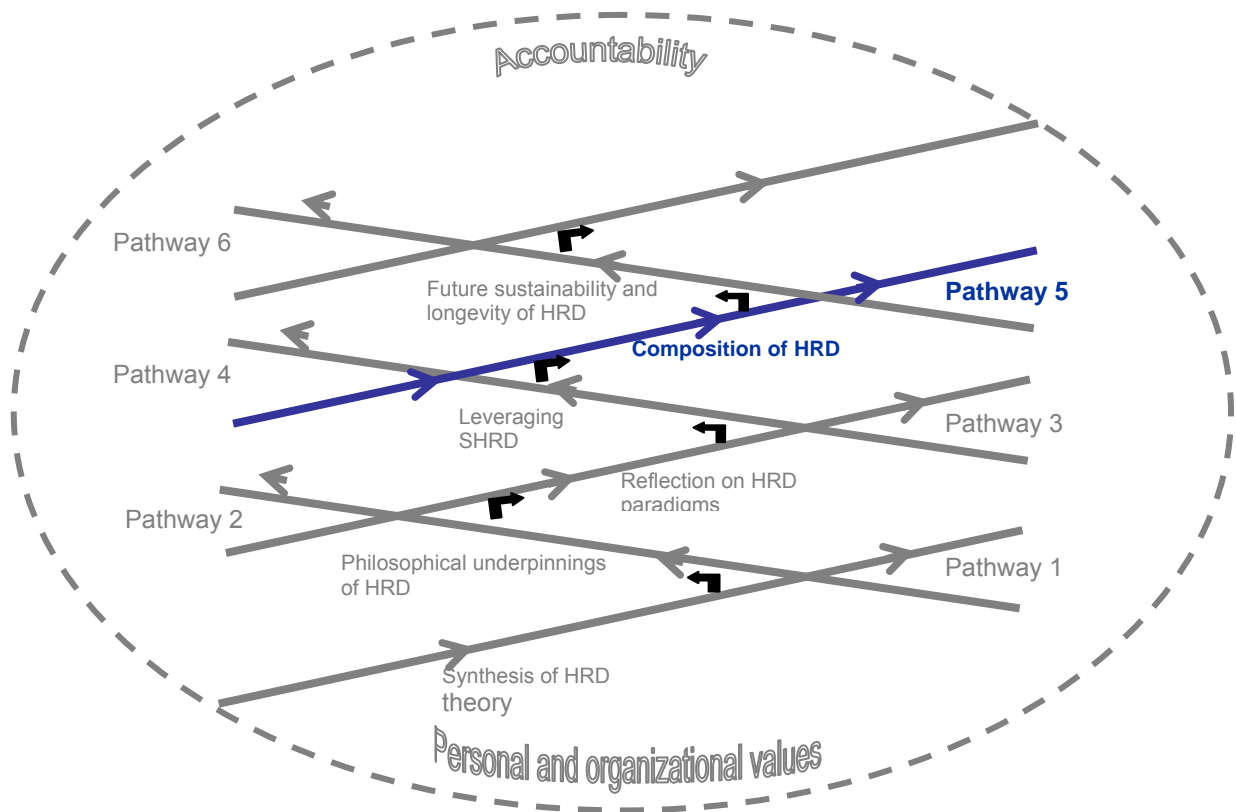
SHRD implies the creation of a learning culture, within which a range of training, development, and learning strategies both responds to corporate strategy and also helps shape and influence it. It is the reciprocal, mutually enhancing nature of the relationship between HRD and corporate strategy which lies at the heart of SHRD and at the heart of the development of a learning culture (McCracken and Wallace, 2000).

Strategy is universally understood as an idea of how an organization reaches its goals. The process of forming the idea is called “strategy making” or “strategic planning”, and a company’s progress in this direction is called “strategic implementation” (Luoma, 2000:770-771). Strategy is therefore about making the internal resources meet the external environment, so that future goals can be achieved. Therefore, using a philosophical approach, HRD scholars and practitioners can critically explore the manner in which the HRD function is executed in their organizations. This exploration will highlight whether they conduct training in an *ad hoc* manner, whether they have a more systematic implementation of HRD interventions, or whether they shape and respond to corporate strategy. This thought and practice will encourage the emergence of SHRD and the development of a high-performance learning organization (HPLO). In addition, the socio-political-economic context of the country plays a significant role in SHRD, and due consideration to this context should be given in this pathway.

Pathway 5: Composition of HRD

The fifth pathway requires determining what comprises HRD. HRD differs considerably from one country to the next, as well as within countries. In addition, the understanding of what HRD is fluctuates significantly internationally with regard to the scope of its activities, anticipated audiences, and beneficiaries. Consequently, there is a lack of congruence amongst practitioners about understanding the discipline of HRD.

FIGURE 24e: Pathway 5: Composition of HRD



As evidenced by Ruona (2000) and many other leading scholars, HRD professionals do not have a common understanding of what it is that they do, despite the fact that the profession has done much to identify who it is, what it stands for, and what its contribution is to whom it serves. Furthermore, the dynamic constructs in a rapidly changing world become a barrier to understanding HRD, and no country, including South Africa, can evade the impact of this rapidly changing world. Despite these obstacles, and despite the debate about there being no need to define HRD (Lee, 2001), because the practice of HRD is also still in the process of “becoming”, the majority of debates have revealed a need for clarity and specificity (Walton, 2001). The researcher fully agrees that HRD scholars and practitioners in South Africa should define what HRD is, but within permeable boundaries. The diverse nature of the South African workforce and the diversity in practice in organizations further promotes this stance. It is simply not practicable to seek a rigid and inflexible definition based upon current practice. However, a definition should rather serve as a lens through which HRD can be studied, and that provides a window into a particular

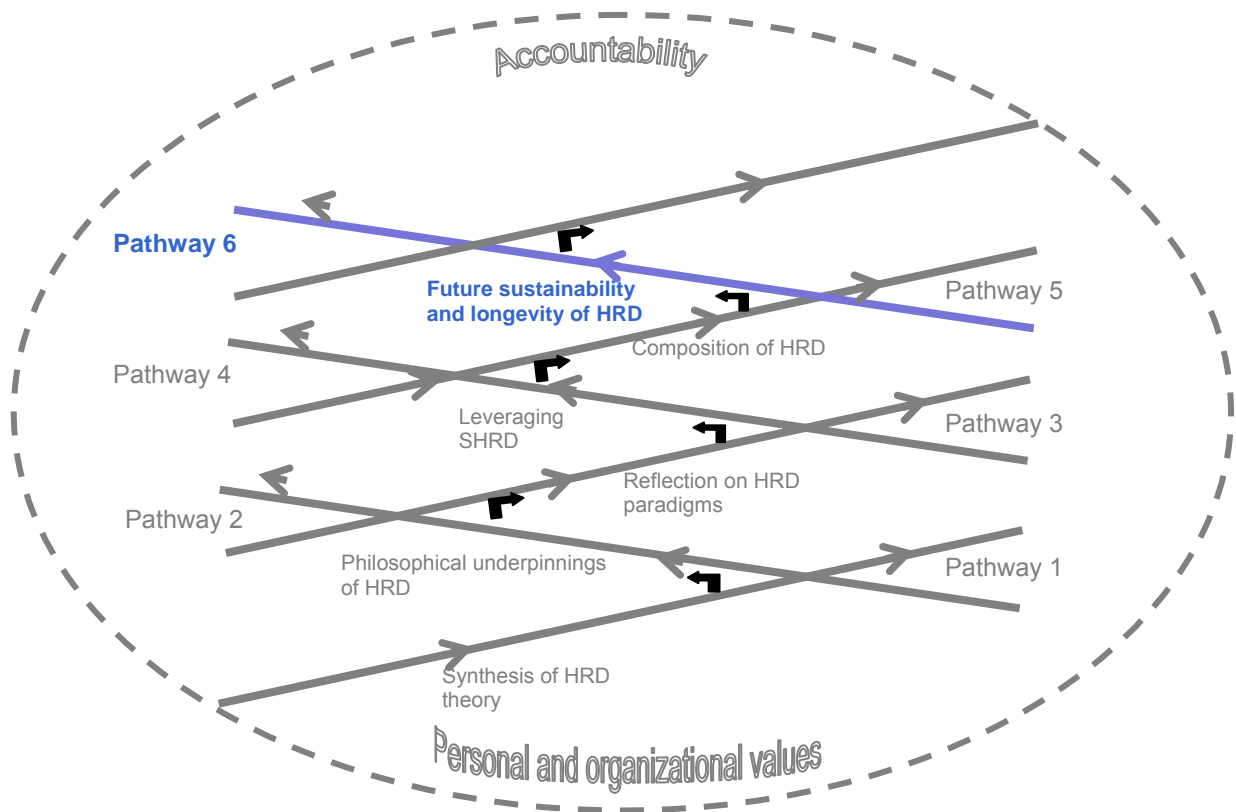
component of HRD. Laid one on top of the other, each of these lenses in turn will cumulatively provide a richer, fuller and more multidimensional picture of HRD in practice in different societal contexts. So, contrary to the list provided by Jones (2001), the researcher chooses not to prescribe what the key components are that comprise HRD because these components will vary between organizations and countries and within countries. However, as stated in Jones (2001:72), HRD literature does repeatedly inform the elements of HRD, and these are documented below solely for the purpose of eliciting discussion:

1. definition of HRD practitioner competencies
2. career development
3. succession planning
4. performance management
5. training needs analysis
6. design of learning interventions
7. delivery of learning interventions
8. evaluation of learning interventions
9. values and ethics in HRD.

Pathway 6: The future sustainability and longevity of HRD

The sixth pathway requires consideration of the factors which will contribute to the prolonged existence of HRD. The overarching purpose of HRD in South Africa is to enhance the quality of life of South Africans, now and in the future, through applying sound practices. Therefore, HRD scholars and practitioners need to preserve HRD and ensure its sustainability by identifying the challenges that it faces and developing practices that will enable its survival.

FIGURE 24f: Pathway 6: The future sustainability and longevity of HRD



Two current challenges are universal, namely the challenge of technology and the globalization of the world economy with the pressure it places on organizations and countries. HRD professionals should be knowledgeable about the global economy and the underlying philosophical struggle beneath a free market economy (Swanson and Holton III, 2001). Complex challenges for the global economy are characterized by the globalization of economic activity, the fragmentation of markets, paradigm shifts in production relations, and massive leaps in technological infrastructure (Freeman *et al.*, 1993; Hammel and Sampler, 1998, cited in McCracken and Wallace, 2000). In order to deal with such global shifts, organizational theorists and practitioners agree that organizations must understand the vital role which learning and development will play in ensuring their survival (Salamon and Butler, 1990, cited in McCracken and Wallace, 2000). The fundamental element of this will be the requirement of organizations to ensure that any investment which is made in human capital with the promotion of HRD strategy is clearly linked to the wider corporate strategy.

South African organizations, most of them in emerging markets, should heighten their awareness of these challenges by incorporating the local social, political, economic and environmental issues into their HRD decision-making processes. The benefit of this integration is invaluable.

In addition, the impact of technology on HRD thoughts and practices is worth considering. Each organization and practitioner should consider the impact that the application of technology will have on their personal and organizational objectives. As a process, technology is a “sociotechnical means of defining and solving problems” (Swanson and Holton III, 2001:382) and its impact on organizations is to enable them realize strategic objectives in a better, faster, and cheaper way. The implications for the nature of human interaction and development is extensive, hence the challenge for sustainability.

While considering the challenges will encourage the emergence of thoughts and practices on sustaining HRD, it is worthwhile considering what could possibly underpin such a maintenance campaign. Organizations in South Africa need to have the ability to manage the paradox of developing people while nurturing expectations of addressing inequality and redistribution of wealth. The researcher believes that central to this ability lie the basic organizational values of integrity and meaning, which are not governed by compliance with legislation, but by principle. At the heart of living organizational values is courage, which is the domain of the will that involves the capacity to make things happen (Koestenbaum, 2002). The philosophical roots of this dimension lie in fully understanding the centrality of free will in HRD issues, and the courage to do this entails both advocacy (the ability to take a stand) and the internalization of personal responsibility and accountability (Koestenbaum, 2002).

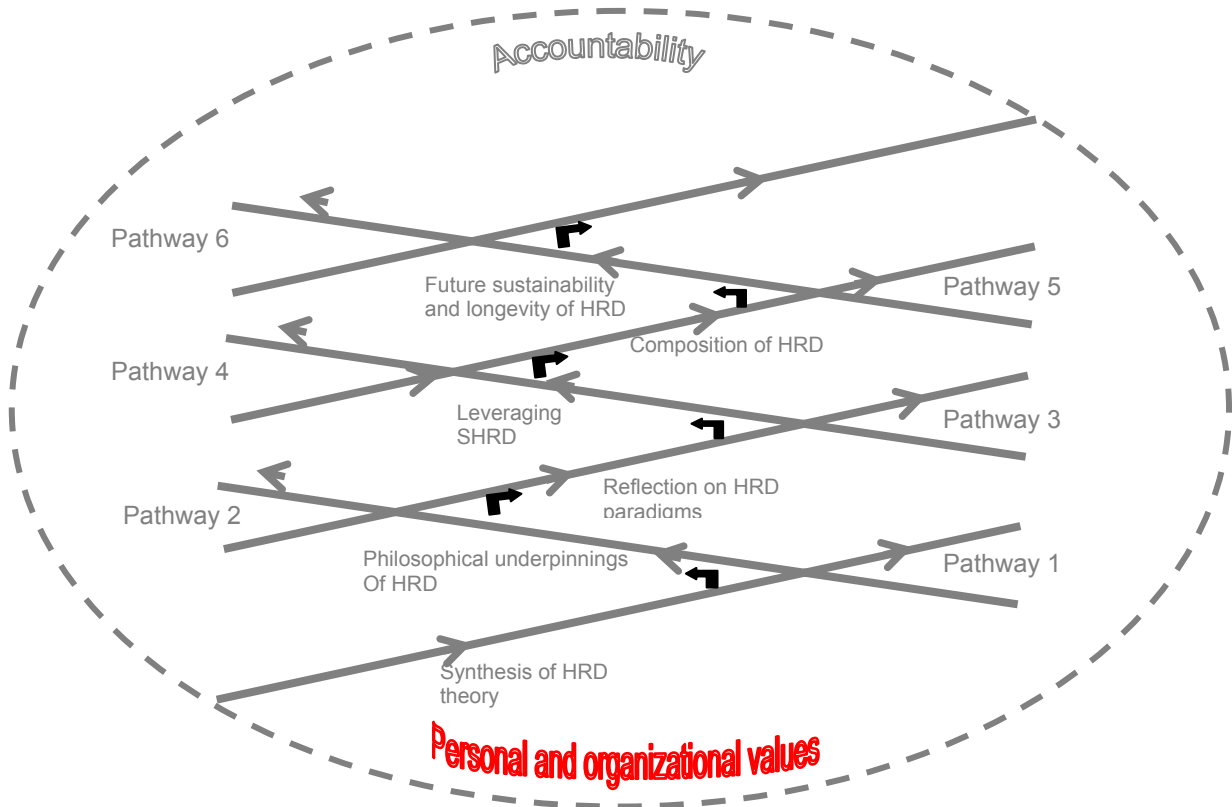
The above pathways can only flourish in an environment that is governed by sound personal and organizational values within a climate of accountability.

Values

It is often assumed that learning is a virtuous activity, and that organizations pursuing interventions designed to enhance learning must be well-intentioned towards their employees (Woodall and Douglas, 1999:1023). Despite this assumption, it is critical that the six pathways must be endorsed by a rigorous identification and

practice of personal and organizational values, which will ensure the integrity of HRD and the organization.

FIGURE 24g: Values



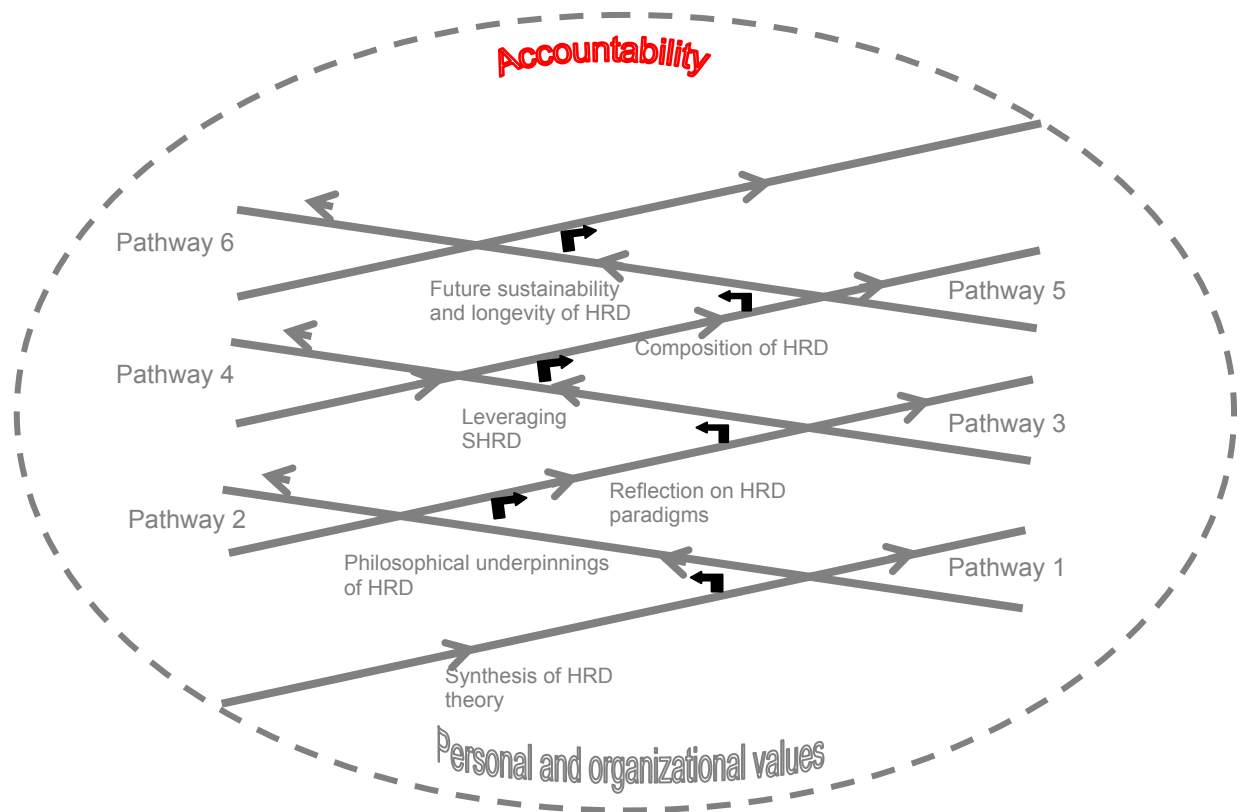
Thus, the extent to which HRD professionals blatantly endorse and exemplify merits in their relations with mercantile stakeholders, and the extent to which they also display an awareness of management issues around individual psychological safety, are critically imperative reflections for ethical HRD. The ethical issue does not predominantly lie with performance, but rather with the dissemination of profit realized from performance. The ethical distribution amongst contributors and stakeholders is the gremlin behind most of the poignantly charged performance debates in HRD. Swanson and Holton III (2001) recommend that these ethical issues should be dealt with candidly, and distinctly separated from the pursuit of performance. As previously alluded to, HRD professionals have many ethical frameworks at their disposal, all of which can lead to a different interpretation of what honourable and decent HRD practice is. South Africa is also supported by a series of legislative codes of conduct

which underpin the implementation of HRD strategies, policies, and processes. The context alluded to in Chapters 3, 4 and 5 leads the researcher to believe that the establishment, execution, and measuring of sound organizational values is more appropriate for the South African HRD context than the ethical rug presented by Swanson and Holton III (2001). Values should include, but are not limited to, integrity, transparency, mutual trust, and respect for people. In addition, organisations in South Africa need to have the ability to manage the paradox of developing people while nurturing expectations of eradicating inequality and redistributing wealth. As previously mentioned, the researcher believes that central to this ability lie the basic organizational values of integrity and meaning, which are not governed by compliance with legislation, but by principle. At the heart of living organizational values is courage, which is the domain of the will that involves the capacity to make things happen (Koestenbaum, 2002). The philosophical roots of this dimension lie in fully understanding the centrality of free will in HRD issues, and the courage to do this entails both advocacy (the ability to take a stand) and the internalization of personal responsibility and accountability (Koestenbaum, 2002). Therefore, the nature and importance of HRD should be understood and practised in an environment which fosters living and embracing sound personal and organizational values.

Accountability

The significance of economic value, bottom-line impact, and net benefit are frequently being called upon by management to support existing business case methodology and to synthesize cost-versus-benefits projections (ROI Institute, 2004). Increasing research evidence indicates that HRD practices contribute significantly to organizational outcomes.

FIGURE 24h: Accountability



Unfortunately, less than one third of HRD interventions are evaluated in a way that measures change in organizational goals or profitability (Swanson and Holton III, 2001). HRD scholars and practitioners need to include methods which reflect accountability in all HRD interventions. The Kirkpatrick model of evaluation demonstrated in Table 13 shows various levels of evaluation as a chain of impact which provides evaluative feedback about any HRD intervention. The further along the chain the information is, the more removed it becomes from the HRD experience and the more difficult it is to obtain. However, coupled with that difficulty is an opportunity to show bottom-line results. Each step on the chain of impact moves one closer to proving that the HRD intervention is making a real impact on the organization. As HR secures a strategic position within business, this increased status brings with it increased accountability. Therefore, it is not a matter of whether HRD should be held accountable, but rather how this should be done (Swanson and Holton III, 2001). HRD practitioners and scholars should proactively define approaches to accountability before being asked to do so by fellow strategic partners

in the organization. Accountability is healthy, and adds tremendous value by compelling HRD practitioners to reassess their practices, and promoting coherence about how the discipline should learn to direct its resources. It is imperative that any HRD practitioner, while attempting to understand the nature and importance of HRD, includes in this understanding a comprehension of why and how accountability can mature the profession. For example, any HRD expenditure incurred as a result of HRD interventions should be viewed as an investment and not a cost, thereby creating an environment of accountability for HRD thoughts and practices.

Furthermore, based on extensive business exposure at work, the researcher believes that all HRD practitioners and scholars should acquire the skill to implement the ROI Methodology of Jack Phillips (2005). The ROI Methodology is the best used international process available to provide the employer with the evidence and assurance about employee capability in measurement and evaluation, including return on investment (ROI Institute, 2004:7).

The most significant challenge facing HRD practitioners is to ensure that all HRD activity meets the organizational requirements for strategic functioning, in order to centralize it in organizational life (Heraty and Morley, 1997). A strategic approach to the transfer of learning raises critical and frequently situationally dependent questions regarding roles, responsibility, accountability, performance management, and reward systems for training. The tendency to emphasize quantity of training, that is, the number of employees trained, and training expenditure, rather than the effectiveness of training and the transfer of learning back on-the-job, remains challenging.

The presentation of results above now requires an explanation of the significance of each pathway for the purpose of the research, as well as the provision of reasonable conclusions which were drawn to show the rigour of the interpretation of findings and the benefit for sequential use of the pathways. The primary objective of this study was to generate pathways to understanding HRD by developing a tool which enables and enhances a shared and common understanding of HRD in South Africa by aggregating and articulating relevant international thoughts and practices of HRD. Table 27 illustrates this significance and rigour.

TABLE 27: Significance of components and reasonable conclusions of significance

Components of Model	Significance of component and reasonable conclusion of significance
Pathway 1: Synthesis of HRD Theory	<p>A sound theoretical foundation initiates an explanation of the birth of HRD and thus provides an introductory context for HRD. Fundamentally theory:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enables a <i>deep</i> understanding of HRD, facilitates continuity and provides direction • Makes explicit all informed, transferable knowledge of HRD • Encourages scholars and practitioners to explore relevant theories unique to their organizational and national context • Reduces the tension that exists between theory and practice <p>The above contributions will ultimately elicit confidence in the model because the model is created from a scholarly foundation.</p>
Pathway 2: Philosophical underpinnings of HRD	<p>Cavalier (1990:2) states that philosophy is the "love of wisdom". It makes sense that this pathway follows on from the engagement with HRD knowledge that takes place in Pathway 1. Philosophy is a system of thought and action which includes a process of disciplined reflection; it helps us to develop skills to think critically about things concerning the nature of the world, justifications of beliefs, and the conduct of life, and engages us in the interpretation of texts and the criticisms of common wisdoms that are often taken for granted. Furthermore, it offers a context in which to view current issues being dealt with in HRD. Therefore, how South African scholars and practitioners see HRD (ontology), how they think about HRD (epistemology), and how they should act in HRD research and practice (axiology), together form a guiding context for a congruent system of thought and practice in HRD. An exploration into the ontology and epistemology of an organisation's HRD strategy will shape thought and practice of HRD in that organisation and highlight any axiological malfunction which may exist.</p>
Pathway 3: Reflection on HRD paradigms	<p>Now that a scholar or practitioner understands various theories and how they resonate with each other and has a solid understanding of their philosophical meaning within a specific context, he/she is better able to explore the differing views (paradigms) in which this theory and philosophy resides. These views define the goals and values of HRD and provide guidelines for HRD practice. It is only this disciplined reflection on paradigms that can make possible the development and articulation of a personal belief system which ultimately guides HRD thoughts and practice.</p>
Pathway 4: Leveraging SHRD	<p>SHRD is a "coherent, vertically aligned and horizontally integrated set of learning and development activities" which contribute to the achievement of strategic goals (Garavan, 2007:25). This implies the creation of a learning culture within which a range of training, development and learning strategies respond to corporate strategy and also help to shape and influence it. In addition, it is the reciprocal, mutually enhancing nature of the relationships between HRD and corporate strategy which lies at the heart of SHRD and the development of a learning culture. Ulrich (1997:10) states that the "DNA of competitiveness" is how people act in an</p>

	organization, and HRD practitioners and scholars can act most appropriately only if coupled with the solid theoretical, philosophical and paradigmatic foundation obtained in the previous three pathways; then only are they adequately equipped with tools that will contribute to a holistic and lasting competitive advantage for any organization.
Pathway 5: Composition of HRD	There are as many definitions of HRD as there are communities and stakeholders that it serves. Most HRD practitioners spend quite a bit of time debating which elements comprise HRD. What makes such research valuable is the relevance and uniqueness of the selected components in organisational and national context. How HRD is defined and what it comprises should thus be flexible enough to serve as a lens through which HRD can be studied, and that also provides a window into a particular component of HRD. Laid one on top of the other, each of these lenses in turn will cumulatively provide a richer, fuller and more multidimensional picture of HRD in practice and in different societal contexts. Only once an organization has a clearly defined corporate strategy with vertically aligned and horizontally integrated learning and development activities, is it possible to articulate the elements which comprise HRD for that organizational and national context.
Pathway 6: Future sustainability and longevity of HRD	What is the point of contributing to any discipline and spending years articulating its value and yet having no intention of shaping and influencing its longevity? The sustainability of HRD needs to be ensured in order that the quality of life in SA can be enhanced. As suggested by McLean (2001), we can consider the future to be <i>waiting for us</i> and, while we cannot fully know what the future holds, we can engage in the key task of prediction. Alternatively, we can consider the future to be <i>waiting to be created</i> and the key task to be contributing to constructing the future to reflect our will. The researcher supports McLean (2001) and argues that we have to hold both to be true, and to use the ambiguity to shape and influence <i>our</i> , rather than <i>the</i> future. This pathway closes the circle on all the other pathways and brings them together because it is only through a constant reflection on a comprehensive composition of the theory, philosophy, paradigms, strategic direction and the elements of HRD that its sustainability and longevity has some guarantee.
The above pathways can only flourish in an environment that is driven by sound values within a climate of accountability.	
Values	Longevity thrives in environments which are honourable and decent. In SA we struggle to manage the paradox of developing people while nurturing expectations of eradicating inequality and redistributing wealth. Central to this ability lie the basic organizational values of integrity and meaning, which are not governed by compliance with legislation, but by principle. At the heart of living organizational values is courage, which is the domain of the will that involves the capacity to make things happen (Koestenbaum, 2002). The philosophical roots of this dimension lie in fully understanding the centrality of free will in HRD issues, and the courage to do this entails both advocacy (the ability to take a stand) and the internalization of personal responsibility and accountability (Koestenbaum, 2002). Therefore, the nature and importance of HRD should be understood and practised in an environment which fosters living and embracing sound personal and organizational values. Only sound values can secure the integrity of HRD and result in honourable and decent HRD practices.
Accountability	Living and embracing HRD thoughts and practices is meaningless unless it takes place within a framework of

	<p>accountability. Only then will HRD's contribution to the country, organisations and individuals have longevity and credibility. It is not a question of <i>whether</i> HRD will be held accountable in business any more, but rather a case of <i>how</i> it can be held accountable (Swanson, 2001). Practising and thinking about HRD with due consideration to accountability force scholars and practitioners to evaluate their practices and push the discipline to demonstrate behaviour that resonates with its philosophy of helping people to be all that they were meant to be, building successful organizations, and contributing to the economic prosperity of the country.</p>
<p>The research intention is the aggregation of fragmented concepts of HRD into social constructs that can resonate with HRD scholars and practitioners. Each of the pathways above is a knowledge claim, a sociological code which confirms and assimilates the scholarly knowledge of the researcher and the knowledge that exists about the discipline of HRD. These eight social constructs have much analytical utility because they have been clearly and systematically constructed, and add more sociological meaning because they go beyond local meaning to broader social science concerns. When applied sequentially, they provide systematic depth and comprehension of HRD from a macro to a micro perspective. How? The theory of HRD needs to be first understood and this understanding serves as a solid foundation to initiate HRD thoughts and practices (Pathway 1). Only by educating ourselves about that which exists will we give ourselves a point of departure and an opportunity to have social constructs to engage with and think about critically and with disciplined reflection (Pathway 2). Once these thoughts are articulated, we will be better able to establish a personal belief system (Pathway 3) from which we can contribute to the strategic disposition of HRD in the country and the organization in which we work (Pathway 4). We can then unpack the elements of our national and organizational context (Pathway 5) and think and practise in ways which will promote the sustainability of HRD (Pathway 6). All the while, like a golden thread through the above process, we should engage in thoughts and practices which are decent and fit for humanity (Values) and for which we accept full responsibility (Accountability). As mentioned above, for a scholar or practitioner who is new to the HRD field, it is advisable to progress through the pathways sequentially. This facilitates a movement in thought from a macro perspective about HRD to a micro perspective. Generally, most scholars and practitioners seem to spend too much time in the fifth pathway, which is debating whether a construct is really an element of HRD. While this is not wrong, it does stifle the value that can be achieved by acquiring a more holistic and balanced perspective of HRD.</p>	

In addition to the justification provided above, it is reasonable to state at this stage that in the same vein as the components of the tool are a knowledge claim, so too can the model be proposed as a theory. This will then complete the alignment of the model with the stated research objective and also with the theory-building social constructionist research strategy employed. Therefore, like concepts, theories may be classified by their levels of abstraction along a continuum from grand theories, through mid-range theories to local theories. This tool will be positioned along this continuum as it represents an important first step towards theorizing HRD in the national context of South Africa. Firstly, this tool can be classified as a “local theory” (Guba and Lincoln, 1985), as it is an aggregate and systematization of fragmented and isolated local and international configurational descriptions, explanations and understandings of HRD, that without the intervention of the researcher, would have remained implicit. Guba and Lincoln (1985) describe a “grand theory” as the broadest in scope compared to local and mid-range theories, and the most abstract of the three. For a theory to be useful it has to be generalized to other contexts, and this tool provides an opportunity to be used to initiate an improved understanding of HRD in other national and international contexts. Furthermore, this grand theory provides the foundation for mid-range theory, which in this case, is predominantly the theory and tool developed. Supporting Merton (1968) cited in Guba and Lincoln (1985), this mid-range theory goes a long way to solving the research problem. Though moderately abstract and inclusive, it is composed of concepts and propositions that are measurable. It thus balances the need for precision with the need to be sufficiently abstract. Upon commencement of this research, like branches of a plant that grows out of control, various international mid-range theories were sprouting in all directions, leading to fragmentation of the knowledge base of the discipline of HRD in South Africa. This newly developed mid-range theory is providing scholars and practitioners with the best of both worlds and is thus inextricably linked to research and practice. This triad of research to theory to practice helps to close both the theory to practice and the research to practice

divides and provides knowledge which is more readily applicable in academia and in organizations.

Tool Utility Process

In order to demonstrate the utility of the tool, the researcher suggests that it be implemented as a training intervention. By converting the tool into a training intervention, the researcher supports Turnbull's (2002:221) appeal to scholars to bridge the divide that exists between theory and practice. The facilitator's guide for the delivery of the intervention is illustrated as Appendix C and will serve to integrate the theoretical contribution into the practice of HRD.

Conclusion

As HRD scholars and practitioners become familiar with each HRD pathway, they will find themselves thinking about HRD from a fresh perspective. Of greater significance is that this new perspective provides them with the insights necessary to keep their HRD practices constantly rejuvenated. Not only will it help them to structure a process to develop their HRD capability at all pathway levels of understanding, but it will also enable the HRD community to have a common and shared understanding of HRD. Irrespective of which national or organizational changes occur, the model is timeless because it is permeable and allows for pathways to be added or removed, depending on these contexts. This model is a flexible one that organizations can adapt to suit their own situations and national environments. It is also a model that has been designed with evolving HRD issues in mind. In order to use the HRD pathway approach effectively, practitioners and scholars need to challenge traditional notions of HRD. One cannot grow as an HRD professional unless one has an accurate understanding of what HRD is.

The multi-level, multidimensional concept of HRD is a reality of modern business life. Once one starts developing HRD practitioners with this new reality in mind, it will be much easier to make this model work for practitioners and scholars and their organizations. Moving through these pathways builds functional and behavioural competence about HRD as HRD practitioners and scholars enable themselves to think holistically. The primary benefit of this tool is that it enables an

understanding of the nature and importance of HRD and translates this understanding into the benefit of a shared and common organizational and national understanding of this discipline.

As suggested by McKinsey and Co (2001:2), there is a global “war for talent” occurring right now, which will become more intense in the future. Furthermore, in today’s economy, the calibre of an organization’s HR capability increasingly contributes to the organization’s success in the marketplace. An improved execution of HRD imperatives is a major drive of value creation and improved financial performance. The researcher believes that this tool will play a role in winning this “war” in that it can be used to think about, talk about, and decide on SHRD interventions to build HR capability, and position HRD as a catalyst in securing HR strategic business-partner status in an increasingly complex and technologically networked global business world.

Most organizations expect HR to be accountable, but no-one tells HR practitioners how to become accountable. HRD thoughts and practices are lumped together and consist of as many understandings as the number of people involved. The above tool addresses this issue in two ways.

1. It provides common thought processes by establishing a common language and process for understanding the nature and importance of HRD (in vivo codes).
2. It builds an all-encompassing framework of HRD constructs (sociological codes).

This model will remain viable because its message is long-lasting in that HRD entails a series of pathways that are embedded in organizational and personal values and accountability for HRD. This tool is a vibrant in vivo code for HRD, providing an opportunity to understand the meaning of HRD with an analytical utility that is built on sound HRD social constructs. With these principles in mind, and this tool at its disposal, any organization can enhance and increase the longevity of its HRD capability now and in the future.

CHAPTER 7

SYNOPSIS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Introduction

The comprehensive analysis of the nature and importance of HRD within the South African context has provided significant insights into both the discipline of HRD itself and greater understanding of how organizations can better utilize their human resources to enable and sustain competitive advantage. Upfront it should be said that the literary works of leading international and local HRD scholars and practitioners are populated with multi-faceted and different interpretations of the nature of HRD. This makes any research about HRD as a strategic tool for competitive advantage particularly challenging, and requires researchers to continually define their interpretation of HRD, as has been done in this research. Through the literature study, informal reviews and document analysis, a foundation for the research was established, which resulted in a tool that should enable and enhance a common understanding of HRD, and by so doing, facilitate an improvement in HRD thought and practice in South Africa.

This chapter provides a synopsis of the research, and highlights the contribution of this study and conclusions that have been reached with respect to the research problem. The limitations of the study as well as recommendations for future research are presented.

Brief Synopsis of the Research

This study was directed towards articulating the nature and importance of HRD within the SA context and aggregating this understanding into a tool which will enable HRD practitioners and scholars to have a common understanding of HRD, with the overarching intention to facilitate the improvement of HRD thoughts and practices in this country. A qualitative, interpretive social constructionist research strategy was used. The research strategy was executed in an iterative, cyclical manner, using a theoretical sampling method directed by the definitive principles of cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality. Text which met these criteria was then analyzed within a coding

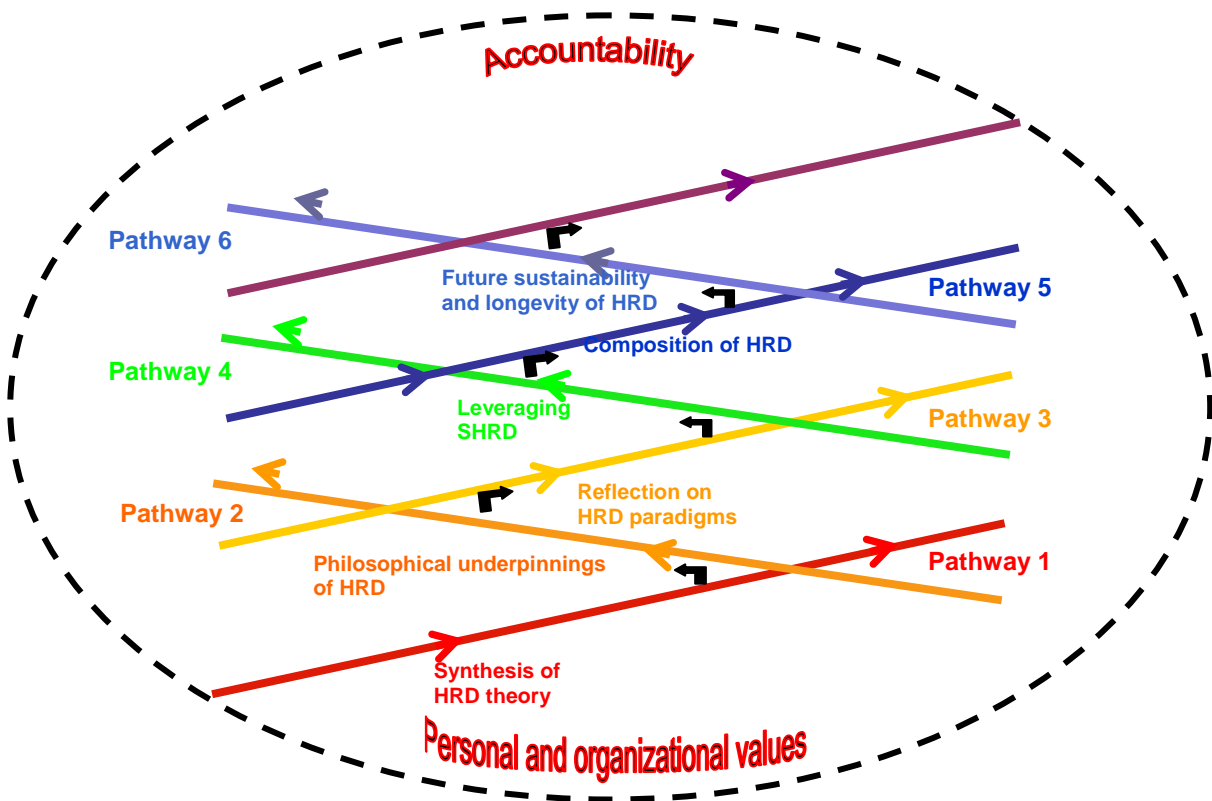
paradigm that complied with understanding the background of the text in relation to the criteria and context of the:

- Conditions
- Interaction amongst the actors
- Strategies and tactics
- Consequences

within which the text resided.

Thereafter open, axial and selective coding was executed in a disciplined manner and verified through informal reviews. This process culminated in the development of a tool consisting of six pathways to understanding the nature and importance of HRD, and which is illustrated below.

FIGURE 25: Pathways to understanding HRD



The salient contributions of this research are embedded in the findings discussed in Chapter 6 and will therefore not be repeated with the same detail. The contributions to the discipline of HRD are summarized as follows.

1. This study undertook pioneering work in that it consolidated existing international and local knowledge of HRD, interpreted its relevance to the South African context, and aggregated these into a theoretical model which would facilitate the understanding of HRD and ultimately improve its practice. This is the first study that has been directed at developing a tool which could facilitate an understanding of the nature and importance of HRD in South Africa.
2. It also represents an important first step towards theorizing HRD in the national context of South Africa. It thus makes an important link with and resonates with the construct of NHRD the aim of which it is to help scholars and practitioners view HRD as national policy around the world. From an international scholarly perspective, there have been few publications focusing on NHRD; this study has made a significant in-depth contribution to this challenging arena and will thus also serve to improve the development and implementation of NHRD throughout the world.
3. The study also resulted in the development of a process by means of which to execute a qualitative, interpretive, theory-building social constructionist research strategy (see Figure 1 and Appendix B). In addition, the process highlights current and relevant research frameworks and problems within the field of HRD.
4. Another important contribution of this study is that it is a relevant, contemporary and comprehensive overview synthesis of international literature (SA, UK, USA) core to the knowledge base of HRD. It is presented as a critical analysis and is thus a useful resource for both local and international HRD scholars and practitioners. Internationally, it has added a theory to the discipline of HRD, with a methodology for utilizing the tool in practice that further initiates opportunities for future research to enhance the profession even further.

5. This study has also resulted in an internationally transferable concise description of HRD in South Africa, one that encapsulates the phenomenon represented in the tool.

Therefore, the researcher defines HRD as:

A process for developing and unleashing the potential of humanity through an integrated understanding of national contextual policy and philosophy, and the recognition of the paradigmatic axioms in which they occur, thus ensuring strategic alignment of organizational development and personal training and development initiatives embarked upon within a values-driven framework and a climate of accountability for the purpose of durable improved performance.

6. This study has resulted in an exploratory model of HRD in SA and represents the first and fourth phases of theory-building (Lynham, 2002) which suggest that there is more than a sequential relationship between the pathways presented in the model. This provides an opportunity for a future empirical research study using a methodology that both the HRD and non-HRD fraternity are asking for.
7. This work represents theorizing from a phenomenological perspective of social construction and interpretive enquiry, and uses a contextualized theory-to-practice strategy to do so, thus informing theorizing and theory construction in HRD.
8. As indicated in Chapter 6, it was possible to verify previous research conducted by Jones (2001) pertaining to the composition of HRD, thereby contributing to the discipline of HRD.
9. The development of a Facilitator's Guide for a one-day HRD intervention is another useful contribution of this study. This intervention provides an opportunity to bridge the divide which exists between HRD theory and practice by articulating the utility of the theoretical tool, which is the product of this research.

Facilitating an Understanding of HRD

The six pathways to understanding HRD, as identified in the study, must be implemented in an integrated manner. Cohesion between the different pathways can best be obtained by the use of HR forums and policies that ensure that common values and objectives are reached. HRD thoughts and practices are complex if one considers the context of the socio-economic-political environments in which they reside. Therefore, HRD scholars and practitioners need to become comfortable spending time together, sharing ideas and different perspectives between and within organizations, within a country and also internationally. The tool developed in this study serves as a catalyst for this process.

HRD is an applied discipline, and entrenched therein lie HRD's most beneficial strengths and its most haunting threat. The field is driven by its practice, which is manifested in the HRD interventions that are being implemented throughout organizations today. However, practice has remained the driver, even as HRD's theory-base increases. Today, practice is increasingly criticized for not using theory to improve its effectiveness, and as a result, for producing shoddy interventions, fads, and unsubstantiated pseudotheories (Swanson, 2001). On the other hand, practitioners continue to criticise scholars for being disconnected from their challenges, slow in producing theory, and misdirected in the issues they address. Research and practice must collaborate and become integrated to ensure a stronger foundation on which the field can strengthen and be more successful in achieving its goals. Carr and Kemmis (1986:34, in Ruona, 1999b:888) urge HRD scholars and practitioners to take a paxiological view of theory and practice. This means that theory does not exist only to inform practice, but that theory and practice are dialectically related. They further add that HRD theory and practice are to be "understood as mutually constitutive, as in a process of interaction which is a continual reconstruction of thought and action" (Carr and Kemmis, 1986:34, in Ruona, 1999b:888). A critical step in fostering this view in HRD scholars and practitioners is for both parties to make a concerted effort to collaborate on their understanding of theory on the one hand, and its utility in practice on the other. As the heart and brain need the body in order to implement the ideas they generate, so,

too, does the HRD profession need a core set of skills and abilities in order to put the theories and concepts into practice, which implies a strong collaboration and working partnership between HRD theory and practice.

This research thus links and resonates with the points mentioned above, particularly with the social construct of NHRD. It theorizes and operationalizes NHRD within the specific SA context in a way that synthesizes and integrates major international perspectives and scholarship into the local SA context. It also illustrates theorizing in HRD from a practitioner perspective, an activity seldom demonstrated in the field, yet constantly called for by HRD academics and HRD practitioners. The scholarly understanding and application of the model are intellectual activities and learning experiences which will bring about growth in context-specific HRD and ultimately enhance national, economic, cultural and social development in SA.

The results obtained in the study have expanded our understanding of HRD and provide a credible framework in which to do so. Prior research in SA provided insight into HRD as a one-dimensional construct (Jones, 2001) whereas this research presents a comprehensive six-dimensional social construct within a framework of two sociological codes, which promotes the credibility and longevity of HRD. The present study is a first attempt at demonstrating how constructs can help to build theory.

The logic of the model is ontologically, epistemologically and methodologically congruent with the paradigm of enquiry in which it is located, and is a credible example of how to eliminate insularity, both geographically and conceptually, in HRD research. In addition, it highlights a distinct connection between constructs and the national context in which they reside.

Limitations of the Study and Recommendations for Future Research

Although the study has attempted to make a significant contribution to the body of knowledge on HRD in South Africa, certain areas still need to be explored. Based on the purpose of this research, the following limitations and recommendations are put forward for consideration in future research on the nature and importance of HRD in South Africa.

1. HRD plays an important role in national, organizational and individual growth. There is a great interest in knowing more about HRD, opportunities exist for theory-building at a national and international level of collaboration. (Please see points 4 and 6 above.)
2. Research does not have to be driven by practice, but collaboration between research and practice needs to become more visible.
3. Producing research outcomes of relevance and interest to scholars and practitioners will build allies in raising the status and standing of HRD research and theory-building.
4. A comprehensive population that constitutes NQF stakeholders and partners, delineated per category and strata was made available by SAQA in 2005. While this study is a step in providing insight into understanding the nature and importance of HRD in South Africa, future research could utilize the suggested quota of relevant categories and strata of NQF stakeholders and NQF partners which is now available from SAQA (2005). The table given below is probably the most useful tool for any future research to be conducted about this topic in South Africa.

TABLE 28: Quotas for cycle 2 of the NQF impact study

CATEGORY	STRATA	SUGGESTED QUOTA	ACTUAL QUOTA
Service Providers	GET Band (including ABET and secondary schools)	100	143
	FET Band	50	79
	HET Band	40	49
Businesses	Large	50	71
	SMME	50	39
Organized labour	Education	10	10
	Other	30	32
Quality	ETQAs	60	54

assurance bodies	Professional bodies	18	32
Standards setting bodies	NSBs	36	32
	SGBs	30	38
Government departments	DoE	10	26
	DoL	10	18
Subtotals		494	623

Source: SAQA (2005:17)

Owing to the large population of each category and stratum above, future research could entail an empirical study using the suggested quota by SAQA and purposive quota sampling principles, to empirically confirm the findings of this research. Alternatively, a comparative study could be embarked upon between categories or between strata within specific categories. Another avenue of research could be a specific investigation of the socio-economic-political environment, in order to explore the dynamics of how these factors impact on the nature and importance of HRD. Organizations generally confine the explorations of their environment to becoming better competitors. Yet in emerging economies, where business transitions are rapid, technological transitions are not incremental, but take place in giant leaps (April *et al.*, 2004); social transformation is imperative, and economic transitions are very fluid. External environments and social legitimacy are as important as internal environments. The example in South Africa is the multiple political, social, and economic policies and directives designed to correct the imbalances created by the apartheid regime, and their impact on various industry sectors. Such research would require extensive evidence-gathering among the various NQF stakeholders and partners in South Africa as illustrated in the table above, and would most probably require significant funding and be conducted by more than one individual.

5. As this research presents a model for the South African context, future research outside of South Africa should confirm to what extent this tool could serve to

facilitate an understanding of HRD within another national context. While the objective of this contribution was met, in that a more robust understanding of the nature and importance of HRD was created, the applicability and transferability beyond the scope of this research must be made with caution. As pointed out by Guba and Lincoln (1985), the success thereof rests more with the investigator who makes the transfer than with the original researcher. Although the analysis of evidence was vigorous and was exercised with care, the findings were still based upon, and limited by, the researcher's ability to interpret the evidence. To support this interpretation, the discipline of cross-confirmation of key pieces of significant evidence was maintained.

6. To close the gap between theory and practice, future research could deliver the HRD intervention to HRD practitioners as presented in Appendix C, and also conduct a Level 1 evaluation which measures the participants' satisfaction with this intervention, after the delivery of this intervention. The results could be used to amend and improve the intervention for other HRD practitioners and scholars.
7. Future research on HRD could adopt a more longitudinal approach, tracing the nature of HRD over time, and investigating those organizations that have failed to understand the nature of HRD.
8. The paradigmatic axioms that underpin any study play a significant role in the execution of the study. It is critical that these paradigms are clearly understood from the beginning, so that they do not detract from the purpose of the research. The researcher found it challenging to consistently remain focused on the integrated learning and performance paradigmatic approach used.

The above suggestions, which are in fact South African-contextual realities, together with a national need for economic, social and cultural growth and development, will be instrumental in shaping HRD in South Africa. It will also be important in defining the strategic framework and construct of NHRD in this context. The South African context is complemented by a national framework of driving policy and legislation. As a result of the country's history, HRD in South Africa must be nationally framed, include learning and performance, and bridge multiple-

performance boundaries (Erasmus and Van Dyk, 2003). It also needs to pursue individual, organizational, community, and national capacity-building and competence-based goals of competitiveness, increased productivity and performance and social equity and growth (Haasbroek, 2002; Mani, 2001). This chapter provides insight into how this research has contributed to NHRD in South Africa.

Conclusion

This research emphasizes that HRD constitutes the backbone of positioning human resources as a strategic business partner. In this study there are significant insights for both HRD scholars and practitioners. The research has demonstrated that the socio-economic-political context in which HRD resides is strategically important. HRD is sometimes regarded with some hostility by competitors because of its inherent combinative complexity, yet it is difficult to deliberately copy it for precisely the same reason. For HRD scholars and practitioners, this research has given insight on how to understand their profession within this complexity, so that their organizations are encouraged to thrive, without having to unravel and codify the myriad causal effects at play in the dynamics of the organization and the country at large.

Furthermore, the research has shown the need for HRD scholars and practitioners to link HRD thoughts and practices to business strategy. The framework presented in this research establishes and clarifies the link with business and its strategy, and should aid practitioners in thinking systemically. In addition, the research has made explicit the need for organizations, and the people in them, to continuously scan the business, human, and technological landscapes, in order to provide the necessary feedback information and intelligence, so that business units can be encouraged to take a longer-term view, and in response identify and share resources of common value, build a collaborative understanding of HRD, and develop methods of spreading knowledge about the implications and value of HRD across the organization and throughout the country. The research has highlighted the need for practitioners to focus their energies and effort on all of the catalytic

aspects of organizational life namely, uniqueness, social complexity, knowledge, and path dependency, in order to sustain competitive advantage in the global economy.

More importantly, this research has shown the invaluable contribution that theory can make to the worlds of academia and business. The theory-building process developed transcends the utility of the model in practice because, if the model was not developed with academic rigour and sound provisions of justification for the methodology employed, the model itself would have no value to the academic fraternity or business. The quickest way to subtract value from an HRD model is to develop it outside of any academic and theoretical context. Any HRD model used in practice should originate from a comprehensive consideration of scholarly works, in order to ensure a longevity of its use and a clear line of sight of its overall alignment with business strategy.

In summary, if this research opens the door wider for other HRD scholars and practitioners to enter the room of contributing to the clarification of HRD thought and practice, and improving its scholarly value and utility in a global, competitive world, it will have served a productive purpose.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Impact indicators for NQF longitudinal study

TABLE 29: Impact indicators for NQF longitudinal study

IMPACT INDICATOR		DEFINITION
Set 1: The extent to which qualifications address the education and training needs of learners and South African society		
1	Number of qualifications	The number of NQF registered qualifications
2	Effectiveness of qualifications design	The contribution that qualifications design makes to ease of access, mobility and progression of learners
3	Portability of qualifications	The extent to which qualifications facilitate the mobility of learners horizontally, diagonally and vertically
4	Relevance of qualifications	The relevance of qualifications in relation to the needs of workplace, industry and society at large including non-traditional qualifications (qualifications offered in new and emerging fields of learning)
5	Qualifications uptake and achievement	The extent to which NQF-registered qualifications are offered and the extent of achievement of each such qualification by learners
6	Integrative approach	The extent to which qualifications promote an integrative approach to education and training, and the nature of such qualifications
Set 2: the extent to which the delivery of learning programmes addresses the education and training needs of learners and the South African society		
7	Equity of access	The ease of entry and access of traditional and non-traditional learners to education and training, including admission requirements and the recognition of prior learning
8	Redress of practices	The extent to which redress of practices, including the recognition of prior learning (RPL), facilitate the award of credits and/or access of learners to learning programmes
9	Nature of learning programmes	The expansion of learning opportunities and the impacts of learning programmes, including an outcomes-based approach to curriculum development and learning and teaching
10	Quality of learning and teaching	The extent to which learning and teaching practices are responsive to the needs of learners through improved teaching practices
11	Assessment practices	The fairness, validity, reliability and practicability of the assessment of learning
12	Career and learning paths	The extent to which learning programmes support and enhance career and learning pathing

Set 3: The extent to which quality assurance arrangements enhance the effectiveness of education and training		
13	Number of registered assessors and moderators	The number of skilled assessors and moderators required to support an effective education and training system
14	Number of accredited providers	The number of education and training providers who meet the quality requirements of the system
15	Quality-assurance practices	The extent to which quality-assurance practices enhance the quality of learning, teaching and assessment
Set 4: The extent to which the NQF has had a wider social, economic and political impact in building a lifelong learning culture		
16	Organizational, economic and societal benefits	The extent to which learner-centredness is embedded in organizational, economic and social environments in order to build a lifelong learning culture that empowers individuals and communities
17	Contribution to other national strategies	The extent to which the implementation of the NQF supports and contributes to the achievement of national strategies such as Human Resource Development (HRD) and National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS)

Source: SAQA (2005:3-4)

Appendix B: Theory-building process using theoretical sampling and content analysis within a coding paradigm

An article was obtained, and the following paragraph in the article is used to demonstrate how theoretical sampling and content analysis were rigorously applied within a coding paradigm throughout the research study. Please refer to the diagrammatic representation of this process illustrated in Figure 1.

“Previously sequestered from the realities of globalization and internationalization, South Africa is being bombarded by internal and external demands for change, supporting the need to reskill and multiskill its current predominantly semiskilled and unskilled labour force.”

Source: Cunningham and Lynham, 2004: 315.

To determine whether the above was good and relevant to this research, the researcher checked, and agreed that the text met the criteria of cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality as recommended by Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) cited in White and Marsh (2006:3). This rationale is justified as follows:

- Criterion 1: Cohesion

The above paragraph is composed of words which are arranged in a linear sequence that follows rules of grammar and dependencies and uses conjunctions like “and”, to create a message about HRD.

- Criterion 2: Coherence

The message is that the historical past of South Africa is affecting the present need for change, to enhance the future skills of the labour force in the country, and hence it contributes to the sustainability of the South African economy within a globally competitive environment. This paragraph thus has a meaning which is established through relationships or implicature that are linguistically evident in the use of words like “previously”, “demands for change” and “reskill”.

- Criterion 3: Intentionality

- The paragraph conveys a meaning that is related to the purpose of this research, which is to aggregate and articulate HRD within the South African context, and the mentioned reference to previous “sequestration from the realities of globalization and internationalization” facilitates the idea of creating a chronological context.
- Criterion 4: Acceptability
Conversely, recipients of the message should understand the text as a message, and can expect it to be useful and relevant. The evidence is that the internal examiner and promoter accepted this paragraph’s inclusion in the study.
 - Criterion 5: Situationality
This paragraph does facilitate the production of a chronological presentation of the South African context for HRD as evidenced in Chapter 5, it is appropriate to the context and culture of this research, and it is thus included.
 - Criterion 6: Informativity
This information is also fresh in that it forces generic knowledge and understanding of HRD to be contextualized within a geographical, national and cultural framework.
 - Criterion 7: Intertextuality
The above paragraph is related to what precedes and follows it and to other similar texts; for example, Chapter 4 discusses the generic nature and importance of HRD, and this paragraph, residing in Chapter 5, takes the evidence of informativity mentioned in criterion 6, and gives substance to, and understanding of, HRD, by grounding it in the South African situation.

This concluded the first phase of the theory-building process. The text had to be subjected to further scrutiny in order to guarantee inclusion in the research.

The second phase of the theory-building process entailed initiation of the coding of the paragraph, guided by the coding paradigmatic principles discussed in Chapter 2. Firstly, the paragraph does encourage the researcher to think about conditions under which HRD is practised because of the use of the word “previously

sequestered”. These words suggest that conditions under which HRD is practised should be understood. Secondly, the phrase “is being bombarded by internal and external demands for change “encourages the research of the consequences of the socio-economic-political history of South Africa. Thirdly, the interaction of the actors and stakeholders is implied in the words “reskill and multiskill its current predominantly semi-skilled and unskilled labour force”, which is a reminder that due consideration should be given to the stakeholder perspective of HRD. This perspective is included in Chapter 4. Lastly, the word “reskill” translates into the strategies and tactics that would eventually be applied, namely the establishment of SAQA and the NQF. The paragraph thus fitted the coding paradigm applied and met the criteria as recommended by Strauss, 1993:28) and at this point, one can reliably conclude that the text is relevant to the research and should be included.

Now that the researcher was convinced that the paragraph fitted the coding paradigm, the third phase of the theory-building process could commence, namely the application of coding techniques. Open coding was applied, including a microscopic analysis of the text to provide depth to the relevance of the text. The researcher asked the following questions after reading the paragraph again:

Question: Is this paragraph relevant to this study?

This question kept reminding the researcher what the original purpose of this study was. The researcher concluded relevance owing to the deductions made in the first and second phases of the theory-building process, mentioned above.

Question: What category or property of a category or what part of the emerging theory does this reading indicate?

This text can contribute to leveraging Strategic HRD (this category is included in Pathway 4 in the model).

Question: What is actually happening in the data? What is the basic problem faced by the participants or the author? What accounts for their basic problem? What is the main story here and why?

The main story in this paragraph is that it encourages the analysis of what “previous segregation” is, and therefore facilitates the generation of what the “demands for

change” could be, and the ultimate reskilling and multiskilling strategies and tactics which could be employed, the key category being HRD.

As can be seen from the above process to date, the text was microscopically analyzed to ensure that no important categories were left out, which ultimately led to a conceptually dense theory. The researcher then wrote the words “Strategic HRD” and “South African context” on a sheet of paper, and these words ultimately became a category and sub-category in the final model. This led to continuously accumulated conceptual thoughts, and moved the researcher into a more analytical realm.

As advised by Strauss (1993:32-33), the researcher then applied axial coding, which entails analyzing the axis of one category at a time. The researcher then carried out an intense analysis of the South African context of HRD, which is evidenced throughout the whole of Chapter 5. This resulted in cumulative knowledge about relationships between HRD and the South African context, with the latter ultimately residing as a sub-category in Pathway 4: Leveraging SHRD. The generation of sub-categories (axial coding) did not take place during the early days or weeks when the initial data was collected and analyzed, but became prominent during the lengthy period of open coding, before the researcher became committed to a core category or categories.

Selective coding was then applied as the researcher decided to determine how far back chronologically the word “previous” would create relevance for this study. She opted to commence at the 1970s because the shift in the political economy of South Africa took place in 1973, when the real renaissance of African collectivism hit employers with the biggest wave of strikes in the country since the Second World War. During selective coding, understandably, the analytic memos become more focused, and aided in achieving the theory’s integration. Selective coding could begin relatively early, but became increasingly dominant, since it is more self-consciously systematic than is open coding. In this study, selective coding was employed throughout the research to provide frameworks, but more so towards the end when finalizing the theoretical model. The above coding techniques could be applied sequentially in some cases and not in others. To conclude the coding practice, the researcher then used colours to highlight similar sub-categories and

their corresponding categories. This was done on the various sheets of paper that were generated throughout the research.

Open and axial coding techniques facilitated the fourth and final phase of theory-building, namely the theoretical sampling approach used, and continuously redirected the data collection method. Therefore, after analyzing the selected text, the researcher applied theoretical sampling by asking the following questions:

Question: What groups or subgroups of populations, events, or activities (to find varying dimensions, strategies) do I turn to next?

The researcher felt advised to turn to literature which discusses the socio-political-economic background of South Africa and how it shaped and contributed to HRD.

Question: For what theoretical purpose?

To demonstrate a comprehensive depth of knowledge and understanding of the history of South Africa and how this provides a context to the theoretical model developed. This is evidenced throughout Chapter 5.

All the references read for this research, as well as the integrative experience of the researcher and informal review information provided by her colleagues, the understanding and interpretation of which is presented in Chapters 3, 4, 5 and 6, were subjected to exactly the same process that is described in this appendix.

Appendix C: Translating the developed HRD theoretical model into practice

<p>Programme: Pathways to understanding the nature and importance of HRD</p> <p>Duration: 1 day</p> <p>Target audience: New and existing HRD practitioners and scholars (in-house or public)</p> <p>Ideal group size: 15 delegates</p> <p>NQF level: 5</p> <p>Methodology: Process facilitation</p> <p>Objectives: At the end of this session, the learner will be able to:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Show a sound understanding of the nature and importance of HRD 2. Apply a continuous process for sustaining his/her understanding of HRD 3. Contextualize HRD within his/her organization and country 4. Share a common understanding of HRD with fellow HRD scholars and practitioners. 		
Duration	Content and process	Learning material
15 minutes	<p>Introductions:</p> <p>Delegates are invited to introduce themselves, sharing information about their HRD backgrounds.</p>	<p>Delegates</p> <p>PowerPoint</p>
15 minutes	<p>Expectations and concerns:</p> <p>The delegates record and then share their expectations and concerns about the programme.</p>	<p>Flipchart</p>
10 minutes	<p>Programme objectives:</p> <p>The facilitator shares the objectives with the delegates and the rationale for the programme (Summary of Chapter 1) and aligns it with their expectations and concerns.</p>	<p>PowerPoint</p>
1 hour 30 minutes	<p>What is HRD?</p> <p>The delegates are divided into groups and are provided with flipchart paper on which to answer this question.</p> <p>The delegates present their responses to the rest of the group. This process should take about 30 minutes. The facilitator then works with the responses and highlights the significance of understanding the origin of HRD.</p>	<p>Group work</p> <p>Flipchart</p> <p>PowerPoint</p> <p>Interactive discussion</p>

	<p>Various analogies are drawn, for example to biological origin, and the value it has for all of us to know where we came from. This activity will serve to introduce Pathway 1 (HRD Theory) and Pathway 2: (Philosophical underpinnings of HRD). The facilitator will use the literature in Chapter 3 as an intellectual reference.</p>	
	<p>Tea break</p>	
<p>2 hours</p>	<p>Pathways 3,4 and 5: HRD Paradigms, SHRD and Composition of HRD</p> <p>The facilitator extracts the contributions made on the flipcharts in the previous activity and allows for inter-group interaction by asking the delegates to consider each others' responses and cluster the ideas into themes. The delegates then present the clusters. The facilitator at this point encourages debate about a possible sequence which can facilitate an understanding of HRD, and working with the delegates' responses, proceeds to introduce Pathway 3: HRD paradigms, Pathway 4: SHRD and Pathway 5: Composition of HRD. The facilitator uses Chapter 4 of the literature study as an intellectual reference. Throughout this process the facilitator should encourage the delegates to consider the concepts and practices discussed relevant to their existing work and national environments.</p>	<p>Group work Interactive discussion Post-it notes PowerPoint</p>
<p>1 hour</p>	<p>National HRD (as an element of SHRD)</p> <p>The delegates are divided into groups and are invited to record how their existing organizational and national context impacts the understanding acquired in the previous activity. The facilitator uses their responses to highlight the impact that socio-political-economic situations have on their HRD thoughts and practices. The facilitator uses Chapter 5 of the literature study as an intellectual reference.</p>	<p>Group interaction Flipcharts PowerPoint</p>

<p>1 hour</p>	<p>Pathway 6: Sustainability of HRD</p> <p>Delegates are divided into groups and asked to list the challenges faced by HRD within their organizations and the country at large. They present their responses, and the facilitator works with these to promote an understanding of the sustainability of HRD. This process will introduce them to Pathway 6: Sustainability of HRD.</p>	<p>Group Interaction Flipcharts PowerPoint</p>
<p>15 minutes</p>	<p>The importance of HRD</p> <p>Delegates are provided with a laminated copy of the pathway model for easy reference “back on-the-job”. The facilitator encourages feedback about:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. the importance of HRD 2. the personal and organizational value of having a sound understanding of the nature and importance of HRD. 	<p>PowerPoint Laminated cards of Pathway Model</p>
<p>5 minutes</p>	<p>Reactionnaire.</p> <p>Delegates complete a post programme evaluation to evaluate whether the programme realized the objectives of the programme.</p>	<p>Reactionnaire</p>

REFERENCES

Academy for Human Resources Development (AHRD). (1998). What is human resource development? In S.A. Lynham and W.E.A. Ruona, W.E.A. (1999), *Towards a philosophical framework for thought and practice*. Journal unknown (class notes), 7(2):209-216.

Accenture. (2004). *High performance learning organizations: results from research of 285 organisations*. USA: Accenture.

Allais, S. (2003). *Creating social parity through standards setting, assessment and quality assurance mechanisms – reflections on the South African national Qualifications Framework*. Johannesburg: South African Institute for Distance Education.

Alvesson, M., and Deetz, S. (2000). *Doing critical management research*. London: Sage.

Alvesson, M., and Skoldberg, K. (2000). *Reflexive methodology*. London: Sage.

Anderson, M.L. (1993). Studying across difference: race, class and gender in qualitative research. In J.H. Stanfield and R.M. Dennis (Eds.), *Race and ethnicity in research methods* (pp.39-52). London: Sage.

Anderson, W.R. (1997). The future of human resources: forging ahead or falling behind? *Human Resource Management*, 36(1), 17-22.

April, K. (2004). A resource-based view of the firm: Integrating the role of IT as a strategic resource. An empirical study of South African personal financial services (Assurance) firms 1999-2003. South Africa: University of Cape Town

April, K., Fourman, M., and McCrea, J. (2004). The digital leap-frog: Monitoring and evaluation and performance management as an improvement tool in business and government. *Journal of Convergence*, 5(2):20-24.

Argyris, C. (1993). *Knowledge for action*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Asmal, K. (2001). *A nation at work for a better life for all*. Cape Town, South Africa: Human Resource Development Strategy Cluster.

Babbie, E., and Mouton, J. (2001). *The practice of social research*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bacharach, S.B. (1989). Organisational theories: Some criteria for evaluation. *The Academy of Management Review*, 14 (4):496-515.

Baert, P. (1998). *Social theory in the twentieth century*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Baldwin, T.T., and Ford, J.K. (1988). Transfer of training: a review and directions for future research. *Personnel Psychology*, 41:63-105.

Barker, F. (1999). *The South African labour market: Critical Issues for renaissance*. Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik.

Bartlett, C., and Ghoshal, S. (1992). What is a global manager? *Harvard Business Review*, October: 124-132.

Beer, M., and Spector, B. (1989). Corporate wide transformations in human resource management. In R.E. Walton and P.R. Lawrence (Eds.), (nd), *Human Resource Management: Trends and Challenges*. Boston: Harvard University School Press.

Bereiter, C., and Scardamalia, M. (1993). *Surpassing ourselves: An Inquiry into the nature and implications of expertise*. Chicago: Open Court.

Berger, P., and Luckman, T. (1966). *The social construction of reality*. London: Penguin.

Berger, J., Wagner, D.G., and Zelditch, M. Jr. (1992). A working strategy for constructing theories: State organising processes. In G. Ritzer (Ed.), *Studies in metatheorizing in sociology* (pp. 107-123). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Bierema, L.L. (1996). Development of the individual leads to a more productive workplace. In R. Rowden (Ed.), *Workplace learning: Debating five critical questions of theory and practice* (pp. 21-28). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bierema, L.L. (1997). The development of the individual leads to more productive workplaces. In R.J. Torraco (Ed.), *Academy of Human Resource Development* (pp. 652-659). Baton Rouge, LA: Academy of Human Resource Development.

Blackmur, D. (2003). A critique of the concept of a National Qualifications Framework. *Paper delivered at the 15th International Conference on Assessing Quality in Higher Education*, Cape Town, South Africa.

Blake, R.R. (1995). Memories of HRD. *Training and Development*, 49(3): 22-29.

Blau, P.M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. New York: Wiley.

Blunt, R.J.S., and Cunningham, P.W. (2002). Theoretical underpinnings of transformation: A case study. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 16(2), 127-139.

Bohm, D. (1994). *Thought as a system*. New York: Routledge.

Boulding, K.E. (1956). General systems theory – the skeleton of science. *Management Science*, 2:197-208.

Bowmaker-Flaconer, A., Horwitz, FM., Jain, H., and Taggar, S. (1997). Employment equality programmes in South Africa: Current trends, *Industrial Relations Journal*, 29(3):222-223.

Boyatzis, R.E., Murphy, J.A., and Wheeler, J.V. (2000). *Philosophy as a missing link between values and behaviour*. Cleveland: Case Western Reserve University.

Brethower, D., and Smalley, K. (1998). *Performance-based instruction: Linking training to business results*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Brewster, C., and Soderstrom, M. (1994). Human resources and line management. In C. Brewster and A. Hegewisch (Eds.), *Policy and practice in European human resource management*, Routledge: London.

Breier, M. (1998). Three questions for the designers of the NQF. In *Reconstruction, development and the NQF*. Paper presented at a conference (1997), Johannesburg: CEPD and EPU, University of the Witwatersrand.

Blumer, H. (1969). *Symbolic interactionism: perspective and method*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Bulmer, M. (1988). Some reflections upon research in organization. In A. Bryman (Ed.), *Doing research in organizations*. London: Routledge.

Burrell, G., and Morgan, G. (1979). *Sociological paradigms and organizational analysis*. London: Heinemann.

- Burrell, G., and Morgan, G. (2000). *Sociological paradigms and organizational analysis*. Aldershot-Hants: Ashgate Publishing Limited.
- Butler, J.E. (1988). Human resource management as a driving force in business strategy. *Journal of General Management*, 13(4):88-102.
- Cacioppe, R., Warren-Longford, P., and Bell, L. (1990). Trends in human resource development and training. *Asia Pacific Human Resource Management*, May: 55-67.
- Carse, A.L. (1996). Facing up to moral perils: the virtues of care in bioethics. In S. Gordon, P. Benner, and N. Noddings (Eds.), *Caregiving: Readings in knowledge, practice, ethics and politics*. Philadelphia: University of Philadelphia Press.
- Cavalier, R. (1990). *Plato for beginners*. New York: Writers and Readers Publishing.
- Chalofsky, H. (1996). *Professionalization comes from theory and research: The why instead of the how to*. *New Directions for Adults and Continuing Education*, 72:51-56.
- Chalofsky, N. (1992). A unifying definition for human resource development. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 39(2): 175-182.
- Charan, R., Drotter, S., and Noel, J. (2001). *The leadership pipeline: How to build the leadership-powered company*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Charmaz, K. (2000). Grounded theory: Objectivist and constructivist methods. In N.K. Denzin and Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (509-535), 2nd edition, Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Checkland, P. (1994). Conventional wisdom and conventional ignorance. *Organisation*, 19(1):29-34.

Chua, W.F. (1986). Radical developments in accounting thought. *The Accounting Review*, 61(4):601-632.

Collier, J. (1995). The virtuous organization. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, 4(3):143-149.

Collins, J. (2001). *Good to Great*. London: Random House.

Cook, J. (1993). *The book of positive quotations*. Minneapolis: Fairview.

Cooper, R. (1976). The Open Field. *Human Relations*, 29(11): 999-1017.

Council on Higher Education. (2002). *National and continental human resource development initiatives: Challenges for higher education*. Occasional Paper, 1: 1-12, Johannesburg: Afriscot Printers.

Creswell, J.W. (1994). *Research design: Quantitative and qualitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Cresswell, J.W. (1998) *Qualitative inquiry and research design: choose among five traditions*. London: Sage.

Crous, W. (1990). 'n Nuwe Suid-Afrika op die horison - implikasies vir die menslike hulpbronbestuurder, *IPM Journal*, 8(8):3.

Cunningham, P.W., and Lynham, S.A. (2004). Human resource development: The South African case. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 6(3), California: Sage Publications.

Cunningham, P.W., Slabbert, J.A., and De Villiers, A.S. (1990). The historic development of industrial relations. In J.A. Slabbert, J.J Prinsloo and W. Backer (Eds.), *Managing Industrial Relations in South Africa*, Pretoria: Digma.

Cunningham, P.W., Lynham, S., and Weatherly, G. (2006). National human resource development in transitioning societies in the developing world: South Africa. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 8(1):62-83.

Department of Education (DOE) and Department of Labour (DOL). (2002). *Report on the study team on the implementation of the National Qualifications Framework*. Pretoria: The Departments.

DOE and DOL. (2003). *An interdependent National Qualifications Framework system: Consultative document*. Pretoria: The Departments.

Denzin, N.K., and Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds.). (2000). *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, 2nd edition. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

De Vos, A.S. (Ed.). (1998). *Research at grass roots: A primer for the caring professions*. Pretoria: J.L. Van Schaik Publishers.

Dey, I. (1993). *Qualitative data analysis: A user friendly guide for social scientists*. London: Routledge.

Dibella, A.J., and Nevis, E.C. (1998). *How organisations learn: An integrated strategy for building learning capability*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Dorrian, P. (2005). *The making of South Africa Inc*. South Africa: Zebra Press.

Drimmer, (no initial). (2002). Reframing the Measurement Debate. In Coca-Cola Sabco (2005), *HR 4 HR Curriculum: People Development Module*. Port Elizabeth: Coca-Cola Sabco.

Drucker, P.F. (1964). *Managing for results: Economic tasks and risk-taking decisions*. New York: Harper and Row.

Dubin, R. (Ed.). (1976). *Handbook of work, organisation and society*. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Dubin, R. (1978) *Theory building*. New York, revised edition: Free Press.

Dulebohn, J., Ferris, G., and Stodd, J. (1995). The history and evolution of human resource management. In G. Ferris, S. Rosen, and D. Barnum (Eds.), *Handbook of Human Resource Management* (pp. 19-41). Cambridge: Blackwell.

Dyer, L., and Holder, G. (1988). A strategic perspective of human resource management. In L. Dyer (Ed.). *Human resource management – evolving roles and responsibilities* (pp. 1.1-1.46), Washington: Bureau of National Affairs.

Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R., and Lowe, A. (2002). *Management research: An introduction*. 2nd edition. London: Sage.

Egan, T.M. ((2002). Grounded Theory Research and Theory Building. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 4(3):277-295.

Elliot, C. (1998). Human resource development in the UK – a review of the literature. *Academy of Human Resource Development*, 1998 Conference Proceedings.

Erasmus, B.J., and van Dyk, P.S. (2003). *Training management in South Africa*. 3rd edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ferris, G., Hochwater, W.A., Buckley, M.R., and Frink, D.D. (1999). Human resource management: some new directions. *Journal of Management*, 25(3): 385-415.

Finnemore, M., and Van der Merwe, R. (1992). *Introduction to industrial relations in South Africa*. Johannesburg: Lexicon.

Flanagan, R.J. (1999). Knowledge management in global organisations in the 21st century. *HR Magazine*, June: 54-55.

Foa, U.G., and Foa, E.B. (1971). Resource exchange: toward a structural theory of interpersonal relations. In A.W. Siegman and B. Pope (Eds.), *Studies in dyadic communication*, New York: Pergamon Press.

Fogel, A. (1993). *Developing through relationships origins of communication, self and culture*. Hemel Hempstead: Harvester Wheatsheaf.

Fombrun, C., Tichy, N.M., and Deranna, M.A. (1984). *Strategic human resource management*. Chichester: Wiley.

Ford, J.K., and Weissnein, D.A. (1997). Transfer of training: an update review and analysis. *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, 10:22-41.

Forrester, J.W. (1980). Information sources for modeling the national economy. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 75(371): 555-566.

Forsyth, D. R. (1999). *Group Dynamics*. California: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Freeman, E., and Reed, K. (1983). Stockholder and stakeholders: a new perspective on corporate governance. In E.K. Huvinga (Ed.), *Corporate governance: A definitive exploration of the issues*, Los Angeles: UCLA Extension Press.

Gallivan, M.J. (1997). Value of triangulation: A comparison of two approaches for combining qualitative and quantitative methods. In A.S. Lee, J. Liebanau and J. I. De Gross (Eds.), *Information Systems and Qualitative Research* (pp. 417-443), London: Chapman and Hall.

Garavan, T.N. (1991). Strategic human resource development. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 15(1):17-30.

Garavan, T.N. (1995). Stakeholders and strategic human resource development'. *Journal of European and Industrial Training*, 19(10):11-16.

Garavan, T.N, Costine, P. and Heraty, N. (1995). The emergence of strategic human resource development. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 19(10):4-10.

Garavan, T.N., Heraty, N. and Morley, M. (1998). Actors in the HRD process. *International Studies of Management and Organisation*, 28(1): 114-135.

Garfinkel, H. (1967). *Studies in ethnomethodology*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Gerber, P., Nel, P., and Van Dyk, P. (1997). *Human resources management*. 4th edition. Johannesburg: Thomson Publishing. (4th edition).

Gergen, K.J. (1999). *An invitation to social construction*. London: Sage.

Gilbert, T.F. (1978). *Human competence: Engineering worthy performance*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Gilligan, C. (1982). *Psychological theory and women's development*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Gioia, D.A., and Pitre, E. (1990). Multiparadigm perspective on theory building. *The Academy of Management Review*, 15 (1):584-602.

Gleick, J. (1987). *Chaos: Making a new science*. New York: Penguin.

Granville, G. (2003). Stop making sense: chaos and coherence in the formulation of the Irish Qualification Framework. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16(3):259-270.

Goffman, E. (1959). *Presentation of self in everyday life*. New York: Penguin.

Grobler, P.A., Wärnick, S., Carrel, M.R., Elbert, N.F. and Hatfield R.D. (2002). *Human resource management in South Africa*. 2nd edition. Great Britain: Thomson Learning.

Guba, E.G., and Lincoln, Y.S. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Beverly Hills, California: Sage.

Guba, E.G., and Lincoln, Y.S. (1998). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. Denzin and Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *The landscape of qualitative research* (pp.195-220), London: Sage.

Guest, D. (1991). Personnel managers the end of orthodoxy. *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, 29(4): 149-176.

Guest, D. (1997). Human resource management and performance: a review and research agenda. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 8(3): 263-275.

Haasbroek, G.D. (2002). National level skills development issues. In P.S Nel, P.D. Gerber, P.S. van Dyk, G.D. Haasbroek, H.B. Schultz and T. Sono (Eds.), *Human*

Resource Management (pp. 434-464), 5th edition, Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Hackman, J.R. (1987). The design of work teams. In J.W. Lorsch (Ed.), *Handbook of Organisational Behaviour* (pp.315-342), Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Hall, D.T. (1984). Human resource development and organisational effectiveness. In C. Fombrum, N.M. Tichy and M.A. Deranna, *Strategic Human Resource Management*, New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Hansen, C.D. (1998). HRD theory building through qualitative research. In E.F. Holton III (Ed.), *Academy of Human Resource Development* (pp. 281-284), Baton Rouge: AHRD

Harbison, F., and Meyers, C.A. (1964). *Education, manpower and economic growth: Strategies of human resource development*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Harrison, R. (1993). Developing people – for whose bottom line? In R. Harrison (Ed.), *Human Resource Management, Issues and Strategies*, Wokingham: Addison-Wesley.

Harrison, R. (1997). Employee Development. *Institute of Personnel and Development*, London.

Harvard, M. (2000). Paying your skills bills. *People Dynamics* 18(2): 50-51.

Heraty, N., and Morley, M. (1997). Training and development. In P. Gunnigle, M. Morley, N. Cliffor and T. Turner (Eds.), *Human Resource Management in Irish Organisations* (127-156), Dublin: Oak Tree Press.

Hergenhahn, B.R., and Olson, M.H. (1993). *An introduction to theories of learning*. 4th edition. Englewood: Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Heylighen, F., and Joslyn, C. (1992). *What is systems theory?* Retrieved April 1, 2007, from <http://www.pespmcl.vub.ac.be/systheor.html>.

Heyns, R., and Needham, S. (2004). *An integrated approach to education and training: Exploring the issues*. Paper presented at the Qualifications-Africa Conference Gallagher Estate, South Africa.

Huysamen, G.K. (1993). *Metodologie vir die sosiale en gedragwetenskappe*. Pretoria: Sigma Press.

Higgs, M. (1989). A strategic approach to training and development. *Training and Development*, November:11-14.

Hill, A. (1987). The strategic approach to human resources management. *IPM Journal*, 5(9):6-9.

Hock, D. (2002). *Class notes: Empowerment*. Port Elizabeth: Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University.

Hodder, I. (2000). The Interpretation of documents and material culture. In N.K. Denzin and Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp. 703-715), 2nd edition, Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Holden, L., and Livian Y. (1993). Does strategic training policy exist? Some evidence from ten European countries. In A. Hegewisch and C. Brewster (Eds.), *European Developments in Human Resource Management* (pp. 101-116), London: Kogan Page.

Holton, E.F. (Ed.) (1996). *Academy of HRD 1996 conference proceedings*. Austin, TX: AHRD.

Holton E.F. III. (1999). An integrated model for performance: bounding the theory and practice. *Advances in Developing Human Resource Development*, 1: 26-46.

Holton E.F. III. (2002). Theoretical assumptions underlying the performance paradigm of human resource development. *Human Resource Development International*, 5(2):199-215.

Holton, E.F. III., Bates, R.A., and Ruona, W.E.A. (2000). Development of a learning transfer system inventory. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 11.

Homans, G.C. (1950). *The human group*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World.

Homans, G.C. (1974). *Social behaviour: It's elementary forms*. San Diego: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Honderich, T. (1995). *The Oxford companion to philosophy*. New York: Oxford University.

Horwitz, F.W. (1988). Personnel management or human resources management- Euphemism or new paradigm? *IPM Journal*, 6 (12):6-7.

Horwitz, F.W. (1999). The emergence of strategic training and development: The current state of play. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 23(4-5):180-190.

Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC). (1995). *Ways of seeing the NQF*. Pretoria: HSRC.

Hunt, M. (1993). *The story of psychology*. New York: Doubleday.

Huselid, M., Jackson, S., and Schuler, R. (1997). Technical and strategic human resource management effectiveness as determinants of firm performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 40 (1):171-188.

Indabawa, SA., Oduaran, A., Afrik, T., and Walters, S. (2000). *The State of adult and continuing education in Africa*. Windhoek: Jon Meinert Printing.

Isaacs, S.B.A. (2000). Issues of quality in standard setting and quality assurance. *SAQA Bulletin*, 4(2):3-7.

Isaacs, S., and Nkomo, M. (2003). South African's National Qualifications Framework: reflections in the seventh year. In G. Donn, G and T. Davies, *Promises and problems for Commonwealth qualifications*, New Zealand Qualifications Authority.

Janesick, V.J. (2000). The choreography of qualitative research design. In N.K. Denzin and Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp. 379-399), 2nd edition, Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Jansen, J. (2004). Meta-evaluation study: the review of the South African Qualifications Authority and the National Qualifications Framework. *SAQA Bulletin*, 5(1):47-61.

Jones, I.J.R. (2001). *A model for HRD*. Johannesburg: University of the Witwatersrand.

Jones, S., and Hughes, J. (2002). An exploration of the use of grounded theory as a research approach in the field of IS evaluation. *Electronic Journal of Information Systems Evaluation*, 6 (1):1-13.

Kaplan, A. (1964). *The conduct of inquiry: Methodology for behavioural science*. San Francisco: Chandler.

Kaplan, R.S., and Norton, D.P. (1996). *The balanced scorecard*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Kaufman, B.E. (2001). The theory and practice of strategic HRM and participative management: Antecedents in early industrial relations. *Human Resource Management Review*, 11: 505-533.

Keats, J. (1817). Letter to George and Tom Keats 21, 27 December. In R. Gittings (Ed.), *Letter of John Keats (1970)*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Keep, E. (1989). Corporate training strategies: the vital component. In J. Storey, (Ed.), *New Perspectives on Human Resource Management* (pp. 109-125), London: Routledge.

Kesler, G., and Law, J. (1997). Implementing major change in the HR organisation. *Human Resource Planning*, 20(4):26-38.

Kirk, J., and Miller, M.L. (1986). *Reliability and validity in qualitative research*. Beverly Hills: Sage.

Kirkpatrick, D.L. (1998). *Evaluating training programs: The four Levels*. 2nd edition. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Knowles, M.S., Holton, E.F., and Swanson, R.A. (1998). *The adult learner: The definitive classic in adult education and human resource development*. 5th edition. Houston: Gulf.

Koestenbaum, P. (2002). *Leadership: the inner side of greatness*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Krippendorff, K. (2004). *Content analysis: An introduction to its methodology*. 2nd edition. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Kuchinke, K.P. (1998). Moving beyond the dualism of performance and learning: a response to Barrie and Pace. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 9: 377-384.

Kuhn, T.S. (1970). *The structure of scientific revolutions*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Kuhn, T. (1996). *The structure of scientific revolutions*. 3rd edition. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Langenhoven, H.P. (1975). The present state of black personnel management in South Africa. Bloemfontein, Personnel Research Division: University of the Orange Free State.

Laszlo, E., and Laszlo, A. (1997). The contribution of the systems sciences to the humanities. *Systems Research in the Behavioural Sciences*, 14(1):5-19.

Lee, M. M. (1994). The isolated manager: walking the boundaries of the microculture. In *Proceedings of the British Academy of Management Conference*, Lancaster: 111-128.

Lee, R. (1996). What makes training pay? *Issues in People Management*, 11.

Lee, M.M. (1997). Strategic human resource development: a conceptual exploration. In R. Torraco (Ed.), *Academy of Human Resource Development Conference Proceedings* (pp. 92-99), Baton Rouge: Academy of HRD.

Lee, M.M. (2001). A refusal to define HRD. *Human Resource Development International*, 4(3):327-341.

Leedy, P.D. (1993). *Practical research: Planning and design*. 5th edition. New York: Macmillan.

Legnick-Hall, C.A., and Legnick-Hall, M.L. (1988). Strategic human resources management: a review of the literature and a proposed typology. *Academy of Management Review*, 13(3):454-470.

Lewin, K., Dembo, T., Festinger, L., and Sears, P.S. (1994). Level of aspiration. In J.M. Hunt (Ed.), *Personality and the Behaviour Disorders*, New York: Ronald.

Luoma, M. (2000). Investigating the link between strategy and HRD. *Personnel Review*, 29(6):769-790.

Lynham, S.A. (2000). Theory building in the human resource development profession. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 11(2), Summer: 159-178.

Lynham, S.A. (2002). The general method of theory-building research in applied disciplines. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 4(3), August:221-241.

Lynham, S.A., and Ruona, W.E.A. (1999). Towards a philosophical framework for thought and practice. *Human Resources Development International*, 7(2):209-216.

Magee, J.B. (1971). *Philosophical analysis in education*. New York: Harper and Row.

Maguranyanga, B. (2000). Skills development: Legal evil or strategic advantage? *Executive Business Brief*, 5 (2):40.

Mani, S. (2001). Government and innovation policy: An analysis of the South African experience since 1994. *Maastricht*, 38:1-54.

Marquardt, M.J. (1995). *Building the learning organisation: A systems approach to quantum improvement and global success*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Marsick, V.J. (1990). Altering the paradigm for theory-building in human resource development. *Human Resource Development*, 1 (1): 5-24; 29-33.

Marx, F.W. (1969). *Aspects of personnel management*. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.

Mbeki, T. (2001). *State of the nation address*. Opening of Parliament, Cape Town. Retrieved September 16, 2004, from <http://www.anc.org.za/ancdocs/history/mbeki/2001/tm0209.html>.

McCracken, M., and Wallace, M. (2000). Towards a redefinition of strategic HRD. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 24(5):281-290.

McGoldrick, J., Stewart, J., and Watson, S. (2001). No title provided, class notes. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 8 (1): 343-356.

McGrath, J.E. (1964). *Social psychology. A brief introduction*. New York: Holt.

McGrath, J.E. (1967). Small group research, that once and future field: An interpretation of the past with an eye to the future. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research and Practice*, 1:7-27.

McGrath, S. (1997). Education and training in transition: analysing the NQF. In P. Kallaway, G. Kruss, A. Fataar and G. Dom (Eds.), *Education after apartheid: South*

African education in transition (pp. 169-181), Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press.

McGrath, S. (1996). *Learning to work? Changing discourses on education and training in South Africa* (1976), PhD: University of Edinburgh.

McKinsey and Co. (2001). *The war for talent: War for talent 2000 survey*. London: McKinsey and Co, Inc.

McLagan, P. (1989). *Models of HRD practice*. Virginia: ASTD Press.

McLagan, P., and Suhadolink, D. (1989). *Models for HRD practice: The Research Report*. Alexandria: ASTD Press.

McLean, G.N. (2001). Human resource development: Where are we going and how will we get there? In D.W. Kress (Ed.), *Proceedings of the 6th International ASHRM conference* (pp. 229-236). Dammam: Al-Wafa Printing Press.

McLean, G.N., and McLean, L.D. (2001). *If we can't define HRD in one country, how can we define it in an international context?* *Human Resource Development International*, 4(3):313-326.

McLean, G., Osman-Gani, A., and Eunsang, C. (2003). HRD as national policy. *Editorial comment to authors*.

Mead, G.H. (1934). *Mind, self, and society*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Megginson, D., and Pedlar, M. (1992). *Self development: A facilitator's guide*. Maidenhead: McGraw-Hill.

Megginson, D., Joy-Matthews, J., and Banfield, P. (1993). *Human Resource Development*, No city: Kogan Page.

Mehl, M. (2004). The National Qualifications Framework: Quo vadis?. *SAQA Bulletin* 5(1):21-46.

Micklethwait, J., and Wooldridge, A. (1996). *The witch doctors: Making sense of the management gurus*. New York: Times Books.

Miller, J.G. (1978). *Living systems*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Miller, W.L., and Crabtree, B.F. (2000). Clinical research. In N.K. Denzin and Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 607-631), 2nd edition, Thousand Oaks: Sage Publishers.

Mintzberg, H. (1973). *The nature of managerial work*. London: Harper and Row.

Mintzberg, H. (1979). An emerging strategy of direct research. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24(4): 582-589.

Mintzberg, H. (1994). *The rise and fall of strategic planning*. New York: Free Press.

Mott, V.W. (1998). Professionalization and reflective theory building in HRD. In E.F. Holton, III (Ed.), *Academy of Human Resource Development*, 671-676. Baton Rouge: AHRD.

Mouton, J., and Marais, H.C. (1990). *Basic concepts in the methodology of the social sciences*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council.

Murdoch, A. (1953). *Sartre*. California: Bowes and Bowes.

Nadler, L. (1982). *Designing training programmes: The critical events model*. Reading, Mass: Addison-Wesley.

Nadler, L., and Nadler, Z. (1989). *Developing human resources*. 3rd edition. London: Jossey Bass.

Nadler, D.A., Gerstein, M., and Shaw, R. (1992) *Organisational Architecture: Designs for Changing Organisations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Nafukho, FM., Hairston, N.R., and Brooks, K. (2003). Determining the link between human capital theory and human resource development. Retrieved March 10, 2005, from http://policy.uark.edu/paperseries/b3n2_fulltext.pdf.

National Professional Teachers' Organisation of South Africa (NAPTOSA). (2004). Comments on the draft discussion document on a Higher Education Qualifications Framework. *Unpublished document*.

Neuman, W. L. (1994). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Nkomo, S. (1988). Strategic planning for human resources. *Long Range Planning*, 21(2):66-72.

Noel, J.L., and Dennehy, R.F. (1991). Making HRD a force in strategic organisational change. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 23(2):17-19.

Ogbanna, E., and Wilkinson, J. (1988). Corporate strategy and corporate culture: The management of change in the UK supermarket industry. *Personnel Review*, 17(8):10-13.

O'Connell, J. (1999). HRDs next challenge: Harnessing individualism. *HR Focus*, January 7-8.

O'Donnell, D., and Garavan, T.N. (1997). Viewpoint: linking training policy and practice to organisational goals. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, August and September 21(8 and 9):301.

Orlikowski, W.J., and Baroudi, J.J. (1991). Studying information technology in organizations: Research approaches and assumptions. *Information Systems Research*, 2(1):1-28.

Paawe, J., and Richardson, R. (1997). Introduction to special issue: strategic HRM and performance. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 8(3):257-258.

Parkhe, A. (1993). Messy research, methodological predispositions, and theory development in international joint ventures. *Academy of Management Review*, 18(2): 227-269.

Pasengrouw, G. (1985). Strategic human resource management – An emerging dimension, parts 1 and 2. *IPM Journal*, 4 (5):22-30; 4 (6):8-15.

Passmore, D.L. (1997). Ways of seeing: Disciplinary bases of research in HRD. In R. Swanson and E. Holton (Eds.), *Human Resource Development Research Handbook: Linking Research and Practice* (pp. 199-214), San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Patton, M.Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. 2nd edition. Newbury Park: Sage Publications.

PCAS. (2003). Towards a ten year review: Synthesis report on implementation of government programmes. *Policy Coordination and Advisory Services Discussion Document* (pp. 1-142), Pretoria: The Presidency, SA National Government GCIS.

Phillips, J. (1997). *Return on investment in training and performance improvement programmes*. Houston: Gulf Publishing Company.

Phillips, J (2005). *Return on investment in training and performance improvement programmes*. Houston: Gulf Publishing Company.

Pojman, L.P. (1995). *What can we know? An introduction to the theory of knowledge*. New York: Wadsworth Publishing.

Popenoe, D. (2000). *Sociology*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Popenoe, D., Cunningham, P., and Boulton, B.E. (1997). *Sociology*. 1st South African edition. Cape Town: Prentice Hall.

Porter, M.E. (1985). *Competitive advantage*. New York: Free Press.

Punch, M. (1986). *The politics and ethics of fieldwork*. Beverly Hills: Sage.

Purcell, J., and Ahlstrand, B. (1995). *Human resource management in the multi-divisional company*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Raffe, D. (2003). Simplicity itself: the creation of the Scottish Credit and Qualifications Framework. *Journal of Education and Work*, 16(3):239-257.

Rainbird, H. (1995). The changing role of the training function: a test for the integration of human resource and business strategies. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 5(1):79-90.

Raphael, D.D. (1994). *Moral philosophy*. 2nd edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Rockeach, M. (1973). *The nature of human values*. New York: Free Press.

ROI Institute. (2004). *Certification in the ROI Methodology Brochure*. Retrieved November 15, 2004, from <http://www.roiinstitute.net>.

Romanelli, E., and Tushman, M.L. (1994), Organisational transformation as punctuated equilibrium: an empirical text. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37: 1141-1166.

Root, M. (1997). *Class notes from Epistemology class*. University of Minnesota.

Rothwell, W., and Kazanas, H. (1991). *Strategic human resource planning and management*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

Rubin, A., and Babbie, E. (1993). *Research methods for social work*. Pacific Grove, California: Books/Cole.

Rummler, G.A., and Brache, A.P. (1995). *Improving performance: How to manage the white space on the organisation chart*. 2nd edition. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Ruona, W.E.A. (1998). Systems theory as a foundation of HRD. In R.J. Torraco, (Ed.), *Academy of Human Resource Development*, 888-896, Baton Rouge: Academy of Human Resource Development.

Ruona, W.E.A. (1999a). *An investigation into the core beliefs underlying the profession of human resource development*. St Paul, MN: University of Minnesota HRD Research Center.

Ruona, W.E.A. (1999b.) Theory in "Theory to Practice": Voices of practitioners. *Human Resources Development International*, 29(3): 888-896.

Ruona, W.E.A. (2000). Should we define the profession of HRD? Views of leading scholars. In K.P. Kuchinke (Ed.), *Academy of Human Resource Development 2000*

Conference Proceedings (pp. 40-45), Baton Rouge: Academy of Human Resource Development.

Ruona, W.E.A. (2001). The real debate: who does human resource development serve? *Human Resource Development International*, 15(1).

Ruona, W.E.A., and Roth, G. (2000). Philosophical Foundations of human resource development practice. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, (7), complete issue.

Ruona, W.E.A., Lynham, S.A., and Chermack, T. (2002). Searching for the future of human resource development. *Human Resource Development International*, 12-1.

Saggers, R. (1994). Training climbs the corporate agenda. *Personnel Management*, July (pp. 42-45).

Samson, M. (1999). Undressing redress: a feminist critique of the South African National Qualifications Framework. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education*, 20(3):443-460.

Samson, M., and Vally, S. (1997). Snakes and ladders: the promise and potential pitfalls of the NQF. In *The National Qualifications Framework: Critical reflections* (July), Johannesburg: Education Policy Unit, University of the Witwatersrand.

Samuels, J. (2000). The relationships between qualifications, registration and licensing. *SAQA Bulletin* (November), 4(2):26-33.

Schwartz, P. (1996). *The art of the long view: Planning for the future in an uncertain world*. New York: Doubleday.

Seidman, I. (1998). *Interviewing as qualitative research*. 2nd edition, New York: Teachers College Press.

Senge, P.M. (1990). *The fifth discipline: The art and practice of the learning organisation*. New York: Doubleday.

Senge, P.M., Roberts, C., Ross, R.B., Smith, B.J., and Kleiner, A. (1994). *The fifth discipline fieldbook: Strategies and tools for building a learning organisation*. New York: Currency Doubleday.

Shaw, S. (2001). *South Africa's transition to democracy: An African success story*. Maitland: Design Press.

Shotter, J. (1993). *Conversational realities: Constructing life through language*. London: Sage.

Silverman, D. (2000). *Doing qualitative research: A practical handbook*. London: Sage.

Skinner, B.F. (1953). *Science and human behaviour*. New York: Macmillan.

Skinner, B.F. (1971). *Beyond freedom and dignity*. New York: Knopf.

Sloman, M. (1994). *A handbook for training strategy*. Gower: Aldershot.

Solomon, R.C. (1993). *Ethics and excellence: Cooperation and integrity in business*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

South African Board for Personnel Practice (SABPP). (1990). Generic competency model for human resource practitioners. *Board Paper of the South African Board for*

Personnel Practice. Johannesburg: Eskom, Human Resources Performance Management.

South African Tourism Services Association. (2002). *News: Your step-by-step guide to complying with the Employment Equity Act*. Retrieved August 16, 2003, from <http://www.satsa.com/news/messages/94>.

South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA). (2000). *Quality management systems for ETQAs*. Pretoria: SAQA.

South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA). (2002) *South African Qualifications Authority*. Retrieved on October 12, 2003, from www.saqa.org.za/html/about/docs/authority.htm.

South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA). (2004). *National Qualifications Framework Impact Study Report 1: Cycle 1*. Retrieved June 01, 2005, from www.saqa.org.za.

South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA). (2005). *National Qualifications Framework Impact Study Report 2: Cycle 2*. Retrieved November 30, 2005, from www.saqa.org.za.

Stewart, J., and Bradshaw, C. (2004). Message from the Ministers of HRD and Labour. Retrieved August 15, 2005, from <http://www.hrdc-drhc.gc.ca/dept/sds/sds.shtml>.

Stewart, J., and McGoldrick, M. (Eds.), (1996). *Human resource development: Perspectives, strategies and practice* (pp. 40-70). London: Pitman Publishing.

Stolovich, H.D., and Keeps, E.J. (1992). What is human performance technology? In H. Stolovich and E. Keeps (Eds.), *Handbook of Human Performance Technology*, 3-13, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Strauss, A.L. (1993). *Qualitative analysis for social scientists*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Strauss A.L. and Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*. Newbury Park: Sage.

SuccessFactors. (2003). Succession Planning/Talent Management Overview. Retrieved May 20, 2004, from www.successfactors.com.

Sunter, C. (1987). *The world and South Africa in the 1990s*. Cape Town: Human and Rousseau.

Swanepoel, B., Erasmus, B., van Wyk, M., and Schenk, H. (2003). *South African human resource management: Theory and practice*. 3rd edition. Lansdowne, South Africa: Juta.

Swanson, R.A. (1994). *Analysis for improving performance: Tools for diagnosing organizations and documenting workplace expertise*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Swanson, R.A. (1995). Human resource development: Performance is key. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 62(2), 207-213.

Swanson, R.A. (1996). In praise of the dependant variable, *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 7(3), 203-207.

Swanson, R.A. (2001). Human resource development and its underlying theory. *Human Resource Development International*, 4 (3):299-312.

Swanson, R.A. and Holton E.F. III. (1997) *Human resource development handbook: Linking research and practice*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Swanson, R.A. and Holton E.F. III. (2001). *Foundations of human resource development*. California: Berrett-Koehler Publishers Inc.

Swieringa, J., and Wierdsma, A. (1992). *Becoming a learning organization: Beyond the learning curve*. Addison-Wesley Publishers Ltd, Cambridge.

Tierney, W.G. (2000). Undaunted courage: Life history and the postmodern challenge. In N.K. Denzin and Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp. 537-553), Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Thibaut, J.W., and Kelley, H.H. (1959). *The social psychology of groups*. New York: Wiley.

Thyer, B.A. (1993). Single-System Research Designs. In R.M. Grinnell (Ed.), *Social Work Research and Evaluations* (pp. 94-117), 4th edition, Itasca, Illinois: Peacock.

Tolman, E.C. (1932). *Purposive behaviour in animals and men*. New York: Naiburg.

Torraco, R.J. (1997). Theory building research methods. In R.A. Swanson and E.F. Holton (Eds.), *Human Resource Development Research Handbook: Linking Research and Practice* (pp. 114-137), San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Torraco, R. (2002). Research methods for theory building in applied disciplines: A comparative analysis. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 4(3):355-376.

Torraco, R.A., and Swanson, R.A. (1995). The strategic roles of human resource development. *Human Resource Planning* 18 (4):10-21.

Tuck, R., Hart, J., and Keevy, J.A. (2004). The relevance of the National Qualifications Framework impact study to qualification framework development in the Southern African development community (September). *Paper presented at the Qualifications-Africa Conference*, Gallagher Estate: Johannesburg.

Turnbull, S. (2002). Social construction research and theory building. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 4(3):219-220.

Tsui, A.S. (1987). Defining the activities and effectiveness of the human resource department: a multiple constituencies approach (Spring). *Human Resource Management*, 20(1): 35-69.

Tyson, S. (1997). Human resource strategy: a process for managing the contribution of HRM to organisational performance. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 8(3):285.

Ulrich, D. (1997). *Human resource champions*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press, 10; 101-2.

Van Dyk, P.S., Nel, P.S., Loedolff, P., and Haasbroek, G.D. (2001). *Training Management: A multi-disciplinary approach to human resources development in Southern Africa*. 3rd edition. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Van Wyk, C. (1989). The human resource practitioner's changing role. *IPM Journal*, 7(9), 13-14.

Verster, R. (1979). *Personnel Management in South Africa*. Bloemfontein: Personnel Research Division, University of the Orange Free State.

Von Bertalanffy, L.V. (1962). General System Theory: a critical review. *General Systems* (Yearbook of the Society for General Systems Research), 7, 1-20.

Von Bertalanffy, L.V. (1968). *General Systems Theory: Foundations, Development and Applications*. New York: George Braziller.

Walton, J. (2001). HRD: The Power of Definitions. *Human Resource Development International*, 44-3.

Warfield, J.N. (1995). Demands imposed on systems science by complexity. In K. Ellis, A. Gregory, B.R. Mears-Young and G. Ragsdell (Eds.), *Critical Issues in Systems Theory and Practice*, 81-88, New York: Plenum.

Warren, M. W. (1984). *Training for results: A systems approach to the development of human resources in industry*. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.

Watkins, K.E., and Marsick, V.J. (1993). *Sculpting the learning organisation: Lessons in the art and science of systemic change*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Watkins, K.E., and Marsick, V.J. (1995). The case for learning. In E.F. Holton III (Ed.), *Proceedings of the 1995 Academy of Human Resource Development Annual Conference*. Baton Rouge: Academy of Human Resource Development.

Watson, T.J. (1994). *In search of management: Culture, chaos and control in managerial Work*. London: Routledge.

Watzlawick, P. (ed.) (1984) *The Invented Reality*. London: Norton.

Weinberger, L.A. (1998). Commonly held theories of human resource development. *Human Resource Development International*, 1:75-93.

Weisbord, M.R. (1987). *Productive workplaces: Organising and managing for dignity, meaning and community*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Weitzman, E.A. (2000), 'Software and Qualitative Research,' in N.K. Denzin and Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp.803-820), 2nd edition, Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

White, M.D., and Marsh, E.E. (2006). Content analysis: a flexible methodology. *Library Trends*, 55 il, 22(24).

Whitehead, A.N. (1929). *Process and reality*. New York: The Free Press.

Widgery, R., Tubbs, S.L., and Nicholson, D. (2004). Using the Technological Readiness Audit sm for strategic competitive advantage (March). *The Journal of American Academy of Business* 4(1): 23-27.

Wiggins, J.A., Wiggins, B.B., and Vander Zanden, J. (1994). *Social psychology*. 5th edition. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Wildervanck, J. (2005) *Diamond leadership manual*. Port Elizabeth: Coca-Cola Sabco.

Woodall, J., and Douglas, D. (1999). Ethical aspects of human resource development. (Class notes, no journal name provided), 33(4):1023 – 1029. Adapted from L. Spence (1999). In D. Winstanley and J. Woodall (Eds.), *Ethical issues in contemporary human resource management*. Basingstoke: Macmillan.

Woods, R.H. (1999). Predicting is difficult, especially about the future: Human resources in the new millennium. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 18:443-456.

Yang, B. (2002). Meta-analysis research and theory building' *Advances in developing human resources*, 4(3):296-316.

Yin, R. (1984). *Case study research: Design and methods*, Newbury Park: Sage.

Young, M. (2003). National Qualifications Frameworks as a global phenomenon. In G. Donn and T. Davies, *Promises and Problems for Commonwealth Qualifications*, New Zealand Qualifications Authority.

Young, M. (2005). National Qualifications Frameworks: their feasibility and effective implementation in developing countries. *A report prepared for the International Labour Office*.

Zemke, R. (1985). In search of a training philosophy. *Training*, 22(10):93-98.