CONSTRAINTS ENCOUNTERED BY TRAINERS IN THE TRAINING OF PROGRAMME FACILITATORS IN THE NORTH WESTERN PROVINCE

By

PETRONELLA CHAMISA TONGA

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Declaration

I, Petronella Chamisa Tonga hereby declare that this dissertation is my own work and effort, and that it has not been submitted at this University or any other University for an award. Where other people's work has been used or referred to, acknowledgements have been made.

Signature………………………………………………………………………………..

Petronella Chamisa Tonga
(Candidate)

Dated this   18th   day of November 2013

Certificate of Approval

This dissertation by PETRONELLA CHAMISA TONGA is approved as fulfilling part of the requirements for the award of the Master of Education in Adult Education.

Examiner

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Abstract

Research in the area of adult education looking at constraints affecting training of programme facilitators is limited in this part of the world. The aim of the study was to identify constraints encountered by trainers in the training of programme facilitators with a view to establishing whether or not any corrective measures had been taken. A cross sectional study design was used to collect data in Solwezi, Kasempa, Mwinilunga and Kabompo. This study employed two types of sampling methods and these are expert sampling and simple random sampling. A sample of 170 respondents was drawn from a population of 700 trainers and programme managers. Qualitative data were analysed using framework analysis with the help of the NUD*IST software. Quantitative data were analyzed using SPSS software version 17. Since all questions measuring constraints and consequences were constructed using the ordinal scale, the questions were constructed on an eleven point Likert rating scale (1 to 11), ANOVA and univariate analysis were done.

This study showed that there were constraints in the training of programme facilitators within North Western Province. In spite of these constraints, trainers were satisfied and motivated to share knowledge and skills with community members. Constraints included inadequate funding, cultural factors, and balancing work as a trainer and other work situations, human resource and trainee entry behaviors. The solutions to these constraints bordered on ensuring equity, re orienting Teaching-Learning Process- and use of multiple methods of instruction, putting in place Trainee Support Systems, enhancing capacity to cope with teaching using various strategies and ensuring mentoring. The constraints presented in this study are deeper and social cultural in nature. If the constraints are of a deeper social and cultural nature, as argued here, then there is no easy one-shot solution. One will need to look for solutions beyond the training systems in the NGO world and the main stream public service. There is need for reforms in training and programming that are context specific, that require multiple approaches and can be implemented for a long period of time. Initiatives will also have to be monitored, and the development and results will need continuous discussions, informed by evidence and careful analysis. Future research would have to be grounded in testing theoretical assumptions in order to have greater explanatory power. There is need to consider doing a comparative study on programme facilitators in order to bring out salient features of training events and the life of programme facilitators in the NGO and public sector worlds.

Key Words: Constraints, Training , Programme Facilitators , North Western Province

Dedication

To my husband, Julius J. Tonga and my family who encouraged me to soldier on when times were hard during my study. Their unfailing love, immeasurable support and encouragement during my study period helped me to cope with work even in difficult times.

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CHAPTER ONE - BACKGROUND

1.0 Introduction

> *...It is imperative for adults to be educated. On one hand, our children will have no control over our economic, political, and social development for 5, 10, or even 20 years to come. On the other hand, the attitudes of adults have an impact now. People must understand the development plans of their country. They can thus participate in necessary changes. These are the conditions for success of any plan* (Nyerere, 1976).

The quotation above is borrowed from a passage following a speech by the former president of Tanzania (Nyerere, 1964), and the quotation sets the theme of the study which is about adult education with emphasis on constraints faced in the training of programme facilitators.

Half the world population is poor (living on less than two dollars per day) with about 10% of the adult population still illiterate. The formulation of the Millennium Development Goals is to eradicate poverty by 2015. Therefore, all Millennium Development Goals are related to reducing poverty. But we know, and therefore have good reason to fear, that there will be no reduction in poverty unless all development initiatives including adult education are included in the strategies and radical changes take place in the factors hindering development (Salamon et al., 2003).

Most MDGs are concerned with adult education: how to promote gender equality, empower women, reduce child mortality and improve maternal health, how to combat HIV, malaria and other diseases, and how to ensure environmental sustainability. And how can any of these be achieved without more and better information and education throughout life? The 2000 World Forum on Education for All (EFA) in Dakar took a serious look at what had happened in the preceding decade, and came up with a Framework for Action up to the year 2015. Four of the six commitments made in Dakar relate to adult education such as improvement in its quality, a 50% growth in adult literacy, equitable access to life skills programmes and training of mothers and fathers in better early child care (ARDI General Assembly, 2004).

Current indications are that many developing countries will not meet the Millennium Development Goals by the target date, and will not succeed in reducing poverty by half in 2015, unless initiatives are redoubled to increase the flow of resources from developed to

developing countries, protectionism is removed and developing countries improve their human resource management and this is true because human resources are the cornerstone of any social system (Davies, 2005).

1.1 Background

Without a strong and skilled workforce, the Zambian public sector for instance, cannot deliver adequate and appropriate services to its population. Over the past few years, the human resources situation in the Zambian public sector has reached a point of severe crisis and inability to provide basic services, primarily due to three interrelated factors. First, the country is losing substantial numbers of skilled workers to countries that offer better conditions of service, or are changing professions to ones that offer more attractive opportunities. Second, Zambia's colleges and its universities have a limited capacity to train additional staff. Third, the country is one of the epicentres of the catastrophic HIV/AIDS pandemic in Southern Africa (Kombe et al., 2005).

Given this scenario, most developing countries have considered alternative systems to meet the needs of communities and one such system is through adult education. The late President of Tanzania said in 1976 that, ''...adult education is a highly political activity. Politicians are sometimes more aware of this fact than educators, and therefore they do not always welcome real adult education'' (Nyerere, 1976: 271). Walters (2010:198) observes that there are numerous benefits of adult education and these arise from the following three social purposes of adult education:

a) education that enhances strategies which enable women and men to survive the harsh conditions in which they live. Examples of this include literacy, primary healthcare, and some home-craft skills;

b) education and training geared to developing skills for people in the formal and informal sectors that describe education for economic purposes; and

c) cultural and political education which aim to encourage women and men to participate actively in the society through networks of cultural organizations, social movements, political parties, and trade unions.

It is evident in some developing countries that adult education has yielded more gains than losses through the expansion of post secondary adult education. Much of this expansion is accounted to rising levels of participation among adults. Of particular interest here has been the growing prominence attached to the provision of learning opportunities for individuals throughout their working lives and, indeed, into retirement. In part, this reflects the demographic shifts which imply an aging population – and workforce – in most of the more developed countries. Equally, there has been a fundamental political re-evaluation of adult education's role. Governments in low income countries have been remarkably consistent in prioritizing policies for what has come to be termed lifelong learning; that is, learning throughout the life course, from preschool to old age. These policies, in turn, are based on a robust conventional wisdom – what Grubb and Lazerson (2004) have dubbed the education gospel – about the essential role of adult education and training in generating high levels of skills necessary for economic competitiveness and growth in the globalized economy.

In the early 1970s, 20 years after the United Nations had been established, and many countries had recently gained independence from the colonial powers, there was much interest in the role of adult education in national development (Korsgaard, 1997; Finger, 2005). In the absence of skilled staff, the implementation of interventions or programmes has been done through the usage of Programme Facilitators. These are citizens drawn from the respective communities and are familiar with the cultural and ethical norms of the areas they are working in and are empowered with basic knowledge and skills (Finger, 2005; Gaventa, 2007). This is a task that comes with its own inherent constraints considering that the programmes are quite diverse in scope, objectives and duration. The facilitators are trained for specific interventions which vary in implementation periods from short term to long term. For example, traditional birth attendants (long term), and outbreak of cholera (short term). The complexity of the programme in terms of technical and scientific requirements for its implementation determines the initial levels of minimum academic qualifications necessary for the recruitment of facilitators to be trained (Oga and Okwori, 2005; Gaventa, 2007).

1.2 Historical Perspective

Historically, when Zambia got its independence in 1964, it had a very small stock of trained personnel (Snelson, 1974; Goma, 1969). Prior to independence, higher education for indigenous Zambians and training of local personnel to develop their communities or country were given less preference by the colonial government. The kind of training or education

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indigenous Africans received was too inadequate to address the high demand of specialists in different communities that were growing. However, it only succeeded in alienating them from their environment (Tiberondwa, 1977).

After its independence from Britain, Zambia implemented deliberate policies meant to promote the use of local resources in an effort to address the many colonial legacies left by the British. As a result, the priority for the then new government was to meet the urgent need of trained human resource for the country. With a stable financial base coupled with a booming economy, Zambia recorded a lot of success in mining, agriculture, forestry and domestic production activities. However, the government assumed a state control strategy and began a campaign of controlling aspects of the economy and provided all goods and services fairly adequately to all citizens. The course of development for Zambia remained smooth, focused and destined for more economic development (Tiberondwa, 1977; Mwanakatwe, 1968).

However, it did not take long before the new government of Zambia realized that independence would not bring the intended economic emancipation, because she was still overburdened by her desire to meet the expectations steered during election campaigns. Thus, there arose a greater need to very quickly develop the economy. However, the overburdening of the government, coupled with the downward trend of copper prices in the mid 1970s, led to the dwindling of foreign exchange earnings; consequently increased dependence on borrowing from the World Bank (WB) and International Monetary Fund (IMF) and handouts from other donors (Kahler, 2000).

Since independence, a number of Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) have almost taken over from government or are in the forefront of innovation in the development field of the country by training programme facilitators.   This has been necessitated by the fact that Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) are flexible in terms of their ability to respond to developmental problems; and have a different relationship with their constituencies than government agencies. For instance, they have the capacity to provide trainers of programme facilitators anywhere or whenever need arises in different communities such as in health, agriculture and social security (Lyton and Pareek, 1990; Kahler, 2000).

Due to the many challenges faced by different communities and failure by government to provide specialist human resource during the post- independence era, it was realized that training of programme facilitators would help alleviate some of the challenges faced by the country. It was further realised that training of programme facilitators in their local communities would be of great importance as it encompassed all types of facilitated learning opportunities (Kahler, 2000).

Further, it was also realized that because of the need to reach out to all communities faced with different constraints and failure by government to provide trained human resource to cater for these communities, the Government and NGOs had to provide trainers of programme facilitators who are themselves experts in different fields depending on the challenge faced by the community.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

There have been numerous unpublished reports written by cooperating partners and public servants indicating that very little has been achieved in training programme facilitators. The reports do not however point out the constraints that trainers of programme facilitators face. Research in the area of adult education looking at this subject matter is scarce and as such there are numerous gaps that require filling. Research is yet to outline the constraints encountered by trainers in the training of programme facilitators. It is also yet to provide evidence that measures have been taken by stakeholders to address these constraints. This research therefore, was undertaken to fill the gap in knowledge related to constraints.

1.4 Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study was to profile constraints encountered by trainers in the training of programme facilitators and to determine what has been done or what can be done to mitigate any constraints relating to training.

1.5 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were to:
1)   investigate constraints encountered by trainers in the training of   programme facilitators; and

2)   establish whether or not any measures had been taken by stakeholders and the public service to address these constraints.

1.6 Research Questions

The following were the research questions for the study:

1)   what constraints do trainers encounter in the training of programme facilitators?
2)   what measures have been taken by stakeholders to address these constraints?

1.7 Significance of this study

However, in spite of the limitations of the study, this study has notable significances. This is the first known research to focus explicitly on trainers of programme facilitators from a systems research point of view. The study is an initial step towards addressing the various problems related to managing training programmes in meeting human resource shortages. Thus to this extent, the findings of this study highlight the relevance of training people who are no longer at school but have livelihoods. Furthermore, the findings provide to policymakers and stakeholders (different Government Ministries and Non- Governmental Organisations involved in the training of programme facilitators) solutions to address a range of constraints. In addition, the results of the study are significant in that they contribute very useful information to the already existing body of knowledge on this subject.

1.8 Delimitation

The study was conducted in the North-Western Province, which is one of the ten provinces of Zambia. It is geographically located in the North-Western part of the country and shares borders with the Democratic Republic of Congo, Angola, Western and Copperbelt Provinces of Zambia. The province covers an area of approximately 125,826 square kilometers and is said to be the second largest province after Northern Province (Central Statistical Office, 2010). The province comprises seven (7) districts, namely; Mufumbwe, Zambezi, Chavuma, Solwezi, Kabompo, Kasempa and Mwinilunga and has an approximated population of about 706,462 people (CSO, 2010).

Figure 1.7.1 Districts of North Western Province

Source: Geography Department, UNZA

1.9 Limitations of this study

Just like all other researches, this study has its own limitations too. The limitations arose from the methodologies that were adopted for this study. These limitations play an important role in making suggestions for future research. The following were the limitations:

The first limitation was related to non- testing of theory but the inductive use of literature in generating questionnaire items. This has made the study have a weak explanatory power as it has shown deficiency in testing hypotheses. The reliance on the abductive strategy to generate solutions to constraints by providing much of the data renders the research weak in theory (Blaikie, 2000). However, since this study was exploratory, induction and abduction when combined have greater descriptive power and the triangulation of methods adds validity to the study.

The second was related to generalising the findings. The ultimate findings in this study are

not generalisable to districts outside North Western Province because the results are based on a case study of a rural place.

The third was related to the extensive use of one-on-one interviewing in getting solutions to the elicited constraints. In spite of its usage; it risked researcher's influence on the respondents. Notwithstanding this limitation, the method however provided rich data from which to construct what was happening.

The fourth one had to do with the exclusion of trainees or programme facilitators from the study. Their inclusion could have given an extra impetus to the findings of this study.

The fifth one had to do with limited time faced by the researcher during the data collection process as she was not in a position to wait indefinitely. The sample to be interviewed was rather difficult to enlist because some potential respondents were field workers and were not available the time the researcher was in an area.

The sixth was related to the deliberate refusal by some respondents to participate in the research as the researcher was referred to Lusaka while others were afraid of participating in the study as it was during election period. The potential respondents had a false belief that the researcher was recruiting potential voters. However, their refusal to participate in the research deprived the researcher of the information required to be included in the findings of the study.

1.10 Operational Definitions

The definition of terms indicates how the researcher has used themes in this study.

Research: Refers to an investigation undertaken or advanced detailed study of a subject, in order to discover new facts. Creswell (1994) further simplified the definition by stating that research is a process of steps used to collect and analyze information to increase our understanding of a topic or issue".

Constraint: Refers to something that limits someone's freedom of action or an obstacle that affects negatively to the smooth implementation of any training programme.

Participation: In the context of training or learning, participation is viewed as an act of taking part or having a share with others in a training action. It therefore involves assumption of specific responsibilities by the learner in terms of the act of learning or training. Participation provides an opportunity for determining what, how, and when to learn or train (Shurir, 1997).

Trainer: In this study, trainer refers to someone who provides knowledge and skills to different individuals for their use in their respective environments.

Training: In this study, training refers to the impartation of knowledge and skills of a particular field or the learning process that involves the acquisition of knowledge, Sharpening of skills, concepts, rules, or changing of attitudes and behaviours to enhance performance .

Programme Facilitator: Refers to one who builds technical knowledge and training skills of individuals charged with disseminating technical information to field practitioners. In this study however, the word programme facilitators refers to an individual or individuals who may not be qualified in a certain field but has a certain educational level to be able to build and transfer new knowledge and skills and who can be trained by Specialists or experts to train others in different communities or organizations.

Stakeholder: In this study, stakeholder refers to individuals, organizations, initiators or funders who are interested in seeing that the different programmes they have an interest in, initiated or funded are successful as well as making sure that funds and other resources required to run the programme are available to achieve their objectives.

Stress: This is the pressure or strain experienced by an individual which impairs his/her ability to perform their role as a trainer.

Adult Education: As an area of intervention and a focus for research, adult education is a reality that is perceived and structured differently by the various actors according to their specific contexts and historical circumstances. The concept of adult education also varies according to who requests it and who proposes programmes. Differences between regions are numerous. In Africa and the Arab States, in the light of the urgency of basic training needs, adult education is perceived first and foremost as literacy training. In the sub-regions of Asia in which economic growth is escalating, continuing education for adults is the primary focus of adult education rather than literacy training. In regions dominated by political violence, popular education is at the behest of adult education activities. In other regions the urgency of resolving practical survival issues takes precedence over both theoretical and basic research in adult education.

1.11 Organisation of the Dissertation

Chapter one presents the background to the topic under study. The chapter further presents the statement of the problem and explains the significance of the study. This is for the purpose of making the reader grasp the relevance of the topic under study. The next chapter, which is chapter two tackles literature review. This chapter provides a review of relevant literature to the topic under study.

Chapter three discusses the methodology that was employed to carry out the study. It outlined the methods which were used in data collection and data analysis. The chapter further outlined the research design, target population, sampling procedure, the research instruments that were used.

The findings of the study are presented in chapter four which also addresses both research questions while chapter five discuses the findings under the headings drawn from the objectives of the study and presents the conclusion and recommendations based on the findings of the study.

1.12   Summary

Chapter one focused on the issues relating to background information of the study on the constraints encountered by trainers in the training of Programme Facilitators. Further, it highlighted a brief history of what necessitated the training of Programme facilitators. The chapter further outlined the objectives of the study, research questions, limitations and the significance of the study.

CHAPTER TWO - LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of literature relevant to the study. The aim of reviewing literature is to get background information related to the topic understudy and gain knowledge of what other researchers have done in relation to constraints encountered by trainers in the training of programme facilitators. Further, most of the literature reviewed, enabled the researcher gain more knowledge regarding the methodologies applied by others.

2.1 The Concept of Training

Training is another word which has to be used with caution because of the wide meanings ascribed to it. According to Wikipedia (2011), training refers to the learning process that involves the acquisition of knowledge, competencies, sharpening of skills, concepts, rules or changing of attitudes and behaviours to enhance performance. The International Labour Organisation Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (ILOIPEC, 2011) supports Wikipedia when it defines training as, 'a process of acquiring knowledge, skills, and attitudes that are needed to fill the gap between what the people want to do, and what they are able to do now. However, ILOIPEC (2011) supports the concept of training when it calls it 'cascading training,' which apart from passing on of knowledge and skills, workers have been known to perform their duties at different levels. And one unique feature of this training is the employing of 'learning by doing approach' that is, exhibiting a practical-participatory approach to training trainers. These trainers, when adequately capacitated, educated and tutored in different ways of research, can be and are assigned to train programme facilitators who eventually reach out to the grassroots. Another meaning of training, according to ILOIPEC (2011), is that it is an educational process that is much more than just a teaching content or giving information in a very long speech. In training, people learn new information, re-learn and reinforce existing knowledge and skills, and most importantly, help trainees consider what new options can help improve their effectiveness in the activities they are involved in to better their communities or organisations.

Training is essentially the instructing of others in information new to them and its application. It may, and often does, involve the teaching of new skills, methods and procedures. And the experts who instruct are called Trainers (ILOIPEC, 2011, Rogers, 1983).

Training is one of the major duties of all managers, executives, supervisors, engineers, and all other professions where it exists there is a need to optimally utilise and develop Human Resources. What makes a training effort a success? The answers lie in the quality of the trainer and the training approach adopted.

Cole (2004), on the other hand, defines training differently, explaining that it is a preparation for an occupation or for specific skills only that it is narrower in conception than either education or development, and it is job oriented rather than personal. Whatever the case may be, training has been conceptualised in numerous ways but in simple terms; training refers to a planned and regular educational provision where the instructor and the learner come into contact in order for the learner to acquire some new knowledge and skills. Thus, training must be tailored toward the expectations of the people. For this reason, training must be interactive and must model the expected behavior of trainers. It must have specific goals of improving the trainee's capability, capacity and performance. Salvi (2011) asserts that training should aim at bringing out knowledge, skills and values that trainees already possess. Further, trainees may, thereafter, share the knowledge and skills they have acquired with others.

The above definitions of Training explain in simpler terms that the trainee, graduates with life skills and knowledge that are utilised to better individual lives and that of their communities; and this is what is termed national development. This development approach designed for the trainees has been favoured by stakeholders and other partners who actually provide the Trainers of trainers (Kitanaka: 2005).

2.2 Definition, Role and Importance of a Trainer in the Training of Programme Facilitators

Rogers (1983) looks at a Trainer as one with subject expertise, a person who plays a leading role in taking a group through an agenda designed to transmit a body of knowledge or a set of skills to be acquired; one who helps all full-time and part- time trainers to learn and practice the modern training processes and apply it for the betterment of themselves, trainees and their communities or organisations. Rogers further explains that the concept of trainer, therefore, is the single most critical human factor which makes or breaks the training effort. However, very few people are born trainers, and most of those who wish to be trainers require training.

In agreement with Rogers, Kahler (2000) states that to become an effective trainer one needs to understand the complete training process which starts from the identification of training needs, leading to training design and implementation which culminates into measurement and evaluation of the desired results. And one important element that comes out of a training programme is, therefore, the Trainer. On the other hand, Watoto (2010) asserts that the trainer who is enthusiastic, energetic and genuinely interested in both the subject and getting his or her message across, will evoke the greatest response from the trainees. The Trainer who lacks interest in training, who has little or no enthusiasm for the subject of the training and who merely goes through the motions of training is a failure. In addition, such a Trainer wastes not only his or her own time, but also that of the trainees. The inept Trainer, therefore, is quickly identified by the trainees, who react with inattention, lassitude, undisciplined behaviour and absence from training sessions (Watoto, 2010, IRRI, 1990).

The IRRI (1990), when giving analysis on the same subject, explains that successful training which produces the desired result lies almost entirely in the hands of the trainer. Thus the trainers have the heavy responsibility of ensuring that the trainees achieve maximum levels possible from the training being offered. The IRRI further states that the success of any training lies in the relationship that develops between the trainer and trainees. This means a training relationship that exhibits mutual respect and trust will often run smoothly, making certain that the trainer ensures that even the weakest trainee in the group performs to the highest possible level. In such situation, the trainer becomes the motivator and the trainee the motivated (Dahama, 1979).

Dahama (1979) further points out that a trainer's effectiveness is measured by his or her ability to speak with clarity and conviction in getting the messages across to the trainees. However, men and women in trainer's positions are expected to be highly competent at presenting ideas, giving directions and explaining procedures. In fact, this quality of being an effective communicator is generally considered to be an essential element of an effective Trainer. This is because the information the trainer communicates to a trainee is often critical to the workings of the organisation or community as a whole. What this means therefore is that the way one explains procedures or gives directions without leading to frustrations can make the difference between a trainer and a trainee.

What is cardinal in this literature is that the training segment of any programme is to provide support to theory and practice. This places heavier responsibility on the trainer, who must,

within a stipulated time, make the deepest possible impression on the trainees. Further, the trainer must be familiar and skilled in presenting the training information and related methods, but he or she must be at least familiar with many other aspects of training not covered by the modules, for example, motivation theory, the art of public speaking, conducting discussions, course planning and written communication. A better understanding of these subjects enables the trainer to weave appropriate strands from them into the presentations of the modules, thus broadening the trainees' experience (IRRI, 1990).

2.3 Principles of Training

Lyton and Pereek (1990) and Shurir (1997) bring out principles that need to be taken into consideration or understood for proper training to take place. First, it is important to understand that training entails a social process where the training programme becomes a temporary organisation and that this temporary organisation follows values, norms and principles which are congruent with the training objectives. An important ingredient of training, therefore, is its utility in day to day life.

Secondly, the creation of suitable training or learning environment is a crucial consideration in training. It is important that the learning environment be such that trainees are accepted as they are, feel psychological safety to experiment and take risks, enjoy mutual support and feel confident that whatever happens in training will not be used against them later on.

Another issue to consider is the Trainer's behaviour. It is an important element in training. Here the trainer's own behavior and value system are equally critical. First, the trainer needs to be aware of his own self and be sensitive to others. The trainer has to have skills in working groups and a keen sense of observation of individuals and group processes. Moreover, the behavior of the trainer should be congruent with the aims, values and principles of training. According to ILOIPEC (2011), the trainer has the following characteristics; must be a presenter, facilitator, listener, commentator, note-taker and gender sensitive. The trainer is all-inclusive where good qualities are concerned, for example, the trainer leads participants to 'see and remember, do and understand and hear and not forget.

2.4 Theory Guiding the Inquiry

This study is guided by the theory of constraints (TOC). TOC is a systems-management philosophy developed by Eliyahu M. Goldratt in the early 1980s. The fundamental thesis of TOC is that constraints establish the limits of performance for any system. The major component of TOC that underpins all the other parts of the methodology is the TOC thinking process. These are a suite of logic trees that provide a roadmap for change, by addressing the three basic questions of "What to change, What to change to, and How to cause the change" (Goldratt, 1990).

The TOC methodology has evolved from a production scheduling technique to a systems methodology which is primarily concerned with managing change. Klein and DeBruine (1995) state that originally Goldratt set out to devise a systematic approach to identifying what was preventing a company from achieving its goal of making money for its owners. The approach was first used in a manufacturing environment and reported at an APICS conference in 1980. Hrisak (1995) notes that TOC is used worldwide by companies of all sizes. He states that many programmme managers who routinely use TOC believe they understand their businesses for the first time. From this understanding, they gain a sense of control and of being able to act proactively. He says this is because TOC empowers programme managers by providing a consistent framework for diagnosing problems. The TOC methodology now encompasses a wide range of concepts, principles, solutions, tools and approaches, the description of which is beyond the scope of this dissertation. Interested readers can refer to Cox and Spencer (1998), or Balderstone (1999) for a complete overview. For the present study, the researcher will concentrate on the systems aspects and outline the constraints that affect the training of programme facilitators.

2.5 Constraints encountered by Trainers in the training of Programme Facilitators

Although training is being carried out widely and with purpose and success in many urban and rural areas, a number of constraints still face trainers in the area of adult education. Literature (see Goldratt, 1990; Spencer, 1998; Balderston, 1999) has shown that the common problems include: budget deficits; time constraint; the balance of work as a trainer and other work situations; lack of appropriate human resource; lack of motivation; stress; language barrier; lack of training resources; differences in the entry behavior of trainees; lack of a conducive environment for training; and lack of practical experience of trainers. Each one of these constraints is discussed in detail below.

2.5.1 Budget deficits

JICA (2004), points out that generally, most African countries including Zambia, suffer from budget deficits. This is a huge constraint that derails the implementation of many training programmes in urban and rural areas. As a result, most training requires logistical support and infrastructure-building for smooth operations (Hazoume, 1997). The NGO Council (1996) further observes that financial constraints are compounded by the fact that most programmes receive limited funding which leads to shortages of learning materials and lack of motivation for the trainers of programme facilitators. Liquidity constraints tend to negatively impact on the overall quality of instruction (Kahler, 2000). The NGO Council (1996) has recorded that less investment of resources in the training and payment of trainers has had a negative effect on the success of the programme and motivation of the trainers.

In Zambia, most adult education programmes have been funded mainly by the donor community. No sooner than the donor leaves that the project folds up. The NGO Council (1996) has further observed that most adult education programmes have failed due to lack of financial sustainability. Unsustainable financial resource delays training programmes in the area of HIV and AIDs prevention, agricultural extension, malaria control since most of them are mainly donor-dependent (NGO Council, 1996).

NGO Council (1996) further contends that the problem of sustainability is compounded by time factor. Often, trainings are donor funded and last for a particular agreed period of time. After that the local people are expected to take full control of the programme. Therefore, the training programmes required are localised and community based. As a summary note here, it can be said that the literature presented by JICA and the NGO Council about financial sustainability as a factor in training is not enough and thus more research is required on the subject of trainers of trainers or programme facilitators.

In addition, it is viewed that training should be implemented within the context of the project concept; that which should improve the capacity of trainees in their programme. This literature review emphasises that training follow-up activities are key to sustainable learning outcomes. Further, non-availability of documents written in local languages retards skills training progress (IFAD 2007); a positive example is the Practical Action supported Farmer trainer in extension and aquaculture in Bangladesh where about 200,000 farmers were trained

over two years. Take home literature in the form of pamphlets was provided and circulated widely to back up the training. And in Rwanda, apprentices were placed for 6 months in enterprises and upon completion received training in business management and credit administration so that they could set up their own small enterprises (Camillieri 2007). What it means here is that after trainers or programme facilitators have been trained, a follow-up activity should be formulated to see how the trained programme facilitators are using their skills to enhance their production prowess at the grassroots level. And in Zambia, North-Western Province in particular, this has been one of the major constraints because follow-ups are not done.

2.5.2 Culture and Values

Trainers of Programme Facilitators, in the North Western Province of Zambia, face a cultural constraint (JICA, 2004). It has been observed that the culture and traditional values tend to impede developmental activities especially if they touch target groups or beneficiaries. In addition, many young people and adults who are supposed to participate in development programmes that require community training often shun such training and prefer longer training which they perceive as having more direct benefits. The other constraint is that since development projects in rural areas are about poor people and tend not to involve them, these people find it hard to participate in such training. To motivate them, it would require very sensitive and mindful tactics.

2.5.3 Time constraint

Kahler (2000) asserts that time can be very critical in training both at micro or macro levels as it can pose as an impediment to any development. This is because in most situations or cases involving project and programme activities that are evolutionary in nature are not designed in response to specific donor projects, but rather projects that emerge from specific needs of a specific group of individuals or specific communities. As such, considerable time and energy is invested in working with programme participants to identify their needs, develop inventories of possible resources that could be drawn upon and then slowly begin to build the programme. Barmberger et. al. (2004) argue that time can be a dear constraint which can be very particularly problematic when a facilitator, trainer or any evaluator of a project is not familiar with the community, area, province, city or country in which the

project is being implemented. Further, Barmberger and his associates point out that the time constraint is difficult to resolve due to poor planning.

2.5.4 The balance of work as a trainer and other work situations

The other constraint cited on time is to balance work as a trainer and other work situations. Trainers particularly in Third World Countries are usually employed elsewhere but are only invited for participation in training. They are invited to conduct training because they have the expertise in that field where training is required. However, due to lack of adequate time, they may rush the training programme leaving the participants at a level that they cannot interpret the modules which they may have been given at the end of the training programme. For example, training on issues such as civic education focusing on gender equality, peace and human rights education and human development, among other things, need not be facilitated in a hurry (Kahler, 2000).

2.5.5 Lack of appropriate human resource

Lack of appropriate human resource can be a critical missing link in the training of programme facilitators. Sichula (2009) says that the most important source of appropriate human resource should be where there is a reservoir of adequately trained personnel that produces even programme participants themselves, who in most cases have become the catalysts for the expansion and sustainability of programme activities. Sichula goes further to explain that issues such as effectiveness of training, cost of programme development, on-going costs in relation to efficiency and effectiveness and long term benefits of instructional training of the trainer of programme facilitators, can be realized where there is an appropriate human resource that is skilled and knowledgeable. Sichula further says that the proven success of training of programme facilitators will justify the current and future allocation of resources to the programme and justify performance expectations. Therefore, any investment in human resource should include the development of skills and knowledge without which it will be very difficult to enhance the skills and knowledge of programme facilitators. In Zambia, it is apparent that provinces covering rural areas, such as the North-Western Province that lack trained human resource, do not normally show potential in the production of skilled and knowledgeable programme facilitators. This gives a reason why even trainers are not available when required. The situation arises where trainers are drawn from the urban areas into the rural areas when need is identified. TEVETA (2004) says there is need for

training providers to provide necessary training to programme facilitators who would be equipped with necessary tools, equipment and materials. Presently, this picture is blurred.

2.5.6 Lack of motivation

On motivation as a constraint in training, Wagner (1999) explains that motivation is the spark that leads to action and so determines the direction as well as the success of human action or activity. Hoy and Miskel (1991:20) further explain that motivation is the combination of factors that start and maintain training related behaviour towards the achievement of training goals. Hoy and Miskel (1991), give credence of Maslow's view (1954) on motivation that 'motivation is the arousal of behavior oriented towards a particular goal and the direction that it will take in order to attain the goal.' From this explanation, Maslow points out the fact that motivation is associated with the enthusiasm that impels people to move and strive for the goal until it is met. Therefore, the efficacy of training anchors is on trainers. However, motivation is one of the key elements associated with training. It is the force which drives us to perform the actions that we do or the force that energises us to fulfill our goals, ambitions and dreams. In the same line of thought, the above views regard motivation as involving the channeling and directing the responses and persistence of human behaviour coming from some form of arousal or spark. Motivation can therefore be summed up as dealing with explanations of why people do things the way they do. However, lack of motivation of trainers will lead to poor training of programme facilitators, refusal to participate in training and even stopping altogether.

2.5.7 Stress

Stress is a feeling that is created when we react to particular events; when the body rises to a challenge, for example, preparing to meet a tough situation with focus, strength, stamina, and heightened alertness (RRC Business Training, 2004)). Stress is proved by events that are termed, stressors that cover a whole range of situations; for instance, coming from outright physical danger, pressure from having limited time to conduct a training programme, failure to produce the required training materials which include aids; and failure by stakeholder to provide a conducive training environment.

However, as a constraint, stress retards a person's ability to perform training assignments. Stress response can cause serious problems when it overreacts or fails to turn off and reset

itself properly. An illustration of this is when a trainer is given a lot of work to cover within a short time and while trying to avoid failure the delivery expected is muddled up. In a milder form at a time when the pressure's on but there's no actual danger, for example, when getting ready for a final examination. A little of this stress can cause confusion in the training life of a programme facilitator. Further, stress can also be caused by on-going or long-term events that might mean a lot to concerned programme facilitators. Long-term stressful situations have been known to produce a lasting, low-level stress that might be hard on people. If a programme facilitator is stressful, for example, the nervous system senses may continue being pressured and remain slightly activated and continue to pump out extra stress hormones over an extended period. This obviously wears out the body's reserves and the person remains feeling depleted or overwhelmed, thereby weakening the body's immune system; a condition that may cause other health problems (Gougis, 1986).

In understanding stress as a constraint in training programme facilitators, Wentling (1992) asserts that stress has become an important consideration in many training environments, that it may be linked with aspects of morale and the organisation of a training programme. Therefore, understanding the nature and causes of stress is a key element in designing a training environment to suit the needs of both the trainee and the trainer. However, when stress levels rise to the point where an individual/trainer cannot cope, there are harmful results that should be expected leading to failure by the trainer to deliver as expected.

2.5.8 Language barrier

Language is not simply a medium of communication. It is a description of the world; it shapes and is shaped by culture and environment; it imposes categories on inchoate experience; it orders and articulates those categories in a way that is unique. ELTCETEMS Conference (2003), therefore, attests to the fact that a trainer should be a good communicator who is able to pass on knowledge through use of language. Language skills are therefore, key to a trainer's personal and professional satisfaction as it would help to integrate the trainer into the host community as well as easing personal adaptation. Language therefore, may have an impact on interaction between people who speak different languages in their daily lives and work practices, for example, most of the rural course participants hardly use English. It is also noticed that most of the rural course participants spend more time on certain components of the modules as they find it difficult to follow or understand due to the language being used. This therefore becomes a constraint in training programme facilitators.

According to Colorado University (2000), language is one of the most obvious cultural constraints; differences in language can render either a researcher or a facilitator or trainer or participant to completely be incapable of talking to each other. The only solution, is to work with a translator, though even with the translator no matter how well issues may be translated, there never can be accuracy and total inner appreciation of the learned materials. This is because language is culture, and the absence of it is the absence of the value of the materials learned. Colorado University (2000), further highlights that language is an aspect of culture that creates profound constraints among stakeholders and may delay the project or may lead to its abandonment.

2.5.9 Lack of training resources

Training materials and aids are devices used to communicate instructional or educative messages to the learners. They create effectiveness of methods or techniques in order to enhance learning and also supplement the written and spoken words in the transmission of knowledge. However, Clever (2001) asserts that training materials have various planning requirements and different degrees of complexity in production as well as in use. Some requirements; are close adherence to step wise planning process and selection of such training materials must be appropriate for the participants and sensitive to their culture in order to avoid conflict.

Kid (1973) asserts that, each learning situation presents a unique set of circumstances. This means that the instructional materials will focus on the level of participants, and expectations of their societies. Further, the trainer has to know when to present materials and note that adults should not be rushed into learning because they want to learn what is relevant to them and be able to use in their immediate environment. Therefore, lack of affordable training materials and failure to adhere to the requirements of selecting training materials will pose as a huge constraint in the training of programme facilitators because they will not appreciate the training; making it difficult to facilitate.

However, there are no shortcuts in the non-formal education materials development process. Developing quality integrated learning materials requires investments in staff, time and resources. Clever (2001) explains that partner organisations often enter into the material development activity without a full level of awareness of how much time was going to be

needed. Training of staff in the use of integrated materials has revealed that literacy facilitators and non-formal education programme animators have had to further develop their knowledge and skills in technical areas where their expertise may have been weak. Thus, there is an increased need for training in the area of programme facilitators.

Effective use of audiovisual aids can be included in any sort of presentation. Charts, slides, videos, overhead transparencies and films can be used to add interest as well as supplement verbal explanations. Proper use of instructional aids saves time, adds interest, helps trainees learn and makes your job easier. But it should be remembered that aids to training are aids only. They are not substitutes for training. Trainers should use training aids to supplement their training rather than to replace all or part of it (Armstrong, 2007).

2.5.10 Differences in the entry behavior of trainees

Underlying a training process at all levels is the need for trainers to know their students/trainees, their capacities, background, motivations, cultures, literacy levels and characteristics. Without such knowledge even the most competent trainer cannot expect a fully effective job on training. As trainers, one needs to understand that people grow up in different environments and observe given practices and beliefs. In Zambia, for instance, some of these beliefs have a negative influence on the training/learning process in a variety of ways such as having no recognition of the traditional requirements of that society, not realising that among the trainees, because of their backgrounds, there are different levels of understanding as well as their different cultural backgrounds and literacy levels. There are some factors that would hinder training that arise mainly from physiological, sociological, psychological, cultural and traditional cultures. However, if the trainer recognizes, believes, practices and experiences as well as the culture of the learners/trainees then training will succeed.

The issue of cultural differences is one of the key factors why training programmes fail in many communities. Culture shapes human behavior, attitudes, and values. Human behavior results from a process of socialisation, and socialisation always takes place within the context of specific cultural and ethnic environments so explain Kallen (1970), Novak (1975) and Pai (1984). Kimball (1987) confirms that the basic caretaking practices of human survival are essentially the same for everyone, but their pattern, organisation, and learning are specific. Hence, humans are social beings who carry within them their individual biological and

psychological traits as well as the legacies of their ethnic group's historical background, collective heritage, and cultural experiences.

When trainers/ educators claim that their top priority is to treat all trainees/participants like human beings, regardless of ethnic identity, cultural background, or economic status, they are creating a paradox (Gay, 1991). A person's humanity cannot be isolated or divorced from his or her culture or ethnicity. One cannot be human without culture and ethnicity, and one cannot have culture and ethnicity without being human (Gay, 1991). Therefore, to acknowledge and respect one another, to be fully human, requires mutual understanding and appreciation based on cultural understanding (Gay, 1991; Spindler, 1987).

The influences of culture and ethnicity are established early and thoroughly in the process of human growth and development, and they prevail thereafter for the remainder of one's life. Some secondary elements of culture can be modified over time and with experience, but the core features continue to be the mainstay of a person's sense of being and identity throughout life. Kallen (1970) makes this point cogently in the following observations:

As a trainer, multicultural education might be very useful in that teaching and learning are training modes through which cultural processes can be transmitted. And to make training more accessible and equitable for a wide variety, trainees and assistant researchers need to be more clearly understood. Such an understanding can be achieved by analyzing of the training programme from multiple-cultural perspectives and thereby removing the blindness imposed on training by the dominant cultural experiences (Spindler, 1987). Thus, the North-Western Province is a multi-cultural region which is understood by using multi-cultural perspective modes of training.

2.5.11 Lack of a conducive environment for training

Moseley (1995) asserts that for training to be effective, the environment needs to be conducive to learning, allowing both the trainees and trainers space and time to interact within the training or learning process. Creating and maintaining stimulating training environments can be achieved through effective classroom organization, interactive displays, and climate of innovation. Brighthouse and Woods (1999) further attest to the understanding that the best training or learning environment would be one of high challenge and low stress, ritualized and patterned positive trainer behaviour influences, performance, constant and varied exposure to new material which would encourage quicker and deeper learning,

incorporated range of training strategies within planning and that which ensures that resources are appropriate, accessible, identifiable and relevant to both the trainees and trainers learning/training needs.

Some areas, for example, usually pose as a constraint in training due to lack of proper facilities. Imagine if the training needs a power point presentation and you are in a typical remote place where electricity cannot be accessed; it will be difficult to make a presentation in such a setting. This kind of training will always be done exclusively in urban areas.

2.5.12 Lack of Practical Experience of Trainers

The lack of practical experience usually proves to be a serious constraint for many trainers (it must be noted that they are not to blame for this short coming; they simply have not had the opportunity). However, this is especially visible in their preparation as they find it exceptionally difficult to identify the real key issue which they have to address. It is also very evident in their presentations and practical demonstrations and when trainees ask trainers questions related to the practical side of the training programme, they have been unable to give satisfactory answers due to lack of experience (Botha, 2009).It has become very clear that trainers of programme facilitators should be empowered with all the different aspects required for any level of training e.g. Training Principles, Theory, Practical Understanding and the transfer of technology, before going to the field to do the training. Trainers must be properly qualified, as the old, young and illiterate trainees who attend the training should never be underestimated as they have different levels of understanding and experiences (Botha, 2009).

Further, transfer of information or knowledge to the Facilitator by trainers should be of good standard as failure to do that would cause serious problems to the trainees or programme facilitators who are trained to train others. Lack of practical experience by trainers of programme facilitators can therefore create confusion between the trainers and the trainees as the knowledge being imparted would be incorrect or pose as a constraint faced by trainers (Gay, 1991).

2.6 Summary

Indeed, it is now universally recognized that what can be learnt at school is but an introduction to life: that knowledge in every sphere is accumulating and changing so rapidly that learning must be of necessity and must be a continuing activity. Although training is being carried out widely and with purpose and success in many urban and rural areas, a number of constraints still face trainers in the area of adult education. Literature has shown that the common problems include: budget deficits; time constraint; the balance of work as a trainer and other work situations; lack of appropriate human resource; lack of motivation; stress; language barrier; lack of training resources; differences in the entry behaviors of trainees; lack of a conducive environment for training and lack of practical experience of trainers.

CHAPTER: THREE - METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to describe the research methodology that was employed in this study. A research methodology is a body of methods, rules and procedures employed by those conducting an investigation. Ghosh (1992) defines a research methodology as a broad term involving all strategies that describe how, when and where data is to be collected, analysed as well as how results are communicated to the end users. Thus, this chapter will therefore, outline various aspects which will deal with research design, target population, sample and sampling procedure, data collection procedure ,ethical consideration and will constitute the process of data analysis.

3.1 Research Design

According to White (2003), a research design refers to a researcher's overall approach and justification of the use of such an approach with regard to the problem under investigation. On the other hand, Bryman (2001) describes it as a plan outlining how information is to be gathered for assessment or a framework for the generation of evidence that is suited both to a certain set of criteria and to the research questions which the investigator is interested in. In its widest sense it is perceived as a programme designed to guide the researcher in collecting, analysing and interpreting observed facts (Bless and Achola; 1988).

A cross sectional research design was used as the researcher's overall approach for this study. A cross sectional research design is a "*... method of collecting data to make inferences about a population of interest (universe) at one point in time"* (Bryman, 2001:41). According to White (2003), researchers who wish to explore and describe phenomena but do not intend to establish cause and effect or even to see change in behavior over time find cross-sectional studies to be appropriate. In addition, researchers who desire to gather information at one point in time opt to use cross sectional study designs. This, in essence, is what this study was for. In addition, a cross section study design was appropriate to answer the desired questions, and was chosen for methodological reasons in that it was appealing for reasons of economy of time and cost. Further the researcher intended to explore issues that were unknown in the setting withstanding the fact that the design severely limited the researcher's ability to address developmental issues or offer causal interpretations (Bless and Achola; 1988; White, 2003).

With the need to have a more powerful design and a complete picture of the results of the study from multiple sources, a mixed methodology design, comprising qualitative and quantitative research with the quantitative paradigm being dominant was used. Relying on Sandelowski (2000:246), who contends that, "mixed method research is a dynamic option for expanding scope and improving the analytic power of studies," the researcher decided to triangulate methods in order to allow for the capture of the different facets of reality. Sandelowski (2000) and Creswell (2003) argue further that a mixed approach is based on the recognition that the use of one approach has its own limitations and biases which could be reduced by using multiple approaches.

3.2 Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted before the main research. The pilot was done in Chibombo on similar study units. The pilot study was designed to pre-test the instruments to be used for the main study and to test the appropriateness of the instruments of data collection and whether questions were being understood. In addition, the pilot study allowed the researcher to have some field experience before the main study (Teijngen and Hundley, 2001).

3.3 The main study

The Main study was conducted in the selected four districts (Solwezi, Kasempa, Mwinilunga and Kabompo) of the North-Western Province after evaluating the appropriateness of the instruments used in the pilot study. All the methodological inadequacies which arose from the pilot study were addressed in order to guarantee valid results.   Additionally, the procedures employed in the pilot study were also employed in the main study.

3.4 Universe population

White (2003) views a universe population as the entire set of objects and events or group of people/individuals having some common characteristics that a researcher is interested in studying. Borg and Gall (1979), further describe a universe population as all the members of a hypothetical set of people, events or objects to which we wish to generalise the results of our research.

The universe population included public servants in the ministries of health, agriculture, community development and professionals in NGOs who were involved in training programme facilitators. The inclusion criterion was that the respondent ought to have been a

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trainer of trainers or a trainer of facilitators for at least three years and was recognized as such by the institution he or she worked for.

3.5 Sample and Sampling Procedure

A sample is a subset of a population or a group of subjects or situations selected from larger population that is examined to gather information that will be part of the research (Gosh, 1982). On the other hand, Merriam and Simpson (1995), describe a sample as a strategically and systematically identified group of people or events that meets the criteria of representatives for a particular study.

This study employed two types of sampling methods and these are expert sampling (which is a type of purposive sampling method). It entails that experts on a subject become the unit of analysis. The second type of procedure was the simple random sampling which entails that each individual in a population has an equal chance of being selected as a subject during a sampling process. A sample of the study of 170 respondents was drawn from a population of 700 trainers and managers based on a sampling list that was prepared by the researcher with the help of staff in the district commissioner's office. Each district commissioner contacted the four Ministries and local NGOs to provide data to make inferences about a population of interest (universe) at one point in time, a list of staff that were involved in training community workers (programme facilitators). The respondents for this study were then selected using simple random numbers from this population of 700 trainers and managers.

Yamane's formula below was used in determining the ideal sample size for this study.

$$n \quad = \quad \frac{N}{1 + N\,(e)^2}$$

Where: n is the desired sample size

N is the known population size and

e is the precision set at .05

The level of precision e or reasonable certainty, sometimes called sampling error, is the range in which the true value of the population is estimated to be. This range is often expressed in

percentage points, (e.g., ± 5 percent). In other words, this means that, if a 95% confidence level is selected, 95 out of 100 samples will have the true population value within the range of precision specified earlier. There is always a chance that the sample you obtain does not represent the true population value.

Every potential respondent was assigned a number that matched with the names on the register in the four districts. In addition to simple random sampling using the rotary method, expert sampling (*see* Cohen and Holliday, 1979; Schofied 1996; Merriam and Simpson, 1995) was used to enlist senior members of management to be part of the study because these were a repository and privy to the training policies.

The ideal sample size was supposed to consist of 250 respondents (200 trainers of programme facilitators and 50 in programme managers). However, some respondents could not participate as the researcher was referred to Lusaka while others were reluctant and some trainers were operating from outside the districts as it was during an election period. Due to these limitations, a total of 170 respondents (i.e 150 trainers and 20 programme managers) were eligible for the study.

3.6 Data Collection Procedure

Entry into the field was facilitated by staff in the District Commissioners' Office. Two weeks before the study, programme managers and trainers were informed of the study and this further made it easy to access the respondents. A place which in most instances was an office acted as a venue for the interviews and answering the questionnaire. The challenges the researcher faced included refusal to participate in the study by some respondents and waiting for a long time to interview or administer the questionnaire because some of respondents had been out in the field. Because of some of the challenges above the researcher was forced to reduce the sample size.

Two types of data collection instruments were used and these were the survey questionnaire and semi structured interview guide. Trainers of programme facilitators were subjected to the survey questionnaire while programme managers were interviewed using semi structured interview guide.

The survey questionnaire (Appendix I) had been developed using the guidelines of developing a new research instrument by relying on Guillemin *et al.* (1993) and Burns and Grove (1997) approaches. The development was based on theoretical knowledge in the domain of adult education. After reviewing relevant literature, key concepts that were thought to be reflective of the subject at hand were identified and used in developing the survey tool. This survey questionnaire was pre-tested to control for internal validity and reliability.

Following the guidelines and recommendation of notable authors in tool validation (see Nunnally, 1967; 1978; and Bawa, 2000), the researcher accepted the lower limit for the Cronbach alpha of 0.70, although it may decrease to 0.50 in exploratory researches according to Hair *et al.* (1998:118). Nunnaly (1967) and Bawa (2000) argue that a Cronbach alpha value below 0.50 is unacceptable, 0.70 is a low level, 0.80 is "moderate", and 0. 90 are "high" (Bawa 2000: 80). The acceptance value set for the present study was however 0.50. This selection is based on Nunnaly's guideline above and is consistent with Fagan (1989) who claims that reliabilities are at least adequate at alpha = 0.50, moderate at alpha = 0.70 and excellent at alpha = 0.90. All test items during the pilot test with scores less than 0.5 were eliminated and thereafter, the survey questionnaire was then re-administered by the researcher to the respondents for the final study. With the help of staff from the District Commissioner's Office, it was then possible to administer the tool on potential respondents. The staff had a sampling frame and as such it was possible to enlist respondents.

Regarding interviews, the researcher conducted them either in an office or a conducive place that the respondent thought was ideal. Each interview lasted about 30 to 45 minutes. The questions were driven by the assumptions rooted in phenomenology. Thus called the researcher to first derive broad concepts from the research questions and crafted open ended questions. Depending on the response, the researcher followed up with open ended or closed ended questions as the case was deemed as such. An example will suffice at this juncture. *Please describe for me your role as a programme facilitator. Please describe for me the challenges you have faced in soliciting training material.* The interview was recorded most of the time and only in three instances did the researcher take notes as respondents declined to have their voices captured.

3.7 Data analysis

Qualitative data were analysed using framework analysis with the help of the NUD*IST software. Framework analysis is a qualitative method that is aptly suited for qualitative research similar to grounded theory; however, framework analysis differs in that it is better adapted to research that has specific questions, a limited time frame, a pre-designed sample and a priori issues that need to be dealt with. Although framework analysis may generate theories, the prime concern is to describe and interpret what is happening in a particular setting (Ritchie and Spencer, 1994).

Although the researcher may have a set of a priori issues, she maintained an open mind and not to force the data to fit priori issues. Ritchie and Spencer stress that the thematic framework is only tentative and there are further chances of refining it at subsequent stages of analysis (1994) and this study followed this line. Devising and refining a thematic framework was not an automatic or mechanical process, but it involved both logical and intuitive thinking. It involved making judgments about meaning, about the relevance and importance of issues and about implicit connections between ideas (Ritchie and Spencer, 1994: 180).

Every evening after data collection recordings, the researcher listened to the recordings over and over and only began to transcribe once she was satisfied that she had understood what was recorded. After the transcription was completed, the researcher transcribed all audiotapes to create texts.

Each text of the interviews was read as many times to make indexes. The researcher indexed each component of the text. Indexing means that one identifies portions or sections of the data that correspond to a particular theme. Themes are used as headings in chapter four which is the results section of this study. A theme is a recurring regularity developed to link sub themes and categories later on. Sub headers (standing in for sub themes) were then defined considering that headers could have more than one descriptive organised mutually exclusive element (themes).

Charting followed indexing. The researcher picked the specific pieces of data that were indexed in the previous stage and had them arranged in charts of the themes. This means that the data had to be lifted from its original textual context and placed in charts that consisted of headings and subheadings drawn during the thematic framework, or from a priori research

inquiries or in the manner that is perceived to be the best way to report the research (Ritchie and Spencer, 1994). The important point to remember here is that although the pieces of data are lifted from their context, the data were still clearly identified as to what case it came from. For clarity, cases should always be kept in the same order in each chart.

The final stage is mapping and interpretation which involves the analysis of the key characteristics as laid out in the charts. This analysis provided a schematic diagram of the event/phenomenon thus guiding the researcher in her interpretation of the data set. It is at this point according to Ritchie and Spencer, that the researcher is cognissant of the objectives of qualitative analysis, which are: "defining concepts, mapping range and nature of phenomena, creating typologies, finding associations, providing explanations, and developing strategies" (Ritchie and Spencer, 1994:186). Once again, these concepts and associations are reflective of the participant. Therefore, any strategy or recommendations made by the researcher echo the true attitudes, beliefs, and values of the participants.

Quantitative data were analyzed using SPSS software version 17. Since all questions measuring constraints and consequences were constructed using the ordinal scale, the questions were constructed on an eleven point Likert rating scale (1 to 11) and were categorised into three levels of rating scales to measure attitude for each Likert item or question as follows:

Constraints

Severe constraints	Some constraints	No constraints
1 to 4	5 to 7	8 to 11

Consequences

Serious consequences	Some effects on the programme	No significant effects on the programme
1 to 4	5 to 7	8 to 11

A Likert scale, as above, presents a symmetry of Likert items about a middle category (in green) and it has clearly defined linguistic qualifiers. In such symmetric scaling, equidistant attributes are typically more clearly observed or, at least, inferred. Each Likert item was analysed separately and then a composite summative score was calculated in a domain or

group. Since the summed responses fulfilled equidistance assumptions, descriptive statistics including the mean for central tendency and standard deviations for variability were done. Additional data analysis procedures that were deemed appropriate included Chi square tests of difference, the Pearson's r, *t*-test, ANOVA, were applied relying as much as possible on the advice of modern researchers (Carifio and Perla, 2007: Burns and Burns, 2008). They submit that where researchers desire to assess the differences in scores especially of Likert items, multivariate analysis using ANOVA or ANCOVA are preferred.

3.9 Ethical considerations

Ethics refers to rules or standards that govern the conduct of a person or members of a profession. Miller (2003) defines ethics as sets of moral principles that guide individuals or groups of people in order to achieve a standard behavior in conducting the business (in this case research) and in relating with others so that their conduct is seen to reflect their values, good governance, integrity, accountability, and other qualities deemed desirable. In other words, ethics are concerned with the moral fitness of decision or action (Valesquez, 2010). Code of ethics helps professionals to do their atmost in meeting their target responsively as well as provide them with a solid foundation and useful support from both local and international authorities.

May (1993) advocates that professional code of ethics be concerned with issues such as academic honesty, adherence to confidentiality, data privacy, impartiality in data analysis, professional consultation and professional accountability. These issues were taken care of in this study by adhering to the University of Zambia research Ethics and obtaining an introductory letter from the Directorate of Research and graduate Studies to authorize the research to be undertaken in the designated area.

In this study, therefore, the researcher obtained an informed consent from each participant. The participants were informed that participation in the study would be on the basis of informed consent, and on a voluntary basis, with rights to withdraw at any time. Participants were further informed that this research was purely for academic purposes as it was a fundamental requirement for the award of a Master of Education in Adult Education. The researcher further assured the participants that their responses would be confidential and that their identities would remain anonymous.

3.10 Summary

A cross sectional research design provided data for this study following a pilot study in Chibombo on similar study units. The Main study was conducted in the selected four districts (Solwezi, Kasempa, Mwinilunga and Kabompo) of the North-Western Province. This study employed two types of sampling methods and these were expert sampling and simple random sampling. A sample study of 170 respondents was drawn from a population of 700 trainers and programme managers based on a sampling list that was prepared by the researcher with the help of staff in the District Commissioner's office. Two types of data collection instruments were used and these were the survey questionnaire and semi structured interviews. Trainers of trainers and programme managers were subjected to the survey questionnaire. Only programme managers were interviewed using a semi structured interview guide. Qualitative data was analysed using framework analysis with the help of the NUD*IST software.

CHAPTER FOUR – PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study on the constraints encountered by trainers in the training of programme facilitators. The study was undertaken in four selected districts of the North-Western Province. The sample comprised one hundred and fifty (150) trainers of programme facilitators and twenty (20) programme managers. The raw data collected by use of questionnaires were recorded, analysed and interpreted and the presentation of data was by way of tables of frequencies and percentages and by description. The findings of the study are presented in three major themes as follows:

a) Demographic profile
b) Constraints trainers encounter
c) Measures taken by stakeholders to address these constraints

4.1 Demographic profile

This study drew samples from four districts as follows: n = 53 (i.e 38%) were from Solwezi, n = 45 (i.e 25%) were from Kabompo, n = 37 (i.e 16%) from Mwinilunga and n = 35 (i.e 21%) from Kasempa (*Table 4.1.1 below*).

Table 4.1.1 Distribution of sample for the study by district

District	n	%
Kabompo	45	25
Mwinilunga	37	16
Kasempa	35	21
Solwezi	53	38
Total	170	100

Table 4.1.2 below shows that in the sample, n = 99 (i.e 58.2%) were males whereas n = 71 (i.e 41.8%) were females. The majority of the respondents (i.e 69 = 40.6%) were in the age group   31 – 40 years, 52 (i.e 30.6%) were aged between 41 – 50 years, 31(i.e 18.2%) were aged between 20 – 30 years, while 18(i.e 10.6%) were 50 years and above. This however shows that the majority of the respondents (i.e 139 = 81.8%) were above the youthful age (i.e 35 years) whereas n = 31 (i.e 18.2%) were youths. Within the sample, n = 118 (i.e 69.4%) were married whereas the minority (i.e n = 52 =30.6%) of the sample were either single

divorced or widowed. The table therefore, shows that majority of the respondents were married. There was a significant association between marriage and sex (i.e value 14.402, df 3, *p* = 0.002). It was expected that trainers and programme managers had higher educational qualifications and in this sample, the majority of them (i.e n = 160 = 94.1%) had been to college or university whereas a paltry of them (i.e n = 10 =5.9%) had just been to secondary school. Within the sub population (i.e n = 160= 94.1%), trainers and managers (i.e n = 76= 44.7%) had diplomas, n = 45 (i.e 26.5%) had degrees, n = 32 (i.e 18.8%) had other certificates and n = 7 (i.e 4.1%) had masters degree. This presupposes that trainers and programme managers in the North Western province had the knowledge and skills to impart to programme facilitators (*See Table 4.1.2 below*).

Table 4.1.2 Demographic profiles of both categories of respondents N = 170

Sex	Frequency	Percentage
Male	99	58.2
Female	71	41.8
Total	**170**	**100.0**
Age group	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
20 – 30 years	31	18.2
31 – 40 years	69	40.6
41 – 50 years	52	30.6
51 years and above	18	10.6
Total	**170**	**100.0**
Status	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Single	40	23.5
Married	118	69.4
Divorced	5	2.9
Widowed	7	4.1
Total	**170**	**100.0**
Highest qualification	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Grade 12 certificate	10	5.9
Other certificates	32	18.8
Diploma	76	44.7
Degree	45	26.5
Masters degree	7	4.1
Total	**170**	**100.0**
Profession	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
healthcare workers	49	28.8
Education	72	42.4
social workers	12	7.1
Agriculture	19	11.2
Others	18	10.6
Total	170	100.0

4.2 Constraints trainers encountered

Before describing the constraints that trainers and programme managers experienced, the respondents were asked whether or not they were satisfied as trainers. Within the sample, more than half (i.e n = 112 = 66%) were satisfied and n = 58 (i.e 34%) were not (*see Table 4.2.1 below*).

Table 4.2.1 Satisfaction with training of programme facilitators

Satisfied		Dissatisfied	
112	66%	58	34%

Constraints in the following six domains were assessed to see what the situation was like on the ground. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent they agreed with on a set of items in a domain by scoring 1 to 11. 1 implying they faced severe constraints and 11 they faced no constraints.

a) Budget deficits ,
b) Time constraint
c) The balance of work as a trainer and other work situations
d) Lack of appropriate human resource
e) Differences in the entry behaviors of trainees
f) Lack of Practical Experience of Trainers.

a) *Budget Domain*

This domain had three items and these related to whether or not (i) the organization had a training budget deficit, (ii) there were shortages of learning and training materials and (iii) the trainings had been sustainable even after donor withdrawal. Since the scores for each factor were divided into three Likert levels 1 to 4; Severe constraints, 5 to 7; Some constraints and 8 to 11; No constraints, it was evident that within the budget domain, there were no constraints faced due to budget deficits but there were due to shortages of learning and training materials and it was not possible to sustain the trainings of programme facilitators once donors withdrew. Table 4.2.2 below shows three areas in the budget domain that were assessed. The first shows no constraints and the other two show some constraints. Generally, one would say that the programme suffered from budget deficits.

Table 4.2.2 Profile of constraints in the budget domain

Budget deficit				Shortages of training and learning materials				Sustainability after donor withdrawal		
Score	*f*	*%*		*Score*	*f*	*%*		*Score*	*f*	*%*
1	7.00	4.10		1	24.00	14.10		1	2.00	1.20
2	24.00	14.10		2	0.00	0.00		2	34.00	20.00
3	5.00	2.90		3	3.00	2.00		3	24.00	14.10
4	21.00	12.40		4	21.00	12.4		4	14.00	8.20
5	20.00	11.80		5	126.00	74.1		5	64.00	37.60
6	0.00	0.00		6	0.00	0.00		6	10.00	5.90
7	0.00	0.00		7	6.00	3.50		7	5.00	2.90
8	0.00	0.00		8	0.00	0.00		8	17.00	10.00
9	19.00	11.20		9	12.00	7.10		9	2.00	1.20
10	74.00	43.50		10	0.00	0.00		10	0.00	0.00
11	0.00	0.00		11	0.00	0.00		11	0.00	0.00
Total	**170**	**100.0**		**Total**	**170**	**100.0**		**Total**	**170**	**100.0**

In order to get the general outlook of constraints in this domain, the score on each of the three Likert items for every respondent was summed up together to get a composite score. From the summed up scores, three interval scales were created *a priori* (*see table 4.2.3*) which are (1) Severe constraints with scores ranging from 3 to 13; (2) Some constraints with scores ranging from 14 to 22; and (3) no constraints with scores ranging from 23 to 33. One could say that generally in the province, government departments and nongovernmental organisations faced severe constraints in conducting training (*table 4.2.3, table 4.2.4*) because the mean score for this was 13.4 (SD ± 4.5) (*See bolded area*).

Table 4.2.3 Scales of constraints for budget domain

Severe constraints	Some constraints	No constraints
3 to 13	14 to 22	23 to 33

Table 4.2.4 below provides the decision criteria of using the mean that is being discussed above whether the programmes experienced severe constraints or some constraints or no constraints at all.

Table 4.2.4 Statistics of constraints for budget domain constraints

Mean	13.44
Median	12.50
Mode	9.00
Std. Deviation	4.59
Range	19.00
Minimum	8.00
Maximum	27.00

b) *Time Constraint Domain*

This domain had two items and these related to whether or not (i) time for the trainer was short and if it affected input in training; and (ii) trainers had time to know the area and be familiar with the community's training needs. It is evident that within the time domain, there were some constraints faced in the two Likert items (i) time for the training was short and it affected **my** input in training; and (ii) time to know the area was short and as such trainers were not familiar with the community's training needs and it was not possible to fulfill the training needs (*table 4.2.5 below*).

Table 4.2.5 Profile of Constraints in the Time Domain

Time for me is short and it affects my input in training

Score	f	%
1.00	4.00	2.40
2.00	3.00	1.80
3.00	2.00	1.20
4	0.00	0.00
5	5.00	106.00
6	6.00	7.00
7	7.00	28.00
8	0.00	0.00
9	20	11.80
10	0.00	0.00
11	0.00	0.00
Total	**170**	**100.0**

Time to know the area was short and as such I am not familiar with the community's training needs

Score	f	%
1	45.00	26.50
2	0.00	0.00
3	28.00	16.50
4	0.00	0.00
5	61.00	35.90
6	0.00	0.00
7	24.00	14.10
8	17.00	10.00
9	12.00	7.10
10	0.00	0.00
11	0.00	0.00
Total	**170**	**100.0**

General outlook of constraints in this domain shows that in the province, government departments and nongovernmental organisations faced some constraints in conducting

training (see table 4.2.6, and 4.2.7) because the mean score for this was 9.85 (SD ± 2.4) (*See bolded area of table 4.2.6*).

Table 4.2.6 Scales of constraints for time domain

Severe constraints	Some constraints	No constraints
2 to 8	9 to 15	16 to 22

Therefore, table 4.2.7 below provides the decision criteria of using the mean that is being discussed above whether the programmes experience severe constraints or some constraints or no constraints at all.

Table 4.2.7 Statistics of constraints for time domain

Mean	9.85
Median	10.00
Mode	10.00
Std. Deviation	2.45
Range	16.00
Minimum	2.00
Maximum	18.00

c) *Cultural Constraints Domain*

This domain had three items and these related to whether or not (i) culture and traditional values in the province impeded training; (ii) young people and adults often shunned such training; and (iii) people found it hard to participate in training such that they would require very sensitive and mindful tactics. It is evident that within the cultural domain, there were serious constraints faced in the Likert item related to culture and traditional values in the province, and (ii) in the area where young people and adults often shunned such training. However, there are some constraints in the area of participation in training because of culture and traditional values, as it was hard to make people participate in training and as such it required very sensitive and mindful tactics to achieve set goals (see *Table 4.2.8 below*).

Table 4.2.8 Profile of Constraints in the Cultural Domain

Culture and traditional values in the province tend to impede training

Score	f	%
1	0.00	0.00
2	49.00	28.80
3	19.00	11.20
4	0.00	0.00
5	67.00	39.40
6	0.00	0.00
7	0.00	0.00
8	0.00	0.00
9	28.00	16.50
10	7.00	4.10
11	0.00	0.00
Total	**170**	**100.0**

Young people and adults often shun such training

Score	f	%
1	40.00	23.50
2	3.00	18.20
3	23.00	13.50
4	0.00	0.00
5	50.00	29.40
6	5.00	2.90
7	0.00	0.00
8	0.00	0.00
9	21.00	12.40
10	0.00	0.00
11	0.00	0.00
Total	**170**	**100.0**

People find it hard to participate in training and it would require very sensitive and mindful tactics to persuade them to participate in training.

Score	f	%
1	24.00	14.10
2	40.00	23.50
3	2.00	1.20
4	0.00	0.00
5	70.00	41.20
6	6.00	3.50
7	2.00	1.20
8	0.00	0.00
9	26.00	15.30
10	0.00	0.00
11	0.00	0.00
Total	**170**	**100.0**

The general outlook of constraints in this domain shows that in the province, government departments and nongovernmental organisations faced severe constraints in conducting training due to the local culture (*See tables 4.2.9 and 4.2.10 below).* This is attached by the mean score for this domain which was 12.9 (SD ± 6.0) (*See bolded area in table 4.2.9 below*).

Table 4.2.9 Scales of constraints for the cultural domain

Severe constraints	Some constraints	No constraints
3 to 13	14 to 22	23 to 33

Therefore, table 4.2.10 below provides the decision criteria of using the mean that is being discussed above whether the programmes experienced severe constraints or some constraints or no constraints at all.

Table 4.2.10 Statistics of constraints for the cultural domain

Mean	12.91
Median	15.00
Mode	15.00
Std. Deviation	6.00
Range	23.00
Minimum	4.00
Maximum	27.00

d) *Balancing of work as a trainer and other work situations domain*

This domain had three items and these related to whether or not (i) trainers had constraints to balance their own work as trainers and other work situations; (ii) trainers tended to rush in training fearing that their own jobs would suffer; and (iii) trainers tended to put in little effort because of low incentives. It is evident that within this domain, there were serious constraints faced in the Likert item (*See table 4.2.11 below*).

Table 4.2.11 Profile of constraints in the balancing of work as a trainer and other work situations domain

I have challenges to balance my own work as a trainer and other work situations

Score	f	%
1	51.00	30.0
2	22.00	12.90
3	0.00	0.00
4	1.00	0.60
5	0.00	0.00
6	0.00	0.00
7	22.00	12.90
8	43.00	25.30
9	31.00	18.20
10	0.00	0.00
11	0.00	0.00
Total	**170**	**100.0**

I tend to rush in training fearing that my own job will suffer

Score	f	%
1	0.00	0.00
2	2.00	1.20
3	26.00	15.30
4	8.00	4.70
5	42.00	24.70
6	0.00	0.00
7	90.00	52.90
8	0.00	0.00
9	2.00	1.20
10	0.00	0.00
11	0.00	0.00
Total	**170**	**100.0**

I tend to put in little because of low incentives

Score	f	%
1	15.00	8.80
2	3.00	1.80
3	0.00	0.00
4	0.00	0.00
5	33.00	19.40
6	13.00	7.60
7	25.00	14.70
8	59.00	34.70
9	22.00	12.90
10	0.00	0.00
11	0.00	0.00
Total	**170**	**100.0**

The general outlook of constraints in this domain shows that in the province, government departments and nongovernmental organisations faced some constraints in *balancing of work as a trainer and other work situations* (see tables 4.2.12 and 4.2.13). Also see the mean score for this domain which was 17.3 (SD ± 3.6).

Table 4.2.12 Scales of constraints for the balancing of work as a trainer and other work situations domain

Severe constraints	Some constraints	No constraints
3 to 13	14 to 22	23 to 33

Therefore, table 4.2.13 below provides the decision criteria of using the mean that is being discussed above whether the programmes experienced severe constraints or some constraints or no constraints at all.

Table 4.2.13 Statistics of constraints for the balancing of work as a trainer and other work situations domain

Mean	17.39
Median	17.00
Mode	17.00
Std. Deviation	3.68
Range	15.00
Minimum	9.00
Maximum	24.00

e) *Human Resources Domain*

This domain had two items and these related to whether or not (i) training in the organization went on well because there was a reservoir of adequately trained manpower; and (ii) trainers for workshops tended to come from urban areas. It is evident that within the human resources domain, there were some constraints faced in the two Likert items in the province (*See table 4.2.14 below*).

Table 4.2.14 Profile of Constraints in the human resources domain

Table 4.2.14 Profile of Constraints in the human resources domain

Training in my organization goes on well because there is a reservoir of adequately trained manpower		
Score	*f*	*%*
1.00	0.00	0.00
2.00	23.00	13.50
3.00	11.00	6.50
4	27.00	15.90
5	69.00	40.60
6	0.00	0.00
7	21.00	12.40
8	13.00	7.60
9	6.00	3.50
10	0.00	0.00
11	0.00	0.00
Total	**170**	**100.0**

Trainers for workshops tend to come from urban areas		
Score	*f*	*%*
1	0.00	0.00
2	1.00	0.60
3	12.00	7.10
4	28.00	16.50
5	102.00	60.00
6	0.00	0.00
7	14.00	8.20
8	3.00	1.80
9	10.00	5.90
10	0.00	0.00
11	0.00	0.00
Total	**170**	**100.0**

The general outlook of constraints in this domain shows that in the province, government departments and nongovernmental organisations faced some constraints in conducting training (*S*ee tables 4.2.15 and 4.2.16). In support of this position, the mean score for this domain was 10.05 (SD ± 2.4) (*see bold area in the table below*).

Table 4.2.15 Scales of constraints for human resource

Severe constraints	Some constraints	No constraints
2 to 8	9 to 15	16 to 22

Therefore, table 4.2.16 below provides the decision criteria of using the mean that is being discussed above, whether the programmes experienced severe constraints or some constraints or no constraints at all.

Table 4.2.16 Statistics of constraints for human resource domain

Mean	10.05
Median	10.00
Mode	10.00
Std. Deviation	2.42
Range	13.00
Minimum	5.00
Maximum	18.00

f) *Entry behavior of trainees' domain*

This domain had three items and these related to whether or not trainers found it (i) a challenge to train people because of differences in trainee background; (ii) a common level of apprehension; and (iii) the training environment to be conducive. It is evident that within this domain that there were serious constraints faced in the Likert item related to *entry behavior of trainees* in the province (*See table 4.2.17 below*).

Table 4.2.17 Profile of constraints in the entry behaviors of trainees domain

Challenging to train people because of differences in their background.

Score	f	%
1	24.00	14.10
2	28.00	16.50
3	12.00	7.10
4	14.00	8.20
5	77.00	45.30
6	0.00	0.00
7	15.00	8.80
8	0.00	0.00
9	0.00	0.00
10	0.00	0.00
11	0.00	0.00
Total	170	100.0

Rushing in training fearing that my own job will suffer

Score	f	%
1	0.00	0.00
2	45.00	26.50
3	10.00	5.90
4	16.0	9.40
5	56.00	32.90
6	0.00	0.00
7	43.00	25.30
8	0.00	0.00
9	0.00	0.00
10	0.00	0.00
11	0.00	0.00
Total	170	100.0

Putting in little because of low incentives

Score	f	%
1	9.00	5.30
2	33.00	19.40
3	19.00	11.20
4	13.00	7.60
5	54.0	31.80
6	0.00	0.00
7	24.7	42.00
8	0.00	0.00
9	0.00	0.00
10	0.00	0.00
11	0.00	0.00
Total	170	100.0

The general outlook of constraints in this domain shows that in the province, government departments and nongovernmental organisations faced severe constraints in the entry

behavior of trainees (*see table 4.2.18 and table 4.2.19 below*). This situation is also reflected in the mean score for this domain which was 12.7 (SD ± 3.0(*See bold area below*).

Table 4.2.18 Scales of constraints for entry behaviors domain

Severe constraints	Some constraints	No constraints
3 to 13	14 to 22	23 to 33

Therefore table 4.2.19 below provides the decision criteria of using the mean that is being discussed above whether the programmes experienced severe constraints or some constraints or no constraints at all.

Table 4.2.19 Statistics of constraints for the entry behaviors of trainees domain

Mean	12.79
Median	14.00
Mode	15.00
Std. Deviation	3.09
Range	14.00
Minimum	5.00
Maximum	19.00

Overall Picture of Constraints in All Domains

In order to assess the level of constraints within all the domains (budget deficits; time constraint; the balance of work as a trainer and other work situations; lack of appropriate human resources; and differences in the entry behavior of trainees), three interval scales were created *a priori* which are (1) Severe constraints with scores ranging from 31 to 73; (2) Some constraints with scores ranging from 74 to 130 and (3); no constraints with scores from 131 to 187.

Generally, the outlook of constraints shows that in the province, government departments and the nongovernmental organisations faced some constraints (*See table 4.2.20, and 4.2.21*). In support of this position the mean score was 96.5 (SD ± 10.7) (*See bolded area in table 4.2.20 below*).

Table 4.2.20 Scores of constraints

Severe constraints	Some constraints	No constraints
17 to 73	74 to 130	131to 187

Table 4.2.21 below provides the decision criteria of using the mean that is being discussed above whether the programmes experienced severe constraints or some constraints or no constraints at all.

Table 4.2.21 Total score of constraints n = 170

Mean	96.52
Median	97.00
Mode	97.00
Std. Deviation	10.79
Range	58.00
Minimum	70.00
Maximum	128.00

A further analysis of associations showed that gender and constraints' mean differences (Male μ = 97.1 and females μ = 95.5) were not significant statistically; df = 44; F =1.022 and p = 0.449 (*See table 4.2.22 below*).

Table 4.2.22 ANOVA of gender and challenges

	Sum of Squares	*df*	*Mean Square*	*F*	*Sig.*
Between Groups	10.941	44	.249	1.022	.449
Within Groups	30.406	125	.243		
Total	41.347	169			

4.3 Consequences of the Elicited Constraints

This domain had three items and these related to whether or not; (i) very few trainees turned up for training; (ii) trainers were demotivated and transferred their energies and time to internet surfing, (iii) took longer lunches; (iv) had little concern for taking care of training resources; (v) looked for excuses to participate in training; and (vi) complained about the way training was organised. Generally, the outlook of consequences for each of the Likert items in

the consequences domain shows that in the province, government departments and nongovernmental organisations experienced some constraints as a reaction of trainers to what they perceived as not going on well. This was evidenced by the fact that all Likert items had mean scores falling within the level of 5 to 7 (*See table 4.3.1*).

Table 4.3.1 Profile of consequences mean scores and dispersions of five Likert items

	Very few trainees turn up for training	I am demotivated and I transfer my energies and time to internet surfing	I am demotivated and tend to take longer lunches	I am demotivated and have little concern for training resources	I am demotivated and tend to look for excuses to participate in training	I am demotivated and tend to complain about the way we organise training
Mean	6.7824	6.04	5.31	5.48	6.30	7.26
Median	7.00	7.00	5.00	5.00	7.00	8.00
Mode	8.00	7.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	8.00
Std. Deviation	2.14	2.90	1.90	1.87	2.29	2.42
Range	9.00	8.00	8.00	8.00	8.00	8.00
Minimum	1.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
Maximum	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00

In order to assess the level of consequences, three interval scales were also created *a priori* which are; (1) 6 to 26 Serious effects on the programme; 27 to 39 Some effects on the programme; and 40 to 66 No significant effects on the programme (*See table 4.3.2 below*).

Generally, the outlook is that in spite of the constraints there were no significant consequences on the trainees and the trainers as was evidenced by the mean score for this domain which turned out to be 43.11 (SD ± 6.6). This is because the mean score fell within the no significant effects category. The modal score in the sample was 97 and the range was 32 (i.e 25 to 57) (*See table 4.3.3 and bolded area in table 4.3.2 below*).

Table 4.3.2 Scales of the Elicited Constraints

Serious effects on the programme	Some effects on the programme	no significant effects on the programme
6 to 26	27 to 39	40 to 66

Therefore, table 4.3.3 below provides the decision criteria of using the mean that is being discussed above whether the programmes experience serious effects or some effects or no significant effects at all.

Table 4.3.3 Statistics of the Elicited Constraints

Mean	43.1118
Median	43.0000
Mode	45.00
Std. Deviation	6.63899
Range	32.00
Minimum	25.00
Maximum	57.00

4.4 Measures taken by stakeholders to address these constraints

In presenting the findings, the researcher uses naturalism. Naturalism focuses on the factual characteristics of the object under study. Since the researcher's goal is to describe what life is really like, what the researcher heard or observed she therefore had to use naturalism. In order to give life to the descriptions, the researcher has opted to use pen names/titles not of

real people who were interviewed. Egan (1989) and Guba and Lincoln (1989) advise naturalist researchers to use what they call nom de plumes.

Education of adults in whatever form has continued to expand in the North Western Province. However, the findings relating to solutions to elicited constraints are quite varied. The respondents offered solutions that included: ensuring equity, difficulties in discussing possible solutions with sponsors, Re-orienting the Teaching-Learning Process- and use of multiple methods of instruction, putting in place Trainee Support Systems, enhancing capacity to cope with teaching using various strategies and ensuring mentoring.

When the managers were interviewed to explain what they had done to deal with the constraints, six themes of possible solutions to the constraints emerged. Below were some of the measures they undertook:

  a) ensuring equity;
  b) re orienting Teaching-Learning Process- and use of multiple methods of instruction;
  c) putting in place Trainee Support Systems;
  d) enhancing capacity to cope with teaching using various strategies;
  e) ensuring mentoring; and
  f) determining Start-up costs and Methods of Sustainability.

Each one of the themes is presented below using phenomenological approach by presenting what the structure and essence of experience of the constraints were and the solutions which were sought. This calls for presenting what was spoken verbatimly.

(a). *Equity*

Equity is one area that trainers tended to emphasize. To ensure that nearly everyone in the province attends training, the districts tend to construct a comprehensive equity plan. Through this plan, equal educational opportunities are available. One manager/counselor had this to say:

> You know, achieving equity and financial flexibility are two of the most commonly acknowledged problems in organinsing training or adult learning. We have problems in selecting who to bring for training. There are concerns

about gender or even tribe in the province. However, we try as much as possible to have nearly each ethnic group represented especially in urban places. As for gender, we try as much as possible to have at least 30% of women in the training groups.

(b). *Re-orienting Teaching-Learning Process- and use of multiple methods of instruction*

With regard to re-orienting teaching-learning process and use of multiple methods of instruction, a Programme Manager in one NGO said that:

> We have differing entry levels of trainees....Some are grade tens, others are grade elevens and as such, we had constraints in imparting knowledge. However, what we have done is to impart varying training skills to our trainers. Here at …, the trainers use multiple methods of instruction (including experiential and problem-based methods) for adult learners in order to connect curricular concepts to useful knowledge and skills.

Another respondent from the same organization observed that:

> Nothing ever becomes real till it is experienced – even a proverb is no proverb to you until your life has illustrated it." At Kara, trainers eschew the pursuit of learning simply "for its own sake." Rather, learning at an ALFI is pursued as a means to a practical end; the "end" being translated differently by each individual student according to his or her education….To the extent that learning empowers students to adapt to current and future environments, and to find solutions to constraints that lay counseling will present.

(c). *Trainee Support Systems*

The key to successful implementation of trainee support systems in the districts is the involvement of interested and engaged individuals and organizations in helping trainees with learning aids and materials so as to enable them remember and practice their vocations. This was alluded to by a manager at one of the Faith Based NGO who said that:

> The department of agriculture assists learners using comprehensive academic and student support systems in order to enhance students' capacities to become self-directed, lifelong learners. At least we give them pamphlets; handouts to enable them catch up in areas they may have missed during training. We also visit them to give them on spot assistance. …Although an increasing number of trainers have come to recognize the important role

support services play in the lives of adult learners, the misperception still exists that adult learners are "self-supporting" and do not need to be visited regularly. They argue that doing so is like policing…

(d). *Lack capacity to cope with teaching strategies*

Adult learning and teaching have had their effects on most programmes on both trainees and trainers. There is evidence that science is revolutionalising the manner of instruction delivery. Depending on the district context, there is a range of learning opportunities which may be related to technological applications, to the need for basic skills or upskilling, or may respond to social and civic preoccupations. At the same time however, there are numerous challenges in terms of access and provision. One respondent claimed that:

> Though we have a serious shortage of nurse counselors, one significant barrier to training is a lack of experience and/or training with instructional technology. We are using outdated teaching tools like chalk and board or OHP. Apart from this, even new technology like internet is becoming a challenge. Our adult learners lack the training needed to navigate course sites or download course materials. Adult students sometimes are offered course information in an electronic-based format by our donors. So, the challenge is that they must know how to acquire and manage this data, in addition to managing their study time. Coupled with work and family responsibilities you know, these time constraints can be significant. But we have not just stayed put. We have used group discussions, peer education methods to overcome some these constraints.

(e). *Determining Start-up costs and Methods of Sustainability*

There are five startup costs that trainers and programme managers tend to consider in planning and implementing adult education training programmes in the districts. Interviews show that large capital investments are needed to create the infrastructure necessary for an extension programme, for instance, to function. Many NGOs receive grant funding for their startup costs from government agencies, foundations, philanthropists, or seed money from key stakeholders. Other NGOs get loans for the initial investment funds and incur costs for repayment of the loan, as well as the interest accrued on the loans. But it is not easy for most NGOs to have seed money and to even continue the programme they embarked on after donors withdrawal. One respondent narrated that:

If you go round the province, especially in the Ministries, you will find that our institutions have developed adult training and learning programmes of various types, many times without considering all the factors involved in implementation. As a result, several institutional constraints have been identified, including:

  a. programme costs
  b. resource availability
  c. lack of equipment and infrastructure
  d. scheduling which tends to affect trainers who have other work responsibilities
  e. instructional concerns
  f. technical assistance

What our Ministry is doing is to ensure that whatever programme we have to start; we determine start-up costs for tools like computers. We also make sure that we mobilize ongoing support.

(f). *Mentoring*

Interviews with trainers brought out critical issues surrounding mentoring. The trainers voiced the need to employ principles within the theory of andragogy, the teaching of adults, to be distinguished from pedagogy, the teaching of children. Several strategies were presented meant to improve service delivery. One such proposition was mentoring. The excerpts below show the need.

There are quite a number of extension officer trainees whom we have placed on the mentoring programme who desire assistance and here I mean those with special learning needs. They find it difficult to get the skills and mentor others. So what we do is develop simple tools and documentation to enable them cope.

The above statement was highlighted by a Fisheries Officer/Programme manager

The following was alluded to by a Traditional Birth Attendant and HIV/AIDS Peer Education manager:

If an institution aspires to be adult learning focused, as we have done in the training of Traditional Birth Attendants, it must devise ways to build 'community' among its learners where the trainees become peer educators. Here we mean making sure that these Traditional Birth Attendants are accepted in the community and are mentors to others. Accordingly, to be successful as an Adult Learning Focused Institution like our Ministry, each entering student must be 'inducted' into this community of learners.

The respondent further emphasized on mentoring as follows:

> Those institutions that have pioneered successful practice in this area have frequently settled upon systems of mentoring and/or peer cohort groups. With mentoring, learners establish a trusting, long-term relationship with a person of accomplishment and who has mastered the discipline they are to enter. My experience in training TBAs and community health workers shows that peer educators are key in some programmes to succeed.

4.5 Summary

This study showed that there were constraints in the training of programme facilitators within the North Western Province. In spite of these constraints, trainers were satisfied and motivated to share knowledge and skills with community members. Constraints were evident relating to inadequate budgets, cultural factors, balancing of work as a trainer and other work situations, human Resources and trainee entry behaviors. The solutions to these constraints border on ensuring equity, re orienting Teaching-Learning Process- and use of multiple methods of instruction, putting in place Trainee Support Systems, enhancing capacity to cope with teaching, using various strategies and ensuring mentoring. This study has many dimensions, and different interest groups may understand and conceive the constraints in widely different terms. The perspectives of managers and trainers are often different from those of trainees. The constraints presented in this study were deeper and social cultural in nature. If the constraints are of a deeper social and cultural nature, as argued here, then there is no easy one-shot solution. One will need to look beyond the training systems in the NGO world and the main stream public service.

CHAPTER FIVE – DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents an analysis of the findings, conclusions and recommendations based on the findings on constraints encountered by trainers in the training of programme facilitators in North Western Province. The discussion of the findings, conclusions and recommendations are based on the two research objectives which were to; investigate constraints encountered by trainer in the training of programme facilitators and to establish whether or not any measures had been taken by stakeholders to address the constraints. It is prudent that at the end of an inquiry, the researcher shows what the outputs are (Yin, 2008; Creswell, 2005). In this study therefore, the researcher opted to use the research objectives model and this is because research objectives are the essence of most research conducted. They acted as the guiding plan for the research design (Mertler and Vannatta, 2001; Creswell, 2005; and Maxwell, 2005:69).

5.1 What this study has found out

This study revealed that there were many constraints in the training of programme facilitators within the North Western Province. In spite of these constraints, trainers were satisfied and motivated to share knowledge and skills with community members. One of the concerns of this chapter is to discuss findings of the study. This will be achieved by use of research objectives. The objectives of the study were to; investigate constraints encountered by trainers in the training of programme facilitators; and establish whether or not any measures had been taken by stakeholders and the public service to address these constraints.

5.1.1 Constraints encountered by trainers

Relating to objective number one which was to *investigate constraints encountered by trainers in the training of   programme facilitator,* the research established that more than half (i.e n = 112 =66%) were satisfied and n = 58 (i.e 34%) were not satisfied in training programme officers. The overall picture of constraints in all the domains that were studied showed that government departments and Non Governmental Organisations that were involved in training programme facilitators faced some constraints because the mean score was 96.5 (SD ± 10.7). This score fell into the midpoint category (*see table 4.2.20, and 4.2.21*).   A further analysis of associations showed that gender and constraints' mean differences (i.e Male μ = 97.1 and females μ = 95.5) were not significant statistically; ***df* =**

44; F =1.022 and p = 0.449 (*see table 4.2.19*). However, a critical examination of the seven specific domains within which the constraints were assessed, there were variations and similarities in terms of severity of constraints as discussed below:

a) relating to the budget domain, it can be stated that generally in the province, government departments and nongovernmental organisations faced severe constraints in conducting training because the mean score for this domain was 13.4 (SD ± 4.5). This is because the score fell into the polar category of severe constraints (*see table 4.2.3*);

b) with regard to the time domain, the general outlook of constraints in here showed that in the province, government departments and nongovernmental organisations faced some constraints in conducting training because the mean score for this domain was 9.85 (SD ± 2.4). This is because the score fell into the midpoint category of some constraints (*see table 4.2.5*);

c) looking at the cultural domain, the general outlook showed that in the province, government departments and nongovernmental organisations faced severe constraints in conducting training due to the local culture because the mean score for this domain was 12.9 (SD ± 6.0). This is because the score fell into the polar category of severe constraints (*see table 4.2.7*);

d) considering the aspect of balancing of work as a trainer and other work situations domain, the general outlook showed that in the province, government departments and the nongovernmental organisations faced some constraints because the mean score for this domain was 17.3 (SD ± 3.6). This is because the score fell into the midpoint category of some constraints (*see table 4.2.10*).

e) referring to the Human Resource Domain, the general outlook showed that in the province, government departments and nongovernmental organisations faced some constraints in conducting training because the mean score for this domain was 10.05 (SD ± 2.4). This is because the score fell into midpoint category of some constraints (*see table 4.2.12*); and

f) examining entry behaviors of trainees' domain, the general outlook showed that in the province, government departments and nongovernmental organisations faced severe constraints because the mean score for this domain was 12.7 (SD ± 3.0). This is because the score fell into the polar category severe constraints.

5.1.2 Measures taken by stakeholders

Relating to objective number two which was *to establish whether or not any measures had been taken by stakeholders and the public service to address these constraints,* the study has shown that the possible measures or solutions that have been used to attend to the constraints border on ensuring equity, re orienting teaching-learning process- and use of multiple methods of instruction, putting in place trainee support systems, enhancing capacity to cope with teaching using various strategies and ensuring mentoring.

5.2 The Meaning of This Study

Despite its history, training programme facilitators using the principles of adult education has not been the subject of extensive educational research in developing countries (Zirkle, 2003). This study has not shown any constraints related to access just like other studies (Wagner, 1993; Yap, 1996). The study however, revealed that there have been similar findings that have found constraints that are related to technical matters, access to technology; institutional involving budgeting, training, and technical support; and attitudinal, including reluctance to use technological tools (Stammen, 1995; Berge, 1998). Berge et al., (2002) listed constraints to learning as situational, epistemological, philosophical, psychological and pedagogical, which this study did not identify. However, what is similar with this study are the technical, social, and/or cultural variables. It appears much of the research on constraints to adult training and learning opportunities which this study has covered are critical. The researcher found out that student constraint included aspects of the entry behavior and institutional constraints identified by both Cross (1981) and Zirkle (2001).

The findings of this study also revealed that government departments in the province had developed training programmes of various types, and most of them without considering all the factors involved in implementation except for the Ministry of Agriculture which seems to have an investment and sustainability programme. The Ministry has ensured that training costs like start-up costs are determined beforehand and this finding is contrary to what is obtaining elsewhere in the developing world (see Yap, 1996; Galusha, 1998).

Like studies elsewhere (see Wagner, 1993; Berge, 2002; Levine and Sun, 2002), this study established that there were numerous instructional constraints that can affect trainees. There are issues of experience in a presentation style of teaching, which may be inappropriate for one with the barest education. Additionally, some trainers are unable to appropriately pace and respond to student questions in a non-continuous communication environment (Wagner, 1993). Some course content, such as specific psychomotor skills or interpersonal "soft skills," may not be easily taught.

The trainers, who were involved in training, seemed not to be aware of student characteristics and situations that could present constraints to the programme facilitators or trainees' effective learning and success. This situation is however, common in adult learning programmes (Hillesheim, 1998). It is no wonder that trainees' tempo to remain in the programme warrant support services. Like this study, research findings have also shown that not only trainers but also trainees are affected equally by job conflict, family time constraints, and financial issues (Grace, 2001; Hillesheim, 1998; Sherritt, 1996; Zirkle, 2003). This, therefore, means that adults are likely to weigh the personal and monetary costs of additional education against the potential pay-off, be it a raise in pay, a promotion or some other tangible goal. These trainees do not consider school to be central to their lives and this finding is supported by Levine and Sun (2002).

5.3 Conclusions and Recommendations

This study has many dimensions, and different interest groups may understand and conceive the constraints in widely different terms. The perspectives of managers and trainers are often different from those of trainees. The constraints presented in this study are deeper and social cultural in nature. If the constraints are of a deeper social and cultural nature, as argued here, then there is no easy one-shot solution. One will need to look beyond the training systems in the NGO world and the main stream public service. There is a need for reforms in training and programming that are context specific, that require multiple approaches and are implemented for long periods of time. Initiatives will also have to be monitored, and the development and results will need continuing discussions, informed by evidence and careful analysis. Future research would have to be grounded in testing theoretical assumptions in order to have greater explanatory power by testing hypotheses. There is also a need to consider doing a comparative study of programme facilitators in order to bring out salient

features of training events and the life of programme facilitators in the NGO and public sector worlds.

5.4 Summary

This chapter discussed the findings that emerged from the study which was conducted in the North Western Province on the constraints encountered by trainers in the training of programme facilitators. A conclusion and recommendations are also been made in this chapter.

The findings of the study have revealed the existence of constraints which inhibited the operations in the training of programme facilitators. Notable amongst them include: course content related challenges such as specific psychomotor skills or interpersonal "soft skills" which may not be easily taught, experience in a presentation style of teaching, which may be inappropriate for one with the barest education and inability by some trainers to pace and respond to student questions in a non-continuous communication environment. The findings also revealed that though government departments and NGOs in the province had developed training programmes of various types, most of them had done so without considering critical implementation factors except for the Ministry of Agriculture which seems to have an investment and sustainability programme. This Ministry had ensured that training costs like start-up costs were determined beforehand.

Conclusions and recommendations were that this study had many dimensions, and different interest groups may understand and conceive the constraints in widely different terms. This meant that the constraints presented in this study were deeper and of social cultural outlook in nature. If the constraints are of a deeper social and cultural outlook in nature as argued in this study, then there is no easy one-shot solution. One will need to look beyond the training systems in the NGO world and the main stream public service for solutions.

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Appendix I – Survey Questionnaire

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA
DEPARTMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION AND EXTENSION STUDIES

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TRAINERS OF PROGRAMME FACILITATORS

INTRODUCTION

I am a Postgraduate Student pursuing a Masters programme in Adult Education (Med) at the University of Zambia.

I am conducting a study on the constraints encountered by Trainers in the training of Trainers /Programme Facilitators in the North- Western Province of Zambia. This study is part of my academic requirements.

This exercise is purely academic and there is no right or wrong answers to the questions in this paper and no one will judge your answers. In addition, the questions will be strictly confidential. No record or name of respondents will be kept. Finally, no one apart from the researcher and her supervisor will see the answers or pass them to anyone else.

You are therefore, kindly requested to answer this questionnaire without fear of your identity as your responses to this questionnaire will be highly appreciated.

INSTRUCTIONS:

Please answer some questions by ticking ($\sqrt{}$) in the appropriate spaces provided.

You are kindly advised not to put your name on the questionnaire.

It is not compulsory to answer this questionnaire but your help and cooperation will be highly appreciated.

Sex of respondent		Male	Female

Marital status of respondents					
Married	Single	Widowed	Divorced	Separated	Cohabiting

Highest academic qualification attained				
Certificate	Diploma	Bachelors	Masters	Other

Profession of respondents				
Health care	Social worker	Agriculture	Education	Others

To what extent do you enjoy your work as a trainer of programme officers?	Satisfied	Dissatisfied

Period as a trainer

Do you consider training of programme facilitators to be necessary	Yes	No

For each of the statements below, indicate on an 11 point scale by inserting a score the extent to which you agree or disagree with the stamen in terms of how it affects your work.

Strongly disagree   Strongly agree

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
My organization has a training budget deficit										
There are shortages of learning and training materials										
The trainings have been sustainable even after donor withdrawal										
Culture and traditional values in the province tend to impede training										
Young people and adults often shun such training										
People find it hard to participate in training and it would require very sensitive and mindful tactics.										
Time for me is short and it affects my input in training										
I have not had time to know the area and as such i am not familiar with the community's training needs										
I have challenges to balance my own work as a trainer and other work situations										
I tend to rush in training fearing that my own job will suffer										
I tend to put in little because of low incentives										
Training in my organization goes on well because there is a reservoir of adequately trained										

manpower	
Trainers for workshops tend to come from urban areas	
I tend to put in more because I like the job	
I tend to put in because I am overworked	
I tend to put in little because of low incentives	
I am constrained to produce training materials	
I have strain due to having limited time to conduct trainings	
I am under pressure to avoid failure	
I have trouble to communicate during training because i find language to be a barrier	
I have integrated in this local community and as such i fit well during training	
Documents are written in local languages and it is easy for facilitators to use	
It is easy for my organization to provide take home literature in form of pamphlets to back up the training.	
Training materials are at times at level higher than trainees	
I find it a challenge to train people because of differing trainee backgrounds	
I find trainees to have a common level of apprehension	
I find the training environments not to be conducive	
Total differences in the entry behaviors of trainees	
Category differences in the entry behaviors of trainees	
I find difficulties to train people as I need extra knowledge	
I find it difficult at times to train people as I need extra skill	
Very few trainees turn up for training	
I am demotivated and I transfer my energies and time to internet surfing	
I am demotivated and tend to take longer lunches	
I am demotivated and have little concern for training resources	
I am demotivated and tend look for excuses to participate in training	
I am demotivated and tend to complain about the way we organise training	

You have come to the end of the questionnaire. Thank you very much for participating in the research.

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

DEPARTMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION AND EXTENSION STUDIES

INTRODUCTION

I am a Masters student at the University of Zambia in the Department of Adult Education And Extension Studies conducting a study on constraints encountered by trainers in the training of programme facilitators in the North- Western Province of Zambia. This study is part of my academic requirements. Kindly assist me by answering the questions honestly and freely as your responses will be highly appreciated and treated as confidential. I therefore, ask you to answer the questions as freely as possible without fear of your identity.

However, participation in the interview is not compulsory. You are free not to participate if you do not want, though your help and cooperation will be highly appreciated.

1. Please describe for me whom you are and for how long you have been working here.
2. How long have you been working as a programme manager?
3. Please describe for me what services your organization is providing.
4. Please could you explain what challenges you experience with regards the trainings that you offer? (Probe for challenges if not mentioned in the following domains:

BUDGET DEFICITS

CULTURE AND VALUES

TIME CONSTRAINT

THE BALANCE OF WORK AS A TRAINER AND OTHER WORK SITUATIONS

LACK OF APPROPRIATE HUMAN RESOURCE

LACK OF MOTIVATION

STRESS

LANGUAGE BARRIER

LACK OF TRAINING RESOURCES

DIFFERENCES IN THE ENTRY BEHAVIORS OF TRAINEES

LACK OF A CONDUCIVE ENVIRONMENT FOR TRAINING

LACK OF PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE OF TRAINERS

We have come to the end of the interview; I would like to thank you very much for your cooperation.