



**Community Engagement and Volunteerism: Preparing DUT  
Students as Volunteers for a Child and Youth Care Centre in  
Durban**

Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of  
Masters of Management Science: Public Administration in the Faculty of  
Management Sciences at the Durban University of Technology.

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## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

Firstly, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor and co-supervisors: Dr Savathrie Maistry, Professor Darren Lortan and Dr Heleen Grobbelaar for their continuous support during my study, for their patience, motivation and immense knowledge. Your guidance helped me throughout my research and the writing of this dissertation. I could not have imagined having better advisors and mentors for my study. I have gained so much knowledge through your supervision and appreciate the effort you have made throughout my Master's degree journey.

To my husband Noel Reddy, who has been my source of inspiration and strength: when I thought of giving up, you continually provided moral, spiritual and emotional support. I am especially grateful for the sacrifices you have made to enable me to complete this dissertation.

## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this dissertation to my son – Seth Tyler Reddy. You have been the motivation for my perseverance and I hope my perseverance motivates you to work just as hard in your future endeavours.

“You have brains in your head, you have feet in your shoes, you can steer yourself in any direction you CHOOSE” – Dr Seuss

## **ABSTRACT**

The purpose of this study was to develop, implement and evaluate a training programme to prepare Durban University of Technology (DUT) students as volunteers to work in a partnership relationship with a Child and Youth Care Centre (CYCC) in Durban. Community Engagement (CE) was introduced as a function of higher education, to enable universities to contribute to the reconstruction of South Africa post-apartheid. As one of the many forms of CE in South African higher education institutions (HEIs), volunteerism has the potential to contribute to transformation and social justice in South Africa. Research and literature on the practices of CE, generally, is limited in the South African context and even more so for volunteerism as a form of CE. The majority of adopted literature is from the Global North, which does not always fit the South African context.

This study asked the following research question: what kind of training and preparation do students of a University of Technology (UoT) need prior to volunteering in a community-university partnership project? In order to answer this question, an exploratory and developmental design, qualitative methodology and participatory approach were adopted for this study. The researcher, UoT academic staff and students and the CYCC staff worked together to plan, develop and implement the student volunteer training programme. On completion of the training programme, the students implemented a volunteer task in the form of a holiday programme, which was jointly planned and developed by the student volunteers and staff of the CYCC.

The study comprised the following three phases: Phase One: orientation; Phase Two: planning and implementation; and Phase Three: monitoring and evaluation, in order to show the benefits of implementing the participatory approach towards partnership development between a UoT and Child and Youth Care Centre. The orientation phase, included the recruitment and orientation of the participants and highlighted the principles of a community-university partnership (CUP) formed between the UoT and the CYCC. Data collection through focus group interviews in Phase One revealed that participants had ambiguous knowledge about the concepts and theories relevant to CE, volunteerism and CUP. The training programme consequently covered concepts and

theories related to CE and volunteerism. Participants' recommendations for the training programme contributed richly to the study. Phase Two focused on the participatory planning of the volunteer training programme and implementation of the volunteer task. The content for the training programme was derived from literature reviewed and participants input generated in the first phase. Students then completed a three-week training programme. On completion, students conducted the volunteer task, which was a holiday programme with the children at the CYCC.

Phase Three monitored and evaluated the prototype of the volunteer training programme in order to provide suggestions for a comprehensive volunteer training programme. Only the student volunteers participated in this phase. The findings showed that the students' knowledge and skills regarding aspects of CE, volunteerism and CUP increased in both critical and variable ways. Additionally, self-awareness and development of students were also evident and areas of improvement were identified for inclusion in future volunteer training programmes. The findings of this study also affirm the need for in-depth training to facilitate processes that encourage experiential learning and critical thinking prior to students engaging or interacting with communities.



## **ABBREVIATIONS AND TERMINOLOGY**

ASAE	Advancing Association and Non-profit Leadership
BM	Behaviour Management
CBR	Community Based Research
CBPR	Community Based Participatory Research
CE	Community Engagement
CET	Community Education and Training
CHE	Council on Higher Education
CI	Community Interaction
CHESP	Community-Higher Education-Service Partnerships
CUP	Community University Partnership
CYCC	Child and Youth Care Centre
DUT	Durban University of Technology
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
HEQC	Higher Education Quality Committee
HESA	Higher Education South Africa
IFRCRCS	International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies
IREC	Institutional Research Ethics Committee
MoA	Memorandum of Agreement
MoU	Memorandum of Understanding
NGO	Non-Government Organisation
NPO	Non-Profit Organisation
PAR	Participatory Action Research
SL	Service- Learning
UoT	University of Technology
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America

UNV	United Nations Volunteer
VANI	Voluntary Action Network in India
VFI	Volunteer Functions Inventory
WIL	Work Integrated Learning
WPHET	White Paper on Higher Education Transformation

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# **CHAPTER ONE: PROBLEM AND SETTING**

## **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

Community engagement (CE) was introduced as a function of higher education, post 1994, to encourage universities to perform a developmental role as a contribution to the improvement of South African communities. Subsequently, CE became a vehicle to promote social and civic responsibilities among university communities (Grobbelaar 2017: 4; Maistry 2012: 142, Republic of South Africa, Department of Education 1997: 10). CE is manifested in a number of forms in South African higher education institutions (HEIs). These include service learning, outreach, volunteerism and community based research (Seemiller 2013: 2; Hall 2010: 7) and field education and internships (Furco 1996: 31). As an integral part of CE, volunteerism is not formalised or structured in any discipline but has immense potential to promote and inculcate social responsibility and critical citizenry in students.

The United Nations Volunteer Programme 2015 State of the World Report mentions three forms of volunteerism. These are: “services” which may be conducted through an organisation or directly between a volunteer and an individual; “mutual aid or self-help” constituted by shared aims and mutual benefit; and “civic participation” which refers to the active interaction in defending social justice and encouraging social change (The United Nations Volunteer Programme 2015: xiv, 4). The various forms of CE, including volunteerism, are positioned as having the potential to benefit institutions that host the CE activities and their students who participate in the CE activities (Bringle, Hatcher and Mutiah 2010: 38). However, while these authors do not mention community benefits, more recently Bandy (2016: 1-2) emphasises that CE initiatives have potentials to benefit both the hosting institutional community as well as external non-academic partners (i.e. communities). Students are able to gain real-

life experiences that provide them the opportunity to associate classroom theory with practice. Concomitantly, HEIs have the potential to gain recognition from their neighbouring communities if trusting and reciprocal relationships are developed that co-generate mutual beneficiation (Carriere 2007: 116, 118).

This exploratory, developmental and qualitative study, which was participatory in approach, focused on the development and implementation of a guide to train and prepare students for volunteerism. The students were selected from a variety of disciplines at a University of Technology (UoT) to volunteer with children residing in a Child and Youth Care Centre (CYCC). Through the development of this guide, the study intends to contribute to the preparation of students for social and civic responsibility as envisaged in community engagement HEIs, generally and UoTs in particular.

## **1.2 STUDY CONTEXT**

In 1995 and at the onset of democracy there were 36 HEIs in South Africa, divided into two types: universities and technikons. Of the total number, 21 operated as universities and fifteen as technikons (Reddy 2004: 11; Jansen 2003: 2). Distinct differences were made between the two types of HEIs, which were outlined in policies that clearly stated the purpose of each type of HEI (Bunting 1994: 37-38). Technikons were to train students to apply scientific or scholarly principles and focused on the practical application of knowledge to train skilful employees (Bunting 1994: 38). In contrast, the primary purpose of universities was the production of knowledge, using “abstract thinking and scientific or scholarly approaches” (Bunting 1994: 38) and educating students in a variety of scientific methods.

These HEIs were further segregated according to races. Apartheid education’s primary aim and focus was on educating ‘White only’ students, which led to the ‘White only’

HEIs being at an advantage, while the ten universities and seven technikons allocated to non-white or 'Black' South Africans were historically disadvantaged (Bunting 1994: 52). The Black, Coloured and Indian students in non-white HEIs received English medium classes and were directed towards administrative and industry related studies (Soudien 2015: 11; Reddy 2004: 9). With the demise of apartheid policies in 1994, much work was needed to repair the damage that had been caused to the disadvantaged and majority population in South Africa, who were subjected not only to inadequate living conditions but also to an unsatisfactory quality of education (Grobbelaar 2017: 1-2).

The core logic of the "apartheid system were almost diametrically opposed to the central tenets of the new Constitution (Republic of South Africa 1997) that sought to create a non-racial, non-sexist, more equal and socially just social and economic order for South Africa" (parenthesis in original, Republic of South Africa, Department of Higher Education and Training 2015: 1). These were the principles democracy sought to uphold. Much mitigation was required to heal the wounds of apartheid and education was considered critical to facilitate such healing (Republic of South Africa, Department of Education 1997: 1).

The year 1994 heralded an urgency to transform the entire educational system, with a significant focus on higher education. The introduction of the Higher Education Act of 1997 provided new laws and policies that guided HEIs to move forward and redress the legacy of apartheid (Republic of South Africa, Department of Education 1997). The Act "provided for a new set of principles, such as cooperative governance, transparency, democracy and inclusivity, and the creation of broadly more representative Councils, Senates and other committees, as well as new structures, such as Institutional Forums" (Republic of South Africa, Department of Higher Education and Training 2015: 7).



Badat (2010: 71) points out that:

“In South Africa, social inequalities were embedded and reflected in all spheres of social life, as a product of the systemic exclusion of blacks and women under colonialism and apartheid. The higher education system was no exception. Social, political and economic discrimination and inequalities of a class, race, gender, institutional and spatial nature profoundly shaped, and continue to shape, South African higher education. Given this, South Africa’s new democratic government committed itself in 1994 to transforming higher education as well as the inherited apartheid social and economic structure and institutionalising a new social order.”

The Act formed the foundation for how HEIs should be managed. It provided guidelines that HEIs should follow in order to uphold the new goals of HEIs in a democratic South Africa, ensuring that non-racial, non-sexist and socially just HEIs were formed. Despite the legal and policy changes in the country and governance of HEIs, indications are that many challenges still exist in HEIs in contemporary South Africa (Republic of South Africa, Department of Higher Education and Training 2015: 8). Some of the challenges relate to social and academic integration, shortage of quality lecturers, quality of education and bureaucracy and politics in education (Chetty and Pather 2015: 2-5). More importantly, the higher education system needs to produce socially responsible graduates who are taught to think beyond self-interest and to foster an interest in playing a meaningful role in communities and societies (Al-Khoury, Bolkart, Fechter and AlShamali 2015: 75). Students are urged to be civically and socially responsible and community engagement is one vehicle that can contribute to this educational objective (Republic of South Africa, Department of Education 1997: 8).

In the current context of democracy, the transformation of education includes the promotion of social responsibility in students, whilst concomitantly contributing to

addressing issues faced by local communities. According to Al-Khoury *et al.* (2015: 75), student social responsibility in universities makes students aware of their surroundings, enables them to gain valuable experience and to understand ethical conduct in their respective areas of study, while developing a sense of citizenship. Through HEI initiatives, communities are encouraged, empowered and assisted to overcome their difficulties and disadvantages and students are taught, as part of the transformation agenda of higher education, to extend their interests further than that of individual self-gain.

### **1.2.1 South African higher education**

A significant change that was implemented post 1994 was the restructuring of the “fragmented and structurally racialised system of 36 public and more than 300 private institutions to a relatively (at least formally) more integrated system of public universities” (Republic of South Africa, Department of Higher Education and Training 2015: 1). Universities were grouped as traditional, comprehensive and technological and included private HEIs (Republic of South Africa, Department of Higher Education and Training 2015: 1; Wawrzynski, Heck and Remley 2012: 107). Each of the three types of institutions (excluding private HEIs) serve a specific purpose in the South African higher education arena. Traditional universities mainly offer graduate and post-graduate degree programmes with a high research focus (Higher Education in Context 2014: 14; Bunting and Cloete 2010: 2). UoTs are “vocationally oriented institutions that award higher certificates, diplomas and degrees in technology with some postgraduate and research capacity” (Higher Education in Context 2014: 14). A comprehensive university offers both bachelor degrees and technology-oriented qualifications with a focus on teaching, research and postgraduate admission; thus, comprehensive universities can be understood as a traditional university and UoT combined due to the offering of qualifications, typically offered by both the aforementioned establishments (Higher Education in Context 2014: 14; Bunting and Cloete 2010: 2).

Currently, the post school education and training system is comprised of 26 public HEIs of which nine are Universities of Technology, 50 Technical and Vocational Education and Training Colleges and nine Community Education and Training (CET) Colleges (Republic of South Africa, Department of Higher Education and Training 2016: 3). “The gross enrolment data since 1995 shows a dramatic expansion of South Africa’s higher education system, marked by a consistent increase in overall and particularly, ‘Black’ enrolment patterns” (Republic of South Africa, Department of Higher Education 2015: 9). In addition to the above changes, CE has been included and institutionalised as a function of HEIs as it has the potential to contribute to social and transformational justice in South African communities (Republic of South Africa, Department of Higher Education 2015: 2; Republic of South Africa, Department of Higher Education 2013: 39; Mitchell and Rautenbach 2005: 101). CE joins teaching and learning, and research as the three core functions of higher education in South Africa.

### **1.2.2 Community engagement in South African HEIs**

The historical context of higher education in South Africa is a critical predecessor to the introduction and formalisation of community engagement in a democratic South Africa as part of the transformation process of higher education. Prior to the democratic elections in 1994, South African higher education systems’ quality of teaching, learning and research differed according to the racial divide. Institutional cultures and practices ranged from opposing apartheid to compliance and active support for the apartheid regime’s vision for higher education (Ballim, Scott, Simpson and Webbstock 2016: 64). Higher education institutions were disconnected from community issues to the extent that universities were considered to have an invisible ‘ivory tower’ structure, separating them from the outside or local community (Maistry 2012: 144; Bender 2008: 85).

Furthermore, outside interactions were focused on westernised practices and links with Europe and the industrial North (Republic of South Africa, Department of Higher

Education and Training 2015: 1). These international interactions limited the interaction of HEIs with local impoverished communities in South Africa, particularly communities with a majority 'African', 'Indian' and 'Coloured' population (Republic of South Africa, Department of Higher Education and Training 2015: 22). After 1994, the national government realised that the higher education system had untapped potentials that could contribute to community development and began to question the role of universities in this process. Institutional transformation began to incorporate social justice as visualised in the Green Paper on Higher Education Transformation (Republic of South Africa, Department of Education 1996) and focused on student and community development (Ballim *et al.* 2016: 65).

Consequently, higher education institutions are required to do more than provide tertiary education to students that prepare them only for the workplace. Students have to be prepared for the world after studying, as employees and as active citizens who are socially and civically responsible (Republic of South Africa, Department of Education 1997: 8). Higher education institutions have the potential to contribute "to the common good of society through the production, acquisition and application of knowledge, the building of human capacity, and the provision of lifelong learning opportunities" (Republic of South Africa, Department of Education 1997: 8). Community engagement was initially defined as "initiatives and processes through which the expertise of the HEIs in the areas of teaching and research are applied to address issues relevant to its community" (Higher Education Quality Council 2004: 15).

This study emphasises that transformation activities, including community engagement, are different in each of the university groupings, that is, traditional, comprehensive and technology universities. In comparison to the functions of teaching and research, community engagement is an emergent function of universities in South Africa. Given the structural changes post 1994 and the impact of changes in identity to a number of HEIs, the implementation of community engagement remains a

challenge to many universities (Grobbelaar 2017: 19, 37-38; Bivens, Haffenden and Hall 2015: 6; Council on Higher Education 2010: 7). It is not uncommon to find that some academics, including senior management, are still resistant to accepting community engagement as a legitimate function of higher education (Hall 2010: 5). This raises concerns about the nature of and extent to which students are prepared or trained for engagement with communities at these institutions (Albertyn and Erasmus 2014: 22-23; Hall 2010: 5; Favish 2010: 45). Additionally, confusion still reigns about the conceptualisation and forms of CE and how CE can be integrated into teaching, learning and research (Albertyn and Erasmus 2014: 22-23).

### **1.3 THE PROBLEM STATEMENT**

#### **1.3.1 Background information**

As mentioned earlier, community engagement is practiced in a variety of ways. The Council on Higher Education, Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC) (2004: 19, 26) states that:

“Community engagement typically finds expression in a variety of forms, ranging from informal and relatively unstructured activities to formal and structured academic programmes addressed at particular community needs (service-learning programmes) and some projects might be conducive towards the creation of a better environment for community engagement and others might be directly related to teaching, learning and research”.

Figure 1.1 shows the various forms in which CE are currently practiced.

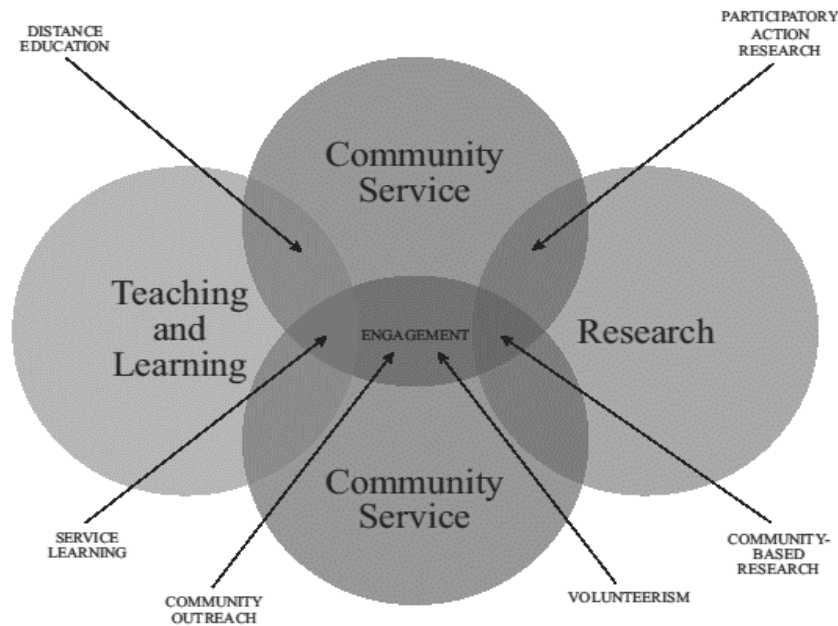


Figure 1.1: Types and intersections of community engagement (adapted from Bender 2008 cited in Grobbelaar 2017: 31)

The pedagogy of service learning (SL) integrates the service function of HEIs into the teaching and learning function (Thomson, Smith-Tolken, Naidoo and Bringle 2011: 220). The most common understanding of SL as explained by Bringle, Phillips and Hudson (2004: 127) is that service learning is part of a “course-based, credit-bearing educational experience” within non-academic contexts. This service participation typically meets the goals agreed with the host community, or institution, while simultaneously, providing the student with opportunities to “gain further understanding of the course content, a broader appreciation of the discipline, and an enhanced sense of civic responsibility” (Bringle *et al.* 2004: 127). Service learning incorporates the theory from teaching with the experiential opportunities facilitated by the engaged partnership (Butin 2015: 5; Lazarus, Erasmus, Hendricks, Nduna and Slammat 2008: 63-64).

Community engagement in research is represented variously as participatory action research (Foth and Brynskov 2016: 563-580; Cawston, Mercer, and Barbour 2007: 2),

community- based research (CBR), (Council on Higher Education 2007: 180; Israel, Schulz, Parker, and Becker 1998: 177), co-creation of knowledge (Beaulieu, Breton and Brousselle 2018: 29) and Community Based Participatory Research (CBPR) (Jull, Giles and Graham 2017: 152; Faridi, Grunbaum, Gray, Franksa and Simoes 2007: 2; Cornwall and Jewkes 1995: 1669). CBPR incorporates CE initiatives with research to form a unique research method, which unlike traditional methods of research values the repository of knowledge within communities and recognises equity among all participants in the research initiative. CBPR is governed by collaboration and equality amongst the researcher and the community participants (Cacari- Stone, Wallerstein, Garcia and Minkler 2014: 1615; Faridi *et al.*, 2007: 2).

Students as volunteers are exposed to opportunities engendered by community university partnerships and social change through freely participating in CE activities. Volunteerism has the potential to form a partnership and if formed correctly could create a resource-shared relationship, which can lead to empowered community members in the respective community (Meyer-Adams in University of Johannesburg 2014: 2-3). Volunteers are people in society who give a helping hand through offering their time to improve the lives of others without expecting anything in return (Niyimbanira and Krugell 2014: 1). Examples of volunteering include but are not limited to: making and supplying food to nutritionally compromised communities, working with a community to solve various issues, providing time, expertise and skills to communities in distress (Niyimbanira and Krugell 2014: 1; Graham, Patel, Ulriksen, Moodley and Mavungu, 2013: 29).

According to the State of the World's Volunteerism Report (2015), volunteerism comprises three criteria: the individual does a deed of their own free will for personal inner reasons; the individual receives no reward in any form, such as financial; and lastly, those who benefit from the individual's actions are outside of their family or associates (The United Nations Volunteer Programme 2015: xiv, xxiii, 3, 4). Thus, the individual who undertakes all of the above actions, within their work, is considered a

volunteer. In the context of higher education, students involved in volunteering do not ordinarily do so in a structured (credit bearing) programme linked to a specific discipline. In particular, opportunities through volunteerism exist in which students are involved in programmes outside of their disciplinary field.

Some authors have highlighted the importance of university students being prepared and guided in the various types of community engagement roles (Grobbelaar 2017: 150; Maistry and Thakrar 2012: 59; Peterson 2009: 548-549). This includes volunteerism. Preparation ensures that the students, community and the university build a relationship that is mutually beneficial, respectful, supportive [ethical] and equal. Thus, training students to understand the aforementioned values has the potential to create quality volunteerism activities. Preparation for volunteerism limits any of the parties being put at-risk or their wellbeing threatened through their participation. Of critical importance is that preparation and training of students as volunteers needs to be undertaken to ensure that work being done is not harmful but beneficial to the community. Results from data collected through a study at the University of Fort Hare on 'Educating students for Effective Community Engagement' revealed that students recommended a training programme prior to participating in community engagement (Maistry and Thakrar 2012: 69). Similarly, Grobbelaar's (2017: 167) study revealed the need for UoT students to be prepared, prior to their participation in CE activities.

Undoubtedly, the preparation of students for volunteerism is relevant to all university types, however, this study asserts that students at UoTs may require additional support prior to and during, the process of engagement with communities. One reason for this is that a UoTs primary 'community' (or principal stakeholder) has been, and remains, industry. Students are placed into industries through work-integrated learning (WIL). According to CHE (2011: 4), WIL "specifically describes an approach to career-focused education that includes classroom-based and workplace-based forms of learning that are appropriate for the professional qualification". Similarly, other



authors argue that WIL is an experiential form of learning that applies and integrates both theory and practice, which is facilitated in both academic and workplace settings (Council on Higher Education 2011: 6; du Pré in Council on Higher Education 2006: 11). WIL is considered a key component to the functioning of UoTs as it provides ‘job-related’ experience for students through industry settings, thus, producing students who are well prepared for the workplace (du Pré in Council on Higher Education 2006: 11).

It is important to note that just as WIL does not necessarily prepare students for social and civic responsibilities, community engagement does not necessarily prepare students for employment. However, as noted by Grobbelaar (2017: 27) and Maistry and Lortan (2015: 319), through the processes that are an inherent feature of CE, students are guided into a relationship with various communities, under the auspices of, among others, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), Non-Profit Organisations (NPOs) and Community Based Organisations. Students’ interaction and engagement with representatives of these organisations and their community stakeholders forms part of collaborative community-university partnerships (Zavala, Pérez, González and Villela 2014: 18).

Of benefit, however, to industry is that CE provides relationship experiences to students that could be positively utilised in work situations. It is important that students be prepared for engagement with these partners since CE requires an adjustment in student beliefs, attitudes, approaches, thinking and skills from those typically required for relating to commercial industry. In the 21st century, genuine attempts have to be made by “UoTs to pay greater attention to service, awareness of social and economic issues in communities, reciprocal learning and partnerships with communities in the co-creation of knowledge while equipping students for the workplace” (Maistry and Lortan 2015: 319).

### 1.3.2 The Durban University of Technology: a University of Technology case study

The Durban University of Technology has its legacy in the two Technikons from which it was created through a merger. The ML Sultan Technikon “and Technikon Natal merged to form the Durban Institute of Technology on 1 April 2002” (Durban University of Technology 2007: 2). The change from Technikons to Universities of Technologies led to the Durban Institute of Technology being renamed as the Durban University of Technology (DUT) in March 2006 (Durban University of Technology 2007: 3). The change was aimed at “an optimal mix of academic and vocational qualifications”. DUT is currently comprised of six faculties: Management Sciences, Applied Sciences, Health Sciences, Art and Design, Accounting and Informatics, Engineering and the Built Environment.

Figure 1.2 shows DUTs enrolment over the period 2012, 2014 and 2016 according to racial category.

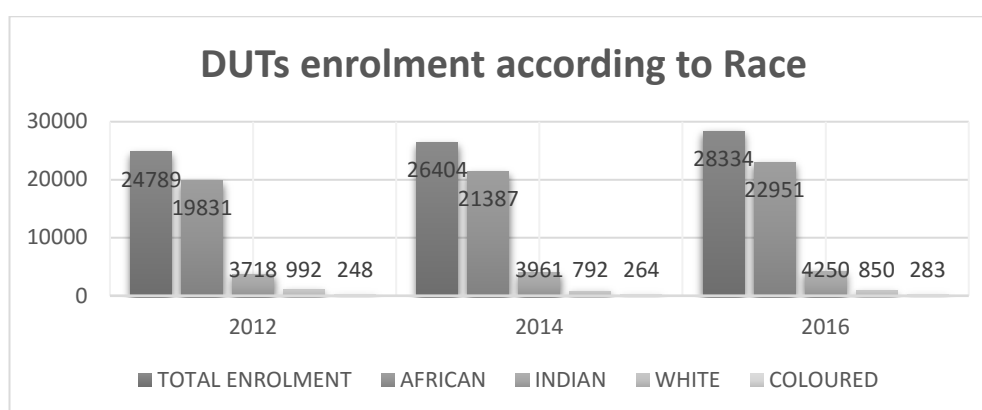


Figure 1.2: DUTs enrolment over the period 2012, 2014 and 2016 according to Race.

In an effort to address the inequalities of apartheid, a national target for HEIs was set at 60% enrolment of ‘African’ students (Durban University of Technology 2012: 24). Durban University of Technology had exceeded this with an exceptional 80% (19 831) enrolment of ‘African’ students in 2012 (Durban University of Technology 2012: 24).

In 2014 DUT had approximately 26 404 students (Durban University of Technology 2014: 14) which shows an increase of approximately 1615 students between 2012 and 2014.

This was matched by a slight increase in both ‘Indian’ and ‘Coloured’ student enrolments, whereas ‘White’ student enrolment had dropped by approximately 200 students. In 2015 and 2016 students’ enrolments rose to 27 023 and 28 334, respectively (Durban University of Technology 2016: 4). In addition in 2016 DUT had 81% enrolment by ‘African’ students (approximately 22 951 students), 15% by ‘Indian’ students, 3% by ‘White’ students and 1% by ‘Coloured’ students (Durban University of Technology 2016: 38).

DUT functions as UoT, their primary function, as other UoTs is to train students for industry. The discussion below argues that UoTs like DUT should promote social and civic responsibility in their students through CE.

### **1.3.3 Universities of Technology**

Although social responsibility is one of the core goals for all HEIs in South Africa, including UoTs, due to the technical nature of UoTs, many have diminished their role of promoting social and civic responsibility in students. Grobbelaar (2017: 6-7) highlights that:

“In the South African context of HEIs, the potential for fostering, specifically critical discourse and creative thinking exists in what are termed as traditional universities because of the nature of the varied disciplines offered at these institutions. On the other hand, UoTs focused predominantly on the technical study field and on training students for the market place. The emphasis on Work Integrated Learning (WIL) and industry placements narrowed the focus

and excluded insights into South Africa's diversity and socioeconomic issues in the curriculum".

In order to respond to the call of the Green Paper on Higher Education Transformation (Republic of South Africa, Department of Education 1996) and the White Paper on Higher Education and Transformation (WPHET) (Republic of South Africa, Department of Education 1997), UoTs, including the Durban University of Technology, needed to change the way they engage with communities (Grobbelaar 2017: 113) as well as how they train their students for the workplace (Council on Higher Education 2011: 6).

Policies have called upon HEIs to ensure their partnerships provide a conducive context that facilitates developmental and transformational learning by students and communities (Republic of South Africa, Department of Education 1997: 1). According to Grobbelaar (2017: 19) universities are required to take additional purposeful steps to transform themselves to better reflect the aim and values of the Constitution, which requires all people living in South Africa, including students, to become justice-orientated, socially responsible citizens. This can be achieved through the promotion of transformation in UoTs and by creating more opportunities for CE activities with local communities.

Peterson (2009: 548-549) points out that

“students should be guided to participate as volunteers in the community in ways that authentically respect and support the interests and equality of its members so that goals of mutual support and learning, rather than top-down ‘helping’ or ‘rescuing’ of the ‘needy’, are achieved.”

This reinforces the importance of preparing students as volunteers to acquire appropriate values and skills prior to working and/or participating within communities.

#### **1.3.4 Child and Youth Care Centres**

Several protective frameworks were implemented with the vision to protect children from unjust acts such as the Amended Children's Act No 41 of 2007 (Republic of South Africa, Department of Social Development 2008); The White Paper on Social Welfare (Republic of South Africa, Ministry for Welfare and Population Development 1997: 32) and the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Republic of South Africa 1997). However, over two decades of democracy, children are still faced with harmful circumstances and severe injustices. Hall and Sambu (2018: 132) point out, "in mid-2017, South Africa's total population was estimated at 56.5 million people, of whom 19.6 million were children under 18 years. Children, therefore, make up 35% of the total population". Hall and Sambu (2018: 134) further state that in 2017, 2.8 million children were orphans in South Africa, that is, approximately 14% of the total number of children in South Africa.

Child and Youth Care Centres are one type of a residential care facility which takes care of orphaned children who have been legally removed from their homes, with the aim of providing a homelike environment for optimising growth, while introducing therapeutic healing if required (Schmid 2006 cited in Malatji and Dube 2017: 109). Schmid and Patel (2016: 249) further state that South African history influences the vulnerability of children today. Children who come to CYCCs are most often victims of abuse, neglect and abandonment (Malatji and Dube 2017: 108). Therefore, CYCCs are a critical part of many South African communities because they provide essential care and healing to orphaned children.

The Children's Amendment Act No. 41 of 2007 (Republic of South Africa, Department of Social Development 2008: 80), section 191(1), states that, "a child and

youth care centre (CYCC) is a facility for the provision of residential care to more than six million children outside the child's family environment in accordance with a residential care programme suited for the children in the facility". It is imperative that CYCCs function in a structured and ethical manner. The national norms and standards for the Children's Amendment Act No. 41 of 2007, section 194(2), provides a guide for ethical practices and programmes for CYCCs (Republic of South Africa, Department of Social Development 2008: 82). The norms and standards that govern a CYCC are specific and holistic, in that, they are meant to cater for the needs of a child while in the care of a CYCC.

Unfortunately, Child and Youth Care Centres have very limited funding, which is a common problem for Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) in South Africa (Dutschke 2006, cited in Malatji and Dube 2017: 121). Even though the Department of Social Development funds NGOs, CYCCs are not given sufficient funding to function effectively, thereby negatively affecting the service that is provided to the children in their care (Dutschke 2006, cited in Malatji and Dube 2017: 121). Based on the funding shortages in CYCCs volunteers play an important role in assisting CYCCs to fulfil their responsibilities as mandated by the amended Children's Amendment Act No. 41 of 2007 (Republic of South Africa, Department of Social Development 2008: 80-81). Effectively trained volunteers contribute to the reduction of costs for the CYCCs, making a CYCC an appropriate partner for CE as their need for volunteers is evident and HEIs have both the resources and human power to assist a CYCC through volunteerism.

#### 1.3.4.1 Problem Identified by CYCC participating in the study

In the researcher's conversation with the manager of the Child and Youth Care Centre participating in this study on 14 March 2016, she mentioned that the CYCC provides care and protection for approximately 120 children, with ages ranging from four to 18 years. While many of the children go home to spend time with their families during the holidays, there are many children who also remain at the centre because they do

not have a safe place to go to during the holidays. The manager identified a holiday programme as a task for student volunteers to establish and implement with the children.

#### **1.4 RESEARCH QUESTION**

In order to develop and implement such a volunteer preparation and training programme, the study asked the following research question:

What kind of preparation and training do students of a UoT need prior to volunteering in a community-university partnership project?

#### **1.5 RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES**

The aim of this study was to develop, implement and evaluate a training programme designed to prepare DUT students as volunteers to work in a partnership relationship with a CYCC. The study objectives were:

1.5.1 To explore volunteerism as a form of community engagement;

1.5.2 To develop a volunteer training programme for DUT students and to train them as volunteers;

1.5.3 To create a partnership relationship between DUT and the CYCC;

1.5.4 To develop a platform for DUT academic staff, DUT students and the CYCC staff as volunteers, enabling the development and implementation of a holiday programme for young people at the CYCC, and

1.5.5 To evaluate the volunteer training programme post-implementation of the volunteer task and to finalise a volunteer training programme for the CYCC.

## **1.6 RELEVANCE OF THE STUDY**

Despite the transformation call of the White Paper on Higher Education Transformation (1997) and the increase in CE practices in South Africa, research and literature on the practices of CE is limited in the South African context and even more so for volunteerism. The majority of the literature is from the Global North, which does not always fit the South African context. Thus, this study will contribute to literature relating to community engagement, volunteerism, training of student volunteers and community-university partnerships (CUP) in a South African context. It is hoped that this study will also prompt further research that relates to volunteerism in South African HEIs generally and UoTs, particularly.

## **1.7 THE STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS**

This dissertation comprises of five chapters.

**Chapter One** introduces the study and provides the background and context of the study. This chapter also details the problem statement, aim and objectives of the study.

**Chapter Two** provides an overview of relevant literature reviewed for both conceptual and a theoretical frameworks. The conceptual framework covers literature reviewed on the main concepts of the study such as community engagement, volunteerism and student preparation. The theoretical framework details the theories that underpin the study.

**Chapter Three** details the study design and research methodology applied in the research process. The chapter describes the study sample, methods used to collect data and describes how data was analysed.

**Chapter Four** presents the results and discusses the findings of the study for Phases One and Two.



**Chapter Five** presents the results and discusses the findings of the study for Phase Three.

**Chapter Six** includes the recommendations and conclusion based on the findings of the study.

## **1.8 CONCLUSION**

The White Paper (Republic of South Africa, Department of Education 1997) called upon HEIs to contribute to the transformation of South Africa through CE. Community engagement has an integral role to play not only in social justice but also in the development of social responsibility in students (Albertyn and Daniels 2009: 413-415; Petersen and Osman 2013: 4-5). Despite this call and important role of CE, the CHE (2010) emphasises that HEIs are ignoring the task and failing to inculcate social and civic responsibility in their respective students. Volunteerism, as a form of CE has the potential to contribute to the transformation and building of social justice in South Africa, if students are adequately prepared to play their roles in communities. In addition, preparing student volunteers serves to promote social and civic responsibility in students, while providing learning opportunities.

## **CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

As a form of community engagement (CE), volunteerism has the potential to benefit HEIs, students, academics and communities. However, within the context of the Global North it has been identified that the benefits to accrue to all participants appropriately, training and preparation of students should take place prior to the volunteering activity (Peterson 2009: 548-549). The inclusivity of all stakeholders within the South African context is important because, as Musesengwa and Chimbari (2017: 28) suggested, participatory approaches ensure that all role-players in the community-university partnership are involved in-and contribute to the relevant activity, which, in this study is the preparation and implementation of the training programme prior to the actual holiday programme. The inclusion of all stakeholders enables opportunities for critical learning throughout the engagement process (Rogers, Luton, Biggs, Biggs, Blignaut, Choles, Palmer, Tangwe 2013: 8, 10).

In this chapter, the literature reviewed for the study is presented under two sections: conceptual framework and theoretical framework. The section on conceptual framework covers community engagement, volunteers and volunteerism, preparation of student volunteers and partnership relationships. The theoretical framework covers theories that guided this study and include. the Curriculum of Engagement Approach, Social Contract Theory and Ethics of Care Theory. These theories are discussed in relation to their relevance to the study.

## **2.1 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

### **2.2.1 Community engagement**

#### **2.2.1.1 Defining the terms of community and engagement**

The meanings of the terms ‘community’ and ‘engagement’ are first discussed separately in order to gain a more in-depth understanding of the concept of ‘community engagement’ in the arena of higher education. “Community most commonly refers to people in a specific geographical location or physical space that is demarcated by boundaries, whether real or imagined” (Maistry 2010: 157). In addition to location, a community can also encompass social groupings and similar relations with regards to values, intellectual, social, economic and/or political beliefs. Such communities can have their roots in the public or private sectors or in civil society (Maistry 2010: 157). Hall (2010: 23) emphasises that ‘community’ in the South African context is best defined in broad terms ranging from a residential area to a suburb, an organisation, province or place, where non-academic stakeholders gather regularly to share common interests.

In the context of HEIs, the notion of ‘community’ could refer to the institution itself, as a single community and to a number of diverse communities existing within the university; inter alia: students as a community and academics as a community. Community or communities could also exist outside of the physical boundaries of the university, with which the university is required to ‘engage’ (Hall 2010: 84; Muller 2010: 69).

‘Engagement’ in the context of HEIs could refer to the interaction and collaborative relationship that may take place between a community (outside of the university) and the university. Writing from a university perspective Bender (2008: 86-87) states that engagement involves two or more parties from different ‘community systems’ who

want or already have a two-way association. She adds that such an association need to consider the dynamics of their partners and be prepared to adjust in order to be accessible to the community. This would entail dialogue and ensuring that the community participate in the partnerships or associations. Even though the university plays a pivotal role in facilitating the engagement, the community, however, is equally important. Here, it is clear that Bender (2008) is referring to ‘community’ as being outside the physical boundaries of a university.

#### 2.2.1.2 Community engagement in South Africa

Community engagement is not a new phenomenon in higher education in South Africa, as it was implemented by universities in the past but solely for the benefit of academia (Hall 2010: 70-73). However, the rationale for formalising community engagement as a core function of HEIs, post 1994, is based on the potential of universities to contribute to the social and economic development of South African communities and the potential to provide opportunities for inculcating social and civic responsibilities in graduates. One of the goals of HEIs should be “to promote and develop social responsibility and awareness among students of the role of higher education in social and economic development through community service programmes” (Republic of South Africa, Department of Education 1997: 10). WPHET posits CE as an integral and core responsibility of higher education, alongside teaching and learning and research (Republic of South Africa, Department of Education 1997: 9-11).

According to the Glossary of the HEQC’s Framework for Institutional Audits (Higher Education Quality Council 2004: 19, 26), CE is defined as the inclusion of community interaction in tertiary curriculum with the aim of addressing social injustices in South African communities. Bender (2008: 86-87) argues that the HEQC’s definition does not limit the definition of CE but rather acknowledges “the full range of engagement activities pursued by South African universities” such as experiential education, community service, community development, community-based education, clinical

practice, community outreach [volunteerism] and service-learning. Hall (2010: 25) further states that “CE is a process of creating a shared vision among the community (especially disadvantaged) and partners (local, provincial, national government, NGOs, HEIs, businesses and donors) in society, as equal partners that result in a long term collaborative programme of action with outcomes that benefit the whole community equitably”. Such collaboration has the potential to empower both communities and students through shared knowledge and skills development.

It should be noted that the HEQC’s Framework for Institutional Audits (2004) and some scholars writing on CE do not critically engage with the concepts of ‘community’, ‘engagement’ and ‘community engagement’ and in not doing so, leave the door open for each HEI to determine its own definition of CE. Muller (2010: 69) supports this ‘lack of a common or blueprint definition’ and argues that ‘community engagement’ is “an irreducibly contextual activity, depending variously on the mission and strengths of the university, the state of regional development of the area in which it is sited, and the ingenuity of the academics concerned, not to mention the diversity of views and interests of the local communities”.

The emerging nature of CE in the South African context and lack of not only a common definition but also a national policy on community engagement is clearly revealed by its many name changes. Over time, the name changed from ‘community service’, (Republic of South Africa, Department of Education 1997: 10) to ‘knowledge based community service’ (Council on Higher Education 2001: 11), to ‘community engagement’ (Council on Higher Education 2004: 19) and to ‘scholarship of engagement’ (Higher Education Quality Council/ Community-Higher Education-Service Partnerships 2007: 140).

### 2.2.1.3 Community engagement globally and its influence on South African CE

As an emerging core function, global trends in community engagement, especially those from America, have influenced the ways in which CE is defined and the ongoing name changes (Beaulieu *et al.* 2018: 2). The W.K. Kellogg Foundation is an international organisation that has played a role in funding CE projects in the process of establishing CE as a function of HEIs, post 1994 (W.K Kellogg Foundation 2002: 73). The influence of American personnel in the early years of the formalisation process of CE is evident by the dominance of service learning within the South African context (Hatcher and Erasmus 2008: 48-50; Bender 2007: 130; Lazarus 2007: 92; Nduna 2006: 488; Erasmus 2005:7-8; O'Brien 2005: 68). Therefore, in order to have a deeper understanding of CE in the South African context, the history of civic education in the United States of America (USA) and its influence in the global higher education arena, generally and particularly in South Africa, needs to be understood.

Civic education in the USA dates back to 1963 when one of the philosophies underpinning higher education was to prepare alumni for active involvement in their communities and civic education was considered an important element to grow a knowledgeable and critical humanity (Smith 1994 cited in Jacoby 2009: 10). Civic education was an important element of higher education systems in the USA but under general education (Sax 2004: 65). With the development of organisations such as the Peace Corps in 1965 many students participated in community collaboration programmes as volunteers (Stanton, Giles and Cruz 1999: 12) and many of the university engagement programmes began between 1960s and 1970s (Stanton *et al.* 1999: 12).

In the 1980s colleges and universities reevaluated their service functions (Colby, Ehrlich, Beaumont and Stephens 2003: 10; Ehrlich 2000: vi) as students displayed a disregard for civic mindfulness (Jacoby 2009: 12). Based on this evaluation, CE initiatives increased in HEIs (Jacoby 2009: 12-13). Engagement initiatives were

implemented to nurture citizenship and social responsibility in the mind-sets of students (Sax 2004: 66; Ehrlich 2000: vi). Student engagement was viewed through at least three lenses: as a form of student learning, as a public policy instrument to promote student civic engagement and as a service delivery tool involving community service labour (Littlepage, Gazley and Bennett 2012: 306).

According to Nduna (2006: 488), the Talloires Declaration (2005) which was adopted by numerous South African HEIs is another international mechanism that shows the international and national links in CE. This declaration provides a guide for civic and social responsibilities in higher education. Further, Higher Education South Africa (HESA) ensured that the Talloires Declaration was distributed to all South African HEIs to enable their participation in civic change through the Talloires guide (Nduna 2006: 488). Thus, CE practiced in the USA and other countries in the Global North, has influenced and still influences CE in South Africa.

Fourie (2003: 31), however, points out that individual institutions in South Africa have seldom succeeded in maintaining an acceptable balance among the three primary functions of HEIs, namely, teaching, research and service\community engagement-because either research or teaching usually supersede the service\community engagement function. Bivens, Haffenden and Hall (2015: 6) write that due to the complexity of HEIs, institutional change is extremely challenging. Therefore, it is not surprising that there has been resistance by academia in meeting the goals of the WPHET due to the various challenges faced by HEIs, as noted by several authors (Habib in Council on Higher Education 2013: 63; Kruss, Visser, Haupt and Aphane 2012: xiii; Maistry and Thakrar 2012: 70; Bender 2008: 92; the Council on Higher Education 2004: 140). It is highlighted that a low motivation for transformation or collaboration can be based on implications of direct and indirect costs of such transformation (Chandler 2013: 246).

#### 2.2.1.4 Community engagement in South African HEIs

Historically universities have been recognised as the primary tool of knowledge creation, conservation and dissemination (Mabizela in Rhodes University 2017: 2; Bivens *et al.* 2015: 6). However, in democratic South Africa universities have been called upon to do more than just produce knowledge; they are now required to play a developmental role by contributing to community development and produce a different calibre of students, who are and will continue to be active citizens. The WPHET highlights the need for HEIs to play a role in “the development of a reflective capacity and a willingness to review and renew prevailing ideas, policies and practices based on a commitment to the common good” and the “contribution to the socialisation of enlightened, responsible and constructively critical citizens” (Republic of South Africa, Department of Education 1997: 7). What this demands is the removal of the ‘ivory tower’ image perpetuated by universities historically. A consequence of these imperatives is resistance on the part of some academics who are unable to change and lack interest in the development of local communities (Habib in Council on Higher Education 2013: 63; the Council on Higher Education 2004: 140).

The WPHET emphasises the need for transformation within HEIs, ensuring the expansion of citizenship education within HEIs and potentially dismantling such boundaries (Republic of South Africa, Department of Education 1997: 4). Favish (2015: 4) emphasises that CE is critical for the creation of civic consciousness and critical citizenry in HEI students. Bender (2008: 91) adds that partnerships and collaborative approaches to exchanging knowledge and sharing resources, with mutually beneficial outcomes, should be the basis for the establishment of CE programmes and projects in HEIs. The promise of CE lies in its potential to rejuvenate academia, redefine scholarship, promote citizenship, and involve society in a productive conversation about the current role of higher education and its role in the future (Bender 2008: 81-82).



Some scholars are of the view that social justice, equity and transformation can be achieved to some extent in South African HEIs through CE (Petersen and Osman 2013: 4-5; Albertyn and Daniels 2009: 413-415). Despite the resistance by some HEIs, others have actively participated in a variety of forms of CE. However, the extent to which HEIs implementing CE are actually contributing to the reconstruction and development of the country is yet to be known (Naidoo 2008 cited in Wilson 2013: 23). “Universities are involved in many activities structured around research, teaching and outreach that entail engagement with a wide range of communities, but these activities are uncoordinated and are the result of individual initiative, rather than of strategically planned, systematic endeavours” (Council for Higher Education 2010: iii). Maistry and Thakrar (2012: 70) assert that the lack of achieving CE goals is partially due to the lack of a comprehensive understanding of CE, its conceptualisation, rationale and purpose in South African HEIs.

Despite the aforementioned barriers to community engagement, CE in South African HEIs has the potential to provide several benefits. The benefits are evident for the university, student and community in the following ways: the development of South Africa (Professor Tyrone Pretorius in University of the Western Cape 2016: 4); HEIs can use their knowledge to improve the social, cultural and economic issues faced in communities (Bender 2008: 84); CE can “enrich scholarship, research, and creative activity; enhance curriculum, teaching, and learning; prepare educated, engaged citizens; strengthen democratic values and civic responsibility; address critical societal issues; and contribute to the public good” (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching 2015 cited in Saltmarsh, Janke and Clayton 2015: 122); through participation in CE, students become socially responsible citizens, which allows them to give more to society (Paphitis and Kelland 2016:192-193). Furthermore, students gain experiences, skills and knowledge from the community that extends and enhances the classroom training (Higher Education Quality Council/ Joint Education Trust 2006: 23; Mitchell 2008: 50).

Interaction with communities should follow the principles of CE, which entails effective communication, respect, collaborative partnerships and mutual benefits (Jacob, Sutin, Weidman and Yeager 2015: 4). Ideally, CE activities need to benefit all stakeholders involved. HEIs need to look at effectively playing their role in the reconstruction of South Africa through CE and this can take place according to the various forms of CE activities, including volunteerism (Lazarus *et al.* 2008: 63).

## **2.2.2 Volunteers and volunteerism**

### **2.2.2.1 Defining volunteering, volunteer and volunteerism**

The verb volunteering was “first recorded in 1755 and was derived from the noun ‘volunteer’” (Harper 2019: para 2 line 1-2), in late 16th century. At that time, it meant, “one who offers himself for military service” and it originated from the Middle French ‘volontaire’. In the non-military sense, the word was first recorded during the 1630s linked to community service (Harper 2019: para 1 line 1-3). In the South African context, the practice of volunteering (even though it was not known by the word volunteering then) formed part of the lives of indigenous communities since the earliest of times through cultural practices and moral obligation (Graham *et al.* 2013: 4), similar to traditional cultures in the East and other societies, as mentioned by Tandon in the Voluntary Action Network in India (VANI) (2011: 12). In the African context these practices were reflected in the phrase such as ‘Umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu’, loosely translated as “A person is a person through others”, emphasising community service and mutuality (Seabe 2014: 1).

Volunteerism represents social responsibility through cultural practices of the indigenous people in South Africa and its inclusion reinforces indigenous practices (Moleni and Gallagher 2007: 41). In recent years, the concept of a ‘volunteer’ espoused a range of definitions and understandings (Bussell and Forbes 2002: 248-249). In order to define a volunteer one needs to take into consideration the characteristics, motives, volunteer activity and the benefits volunteers could potentially gain (Bussell and

Forbes 2002: 248- 249). The definition of a volunteer, therefore, is not a simple task, as a number of elements have to be taken into consideration.

Notwithstanding the various definitions and complexity, there are a few common understandings of volunteerism that range from involvement in external activities for the public good, to actions based on deep-seated internal principles and values linked to religion and spirituality. Tandon in VANI (2011: 12) as a keynote speaker at a conference titled Volunteerism and Active Citizenship, defined volunteerism as the practice of improving communities and providing 'public service'. Additionally, Tandon argued:

“[This] practice of reaching out to others has been the hallmark of all religious and cultural traditions in India. This multidimensional characteristic of volunteerism, which has the ingredients of religious, spiritual and cultural ethos, reflects not just an external gesture of sparing some time or capacity, but it has been an outward expression of one's deeply embedded and internalised principles and values. All religions in India underscored the practice of volunteerism and exhorted its followers to serve others in whatever capacity they could” (Tandon in Voluntary Action Network India 2011: 12). Recognising and acknowledging the spontaneous aspect of volunteerism is crucial to promote such practices in any society.

Other scholars also embrace volunteerism as deeply embedded in human nature. Understanding what a volunteer is can be directly linked to the act of volunteerism. For example in the global context, definitions of volunteerism range from an act performed out of one's own free will, for the good of the community and with no gain or intimidation (Smith 1994, cited in Bussell and Forbes 2002: 248), to “volunteerism as one of the most basic of expressions of human behaviour and arises out of long-established ancient traditions of sharing and reciprocal exchanges” (Leigh, Smith, Geising, León, Haski-Leventhal, Lough, Mati, Strassburh and Hockenos 2011: 2).

Harris and Roose (2014: 795-805) in a study conducted in Australia, with young Muslim immigrants from Australia considered civic engagement principles as the same as volunteerism because they encompassed collaboration, participation and mutual understanding. These notions of volunteerism tend to indicate that volunteerism is not a recent phenomenon in society but that over time it may have lost some of its capacity for promoting awareness of human interconnectedness.

The United Nations Volunteer Programme (UNV) (2014: 3) states that the terms “volunteering, volunteerism and voluntary activities” are umbrella terms for a variety of actions which include mutual aid, self-help, service to others, civic participation and advocacy or campaigning, whereby an individual participates by choice and for the greater good of the public (United Nations Volunteer 2014: 19-20). Volunteers serve as important sources of knowledge for development programmes and through their participation volunteers can share their knowledge and skills to effect change as determined by communities.

Graham *et al.* (2013: 11) provide an overview of volunteerism in Africa and describe the following as characteristics of volunteerism: ‘an activity or work’- this could be through various forms; these activities are performed by people, which could be in the form of individual or groups; these people participate willingly and without pay. Finally, those who participate as volunteers also promote causes or help people outside of the family or circle. Universally, volunteerism is understood as the ‘act of giving without return’ or ‘altruism’. Volunteering is also seen as a two-way relationship that suggests mutual benefit and mutual responsibility (Volunteer Now 2012: 2).

#### 2.2.2.2 Typologies of volunteerism

Graham *et al.* (2013: 13-15), through extracting and analysing current literature, identified six groupings or typologies of volunteerism within the African context. The

first of these is community-based or community orientated volunteering. In this typology a person or group volunteers in a community and these communities include the place where they live, work or even study. From working in one's own community a sense of belonging and identity are obtained through the ownership of the activity. These community-orientated volunteers may also belong to faith-based organisations. International volunteering is another typology in which people volunteer in countries other than their own. The most common incidence of this type of volunteering is when people from so called 'developed' countries volunteer in supposedly 'developing' countries. Volunteer organisations recruit individuals and place them in these countries, to manage programmes, or volunteers individually find places of interests and apply to volunteer there.

The third grouping includes professional volunteers who are skilled individuals who volunteer their time and expertise for the greater good of disadvantaged people, without remuneration. These include medical practitioners, lawyers, specialists or educators. Fourthly, employed volunteers are people who have jobs but still choose to use some, or all of their free time, to volunteer (not necessarily in their field of expertise). It is important to note that the work of employed volunteers is not part of corporate social responsibility; they volunteer in their own time for their own personal reasons. The fifth category encompasses youth volunteers. These 16 to 21 years old volunteers offer their time or services for the greater good of others in various places of interests. Finally, retired volunteers are individuals who used to be employed, but have since reached the age of retirement and are now at home. These individuals are skilled and may volunteer in their area of expertise or not (Graham *et al.* 2013: 13-15). Erikson's (1950) stages of psychosocial development suggest that at the later stage of their lives, individuals who have led a full life may feel the need to give something back to the community before dying.

The volunteering activity for the above groupings may be formal or informal. Formal activities are usually more structured and have clear aims, objectives, roles and rules.

Informal activities are more ad-hoc, unstructured and localised (Graham *et al.* 2013: 13-15). According to the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRCRCS) (2011: 4) volunteerism is widely spread across various disciplines. However, the most common acts in relation to this international organisation were “health promotion, treatment and services; followed by disaster preparedness, response and recovery, and then support services” (International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies 2011: 8). Community engagement in general and volunteerism in particular at HEIs in South Africa are varied depending on whether students wish to share their discipline based knowledge or their personal interests and talents. Most often, such a decision is based on student’s personal choice.

#### 2.2.2.3 An international perspective on student volunteerism

From an international perspective, volunteerism in the Australian context is prevalent in HEIs nationally (Paull, Omari, MacCallum, Young, Walker, Holmes, Haski-Leventhal and Scott 2017: 123). HEIs build a bond with the organisation that hosts student volunteers. However, the processes and structures used in each HEI differs based on the host organisation, students and the HEI (Paull *et al.* 2017: 123).

In India, the government developed and launched the National Service Scheme (NSS) in 1969, which includes student volunteers from HEIs in India (National Service Scheme 2015: 1). The aim of the NSS is to promote student character through community-university partnerships. “The cardinal principle of the NSS programme is that it is organised by the students themselves, and both students and teachers through their combined participation in community service, get a sense of involvement in the tasks of nation building” (National Service Scheme 2015: 1). Bharti and Jagwani (2013: 5) add that through the NSS students become aware of social injustices while becoming self-aware and disciplined. The NSS promotes and encourages students’ participation in volunteer activities, which they view as part of community service, thus empowering both communities and students.

Active participation in social activities and volunteering programmes helps mould strong characters and valuable human capital for the country (Nordin 2011, cited in Sahri, Murad, Alias, and Sirajuddin 2013: 502). Young people possess the energy, creativity and determination to drive developmental progress which volunteerism entails (United Nations Volunteer Report 2014: 4). Some of the positives of volunteerism, generally, highlighted in the literature includes associating volunteerism with pro-social behaviour (Cnaan, Smith, Holmes, Haski-Leventhal, Handy and Brudney 2010: 66); and the continuation of volunteerism by young people from their late teens or early adulthood into adulthood (Cnaan *et al.* 2010: 66). Further, volunteering acts as a catalyst to engage students with new learning methods and to re-engage them with formal learning methods (National Youth Agency Report 2007: 4). Benefits for students who volunteer, as reported both in international and national studies and literature include, inter alia: increased self-esteem, self-confidence, employability, improved mental and physical health and increases in personal satisfaction from the engagement (Wu 2011: 4; National Youth Agency Report 2007: 4).

Based on an international study on volunteering, Holdsworth and Quinn (2010: 124) add that “the act of volunteering within higher education offers more than a feel-good activity; rather, volunteering can be a vehicle to challenge awareness of social inequities, facilitate awareness beyond the university’s reach and challenge students’ existing ways of knowing”. As a type of CE, volunteering is required to be participatory in nature. The notion of participatory volunteerism is governed by participatory action research (PAR) and the principles of CE. Thus, volunteering has the potential to promote mutual benefit, equal collaboration and “win/win” situations for participants (Holdsworth and Quinn 2010: 122). Through the intersection of volunteerism and social justice, students and community are given equal decision-making powers (Jiranek, Kals, Humm, Struble and Wehner 2013: 534; Holdsworth and Quinn 2010: 120). The incorporation of two-way learning (through volunteerism

and social justice) benefits both the students and the community (Holdsworth and Quinn 2010: 124).

#### 2.2.2.4 Student volunteerism in South African HEIs

Jardim and Marques da Silva (2018: 1) point out that in recent decades, young people have been represented as being at risk of exclusion from civic and political participation and are labelled as apathetic, antisocial and absorbed in themselves. As a consequence volunteering is encouraged and governments around the world recognise the contribution of young volunteers and their contribution to community development and social change. Such involvement improves the quality of life for the people of South Africa, simultaneously creating civic-minded young people (Graham *et al.* 2013: 21). However, despite the growing practice of volunteerism by students in HEIs in South Africa, (Van Den Berg and Cuskelly 2014: 458-459) and the “rich volunteerism culture” within South Africa (Schuurman 2013: 2), research on volunteerism is based on studies conducted in the Global North, with limited research undertaken in the context of ‘developing’ countries such as South Africa (Van Den Berg and Cuskelly 2014: 458; Schuurman 2013: iii).

This once again emphasises the need for South African literature on volunteerism in CE which is specific to the South African HEI environment. Additionally, recognition of the relationship between volunteerism, social responsibility and active citizenship, is lagging in South African HEIs even though research in these areas is slowly emerging (Patel and Wilson 2004, cited in Patel 2007: 8). The Council on Higher Education (CHE) (2004: 15) states that volunteering inculcates social responsibility and provides opportunities to strengthen student commitment to civic participation, increases their educational experience and better serve communities.



Volunteerism also benefits the university and its community partners. An observation by Paphitis and Kelland (2016: 192) is that volunteerism assists in the development of South African society while allowing the HEI to gain positive recognition from the communities that they engage with. Volunteerism contributes to the development and social and civic transformation of South Africa, given the fact that post 1994 NGOs were left with limited funding for social development and relied on volunteerism for assistance (Van Vianen, Nijstad and Voskuijl 2008: 153). However, funding and labour are not the only factors that influence and sustain volunteerism; volunteerism is also linked to the values of citizenship, mutual trust, empowerment, social interdependence and a sense of belonging, amongst other benefits (Leigh *et al.* 2011: 7). Issues that NGOs address, such as poverty and poor quality of life, require intensive action from various groups (gender, cultural, economic to name a few) to ensure social and civic transformation. According to Rhodes University's Student Volunteer Programme Handbook (Rhodes University 2017: 21) such issues cannot be solved with 'quick fixes' which can be achieved through civic transformation which is a process which students can contribute to whilst simultaneously "making a difference in their lives and the lives of others" (Rhodes University 2017: 21).

Within the CE paradigm, students as volunteers assist in providing ideas or theory that the community or community based organisations can put into practice. The partnership may act as a resource-sharing relationship; partnerships may also provide sustainable development for a better community (Harrington 2016: 3; University of Johannesburg 2015: 2-3). Literature highlights the importance of linking student knowledge to volunteerism (Holdsworth and Quinn 2010: 114). This requires HEIs to associate or link acts of volunteerism with student curriculum to enable students to gain specific skills and knowledge from their volunteer experiences.

Joseph (2016: 23) points out that "student volunteerism [has the potential] to address injustices and promote social justice in communities, as well as elicit a social justice orientation among students inculcating active citizenship". Student protests, to some

extent, may be considered, the practice of citizenship as inculcated through CE activities, including volunteerism. However, Arnot and Swartz (2012: 7) argue that based on the recent student protest actions in South African HEIs and the reactions of HEIs management, it can be assumed that HEIs in South Africa were not prepared for the notion of students enacting their citizenship role as indicated in the Green Paper on Higher Education Transformation (Republic of South Africa, Department of Education 1996) and the WPHET (Republic of South Africa, Department of Education 1997) which calls for active citizenship by students (Republic of South Africa, Department of Education 1997: 36).

Within the South African context, Rhodes University (RU) offers students a structured volunteer programme, which is conducted through their CE office. The Deputy Vice Chancellor: Academic and Student Affairs at RU (Rhodes University 2017: 4) states that the RU Student Volunteer Programme offers an “enhancement of learning”; volunteerism goes beyond just helping the communities in question but also encourages the connecting of academics with the communities that surround them. She adds that through volunteerism at RU, students not only grow academically but personally too. Motives play an important factor in volunteering.

#### 2.2.2.5 Motivations to volunteer

Understanding motives may assist in encouraging students to participate in community engagement and volunteer activities. The table (2.1) below shows the several reasons and motives for students volunteering according to different authors.

Table 2.1: Motivations to volunteer

<b>Zambia- Led Prevention Initiative (2013)</b>	<b>Cnaan <i>et al.</i> (2010) and Holdsworth and Quinn (2010)</b>	<b>Clary and Snyder (1991)</b>	<b>Butt, Yu, Soomro and Acquadro-Maran (2017)</b>
self-gain	Adds to curriculum vitae	enhancement	
social engagement		social	
reciprocity		career	career development
material gain			
empathy		values	Personal values and beliefs
		social/ego-defensive	Affiliation egoistic motives
		protective	

Individuals volunteer for several reasons which include helping others, self-gain, “social engagement”, “reciprocity”, “material gain”, “empathy” (Zambia- Led Prevention Initiative 2013: 12-18). Similarly, Cnaan *et al.* (2010: 71-72) and Holdsworth and Quinn (2010: 118-122) add that volunteering creates experiences that can be added to one’s curriculum vitae which is an important motivation for students to participate in volunteerism. Other motives include “altruistic/value-driven”, “social/ego-defensive”, “career advisor”, “good escape from one’s troubles”; and “relieves some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others”. These motives can be incorporated into the Clary and Snyder (1991: 153) Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI), which groups the motives of volunteering into six functions: enhancement (to improve oneself); career (to gain experience); social (to gain and build relationships); values (such as altruism); protective (to escape negative emotions) and understanding (to learn).

Butt, Yu, Soomro and Acquadro-Maran (2017: 8-13) categorise the motives of volunteers into four groups, collectively referred to as ABCE and individually known

as (A) “affiliation”, (B) “personal values and beliefs”, (C) career development and (E) egoistic motives. Depending on the volunteer’s background, needs and mind-set, their motive may vary and be grouped into any of the aforementioned categories. However, Jiranek *et al.* (2013: 525) point out that motivation theories do not include social justice and add that when students understand that volunteering represents social justice, they may be driven to participate (Jiranek *et al.* 2013: 525-526).

#### 2.2.2.6 Benefits of volunteerism

Volunteerism benefits the institution, the student and the community (Holdsworth and Quinn 2010: 113). Despite evidence that volunteerism is mutually beneficial; research investigating benefits that accrue to the organisation or community is limited as most of the research focuses on the HEIs and students (Littlepage *et al.* 2012: 308).

Universities benefit through the improvement of the institutions’ public profile, relationship building with surrounding communities and awareness of community needs. Research in England has indicated that volunteering enhances student-retention levels and, most importantly, it creates more knowledgeable and skilled graduates (Student Volunteering England 2005: 7). Therefore, volunteerism benefits not only the community but also the university and the students, respectively.

Other benefits that accrue to students are:

- Learning new skills
- Employability
- Personal development
- Enjoyment
- Building social networks
- Social good or altruism

- Awareness of how others live
- Academic enhancement
- Critical thinking (Rhodes University 2017: 10; Joseph 2016: 3; Holdsworth and Brewis 2014: 204; Braime and Ruohonen 2011: 1-21; International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies 2011: 8; Cnaan *et al.* 2010: 69; Holdsworth and Quinn 2010: 120; Pancer, Brown, Henderson and Ellis- Hale 2006: 4-6)

The student volunteers are able to manage diverse groups of people; gain networking opportunities; participate in knowledge production; identify their own capabilities; interact in relationship building; provide opportunities for personal development; enhance empowerment and ownership of the partnership (Rhodes University 2017: 10).

The community that collaborates with student volunteers as well as HEIs also benefit from volunteer actions and these benefits include social and economic development (McBride, Johnson, Olate and O'Hara 2011: 34); capacity development (United Nations Volunteer 2014: 5); increased service delivery and community building (International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies 2011: 23-24).

According to Graham *et al.* (2013: 29) volunteerism in the African context assists in addressing three major issues:

“The need to support local initiatives and the efforts of people themselves in meeting community needs; leveraging and building human capacity in areas where they are scarce skills; and lastly, engaging in social development through volunteering and service to their communities and the society at large”.

Volunteers are therefore, considered a resource and an asset in communities. This view resonates with the social development perspective of volunteering. In addition, the social development approach takes the standpoint that involvement in the productive economy and an increase in tangible and financial assets is the best way to enhance people's welfare and community development (Lombard 2007: 299). The design of social development programmes is pro-poor in its orientation, it is people-centred, promotes participatory development and individual and community empowerment, encourages "strong government action and partnership between individuals, groups, communities, civil society and the private sector" (Patel 2003: 96). Thus, collaborative interactions between the state and public sector (including universities), voluntary organisations and the private sector, are advocated.

#### 2.2.2.7 Challenges of volunteerism

Literature also reveals that HEIs, students and communities face many challenges and barriers in their attempts to implement volunteerism. Challenges and barriers faced by students include: lack of support; delays in government processes to obtain criminal clearance; lack of time and difficulty in linking volunteer activity to their future career (Braime and Ruohonen 2011: 12-19); negative and stereotypical views of volunteerism (Commission on the Future of Volunteering 2008: 11); and the lack of training programmes to prepare students for volunteerism (Rankopo, Osei-Hwedie and Moroka 2007: 35; Braime and Ruohonen 2011: 15).

Other barriers faced by students include adapting to the community context and meeting the needs of academic life and volunteering (Braime and Rouhonen 2011: 19); in addition the lack of national and most often institutional policies on community engagement in general and volunteerism in particular poses additional issues to student volunteers and academics in the implementation of volunteer activities. It is also important that volunteers are aware that they have support from the organisation or community with which they are working (National Youth Council of Ireland 2007: 31-

32). Despite the popularity of volunteerism and research on volunteerism in the Global North, gaps in research still exist. Holdsworth and Quinn (2010: 116) add that one of the gaps is “reliable information on the number and characteristics of students who take part.” Cheung, Lo and Liu (2015: 872) argue that even though students may volunteer to develop social responsibility, it is not a guaranteed result. They add that through proper guidance and experience students may understand values of social justice and social responsibility in the end.

Challenges faced by communities may include harm caused by students due to unethical behaviour; misunderstanding of student volunteers and service-learning students (Littlepage *et al.* 2012: 307); misunderstanding about collaborative work or approach (Braime and Ruohonen 2011: 19); a lack of mutual learning (Fitzgerald and Peterson 2005, cited in Holdsworth and Quin 2010: 122) and relationship dynamics (Holdsworth and Quinn 2010: 122). These challenges may exist, irrespective of the CE form being implemented. Therefore, evaluation and monitoring play an important role in community engagement generally and volunteerism in particular.

## **2.2.3 Preparation or training of student volunteers**

### **2.2.3.1 The benefits of training volunteers**

Preparation refers to training provided to individual volunteers. In the business sector, training refers to individuals gaining new knowledge, skills and behaviour through a programme that is developed to improve the individual’s performance in the organisation (Cascio 1995: 933-934). According to Harris (2009 cited in Volunteer Now 2012: 9) training is “a systematic process through which an individual is helped to master defined tasks or areas of skill and knowledge to predetermined standards”. This implies developing a programme that focuses on specific areas in which the organisation wants individuals to be competent and training them according to that programme. Training can take many forms such as seminars, team building exercises and lectures. Irrespective of the form of training, some sort of learning is assumed to

take place. Training is seen as a learning pathway to knowledge and skills (Commonwealth of Australia 2006: 5).

According to Volunteer Now (2012: 4) investments, refer to the managing and preparing of volunteers through: “induction”, “settling in period”, “training”, “codes of practice”, “support and supervision” and “procedures for dealing with difficult situations”. Maistry and Thakrar (2012: 59) point out that if students are viewed as “agents and beneficiaries of CE” then they need to be trained to participate in CE generally and the specific form of CE that the student is involved in, which could be service-learning, volunteerism or community based participatory research. They highlight that it is critical to prepare students from a holistic perspective to ensure that, on the one hand, no harm is caused to the communities with which they are engaging and on the other, students are alerted to situations that may cause harm to them (Maistry and Thakrar 2012: 59). Similarly, Schuurman (2013: 80) adds that training volunteers is critical to ensure positive outcomes.

Volunteer training will also assist the communities with which students work most effectively. Groble (2014: 10) argues that the training of volunteers is vital in their work especially when working with vulnerable communities and that the volunteers’ actions could affect the organisation in which they are working. Through training volunteers in skills related to their specific tasks such as working with children, the volunteers will be better prepared to manage problems that may arise (Pancer *et al.* 2006: 7; Husbands, McKechnie, Gagnon 1999: 30). The training of volunteers benefits the organisation-organisations become more successful; their needs and aims are met and all participants gain valuable personal growth from the training (Schuurman 2013: 55-56; Volunteer Now 2012: 5).

Volunteers need to be trained in cultural competency among other competencies due to the diverse nature of both the volunteers and the community or organisation



(Commonwealth of Australia 2006: 9). As mentioned above, many authors recognise the importance of training volunteers prior to volunteering, however, literature on actual volunteer training is either outdated and/or based on the context of the Global North.

#### 2.2.3.2 Guidelines for training volunteers

Volunteer training requires planning as this allows for the goals of both the training and the volunteer role to be met and also to allow for evaluation and reflection of the training (Harris 2009 cited in Volunteer Now 2012: 9; Cascio 1995: 245). However, prior to recruiting or even planning the training for volunteers, a volunteer policy needs to be developed (if not already developed) by the organisation as the policy will provide information on roles, expectations, rules and consequences (National Youth Council of Ireland 2007: 11-12). The policy should be accessible to volunteers to ensure that they are aware of how a community or organisation is managed, its aims, rules and regulations governing volunteers (National Youth Council of Ireland 2007: 11-12).

Three main processes identified in training are: orientation or induction to the organisation; in-service skills training linked to the volunteer's role; and more advanced development training to improve the volunteer's capabilities (National Youth Council of Ireland 2007: 28). Orientation is a process that takes place prior to a volunteer joining an organisation or community. Orientation includes providing information from the volunteer policy for the volunteer to gain an understanding of the environment, aims of the organisation and roles of the volunteer.

In-service training assists volunteers to further understand their roles and responsibilities more deeply. It also provides knowledge and skills that enhances the volunteer's capabilities within the organisation. Lastly, advanced training refers to

training that provides more in-depth or comprehensive knowledge and skills in a more specified way. This form of training can be used to develop experienced volunteers or new volunteers as it forms a more formal, specific training based on the individual needs (Schuurman 2013: 56; National Youth Council of Ireland 2007: 29) For the purpose of community engagement, all three processes are necessary and should be conducted during a single volunteer task as students require ongoing guidance in community engagement activities.

Volunteer Now is an organisation in the United Kingdom aimed at promoting, developing and supporting volunteering in Northern Ireland. Their work:

“enhances recognition for the contribution volunteers make, provides access to opportunities, encourages people to volunteer and provides information and support to volunteers involving organisations on volunteer management and safeguarding vulnerable groups” (Volunteer Now 2018 para 2 line 1-3)

In addition, the Volunteer Now Enterprise Ltd. provides training and capacity building for volunteers (amongst other offerings). A systematic training cycle devised by Volunteer Now (2012: 5-20) and extracts from the Commonwealth of Australia (2006: 12-33) consisting of four phases, are presented below:

#### Phase One: Identifying Volunteer Training

During this phase, the training programme organisers need to understand their volunteers. This will allow for the establishment of the gap between what the volunteers know and what they need to know to volunteer. Factors such as motivations, skills, experiences, knowledge and level of understanding, should be taken into consideration when investigating potential volunteer training needs. The knowledge that volunteers have and bring to the training should be integrated into the programme to allow for two way learning. Thereafter, the aims of the training programmes can be

established through participatory decision-making. This phase encourages exploring what exists and what needs to exist. Thus, the gap becomes evident and a plan can be developed to fill that gap. This phase is critical to ensure that volunteers obtain all the necessary knowledge needed for their volunteer activities or tasks.

## Phase Two: Planning the Training

In this phase the planning and development of the training programme begins. Methods for the training programme can vary, based on the nature of the training programme in question and more than one method can be used in a single training programme. This would depend on the best method for a specific area. The following should be taken into consideration when planning a volunteer training programme: the aim and objectives of the programme (set in phase one); the inclusion of aspects of self within the training programme; preferred methods through participatory decision-making; facilitators' expertise; availability and costs for the training; conduciveness of venues for learning; equipment, material and resources needed; possible catering; and communication of logistics to the volunteers.

Volunteers should be trained for the specification of the tasks required of them to ensure that they are able to deal with any possible situation that may arise. Therefore, due to the complexities of volunteer tasks and roles, training programmes need to be developed to cater for the specific nature of each specific task/role. Intensive planning is required for training programmes to ensure that it is not only knowledge and skills that are gained by volunteers but the ability to think critically and to solve problems as well. Thus, this phase needs to ensure that all related areas are included within the plan to ensure smooth running of the training programme. Volunteers should be a part of the planning to ensure that their voices, are heard.

### Phase Three: Implementation

The volunteer meets the planned aims during implementation through the attainment of necessary knowledge. During the training programme, the context needs to ensure appropriate learning with a well-trained facilitator. Interactive sessions have the potential to encourage learning and competence and through their interaction, two way teaching and learning, is enabled and encouraged.

### Phase Four: The Evaluation Phase

Viewed as the whole, this is the systematic process of determining the worth or impact of a training programme. The evaluation phase occurs when the parties involved analyse whether the aims were met, how they were met, the methods used, what worked and what did not work and what can be done differently. This is done to improve the quality of the programme. A set of criteria to evaluate training programmes includes four factors: evaluation, monitoring, analysis and recommendations.

It should be noted that the literature reviewed concerning the above phases assisted this study. These phases were adopted and adapted for the purpose of the training programme and is outlined in Chapter Three. Monitoring and evaluation is important to ensure that the training programme is improved and gaps noted and resolved.

The Commonwealth of Australia (2006: 15) adds two phases to the above four after evaluation, namely, putting into practice what was learnt and providing opportunities to practice skills that are not commonly used. This not only encourages learning but also ensures consistent practice by volunteers during their roles. It is argued that volunteer training should be “competence-based training” as opposed to traditional training methods which impart knowledge, regardless of whether an individual was

active in the learning. Competence-based training ensures that the volunteer emerges from the training proficient in the areas they were trained.

Facilitators need to respect the knowledge and experiences the volunteers have and allow them to share these with the group. This enables ‘participative’ training and calls for a flexible facilitator and sessions (Volunteer Now 2012: 8; Commonwealth of Australia 2006: 12). Consequently, through intensive planning, a volunteer training programme can be developed according to the needs analysed of both the volunteer and the organisation or community.

## **2.2.4 Partnership Relationships**

### **2.2.4.1 Partnership**

A partnership is an agreement between two parties who collaborate towards common objectives to improve specific issues being faced (Smith 2016: 20). This means a partnership is the coming together of individuals from different contexts and backgrounds to work in a collaborative team, with a shared purpose. According to Merriam-Webster (2018: 1), a partnership is defined as, “a relationship resembling a legal partnership and usually involving close cooperation between parties having specified joint rights and responsibilities”. Brinkerhoff (2002: 216) adds that a

“Partnership is a dynamic relationship among diverse actors, based on mutually agreed objectives, pursued through a shared understanding of the most rational division of labour based on the respective comparative advantages of each partner. Partnership encompasses mutual influence, with a careful balance between synergy and respective autonomy, which incorporates mutual respect, equal participation in decision-making, mutual accountability, and transparency”.

Partnerships need to uphold the aforementioned values to ensure that the partnership is mutually beneficial and healthy.

Thus, for the purpose of this study a partnership relationship can be understood as the coming together of a HEI community and an external community (the CYCC) to build rapport and form a bond with a common vision, to understand challenging issues and find solutions for those issues. This relationship needs to be underpinned by a set of values such as respect, trust, honesty, collaboration, equality and mutual beneficiation. Preece (2016: 210) warns against the labelling of communities as “disadvantaged” as this is inconsistent with the notion of equal partnership and further exacerbates the barriers of power dynamics that can undermine genuine community-university partnerships. Thus, communities may be viewed as variably skilled and knowledgeable (Chilisa Major and Khudu- Petersen , 2017: 327).

#### 2.2.4.2 Community University Partnership (CUP)

CUP refers to a bond or rapport built between two entities: the university and a non-academic partnering community. Eckerle-Curwood, Munger, Mitchell, Mackeigan and Farrar (2011: 16) define CUP as “collaborations between community organisations and institutions of higher learning for the purpose of achieving an identified social change goal through community engaged scholarship that ensures mutual benefit for the community organisation and participating students”. Within HEIs, CE activities in general and volunteerism in particular foster partnerships with communities, thus, it can be argued that the various forms of CE activities in HEIs may follow the principles of CUP.

Bruckhardt, Holland, Percy and Zimpher (2004: 9) write that partnerships drive engagement, which is the interaction, formed between HEIs and communities. Through the partnership, a HEI’s commitment and collaboration can be measured.

Authors such as Seifer and Carriere (2003: 2) and Eckerle-Curwood *et al.* (2011: 15) relate CE activities, such as service-learning and community based research, to Partnership-Relationship and CUP. A key tenet of partnering benefit comes from creating a collaboration based on the ideal that the individual partners cannot accomplish their goals on their own: the partnership creates a foundation from which mutually beneficial situations may emerge (Eddy 2010: 1).

Tuckman's (1965) model of team development, (Tuckman 1965, cited in Eddy 2010: 18-19) provides insight into understanding the stages of forming a partnership. This model has four stages: forming, storming, norming, and performing. The expectations of the various stages, are described as follows: in the forming stage, the partnership creates an understanding of the problem and what goals they want to achieve; in the storming stage, a relationship is built on trust and mutual benefit; the norming stage follows, in which standards and expectations are developed and formed with the partnership through collaboration; and lastly, the performing stage brings together all of the above (Tuckman 1965, cited in Eddy 2010: 18-19).

However, two factors not mentioned in Tuckman's model of team development are institutional or organisational readiness (Eckerle-Curwood *et al.* 2011: 15) and entry and exiting a community partnership (Rhodes University 2017: 15). Institutions (both community and HEIs but specifically HEIs) need to have a 'pre-assessment' of institutional 'readiness' (Eckerle-Curwood *et al.* 2011: 15). Suggested criteria that should be included in the pre-assessment are: HEIs' mission/vision; values; infrastructure; relevant policies, resources and adjustable communication to match the different levels of understanding in the areas that CUP takes place (Eckerle-Curwood *et al.* 2011: 17).

Many factors need to be analysed prior to possible university community interactions, which assists in effective/ mutually beneficial and sustainable partnerships. When

initiating any CUP a plan should be devised which details the ‘entry and exit’ from a community which also requires ‘open and honest communication’ so that the partnership not only ends on good terms with clear expectations but can be sustained (Rhodes University 2017: 15). Effective partnerships and collaborations may be achieved through effective communication between HEIs and communities (especially for research purposes) and knowledge exchange (Engelbrecht 2016: 161). Historically, HEIs assumed dominance as knowledge producers and distributors (Bivens *et al.* 2015: 6; Weerts and Sandmann 2008: 74; Boyer 1996: 13). In recent years, the role of HEIs as dominant knowledge producers is being challenged due to the state of crisis in communities and society at large (Restrepo 2014: 152). Recognition is being given to knowledge existing outside the university, specifically in communities and through the aforementioned partnerships, knowledge exchange and the potential for social change is being promoted.

HEIs have begun to change their perceptions about the process of knowledge generation. According to Bivens *et al.* (2015: 8) CE research conducted through community based research and CUP are guided by the principle of building partnerships with the community. Researchers and CE practitioners co-generate knowledge with communities outside the HEIs and in turn produce “knowledge which draws dynamically on multiple epistemologies and life-worlds” (Bivens *et al.* 2015: 6). Hence, partnerships are formed with communities, NPOs, NGOs and other role players that encourage co-generation of knowledge production. This forms the core of an HEI’s influence in enhancing “knowledge democracy and cognitive justice” (Bivens *et al.* 2015: 6).

The transformative potential of community organisations and HEIs is enhanced when collective knowledge, global connections, skills and resources to address the myriad of social, cultural, economic, health and environmental challenges is combined (Watson, Hollister, Stroud and Babcock 2011: 240). In a study that analysed global literature (specifically literature from the Global North) it was noted that CUPs were



previously perceived negatively because of the inequalities and power struggles (Strier 2011: 81-82). These perceptions sometimes form barriers, but in recent years some HEIs have been changing the way partnerships are formed and sustained, with equal, mutually beneficial and shared goals being formed (Cooper, Kotval-Karam, Kotval and Mullin 2014: 98; Strier 2011: 82).

Partnerships can include government and other public bodies as well as the private sector. When individuals from different backgrounds, cultures and contexts come together, conflict is a given as each person has their own way/style in the way they work (Eckerle-Curwood *et al.* 2011: 16). According to Holland (2003: 3), community-university relations have always impacted the other “for good and for bad, constructive and destructive, accidental and intentional, real and imagined”. Such dynamics foster issues for effective collaboration. It is important to note that partnerships can also fail (Eddy 2007: 64-65; Farrell and Seifert 2007: 74-75; Reed, Cooper and Young 2007: 79-91). However, Eddy (2010: 2) argues that through understanding and investigating partnerships, failures and weaknesses can be discovered and overcome.

Challenges in CUP vary depending on the nature of the partnership. According to Holland (2003: 4), one of the biggest barriers in CUP is the effort required to start and sustain effective partnerships. Starting a partnership requires both time and commitment by both parties to ensure that the partnership is maintained. Holland (2003: 4) adds that building a relationship is also difficult due to relationships requiring commitment and understanding which can only be achieved through ‘listening and learning’ about each other. Holland (2003: 4) points out that staff are unwilling to participate in such partnerships because of the need to dedicate time and energy to a CUP.

HEIs pose other barriers to CUPs such as delays in approval processes, lack of funding for CUP activities, lack of resources, space and sustainability of projects (Eckerle-

Curwood *et al.* 2011:22). Similarly, students may pose challenge and barriers to the formation of CUPs, one such example is students may resist participating and interacting with communities or fellow students (Eckerle-Curwood *et al.* 2011: 21-22); motives of students can also affect and pose a challenge to CUPs as students may feel coerced into participating due to curriculum requirements (Littlepage *et al.* 2012: 307).

Communities are challenged with demotivated students and would need to spend additional time monitoring such students (Littlepage *et al.* 2012: 30). Challenges faced by communities include: group and power dynamics, 'responsibility and authority', 'sustainability and continuity' (Eckerle-Curwood *et al.* 2011: 19-22) and access to knowledge. Challenges and barriers to CUPs affect the development and production of the partnership (Holliday, DeFalco and Sherman 2015: 98). Therefore, issues like trust, sensitivity, empowerment, equality, commitment, support and communication need to be stressed as these are most evident barriers to CUP (Holliday *et al.* 2015: 98). Seifer and Carriere (2003: 2) point out that the literature lacks guidelines on best practices and, has the potential to increase the chances of CUP practices becoming more harmful than beneficial.

While community-university partnerships may experience a variety of challenges, there are common characteristics that can be identified to ensure effective partnership relationships. Clear planning and structures need to be developed prior to the commencement of any CUP which should be articulated or conducted by committed staff and students who have a passion for the activity (Quillinan, McEvoy, MacPhail and Dempsey 2018: 1; Eckerle-Curwood *et al.* 2011: 19-20). Prior to participation, staff and students should evaluate their motives for participation ensuring their reasons are appropriate (Rhodes University 2017: 14-15). Upon devising and confirming clear structures and process, the university representatives (staff and students) can then begin building a relationship (Tuckman 1965, cited in Eddy 2010: 18-19), forming a partnership based on trust, understanding, mutual goals, communication, respect,

defining roles and responsibilities, commitment and mutual benefit (Rhodes University 2017: 15-16; Engelbrecht 2016).

Through building the partnership on such a firm foundation of transparency, both parties are aware of what is expected of them. Thereafter, all decisions will be made through on-going dialogue, empowering students and communities to combine knowledge and experience to better understand an issue before developing effective solutions (Preece 2016: 210; McDonald and Dominguez 2015: 53-54). The community are the experts of their lives and therefore two-way communication is essential. The aforementioned principles and values should serve as a guide throughout the partnership if social change is to be effected (Fitzgerald, Bruns, Sonka, Furco, and Swanson 2012: 10).

Jacoby (2003: 24-25) calls upon HEIs to create transformative partnership-relationships which move away from focusing exclusively on outcomes, towards focusing on the process of the engagement and the process of the co-production of knowledge. Students who participate become more socially responsible and gain important skills (Fitzgerald *et al.* 2012: 14).

### **2.2.5 How the conceptual framework influenced the study**

The key concepts discussed above are intertwined to form the basis of interaction between HEIs and communities in Southern Africa and beyond. The conceptual framework provides historical background to and processes of defining key concepts as well as critical discourse from a contemporary perspective; addresses the core values that influence practices associated with community engagement, community-university partnerships and volunteerism. The literature on key concepts, values and practices influenced the design of the implementation phases of the study. The conceptual framework together with the theoretical framework guided the type of

training that would be considered prior to the implementation of the holiday programme. The theoretical framework is presented in the section that follows.

## **2.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

A theoretical framework guides a research study and is used to determine what relationships are applied and measured. The theoretical framework assisted this research in understanding data and its interpretation. The essence of the theoretical framework for this study, was extracted and adapted from the following three theories, which are relevant to the study: Curriculum of Engagement Perspective; Social Contract Theory and Ethics of Care Theory. These theories are not mutually exclusive but are strategically connected to each other. The use of social capital played an important role in building a mutually beneficial and equal relationship with the CYCC.

Barnett and Coate's (2005: 59-64) Curriculum of Engagement theory was selected to assist in guiding students to understand what they know, how to act and how to become self-aware and self-disciplined. The Social Contract Theory was pertinent due to the nature of the partnership formed. Students were prepared to work in a CYCC with children whose development is considered, "at risk"; thus, the need for a formal understanding of appropriate and ethical interaction was vital for the safety of the students and the children. The Ethics of Care Theory is suited to volunteerism, based on the nature of the partnership; the Ethics of Care Theory governed the approach and attitude of the students in their work with the CYCC and the children during the holiday programme. While the uniqueness of each theory is acknowledged, it was hoped that a combination of the theories could contribute to forming a robust framework to guide the planning, implementation and evaluation of a volunteer training programme.

### **2.3.1 Curriculum of Engagement Approach**

The Curriculum of Engagement was applied because it is designed to enhance the both the values and skills of students involved with engaged activities (Maistry and Thakrar 2012: 59). Barnett and Coates (2005) point to three functions of university curricula: knowing, acting and being. This study proposed that volunteerism as a form of CE involves and affects the knowing, acting and being of students. The section on knowing, acting and being that follows below draws from Barnett and Coate's (2005: 59-64) perspective on the curriculum of engagement.

Knowing is different to knowledge in the context of CE. Knowing relates to a person's ownership of what they know. Through this, a person develops a will to act, based on what they know. Knowing relates to the personal relationship between the person and their intellectual field. Students need to have this relationship in order to engage. They need to use what they know from their diverse backgrounds, incorporating their diversity into their engaged interactions.

Acting is the application of knowledge in practice, referring to how students are able to relate to theory in real-life situations. Thus, acting refers to the experience gained through the various forms of CE and how knowledge from the lecture room is applied in practice (Barnett and Coate 2005: 61-63). Students put into practice their knowledge and skills from their respective academic fields of study through engaged activities.

Being refers to the students' use of 'self'. Knowing and acting cannot function without 'being'. In order to effectively use the knowledge and skills they have, the students' first need to understand themselves. While the notion of 'being' is much more complex than knowing and acting, it is, however, important in producing well-rounded students (Barnett and Coate 2005: 63-65). Students may gain a deeper understanding of themselves through engaging with communities on real-world challenges. Awareness

of self is important in students, as many are still learning about their interests and the various aspects of 'self'. Barnett and Coate (2005: 110) add that, "students are able to take on or unable to take on certain kinds of knowing, given their dispositions; given the self".

### **2.3.2 Social Contract Theory**

According to Gough (1936: 2-3) Social Contract Theory refers to two kinds of contracts: one is linked to political contracts regarding the state while the second is a social contract which is associated with the way a society is run. This study is concerned with the latter kind of contract. Browne (2008: 1) and Nbete (2012: 1) indicate that Social Contract Theory might provide a natural basis for morality and ethical conduct. Hobbes (1968: 8-11) argued that all people are equal and no person is more intelligent or stronger than, another. The same should hold for collections of people-communities and universities could possibly work towards a relationship based on equality. The university should not overpower communities but rather form relationships with them based on CE, participatory volunteerism and community-university partnerships, endorsed by principles of mutual respect, equity, communication, mutual decision-making and mutual benefit.

The functions of Social Contract Theory include voluntarism and tacit agreement. Fryer (2015: 131-132) differentiates voluntarism from volunteerism because it is drawn out of the political context and is perceived to be ethics based. Parties voluntarily agree to be involved in agreements and relationships are entered into willingly. Consequently, both parties are prepared to accept the outcome of the agreement or relationship (Fryer 2015: 131-132). However, the researcher is of the view that volunteerism generally and student volunteerism in particular do take place within a political context and guided by ethics. The formation of community-university partnerships should be guided by principles as discussed under the conceptual framework. Gibbons in CHE (2006: 22) points out that, "there are social contracts

between society and government, between society and industry and, of course, between society and science”, thereby emphasising that the ideal of social contracts are practiced in everyday life, in various contexts.

According to Gibbons (2008):

“to the extent that a society has some requirement for... knowledge, there will exist a social contract between that society and the institutions that produce it. It is from the lineaments of that contract that the normative meaning of engagement can be derived and from which one might be able to gauge whether, and how deeply in a particular instance, it touches institutional practice” (Gibbons in Council on Higher Education 2008: 19)

The CHE points to four philosophies that are important to CE in HEIs, namely, “the social contract between universities and society; the strategies and requirements of a developmental state; the demands of transformatory change in higher education; and university accountability and responsiveness” (Council on Higher Education 2008: 19).

Importantly, the social contract in HEI engagement with communities, such as the one researched in this study, critically underpins these interactions. The level of engagement can only be assessed if a social contract exists because the social contract represents a foundation from which effective engagement can emerge. Social contract theories should ensure healthy relationships between HEIs and the community, without exploitation or harm. The community helps the HEI to gain knowledge from their experience in a partnership and the HEI helps the community through funding, sharing resources and/or research (Gibbons in CHE 2008: 19).

### **2.3.3 Ethics of Care Theory**

The Ethics of Care Theory is important for this study as it supports the idea of social and civic responsibility that can be promoted among students through volunteerism. Noddings (1984: 5) asserts that, “it is that condition toward which we long and strive and it is our longing for caring - to be in that special relationship - that provides the motivation for us to be moral”. The author further argues that caring is innate and should form the core of educational systems that exist (Noddings 1984), implying that institutions such as HEIs should foster care towards students and communities and encourage students to demonstrate care to others.

Originally the Ethics of Care Theory emphasised a feminist agenda, advocating the movement away from the male dominated era towards a feminine one, commonly associated with connection and relationships in decision-making processes (Owens and Ennis 2005: 393). It is important in building CUP between HEIs and communities, to ensure that student volunteers care about those they interact with during volunteering, in order to engender this association of connection and relationships in decision-making processes. According to Rankopo *et al.* (2007: 31-32) volunteerism and ethics of care relate to gender, age and class. In their study, they found that female, unemployed women volunteered more in acts of kindness and care as opposed to men in a similar situation. The authors add that “women were found to be over-represented in civic service primarily due to socialisation and gender role stereotypes, which emphasise an ethic of caring” (Rankopo *et al.* 2007:31). The authors highlight the need for upper class youth and men to be motivated to volunteer (Rankopo *et al.* 2007: 35). Thus, certain groups of people who share the aforementioned characteristics may display more care than others. Tronto (2018: 7-8) emphasises the need for HEIs to practice ethics of care to ensure that democracy is active within HEIs and enacted in their relationship with communities as an active element of care.



#### **2.3.4 How the theoretical framework influenced the study**

Each theory played an important part in the context of this study. The Social Contract Theory assisted in the formation of the rules and regulations of the partnership that was developed between DUT and the CYCC. This contract ensured that a mutually beneficial and equal partnership process was undertaken. The contract provided the ground rules for interaction, ensured ethical practices and care for those involved. Through the Curriculum of Engagement Approach, students and the community are prepared to use what they 'know' to 'act' and consequently learn about their own sense of 'being' through interaction with others. The Ethics of Care Theory was used to prepare students to engage in ways that are authentic and appropriate during their volunteer interaction with communities. It was hoped that the combination of the three theories applied in this study and the conceptual framework may serve as a holistic and integrated guide for the students in their future community engagement as volunteers.

## **CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

The main purpose of this study was to develop, implement and evaluate a training programme to prepare DUT students, as volunteers, to work in a partnership-relationship with a CYCC. This chapter details the research design, methodology, sampling, data collection and analysis, reliability and validity, ethical considerations and the research process undertaken in this study.

### **3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

The design of this study was exploratory and developmental and the methodology was qualitative in nature. An exploratory design can be described as research, which is conducted to gain new insights, learn new ideas and to develop new knowledge of experiences (Tetnowski 2015: 40; Burns and Grove 2001: 374). Exploratory research is generally used when new social issues are identified or when examining newly established social programmes where little is known about the social issue or the social programme (Tetnowski 2015: 40; Henry 2009: 92). Given that volunteerism is a relatively new phenomenon at most HEIs in South Africa, the exploratory design was suited to this study.

#### **3.2.1 Developmental research**

The intention was to ask critical ‘what’ questions to establish new information and to determine what was required to adequately prepare students as volunteers in

communities and community organisations. The developmental research design was also adopted for this study (Richey, Klein and Nelson 2004: 1099). According to Wang and Hannafin (2005 cited in Sahrir, Alias, Ismail and Osman 2012: 109) developmental research is defined “as a systematic but flexible methodology aimed to improve educational practices through iterative analysis, design, development, and implementation, based on collaboration among researchers and practitioners in real-world settings, and leading to contextually-sensitive design principles and theories”. Both Richey, Klein and Nelson (2004: 1099) and Richey and Klein (2005:24) specify that developmental research coincides with instructional technology and instructional technology is defined as “the theory and practice of design, development, utilisation, management, and evaluation of processes and resources for learning” (Seels and Richey 1994 cited in Lam, Hassan, Sulaiman and Kamarudin 2018: 369). Thus, it is evident from both definitions that design, development and evaluation during research is important.

The phases of developmental research also includes: “context analysis, study design, prototype development and evaluation, ongoing prototype revision and re-evaluation” (Smith, Nauman, McDiarmid Antony, McColl and Aiken 2014: 584). The implication is that through the use of the developmental research design one is able to effectively learn from the design which can be linked to one of this study’s objectives which was to ‘develop a volunteer training programme for DUT students and to train them as volunteers’.

### **3.2.2 Qualitative research methodology**

Research methodology can be described as a ‘work plan’ for the research as it outlines the steps taken to complete the study effectively (Rajasekar, Philominathan and Chinnathambi 2013: 1). There are commonly three broad methodological approaches to research in social sciences: the qualitative, quantitative and mixed method approach (Kuckartz 2014: 6; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009: 22). The justification for using one

methodology over another depends upon the context of the research being undertaken (Creswell 2015: 14). This study adopted a qualitative methodological approach as qualitative research methodologies are associated with subjective assessment of individual and/or groups attitudes, opinions and behaviour which enables multiple interpretations of peoples' experiences by the researcher, or research team. It also allows for aspects such as culture and various other socio-economic issues to be drawn into the analyses (Kuckartz 2014: 4-5; Willig 2014: 137; Mack, Woodsong, MacQueen, Guest, and Namey 2005: 1). Qualitative research is considered to be interpretative because researchers "aim to find out more about people's experiences, their thoughts, feelings and social practices" (Willig 2014: 136).

A PAR methodological framework described in detail below was used in the study as the knowledge of all participants in the study was recognised as being valuable and having the potential to contribute to the co-generation of new knowledge on the preparation of students for volunteerism. A combination of the interpretative and PAR approaches provided useful information at the various stages of the exploratory design of the study.

### **3.2.3 Participatory action research**

PAR is the "collective generation of knowledge which leads to the planning and achievement of jointly set objectives" where both research and action occur, with equal input, from the community and researcher (Collins 1999: 2). PAR emphasises collaboration and joint decision-making, which are relevant activities for community engagement. Contrary to traditional research methods, PAR includes participants as co-researchers and provides participants with a platform to investigate an issue that is important in their lives (Kemmis, McTaggart and Nixon 2014: 3; Dold and Chapman 2012: 512; Fine 2009: 2; Boog 2003: 426-427).

In this study the intention was to build an engaged relationship between the CYCC staff, DUT staff and students. The intent was to base this relationship on the principles of community engagement and the PAR method was deemed suitable because the core values of PAR and CE dovetail. For example, both promote equality in decision-making between actors, mutual benefit and respect. In order to achieve a high level of participation, all of the actors (students, CYCC and academic staff) were consulted during every phase of the study. The consultations were designed to elicit the actors' diverse opinions on matters relating to both the research design and the implementation of the training programme and subsequent holiday programme. This high level of participation was seen as both relevant and necessary in order to maximise the potential benefits of the partnership. The process required applying the following principles, which relate to the PAR method, according to McNiff and Whitehead (2002: 16-20):

- Joint decision-making: Sample groups took part in the decision-making and problem-solving processes.
- Reflection: Opportunities were provided for self-reflection and reflection.
- Subject-subject relationship: The relationship between all the participants was equal – and seen as a subject-subject partnership.
- Learning: Data gathering was acquired via the participants. Participation involved learning before and during the action.
- Values: The values of integrity, tolerance, social justice and respect guided the research process (McNiff and Whitehead 2002: 16-20).

The PAR method also enabled the researcher to provide all of the actors the opportunities to engage in “self-reflective enquiry .... [during the study] in order to improve the rationality and justice of their own practices, their understanding of these practices and the situations in which the practices are carried out” (Carr and Kemmis, 1986: 162).

The researcher ensured that participants' views from both CYCC and DUT were heard through the PAR process and that those views influenced decision-making during every stage of the study. This enabled the researcher to follow the insights of Coghlan and Brydon-Miller (2014:584) who state that:

“real participation or power sharing takes place when the decision-making processes are structured to incorporate negotiation between participants and those in power, with consensus as the eventual aim. Neither participants nor researchers can unilaterally enforce their point of view on each other. The participants have a role as well as a voice in the decision-making processes”.

The intention of the researcher was to facilitate the sharing of power, responsibility and decision-making among the CYCC staff, the researcher, DUT academic staff and student volunteers whilst developing the training programme and subsequent holiday programme

### **3.3 RESEARCH QUESTION**

In order to develop a volunteer training programme that is effective and efficient for both the CYCC and the students, the study asked the following research question:

What kind of training and preparation do students of a University of Technology need to volunteer in an engaged community-university partnership?

### **3.4 RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES**

The aim of this study was to develop, implement and evaluate a training programme that would prepare DUT students as volunteers to work in a partnership relationship with a CYCC. The study objectives were to:

3.4.1 Explore volunteerism as a form of community engagement;

3.4.2 Develop a volunteer training programme for DUT students and train them as volunteers;

3.4.3 Create a partnership relationship between DUT and the CYCC;

3.4.4 Establish a platform for DUT academic staff and students as volunteers and for the staff of CYCC to develop and implement a holiday programme for young people at the centre;

3.4.5 Evaluate the volunteer training programme post-implementation of the volunteer task and to finalise a volunteer training programme for the CYCC.

### **3.5 RESEARCH SETTING**

The study was located in Central Durban and the distance between DUT and the CYCC is approximately 16.5 kilometres apart.

### **3.6 STUDY SAMPLE AND SAMPLING PROCESS**

It is not always possible for researchers to study an entire population to gain the desired information. Thus, researchers select a sample to represent a population (Naderifar,

Goli and Ghaljaie 2017: 1; Tillé and Matei 2016: 311; Marshall and Rossman 2006: 61). The population in this study included all CYCCs in the Durban area and all the academic staff and students at DUT. Sampling refers to the process used to select a portion of the population for a study (Naderifar, Goli and Ghaljaie 2017:1; Nieuwenhuis 2007: 79).

Alston and Bowles (2003 cited in Delport and Roestenburg 2011: 222) state that the qualitative approach bases its sampling on non-probability techniques. The sampling method applied in this study was purposive for the CYCC and their staff and the DUT departments, comprising of academic staff and students. Thereafter, snowball sampling was applied to obtain the proposed sample size for DUT staff and students. All the samples were chosen in accordance with the objectives of the study. They were selected with the intention that they provided the desired characteristics that would carry validity and reliability for the study at hand (Strydom and Deport 2011: 392; Bailey 1987: 94-95). The table below indicates the sampling techniques used to acquire the study sample.

Table 3.1: The sampling techniques used to obtain participants for this study

<b>Sampling Techniques</b>	
<b>Purposive</b>	<b>Snowball</b>
<b>One CYC centre</b>	Four CYCC staff
<b>Five DUT Departments</b>	Two DUT academic staff
	Ten DUT students

### **3.6.1 Description of sample and sampling process**

The sample comprised of three groups: CYCC staff, DUT academic staff and DUT students.



#### 3.6.1.1 CYCC staff

One of the purposive samples used for this study was the CYCC based in the Bluff area, Durban and their staff. The researcher approached the Director of the CYCC to discuss the aim and objectives of the study and jointly agreed to them. With the approval of the Director, a meeting was scheduled with the manager of the Centre to introduce her to the study. Participants of the study from the CYCC were senior staff members comprising of the director, manager, social worker and a senior administrator-a total of four participants.

#### 3.6.1.2 Durban University of Technology (DUT)

The second purposive sample who participated in this study were the following five departments at DUT: Child and Youth Development, Sports Management, Fine Art and Design, Food and Nutrition Consumer Sciences, and Drama Studies. These departments were selected because they are involved in activities which are commonly included in holiday programmes for young people. The researcher met with the Head of each department and provided them with details of the research; the role that the department could play; the processes of the study and the possible outcomes that could be achieved through their participation.

Three of the five Heads of Department granted their permission to conduct the study. One Head of Department granted permission and thereafter withdrew because students had to participate in another project. The other stated that they could not accommodate the study due to students' heavy workload. Hence, only students from the following three departments actually participated in this study: Sport Management, Fine Art and Design, and Food Nutrition and Consumer Studies.

#### 3.6.1.2.1 DUT academic staff

The HODs of the respective departments nominated staff members to participate in the study. The researcher then arranged to meet with those academic staff members from the three respective departments. Only two academic staff members from the Department of Sport Studies and the Department of Food Nutrition and Consumer studies respectively volunteered to participate in the study. Attempts to secure a staff member from the third department failed, as the staff member did not respond to communications to arrange meetings.

#### 3.6.1.2.2 DUT students

Permission was obtained from the HODs of the aforementioned three departments to discuss the volunteer programme with all the registered third year students in the respective programmes in the year 2017. The researcher then approached third year students, during the allocated time given by their HODs and through a power point presentation, students were informed of the study. Eight students indicated their interest in this study. These students were then handed a sheet that listed the criteria for students to participate in the study. The criteria were as follows (See Annexure A):

Students needed to be full time third year students in 2017, studying third year subjects only, and

- Be available in August-September, 2017, for training;
- Be available in October, 2017, for the school holidays volunteer task;
- Have a passion for working with children and youth;
- Be enthusiastic, and
- Express a commitment to team work.

The students were also required to write a motivation as to why they wanted to participate in the study. The researcher further explained the study to the students using the letter of information (See Annexure B). A snowball sampling method was then

applied to gather a larger sample. This one-on-one approach with potential participants assisted the researcher to select the required number of student participants from the three departments.

Snowball sampling is when a person with the required characteristics for the study, refers the researcher to one or more people with the same characteristics (Naderifar, Goli and Ghaljaie 2017: 2; Grinnell and Unrau 2008: 153). In addition, snowball sampling is used when it is difficult to find the required sample numbers in a short period of time. This form of sampling assisted the researcher in increasing the sample through attracting acquaintances of the eight interested third year students which also increased a level of trust between the participants, and the researcher (Naderifar, Goli and Ghaljaie 2017: 2). Seven more students who met the criteria and showed interest in the study were selected through the snowball method.

During this stage of sampling, the researcher expected fifteen students would form the sample. However, due to only three departments participating in the study, the eventual sample size was reduced to ten students. The selection of only third year students to participate in this study was based on the assumption that third year students were adequately mature and knowledgeable in their areas of study, thus, equipping them to participate in a volunteer activity in a CYCC with 'at risk' children.

The study sample was made up as follows: two DUT academic staff, ten DUT students from three departments and four CYCC staff, comprising a total of sixteen participants. At the time of the volunteer task, which took place in October 2017, only seven of the ten students participated in all three phases of the study. The majority of the sample were female: two DUT academic staff; four CYCC staff and seven DUT students. Three of the DUT students were male. However, only four of the female students participated in the full study. The students' ages ranged from 19 to 22 years. The staff from the CYCC were experienced in their respective fields. The DUT academic staff

were young women in junior positions, but knowledgeable about CE in their respective departments.

### **3.7 EVALUATION PHASE**

The steps of PAR described by Maree (2007: 127-131) and Collins (1999: 42-43) have been modified according to the objectives of this study. The phases for this research were adapted from “the systematic training cycle” by Volunteer Now (2012: 9) as mentioned in Chapter Two which, consisted of four phases namely: identifying the training needs, planning the training, implementation and evaluation. This study adapted the systematic training cycle to consist of three phases: orientation, planning and implementation, and evaluation. The planning and implementation phase occurred consecutively and underwent similar processes. The research process undertaken, is detailed below.

#### **3.7.1 Phase One: Orientation**

Phase One included the recruitment of DUT students, DUT academic staff and the CYCC staff followed by the ‘forming’ stage of a partnership as mentioned in Tuckman (1965 cited in Eddy 2010:18-19). In this phase, the needs of the community and possible solutions are discussed within a mutually beneficial and equal relationship. The Rhodes University Student Volunteer Programme Handbook (Rhodes University 2017: 15) also emphasises the need for entry into communities to be structured and well planned. According to Volunteering Victoria (2012: 1), “proper orientation for volunteers enables them to perform their role as required and ensures they understand their responsibilities and their rights within the organisation. It is a crucial part of risk management for volunteer programs”. The author further adds that orientation programmes should have a clear plan, a formal meeting and the staff of the organisation should be introduced to the volunteers (Volunteering Victoria 2012: 1). Additionally,

the orientation should include explaining and discussing the volunteer's roles, outlining of the volunteer training, and briefly describing the concepts, policies and procedures of the organisation (Volunteering Victoria 2012: 1).

The study's orientation included the following steps:

1. Prior to the commencement of the research process the researcher contacted the CYCC management in question and through discussion with the CYCC team on the possible research aims relevant to the CYCC, needs were discussed and highlighted. In order to allow the participants to start developing possible aims for the partnership, the researcher initiated a needs-analysis discussion. Through the discussion, the aim of the partnership was mutually agreed upon as: i) Training students as volunteers to develop a holiday programme for children in a child and youth care centre;
2. Once approval was granted for the study, the CYCC staff, DUT academic staff and DUT students, were approached and introduced to the study;
3. Thereafter written consent was obtained from the various participants in the study;
4. The researcher held an orientation meeting with the CYCC staff, DUT academic staff and DUT student volunteers. This meeting initiated the forming of a partnership between the CYCC and DUT, which is critical to partnership relationships and PAR, focusing on relationships and the development of the partnership. The CUP process commenced during this phase;
5. The purpose of the meeting was for DUT academic staff and DUT students to be oriented to the CYCC and allowed the CYCC staff to get to know the students and their respective departments;
6. The selected students were also informed that they needed to complete Form 30 which is an 'Inquiry By Person To Establish If His / Her Name Is Included In Part B Of The National Child Protection Register (Regulation 50(1)(B)) [Section 126(3) Of The Children's Act, (No 38 Of 2005)]', which cleared the students to volunteer at the CYCC;

7. Using an interview schedule for the three focus groups, interviews were conducted at three different workshops with each of the sample groups, respectively: staff of the CYCC, DUT academic staff and the DUT student volunteers. This enabled the researcher to explore their understanding of concepts such as community engagement; volunteerism; participatory action research; partnership relationship and values/ethics for volunteerism and community engagement; and to co-determine the training needs of the selected students. The data was collected jointly by the researcher and the study sample. The CYCC staff assisted in the workshops for the DUT students and DUT staff and the DUT students assisted in the collection of data from the CYCC staff, and

Upon completion of data collection, the sample groups were given time to reflect on the interview and discuss their thoughts and opinions in order to provide further feedback about the overall process.

The data gathered at the orientation workshops were analysed through subsequent workshops with the DUT academic staff and DUT students and the CYCC staff and used in the planning of Phase Two (planning and implementation of the holiday programme).

### **3.7.2 Phase Two: Planning and Implementation**

Phase Two was guided by the conceptual and theoretical literature reviewed in Chapter Two. Students signed a consent form which is a requirement of the DUT Research Office and the Institutional Research Ethics Committee (IREC) (see Annexure C). The consent form represented a social contract between the CYCC and the DUT student. The Curriculum of Engagement Approach (Barnette and Coate 2005) was used to allow students the chance to self-reflect and to gain a deeper understanding of their own feelings, emotions and traits. This was conducted through activities that required students to dig deeper into their values, emotions and views during the activities in the

training programme. Thus, the conceptual and theoretical frameworks were included in the training programme to allow students to gain knowledge of the functions relevant to their participation. The volunteer training programme was developed in partnership with all the participants involved.

1. Three planning meetings were scheduled between the CYCC staff, the DUT academic staff and DUT students. The meetings allowed for the participants to discuss and mutually decide on the planning and development of the volunteer training programme. During the first meeting, data collected from Phase One was jointly analysed and the findings were used as a guide for what content should be included in the volunteer training programme. Additional content for the volunteer training programme was derived from Chapter Two of this study which includes the conceptual and theoretical notions underpinning CE, CUP and volunteerism. It is important to note that participants also discussed and agreed upon the evaluation process that would form part of this study;
2. The volunteer training programme was then developed by staff members of the CYCC, DUT academic staff, students and the researcher;
3. The learning objectives of the training programme were agreed on so as to prepare students for volunteering in relation to four dimensions: ethics and values, professional conduct, theories guiding volunteerism and organisational conduct of volunteerism;
4. The letter of consent formed a contract to ensure that all parties understood and agreed on their roles. The CYCC also required the volunteers to sign a confidentiality form so that information shared on the children's background would remain confidential;
5. The training programme was implemented by the researcher;
6. An additional meeting was held to provide a platform that allowed all the participants to jointly plan and develop a holiday programme for the children at the CYCC that provided the students with an opportunity to participate in the volunteer task; and
7. The volunteer task was implemented in the October 2017 school holidays.

### **3.7.3 Phase Three: Evaluation**

Phase Three consisted of evaluating the CUP and the volunteer training programme. Evaluation was conducted, post-implementation, of the holiday programme (the volunteer task), through individual interviews using an interview schedule (See Annexure D). Evaluation is critical to ensuring strengths and areas of growth are identified and improved respectively (Volunteer Now 2012: 18). Volunteers can give direct feedback through reflective interviews (Volunteer Now 2012:19), thus, one-on-one interviews were conducted with the seven students who participated in Phase Two, to gain feedback on the following aspects:

1. the extent to which the conceptual understanding of the student sample group had changed by comparing data gathered in the first phase;
2. evaluation of the volunteer training programme and suggestions for strengthening the programme and the partnership relationship;
3. the values of integrity, tolerance, social justice and respect that guided the aforementioned processes.

A final volunteer training programme was drafted by the researcher, DUT academic staff, students and staff of the CYCC to be utilised, by the centre, for future volunteers at the Centre (which will be discussed in-depth in Chapter Six).

## **3.8 DATA COLLECTION**

Two kinds of data collection tools, namely, focus groups and individual interviews were used in this study. A focus group, according to Denzin and Lincoln (2011: 545), is a “collective conversation or group interview”. Such a tool is used based on the specific research aims of a research study (Flynn, Albrecht and Scott 2018: 2). The research aim for this study was to prepare students for volunteering, such a process was undertaken through group discussions, with provisions for the researcher to facilitate the process. The role of the facilitator is to keep participants focused, ensure



equality between participants, to ensure any issues that arise are resolved and the smooth progress of the focus group interview (Johnson and Turner 2003:308).

A focus group is similar to an in-depth interview but with a group of people sharing a similar interest (Rosenthal 2016: 510; Frietas, Oliveria, Jenkins, Popjoy 1998: 2). Focus groups have the ability to provide “in-depth understandings of social issues” (Nyumba, Wilson, Derrick and Mukherjee 2018: 20). Focus groups usually consist of eight to twelve members. They come together to share their individual knowledge, experience and expertise on a specific issue. In addition, “the key aspects of focus groups is the interactions between participants as a way of collecting qualitative data that would not emerge using other methods” (Dugleby 2005 cited in Flynn *et al.* 2018: 1). The focus groups allowed the participants to discuss answers and possible reasoning which allowed the facilitator to gather rich data for the volunteer training programme.

Using more than one focus group can enhance the quality of collected data (Strydom 2011: 503). The above characteristics of focus group interviews not only benefitted the study in achieving its aims and objectives but is of value in PAR and building community university partnerships. The focus group sessions allowed the participants to engage in discussions, thereby encouraging diverse opinions and providing substantial data to develop an enriched training programme for the student volunteers.

According to Rosenthal (2016: 511) and Greeff (2005: 296-297) an interview schedule consists of pre-requisite questions carefully thought out and related to the aim of the study. The intention of the questions is to gather specific information that is important to the study. An interview schedule provides structure to the process of the focus group, providing the researcher with a guide. The interview schedule also allows further questions to be added, if required. The questions form a guide and during the focus

group meetings, the researcher may add further questions, depending on the discussions that take place among the participants.

The data collection occurred in the three phases: Orientation, Planning and Implementation, and Evaluation. Phase Two did not have a data collection tool, as the volunteer training and volunteer task were implemented in this phase. However, the processes of PAR were analysed as data in this phase. This included the orientation meeting, the planning meetings and the training sessions. The following tools were used in Phase One and Three for data collection from May to October 2017:

Table 3.2: Summary of data collection

<b>Date</b>	<b>Sample</b>	<b>Type of data collection tool</b>
<b>May 2017</b>	DUT Students (n=10)	Focus group interview
<b>May 2017</b>	DUT Academic Staff (n=2)	Focus group interview
<b>May 2017</b>	CYCC Staff (n=4)	Focus group interview
<b>October 2017</b>	DUT Students (n=7)	One-on-one interviews

The focus groups were held in the orientation phase (pre-training programme) with each of the sample groups: CYCC staff, DUT academic staff and student volunteers, respectively. The interview schedule was different for the three sample groups but included similar conceptual questions. This process occurred in May 2017 with DUT students and staff of DUT. Focus groups were conducted with ten students from the three departments; a focus group was held with the two DUT academic staff members and a focus group with CYCC staff was conducted at the Centre. Using the interview schedule, the focus group sessions enabled a deeper understanding of the students' training needs, as well as all the participants' experiences and understanding of community engagement, volunteerism and partnership relationship. (Focus Group interview schedules are attached as Annexures E, F and G).

The next data collection tool utilised was that of the individual or one-on-one interviews, which were conducted in Phase Three, using an interview schedule. An interview is described as a social relationship designed to exchange information between the participants and the researcher (Greeff 2011: 342). Denzin and Lincoln (2011: 534) state that one-on-one interviews are the most commonly used social interaction as they allow for contact with an individual for the collection of both conversation and body language data. Furthermore, through one-on-one interviews the facilitator is in a more flexible platform, the facilitator can divert from the schedule and probe new questions that may arise from the participants responses (Bryman and Bell 2007 cited in Grimsholm and Poblete 2010: 16). Despite having a, interview schedule, a facilitator may probe further questions owing to the participants responses or their body language and facial expressions.

The individual interviews were conducted after the holiday programme in October 2017, during Phase Three. It was a reflective exercise to assist the researcher in assessing the changes that may have occurred in participants' understanding of the key concepts of the study, as well as assessing the strengths and weaknesses of the volunteer training programme. It also allowed for reflection on how the training programme could be improved and possibly taken to scale at DUT, or CYCCs, to use for volunteers within their respective organisations. The facilitator asked open-ended questions and the questions were evaluative in nature.

The evaluation interviews were scheduled to include all the participants of the study but because both the CYCC staff and DUT staff were not available during the volunteer task and could not answer some of the questions, only the seven DUT students who were part of every step of the study were interviewed. The intention of the evaluation questions presented below was to gauge the students' current understanding of concepts and their perceptions of the volunteer training programme. The following questions were included in the evaluation interview:

1. How do you feel about the volunteer training programme that was implemented?
2. Has the training programme helped you in the volunteer task?
3. What is your understanding of CE after being part of this programme?
4. How would you now, conceptualise volunteerism?
5. How would you conceptualise university-community relationships?
6. What values were needed for the effectiveness of the partnership relationship?
7. Were these values practiced?
8. How did the training impact on your self-development and self-awareness?
9. What recommendations do you have for the preparation of volunteer work?

(See full interview schedule attached Annexure D).

A digital tape recorder was used to record information gathered from the one-on-one interviews and the focus groups. The recorded data from the individual and focus group interviews were transcribed through a professional transcription service. The transcribed data were then grouped into common themes and sub- themes that were identified.

#### Limitations of the Data Collection Tools

Both Focus groups and one-on-one interviews in qualitative research studies utilises ‘open-ended’ questions which may be biased by the researcher (Grimsholm and Poblete 2010: 16). Another problem that can occur is misunderstandings and misinterpretations of words (Grimsholm and Poblete 2010: 16-17). This could in particular, be a problem within this research since interviews were conducted in English, which is not the mother tongue for many of the respondents. Such issues needed to be addressed prior to the focus groups and interviews. Participants needed to agree to use English as the mode of communication. Furthermore, participants could have been provided with a platform to ask their own questions in the focus groups.

### **3.9 DATA ANALYSIS**

Data analysis is the process of directing and simplifying data, presenting it and making explanatory conclusions. There are many approaches to the process of analysing qualitative data. As Kawulich and Holland (2012: 229) indicate, the way that data is chosen to be analysed depends on the theoretical framework and the aim of the study. The researcher's intentions in conducting the study may also direct the way data is analysed. Data was analysed manually and according to themes.

Braun and Clarke (2006: 19) and Maguire and Delahunt (2017:3352) define thematic analysis as “a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns within data”. Shared themes were recognised and grouped accordingly. Thereafter, data was analysed using those groupings. The most noticeable themes were identified and highlighted in the findings (Joffe 2012: 2) and compared and analysed further (Langkos 2014: 09). Braun and Clarke (2006: 19) state that during thematic analysis the researcher will categorise the various codes that may arise from the data collected. The researcher coded the data according to the identified themes and categorised these codes accordingly to present them as findings.

The findings in Chapter Four and Five shows the themes that emerged from the study. Research framed in terms of themes can, however, enable us to “see different and sometimes contradictory layers of meaning, to bring them into useful dialogue with each other, and to understand more about individual and social change” (Andrews, Squire and Tamboukou 2013: 1-2). Thematic analysis allowed the researcher to clearly see the contradictory layers of meaning within and between the three different sample groups in accordance with their own social experiences and realities.

### **3.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

Ethical principles ensure that the research is scientific, moral and does not cause harm to any persons involved in the research (Iphofen and Tolich 2018: 29; Hammersley and Traianou 2012: 17-18; Wiles, Crow, Heath and Charles 2008: 426; Connolly 2003: 6-7). The ethical processes undertaken in this study is described below.

#### **3.10.1 Permission to conduct the study**

Ethical clearance for this study was obtained from the IREC (refer to Annexures C). The ethics clearance number for the study is IREC 024/14. Permission to conduct the study on the DUT campus was also obtained from DUT's Research office (see Annexure H) and the HODs of the respective Departments (see Annexure I). Furthermore, the CYCC director provided the researcher with permission to conduct the study at the CYCC (see Annexure J).

#### **3.10.2 Informed consent**

According to Shahnazarian, Hagemann, Aburto, and Rose (2017: 3) "voluntary informed consent is a pre-requisite for a subject's participation in research". In addition, the informed consent provides all relevant information to the participant, enabling the participant to make an informed decision as to their participation in the study. This was enabled through the letter of information and the letter of consent, which will be detailed below.

For the collection of data in Phase One and Three, student volunteers were requested to attend a meeting in Phase One during which information letters were handed out and discussed with the students. The researcher explained the content of the information letter, which detailed the aim of the study, the process of the research, the

duration of the research study and the benefits to the student and the community. Both the information letter and consent letter were written in a language understood by all participants, which “minimizes the possibility of coercion or undue influence” (Shahnazarian *et al.* 2017: 3-4). Additionally, DUT staff and the CYCC staff also had a meeting, respectively, which allowed them to read, discuss the letter of information and sign the consent form which details all the information discussed above and below (see Annexure K).

During the aforementioned meetings, it was clearly communicated that there would be no financial gain for participation in the study, nor would the participants incur any costs and that there would be no risk to those involved in the study. Furthermore, the researcher explained that the focus group interviews, used in Phase One, would be voice-recorded with their consent, for the purpose of being transcribed verbatim. Additionally, it was explained to the participants that in Phase Three, they would participate in a reflective individual interview and that the aforementioned guidelines would also apply (as indicated in the information letter). The participants were granted an opportunity to ask questions and the researcher clarified any confusion. All the participants understood that participation was on a voluntary basis and that they could withdraw at any stage.

Issues of confidentiality and anonymity were discussed. According to Wiles *et al.* (2008: 417), confidentiality and anonymity are closely linked as anonymity is one of the ways confidentiality is upheld in research. Conversely, they co-exist as they are both needed in research and a researcher cannot use the one without the other (Wiles *et al.* 2008: 417). According to Allen (2017: 228) “confidentiality and anonymity are ethical practices designed to protect the privacy of human subjects while collecting, analysing, and reporting data”. Confidentiality can be defined as “not discussing information provided by an individual with others, and presenting findings in ways that ensure individuals cannot be identified (chiefly through anonymisation)” (Allen 2017: 228; Byrne 2017 para 6; Wiles *et al.* 2008: 418).

The participants were informed that all information gathered was confidential. All data collected would be anonymised by allocating each participant a participant number and the bypassing of names throughout the study. Furthermore, during the transcription process of the focus groups and individual interviews, the participants were not identified by name but rather through their unique participant numbers to further ensure their privacy.

### **3.10.3 Storage of data collected**

Collected data was stored in a locked cupboard in a locked storeroom, in the office of the researcher's supervisors in DUT, for a period of five years, after which it will be disposed of by shredding. Only the researcher and the researcher's supervisors will have access to the data. Electronic data will be password protected and will be deleted after five years. Upon being informed of all of the above information, the participants then signed a consent form prior to the commencement of their participation in the research and once they had fully understood the letter of information and consent form (see consent form as Annexure B and K).

## **3.11 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY**

The researcher chose the data collection instruments due to their effectiveness in providing valid and reliable information in accordance to the needs of this study. The most valid measure for any study is an instrument that assists in meeting the aim and objectives of the study while not affecting the data collected by unrelated factors (Leung 2015: 326-327; Mitchell and Jolley 2010: 179). The use of focus group and interview schedules enabled the researcher to engage in rich, diverse discussions and private conversations, respectively.



Reliability ensures that the instruments being used measures the data gathered accurately and consistently (Leung 2015: 327; Mitchell and Jolley 2010: 180-181; Neuman 1997: 369). The samples were chosen based on a very specific set of criteria, which ensured credibility of the participants' responses (Leung 2015: 327; Neuman 1997: 369). For the purpose of this study, the researcher measured a variable that changes (knowledge), therefore unreliability could not reflect random error (Leung 2015: 327; Neuman 1997: 369). Thus, the researcher used tools that limited random error. To increase validity and reliability the researcher had the focus group and interview schedules verified by a community engagement practitioner for effectiveness, relevance and suitability to this study.

In addition, triangulation was used to further ensure validity and reliability. According to Creswell and Miller (2000: 126) triangulation is the use of multiple sources to sort or categories data. Through this process, a study is reinforced (Patton 2015:661). The multiple sources used in this study were: focus groups, a review of literature and one-on-one interview to collect data. All the focus groups and one-on-one interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. This ensured that all the responses were captured accurately. This method ensured credibility and trustworthiness of data collected.

### **3.12 CONCLUSION**

This chapter detailed the methodological approaches used in the research study. The study used PAR and formed a team with a CYCC and DUT to prepare and develop a training programme for students from DUT that prepared the students to volunteer in the said CYCC. Phase One was the orientation phase where data was collected through focus groups and then thematically analysed. Thereafter, in Phase Two, the planning and implementation phase, the training programme was planned and developed using the data from the focus groups in Phase One and literature from Chapter Two. The Curriculum of Engagement, Social Contract Theory and Ethics of Care Theory were used as theoretical frameworks to guide the study. These theoretical and philosophical concepts enabled the researcher to characterise the important elements of a volunteer training programme for the South African context. Finally, Phase Three was the evaluation Phase, which allowed student volunteers to reflect on the training programme and their role in volunteerism at DUT. The results of this study are presented and discussed in Chapters Four and Five.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

Chapters Four and Five present the results for Phase One and Phase Two of the study in order to address the objectives as outlined in Chapter One, which are:

1. To explore volunteerism as a form of community engagement;
2. To develop a volunteer training programme for DUT students and train them as volunteers;
3. To create a partnership relationship between DUT and the CYCC;
4. To develop and implement a holiday programme for young people at the CYCC through the partnership relationship, and
5. To evaluate the volunteer training programme post-implementation of the volunteer task and finalise a volunteer training programme for the CYCC.

The results are presented according to the three phases. Phases One and Two are covered in Chapter Four. Phase Three, which is covered in Chapter Five, is the evaluation of the volunteer training and volunteer task through data collected from one-on-one interviews with students.

### **4.2 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION FOR PHASE ONE: ORIENTATION**

The following sample groups participated in this phase:

- Four senior staff members of the CYCC;
- Two DUT academic staff members from two departments, and
- Ten DUT students from three DUT departments.

Data was collected through focus group interviews with the objective of exploring the participants' understanding and experiences of the following concepts: CE; volunteerism; CUPs; Social Contract Theory and Ethics of Care Theory; the students and CYCC staff members' perceptions on the concept of 'care for children', and the students' experience of working with children. The findings of the orientation phase served to determine the training needs of the selected students and all of the participants were asked to recommend content for the volunteer training programme.

The first part of this section presents findings on conceptualization of key terms by the three different sample groups. In the second part, the students and CYCC staff members understanding of care for children and the students' experience with children are discussed. The final section presents participants' recommendations on content for a volunteer training programme.

## 4.1 Conceptualisation of key terms

### 4.2.1.1 Community engagement (CE)

#### 4.2.1.1.1 Participants awareness of CE

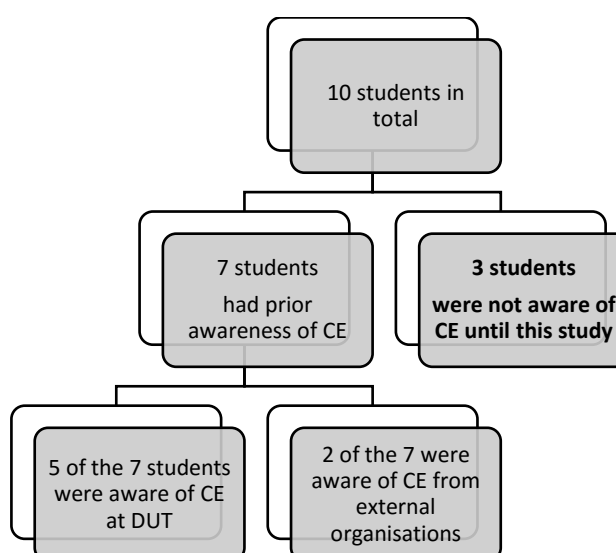


Figure 4.1: Students' awareness of CE activities

Seven of the ten students responded that they were aware of CE prior to this study: two knew of CE from their community; five heard of CE at DUT. Three students were unaware of CE prior to this study.

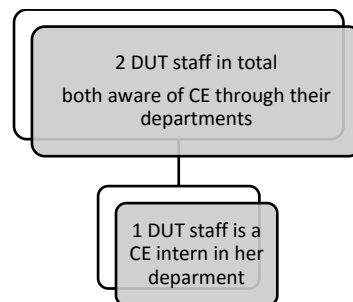


Figure 4.2: DUT staff awareness of CE activities

Both the DUT staff had an awareness of CE through the CE activities within their departments. One of the DUT staff members indicated that she was the CE intern in her department.

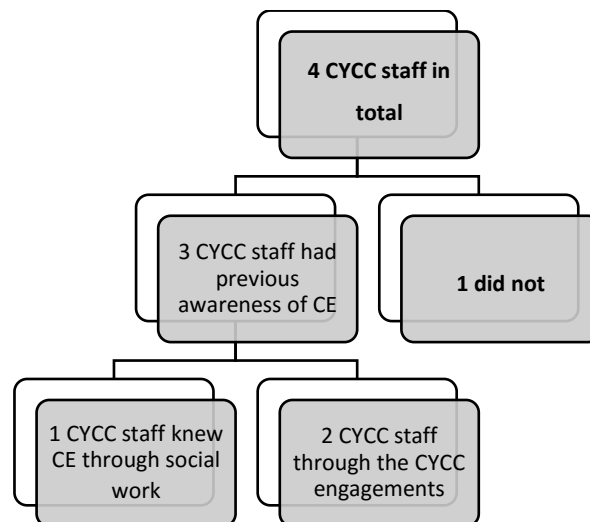


Figure 4.3: CYCC staff awareness of CE activities

Three of the four CYCC staff members had previous knowledge of CE: one in the context of her work as a social worker; two CYCC staff members through the engagement activities that took place at the CYCC. One CYCC staff member had not heard of CE before.

Thus, of the sixteen participants, twelve were familiar with the term CE through their relevant contexts. The respondents' awareness of CE influenced the training because while they mostly had some awareness of CE, their perceptions of CE varied and three had never heard of CE. Consequently, it was decided that it was necessary to provide information about CE to all participants prior to the volunteers' training so that all respondents have a common understanding of CE.

#### 4.2.1.1.2 Understanding CE

The themes that participants' responses provided suggested that the properties of CE comprised of multiple, interacting factors that contributed in variable ways to the overall understanding of community engagement as a 'coherent whole'.

In order to simplify the components of the 'coherent whole' the four principle themes: (1) community interaction; (2) CE as an activity that contributes to community development; (3) CE as charitable activity; and (4) miscellaneous (covering a single response), are reflected on below.

- Theme 1: CE as 'community interaction'

All three sample groups perceived CE to be a form of interaction between a community and a HEI. Table 4.1 below provides a summary of the respondents' comments that support this observation.

Table 4.1: Community engagement perceived as a form of community interaction

Theme: CE perceived as a form of community interaction			
	N=3 Students	DUT staff	N=2 CYCC staff
Comments	<i>“you don’t just go there to tell them what to do but we are sharing information”</i>		<i>“as CE involves interacting with various sectors in a community”</i>
	<i>“community involvement”</i>		<i>“it is a mutual interaction”</i>
	<i>“working with the community”</i>		<i>“we cannot work in isolation”</i>
			<i>“in terms of the issue on hand, you need to get their views and tell them what your requirements are”</i>
			<i>“go to community to find out their needs”</i>

As a consequence of the varied responses, it was decided to augment these different perceptions of ‘community interaction’ during the training with information drawn from the following: international literature that reflects on collaboration between the HEIs and the community or community organisations (New England Research Center for Higher Education n.d., cited in Stark, Shenouda and Smith-Howell 2017: 72; Morin, Jaeger and O’Meara 2016: 151); South African literature on interaction and collaboration (North-West University 2016: 2; University of Free State 2019 para 6 line 1-2); and the way in which some universities, such as the University of Stellenbosch, have adopted the use of the word interaction as opposed to engagement (Holliday *et al.* 2015: 98-99).

These findings mirror much of the literature relating to CE. For example, it has been argued that because of the evolution, CE’s conceptualization as a form of community interaction is not uncommon (Thomson *et al.* 2011: 224). Similarly, a number of HEIs

within South Africa refer to CE in their institutional policies using words such as partnerships, collaboration and interaction to conceptualise CE

Participants in this study indicated that engaging with community involved interactions that are collaborative, rather than one-way university-community monologues. Participants also associated CE with community interaction as communication, sharing information and investigating their needs, thereby emphasising the need for collaborative partnerships between the community and the HEI. Albeit indirectly, the participants' understandings of CE also point towards awareness that engagement requires original forms of critical thinking, social responsibility and civic mindedness which mirrors arguments by Bhagwan (2017: 178).

- Theme 2: CE as an activity that contributes to community development

All three of the sample groups conceptualised CE as contributing to community development. Three students mentioned: “*uplifting the community*”; one DUT staff member stated “*engaging in community development*”; and four of the CYCC staff members indicated that CE is part of improving life and serving the community, using words such as: “*working with people... and trying to make their lives better ...*”; and “*improvement of the community or improvement of life for the community*”; “*assisting with things like funding, birth certificates etc. because we know how to do it*”.

Participants associated CE with that of developing and improving the quality of life within communities. Some authors have noted that community development is prominent as an outcome of CE initiatives in HEIs (Olson and Brennan 2017: 14; Muturi, An and Mwangi 2013: 390; Petersen and Osman 2013: 4-5). Discussions on community development was included in the training to ensure students could identify the difference between CE and community development but also make the connection



between these two concepts. Grobbelaar (2017: 136) emphasised the need for students to understand the basic principles of community development in their practice of CE and the bigger picture of community development to which CE is meant to contribute.

- Theme 3: CE perceived to be a type of ‘charitable activity’

The third theme identified by DUT staff members and students was that CE is implemented for the purpose of helping others or as a charitable activity. Three students used descriptions such as, “*give back*” and “*giving of yourself and time*”. Both DUT staff members said: “... *it may not be money but your time... just helping where you can*”. For the DUT staff members and students, CE was recognised as a form of charity in the sense that CE is associated with DUT staff members and students giving off of themselves to help others.

Clarifying the aspect of charity was an important consideration and therefore included in the training programme. Literature showed that the notion of ‘giving’ implies that the community is ‘needy’ and unable to contribute to their improvement, thereby promoting a ‘deficit model’ of community engagement and development (Rhodes University 2015: 2). Importantly, there is a need to move away from the ideologies of the ‘deficit model’ (Preece 2016: 10; Rhodes University 2015: 2) The aforesaid literature was used to show students that labelling communities as disadvantaged or having a ‘deficit’ was opposed in CE. Rather, communities are promoted as equal partners, possessing knowledge and skills that are important in the quest to solve societal issues. As a mutually beneficial collaboration, CE provides students the opportunity to gain knowledge and/or skills from their interaction with communities as they have substantial offerings for students. It therefore becomes necessary for HEIs to understand, that in the preparation of students, not only for volunteerism, but all forms of CE, that the ‘deficit model’ should not be promoted and that ‘charity’ should be seen only as a ‘stepping stone’ or means to learning, change and understanding of social justice, and not as the end result of CE activities.

- Theme 4: Miscellaneous

A student indicated that CE was aligned to the philosophy of Ubuntu, stating, “*since I live within a community, I form part of a community, which means that I have to be fully engaged with all the things that is happening in the community. Because whatever affects my neighbour still affects me, because we live in the same neighbourhood. So community engagement is being part of or subscribing to somethings that is greater than yourself*”. The philosophy of Ubuntu is understood as “umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu”, which loosely translates to “a human being is a human being because of other human beings” (Letseka 2012: 48; Ntseane 2012: 278; Shanyanana and Waghid 2016: 109) which strongly aligns with the student’s response of being an integral part of her community.

The issue of social justice was added in the training programme to provide students with an understanding of how their actions have the potential to contribute to social justice as indicated by Grobbelaar (2017) and Pelton (2001, cited in Bhagwan 2017).

#### 4.2.1.1.3 Students’ experience in community engagement and/or volunteerism

The following responses were received in an attempt to gauge the actual experience of students in CE: seven of the ten students responded that they had prior experience in CE-five through the programmes that staff organised for the students within their respective departments; one of the seven students engaged in CE activities both at DUT and outside DUT; and one student engaged in CE activities outside of DUT as a volunteer. Students’ participation in CE activities varied from volunteering in a day care centre to CE in a CYCC. Three students indicated that they had not participated in CE and that this study would be their first experience of and with CE.

When asked about the roles they played through CE, students described their roles variously as: “*time keeping*”; “*handing out of refreshments*”; “*stocktaking*”; “*feeding*

*the kids*"; *"playing with the kids"* and *"by raising funds and buying the kids' stuff"*. Students' experiences varied from relating to the students' field of study and qualification to activities as volunteers, completely unrelated to their study programme.

#### 4.2.1.1.4 DUT staff's perceptions of students' participation in community engagement

Both staff members of DUT agreed that students should participate in CE activities as they would benefit from their participation. One DUT staff member added that CE allows students to use the theory from the classroom and apply it in practice through volunteerism.

#### 4.2.1.2 Volunteerism

Participants' responses to conceptualising volunteerism were numerous and diverse. The three themes that emerged were: 1) definition of volunteerism as no remuneration; 2) philanthropy as a motivating factor; and 3) miscellaneous, which covers the outcomes of volunteering and criteria for volunteering.

##### 4.2.1.2.1 Definition of volunteerism

All the sample groups defined volunteerism as working without remuneration. Three students understood volunteerism as working for free, using words such as *"working for free"* and; *"you not supposed to get payment"* to explain volunteerism. It is important to note that five of the ten students mentioned no returns in general, whereas three students specifically referred to monetary returns in the form of payment. This differentiation is important as volunteers may not receive money but may gain in kind, such as knowledge, skills and experiences from their interaction. One DUT staff member indicated that volunteerism was *"giving your dedication and time with no pay"*. One of the CYCC staff members associated volunteerism with working or providing services for free, using descriptions such as: *"those who offer their services*

*without remuneration*” and *“working without expecting pay”* as their understanding of volunteerism.

This study proposes that despite the understanding of volunteerism as working without any remuneration (Volunteer Now 2012: 2; European Youth Forum 2012: 7), volunteerism within the community engagement paradigm encourages mutual benefit through knowledge, skills and experiences that students gain through their participation in volunteerism. Hence, students may not be paid for their time and services but may gain alternative rewards through their participation. This discussion was included in the training programme.

#### 4.2.1.2.2 Philanthropy as motivation to volunteer

The table 4.2 below shows the responses for volunteerism as a form of philanthropy.

Table 4.2: Volunteerism as a form of philanthropy

<b>Theme: Volunteerism as a form of philanthropy</b>			
	<b>(N=5) Students</b>	<b>(N=1) DUT staff</b>	<b>(N=2) CYCC staff</b>
<b>Comments</b>	<i>“helping out the communities”</i>	<i>“an act of kindness that is giving back to the community”</i>	<i>“willing to assist in all areas of another person’s life”</i>
	<i>“giving of your time”</i>		<i>“willing to assist in all areas of another person’s life”</i>
	<i>“giving a helping hand in whatever cause you are doing”</i>		
	<i>“helping out ”</i>		
	<i>“serving a purpose”</i>		

A number of authors (Clary and Synder 1991:153; Sulek 2010:196; Holdsworth and Brewis 2014: 204) agree that volunteerism is a form of philanthropy and therefore discussions on philanthropic values as both a motive and a benefit of volunteering was explained in the training programme.

#### 4.2.1.2.3 Miscellaneous

- Outcome of volunteering

One of the CYCC staff members mentioned that volunteerism was of mutual benefit. The CYCC staff member said: “both sides are giving of a form of service to assist or uplift. In the same time learning new skills”. The training included information on partnerships in volunteering. Student and community benefits were included as outcomes of volunteering, supported by literature from (Advancing Association and Non-profit Leadership [ASAE] Foundation 2016: 1-6; the United Nations Volunteer Programme 2014: 3).

- Criteria for volunteers

One student described volunteerism as an activity that someone participates in willingly, using words such as: “it is doing something with/in/from your own free will”. As a criteria for volunteering, the training outlined the importance of willing participation and its influence on the volunteer activity (Holdsworth and Brewis 2013: 205).

Table 4.3 The varied definitions of volunteerism from the three sample groups

<b>Students (n= 10)</b>	<b>DUT staff (n= 2)</b>	<b>CYCC staff members (n= 4)</b>
Working without pay	Working without pay	Working without pay
Philanthropy	Philanthropy	Philanthropy
		Mutual benefit
Willing participation		

#### 4.2.1.3 Community University Partnership (CUP)

##### 4.2.1.3.1 Students' awareness of existing CUPs

Students were asked if they were aware of any community-university partnership-relationships at DUT in order to gauge their level of interest in CE in general and volunteerism in particular and to understand the level of awareness amongst students in the study on existing CUP at DUT.

Only five of the ten students were aware of CUP at DUT. The students said, “*yes with Edith Benson Babies Home*”; and “*there was an old age home which we visited as a department*”. Students from the department who initiated CE volunteerism activities (as mentioned in 4.2.1.1) were the only students who were aware of CUPs. They had a better understanding of how CE, volunteerism and CUP are related. Hence, only half of the students who participated in this study were aware of DUT's participation in CUPs. This level of awareness of CUPs at DUT are the same as students' level of awareness of CE generally at DUT. The same reasons may apply to this lack of awareness of CUP as indicated above.

##### 4.2.1.3.2 Understanding CUPs

Participants' responses to understanding community-university partnerships are categorised into four main themes: (1) partnership; (2) sharing common goals; (3) mutual beneficiation; and (4) miscellaneous (covers contractual and agreed upon rules)

- Theme 1: Partnerships

Two students described CUP as a mutual relationship whereby two parties want to be in a partnership together, which is important prior to forming a partnership. Three students indicated that partnerships need to be collective with descriptions such as “*working as a team*”; “*two parties working hand in hand*”; and “*it's working*

*together*". All four of the CYCC staff members interpreted CUP as a partnership in various ways, such as "*coming together of two parties to work*"; "*relationships were you do things together*"; and "*working together*". One DUT staff member indicated that in their department they "*create this friendship whereby the students will go to the centre*". Therefore, the most common theme in conceptualising CUP is the building of relationships as part of a partnership between two parties.

The idea of 'partnership' was incorporated into the training to describe aspects of partnership, collaboration and common goals. Furthermore, the training also included the link between partnership and engagement as mentioned in Tandon, Singh, Clover and Hall (2016: 28).

- Theme 2: Sharing common goals

The second theme identified by participants was that of sharing common goals. All three sample groups perceived CUP as 'sharing common goals'. One DUT staff member used words such as, "*find out what their needs are: if they need food and safety practices training, or food handling training so you go to the organisation to find out exactly what they need*", emphasising that the community needs or issues have to first be established in order to set a goal or objective for the partnership. Two CYCC staff members added that the partnership should have a collective aim by stating, "*mutually beneficial programme or project*" and "*working together towards a common goal for mutual understanding*" to define CUP.

Several authors have emphasised that CUP is a partnership with shared goals and aims (Smith 2016: 20; Cooper, Kotval-Karam, Kotval and Mullin 2014: 98). Their literature and others formed the basis for the discussion on sharing a common goal during the training.

- Theme 3: Mutual beneficiation

The third theme identified by one student and one DUT staff member was that of being ‘mutually beneficial’. Student indicated that CUP was a mutually beneficial relationship. Examples of words used included “where you scratch my back and I scratch your back and we both benefit”, to describe CUP. One DUT staff member stated that CUP “*is not so much about us giving but we also need to get something in return, that’s why we work with the students to show them that by working and giving to the community it is also a good thing that we should be doing. Because not all of us are fortunate- that’s the partnership we try to create with our students*” towards defining CUP.

The researcher highlights the point that despite the DUT staff member initially indicated a two way system of giving and receiving, the DUT staff member further states “*...giving to the community is also a good thing and we should be doing it. Because not all of us are fortunate- that’s the partnership we try to create with our students*” which emphasises that their department focuses on students giving to the community as a one-way process. This reveals that the notion of a mutually beneficial relationship may not be clearly understood by the participant.

The training programme included aspects of mutual benefit as it is important to partnership, shared goals and other values of a CUP as indicated by (Jacob, Sutin, Weidman and Yeager 2015: 4; and Morell, Sorensen and Howarth 2015: 112).

- Theme 4: Miscellaneous

Contractual: One of the CYCC staff members responded that the abovementioned partnerships should be contractual as in “*you sign a contract*”;and “*the rules and parameters are outlined*” to govern a CUP, thus emphasising the need for formal agreement and even a social contract when establishing a dynamic CUP. A brief



discussion on contractual agreements formed part of the training programme as mentioned by (Holton, Early, Jettner and Shaw 2015: 109; Fryer 2015: 131-132; Lancaster 2011: 32)

Agreed upon rules: One of the CYCC staff members responded that the abovementioned partnerships should be “the rules and parameters are outlined” to govern a CUP. The social contract theory and use of a mutual discussion between students and the CYCC staff was used to establish such practices. The meeting included some clarification on how policies should include rules and parameters for both the CYCC and students (National Youth Council of Ireland 2007: 11-12)

One DUT student and one DUT staff member did not respond to the question.

Table 4.4 Summaries the responses from the participants. Similarities were evident in the criteria of CUP with all three sample groups emphasising partnership within a CUP. Additionally, the CYCC staff also provided miscellaneous aspects, which were included in the training on CUP.

Table 4.4: Summary of the conceptualisation of CUP

<b>Students (n= 10)</b>	<b>DUT staff (n= 2)</b>	<b>CYCC staff members (n= 4)</b>
Partnership	Partnership	Partnership
Common goal	Common goal	Common goal
Mutual benefit	Mutual benefit	
		Miscellaneous

#### 4.2.1.3.3 Participants perception on the value associated with CUPs

Table 4.5 outlines the values identified by the participants.

Table 4.5: Summary of values associated with CUP

<b>Students (n= 10)</b>	<b>DUT staff (n= 2)</b>	<b>CYCC staff members (n= 4)</b>
Trust	Trust	Trust
Listening and Communication	Communication	Communication
Common goal		Common goal
	Commitment	Commitment
Patience		
Understanding		
Ethics		
Mutual respect		
Team work		
	Professionalism	
	Mutual benefit	
	Reliability	
		Loyalty
		Willing / by in
		Confidentiality
		Enthusiastic
		Sharing knowledge
		Caring and compassion
		Monitoring
		Networking

The training programme focused significantly on personal, professional and organisational values and relevant values extracted from literature such as: trust (Morrell, Sorensen and Howarth 2015: 111-112; Hart and Northmore 2011: 7); listening (Hanssman and Grignon 2017: 32; Morrell *et al.* 2015: 111); communication, sharing the same goal and commitment (Vaterlaus, Skogrand, Higginbotham and Bradford 2015: 4; Eckerle- Curwood *et al.* 2011: 24).

#### 4.2.1.3.4 Previous CUPs of CYCC

##### Types of CUP experienced by the CYCC

The centre has taken part in several CUP activities over the past years with HEIs. The nature of the partnerships had three common themes: (1) volunteerism; (2) service learning and (3) WIL. The training included brief discussions on the various typologies of CUP and CE, guided by literature used in Chapter 2.

##### The CYCCs' experience with previous CUPs

The partnerships were described in a generally positive light with only one response highlighting a challenge. The identified positives were described as: 1) well established bond; (2) transparency; and (3) contractual. Time constraints, discussed below, was reported as a challenge.

- Theme 1: Well established bond

All four of the CYCC staff members described the current CUPs as well established bonds, as illustrated in Figure 4.4.

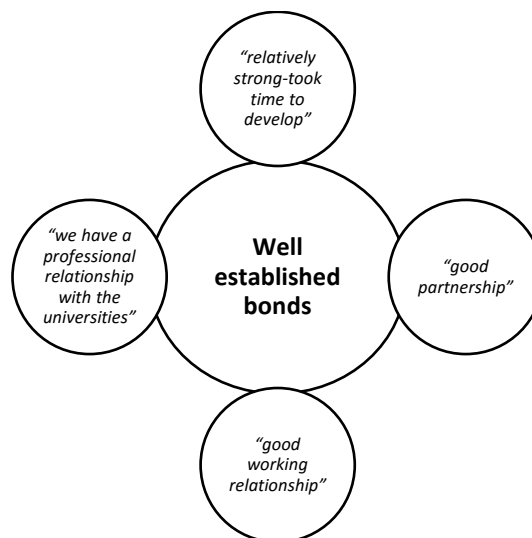


Figure 4.4: Types of responses on the 'well established bonds' that exist in current CUPs.

Emphasis was placed on the time taken to develop such partnerships and the “*professional*” nature of such partnerships. Solid partnerships should include the values mentioned in table 4.5, including aspects of professionalism which is highlighted by Morrell *et al.* (2015: 126) who note that through relationships “better research” is conducted.

- Theme 2: Transparency

The staff used words such as “*iron out what the expectations are*” and “*we have transparency with the work*” to describe the transparency employed in their current CUPs.

- Theme 3: Contractual

The third theme identified by one of the CYCC staff members was the use of a contract, which was mentioned by another staff member previously in their conceptualisation of CUP, often referred to as a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) or a Memorandum of Agreement (MoA).

- Theme 4: Time constraints as a challenge

One CYCC staff member indicated that one of the challenges facing their current CUP is that of time constraints, using descriptions such as, “*time for some people is a challenge- we would make the time but the coordinators sometimes have a lot of work and cannot meet*”. Two issues were identified that related to time: a) finding a time appropriate for both parties to meet; and b) the length of a CUP. This challenge of time needed to be addressed at the outset of the training programme.

The training included a discussion on case studies provided by the CYCC's partnerships so that students had practical knowledge of the values required for successful CUPs drawn from literature in chapter 2 and the following additional literature: contractual (University of Wisconsin-Madison 2013: 1; Lancaster 2011: 32, 43); and time constraints (Hogan, Tynan, Covill, Kilmer and Cook 2017: 16; Williamson, Young, Murray, Burton, Levin, Massey and Baldwin 2016: 61).

#### 4.2.1.4 Participants' knowledge of the Social Contract Theory and the Ethics of Care Theory

##### 4.2.1.4.1 Social Contract Theory

None of the participants from the three sample groups had knowledge of Social Contract Theory even though most participants understood the need to formalise a CUP in volunteerism as was revealed in the use of words shown in the table below:

Table 4.6: Participants understandings of The Social Contract Theory

<b>Social Contract Theory</b>			
	<b>Students</b>	<b>DUT staff</b>	<b>CYCC staff</b>
<b>Comments</b>	<i>"there's an agreement which outlines that if I do this you will do this"</i>		<i>"the students come to the home, we then tell them our policies and then we adjust ours to theirs: boundaries, oath of confidentiality and volunteer form"</i>
	<i>"its contract between societies"</i>		<i>"social: accountability, responsibility and contract"</i>

The responses show that participants understand the importance of an agreement in practice between parties even though they do not have the relevant theoretical knowledge. The training programme needed to consider the integration of practice with theory in terms of agreements or social contracts. It is important to note that a social contract is not a formal agreement or contract but rather a supposed contract. This study adopted the understanding that participants may not acquire formal understandings of the Social Contract Theory but may have real-life experience through abiding by such rules in practical experience.

#### 4.2.1.4.2 Ethics of Care Theory

Participants from the three sample groups had no knowledge of the Ethics of Care Theory. However, three students tried to understand the theory by using words such as, *“I will dissect the meaning of ethics: it is like my moral code and my moral standings in life. How I understand certain situations. Ethics of care is when we care and nurture those ethics to be more humane. Theory is more academic”*. Another student added, *“so I know how to look after children”*. Three CYCC staff members also tried to understand the words associated with the theory, using descriptions such as *“it is the ethics underpinning care, for example, equality irrespective of the child’s race, age or gender”*.

Simply understood, the theory is the association of ‘empathy’, ‘sympathy’, and ‘altruism’ with one’s willingness to participate in activities such as volunteerism (Juujarvi 2003: 24). As indicated in Chapter Two, some groups of people may display more care than other groups (Rankopo *et al.* 2007: 35), thereby emphasising the link between groups of people, who share similar characteristics, with innate traits that activate a greater need to be socially responsible and to give back to the people in their communities and country, as opposed to other groups.

Although formal conceptual understanding was lacking, participants had a practical grasp of the Ethics of Care Theory in their daily lives. The training programme provided more theoretical information on the Ethics of Care Theory.

#### **4.2.2 Students' and the CYCC's perception of care in relation to working with children**

This question was considered important because primary participants of the activities that constitute the volunteer task in this study were the children in a CYCC and all the children at the CYCC are identified as 'children in need of care'.

All the students and CYCC staff members agreed that showing care to children is important. Two students and two CYCC staff emphasised this using words such as, *"definitely"*; *"very"* important; *"they need to show care appropriately"*; and *"it is very important as children in this environment are at risk, and we have a responsibility to show them care"*, to emphasise the importance of demonstrating care to children.

Nine students indicated that they had worked with children before. This study's volunteering activity was the first for one student who was eager to learn more about children. Volunteerism is one way of students demonstrating the ethics of care with children. This study acknowledges that care must be shown to children in general and children in CYCC in particular. However, the volunteer training programme needed to emphasise appropriate caring practices for the student volunteers. The programme had to include practices which did not harm the child nor implicate the student.

### **4.2.3 Suggestions for content of volunteer training programme**

#### **4.2.3.1 Background information on CYCC as ‘community’**

Background information was identified by all the sample groups as an important component of the volunteer training programme. Of the total number of students, only two students indicated that receiving information on the CYCC and the children would assist them, while one DUT staff member and three CYCC staff members agreed that students required information on the ‘community’. The CYCC staff members emphasised: *“the need to understand the concept that those are vulnerable children”*; *“these children have been traumatised”* ;and *“know that we are dealing with children at risk, abandoned, and with no parents/ orphans”*.

Volunteer Now (2012: 6) posits that training programmes should include information sharing to ensure that all parties have adequate knowledge about the organisation in which they will be volunteering. The Commonwealth of Australia (2006: 9) adds that volunteer training should include context specific information for volunteers, to ensure that volunteers have a diverse array of knowledge about that the specific settings in which they will volunteer.

In this study, students wanted further details regarding the children’s background. However, this type of information is confidential and in accordance with children’s rights and the amended Children’s Amendment Act No. 41 of 2007 (Republic of South Africa, Department of Social Development 2008), it was not possible to provide such information to students. Consequently, the CYCC staff provided broad and general information about children in need of care and not specific information on any one of the children. The study adopted such a strategy in Phase Two.



#### 4.2.3.2 Ethics

The next suggestion by students and a DUT staff member was that of ethics, with two students and one DUT staff member highlighting the need for ethics to be included in the training programme. Ethics relates to human behaviours and the “ideal ways of being” (Rich 2013: 4). In essence, ethics is what constitutes the right way to behave or act. Thus, ethics is critical to ensuring students practice and ‘act’ in the correct manner required by the CYCC as stipulated by the legislation. Ethical practices when working with children are necessary according to the International Federation of Educative Communities (Smiar 2017: 10).

This study agrees that the ethics of the organisation or community should be outlined to ensure that the student volunteers are familiar with the ethics they need to uphold. Additionally, the Commonwealth of Australia (2006: 12) asserts that volunteers should be consistently reminded of their training agenda to ensure continuous practice, as volunteers are prone to forget and need refreshing. This emphasises the need for areas such as ethics to be reinforced when dealing with student volunteers during their volunteer participation. This study endorsed the need for students to be reminded of the ethics that the organisation is governed by to ensure students are better equipped to uphold them.

The third suggestion by students and CYCC staff members was the need for training in engagement with children on all levels. One student and two of the CYCC staff members suggested that students be trained in basic values for working with children. All the volunteers needed details on the roles and responsibilities that were expected of them; in this case, one of the roles was working with children in the CYCC. The volunteers also needed to understand the nature of the organisation in which they work and the rules of conduct. This study assumed that students needed to be equipped with adequate context specific information; in this case, the students were working with children in a CYCC. In particular, this study emphasised the need for training on how

to work with children, skills for child management, behaviour management, communicating and listening skills to better equip the students to perform their tasks to the best of their abilities and in accordance with guidelines, rules and ethics of the organisation and partnership.

The fourth suggestion by two students highlighted the importance of including information pertinent to their roles and one DUT staff member suggested the need for students to be aware of both parties' expectations. As mentioned by Graham *et al.* (2013: 13-15); Eckerle-Curwood *et al.* (2011:19) and the National Youth Council of Ireland (2007: 11-12), volunteer roles need to be clear, specific and detailed to ensure that volunteers understand what is expected of them. Through clear expectations, volunteer retention is sustained. This study emphasised the need for the training programme to outline roles of the volunteer for the training programme and volunteer task to ensure students had a clear understanding of what was expected of them. This study assumed that specifying clear expectations for the volunteer would give the volunteer a sense of accountability and responsibility in their role, subsequently influencing retention of volunteers.

Training suggestions also included personal development; one student and one DUT staff member added that students need to be trained in people skills, interaction, and passion for CE. Aspects of self is critical in accordance with the Curriculum of Engagement Approach (Barnett and Coate's 2005: 59-64). Students needed to understand their values, strengths and weaknesses in order for the training to strengthen weakness and optimise their strengths. While aspects such as passion may not be easily taught in a classroom setting, it is important for students to not only be passionate but committed to working with communities outside the university boundaries.

Personal development was a critical aspect in this study. The study assumed that the inclusion of personal aspects enhanced the productivity and retention of student volunteers while volunteering, developing personal growth and self-awareness. The study further emphasised the Curriculum of Engagement approach by Barnett and Coate (2005) which includes three aspects, one of which is 'being', which focuses on students sense of 'self' as a critical component to the students engagement and participation.

One DUT staff member also added the need for details on the volunteer activity. This again related to the role of the volunteers and the expectations required of them. The volunteer training programme should highlight details of their volunteer tasks and roles to ensure that each volunteer is clear on what is required of them. Within this study it was assumed that through a clear description of the volunteer activity, the students were able to understand what was expected of them and associate their knowledge and skills with the volunteer activity, which in turn directly affected the outcome of the volunteer task.

Additionally, two CYCC staff members recommended that students be trained in creating boundaries between what is appropriate and what is inappropriate in a CYCC setting. As mentioned by Graham *et al.* (2013: 13-15); Eckerle-Curwood *et al.* (2011:19) and the National Youth Council of Ireland (2007: 11-12), clearly defining the volunteers rules, regulations and responsibilities are critical to ensure volunteer confidence and retention. This study assumed that boundaries are critical to distinguish between appropriate and inappropriate conduct, especially when working with children in a CYCC setting. Clear boundary setting should be outlined with regular reminders throughout the volunteer task - the holiday programme.

Two CYCC staff members recommended that aspects of confidentiality be integrated into the training to ensure that as students become aware of the circumstances of these

children, that they remain “sensitive”. As previously mentioned the volunteer task was with children, who are considered “as risk”, so maintaining confidentiality is of utmost importance. Additionally, when a child approaches the volunteer, it is critical to ensure the volunteer responds in a way that is ethical and not harmful to the child. Issues of confidentiality and sensitivity should be included in the training content to ensure ethical behaviour by the volunteers. Molepo (2015: 226) and Thumbadoo (2013: 77) highlight the importance of being confidential and sensitive in the work with children in residential care in South Africa. This study highlighted the fact that confidentiality is vital and should be reiterated to remind volunteers of the sensitive nature of the CYCC context.

The ninth suggestion by one CYCC staff member indicated that students should be prepared with behavioural management techniques as they might face “behavioural challenges”. Molepo (2015: 121) states “the task of managing any behaviour cannot be achieved if the person who presents such behaviour is not committed to becoming a part of that process,” thus, emphasising the need for volunteers to commit themselves to understanding and learning about behaviour management (BM), before the volunteer task. The question that arises is whether volunteers should be a part of BM and to what extent? However, the author states that BM requires all stakeholders involved, including volunteers, to undergo some training in this aspect (Molepo 2015: 122).

According to Modlin (2013: 5) [volunteers] should take adult responsibility in managing behaviour, however, they should not be controlling. Volunteers needed to be trained to appropriately deal with behavioural issues during their volunteer task. This included being sensitive in their approach during behavioural management. This study agrees that student volunteers should be equipped with knowledge and skills important for dealing with children’s behaviour. This will assist the volunteers during the holiday programme (the volunteer task) and ensure its smooth running. Behaviour

management is vital in community contexts such as this and should be covered in detail.

Two students did not provide documentable recommendations.

#### **4.2.4 Summary of results of Phase One**

From the conceptual understandings retrieved in Phase One on CE, volunteerism and CUP, it was evident that participants have variable understandings of each concept. The need to highlight the link between themes was required. Thus, the linkages had to be detailed in the training programme to give participants a better understanding of the concepts as a whole. The Social Contract Theory and Ethics of Care Theory needed particular amplification due to the lack of theoretical knowledge by participants. The principles of these theories and their importance to the study needs to be embedded in the training programme. Finally, the participants' recommendations for the training programme contributed to the co-production of knowledge in the early stages of the study. The researcher accommodated the participants' recommendations in the training programme as appropriate. Phase One provided data and an analysis which influenced the design of the volunteer training programme during Phase Two.

### **4.3 PHASE TWO: PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION PHASE**

Phase Two was guided by the conceptual and theoretical framework, literature reviewed and the data collected and analysed from participants in Phase One. The combination of the literature review and the analysed inputs from participants influenced the activities in Phase Two. Special attention was paid to identifying knowledge gaps during Phase One and ensuring that the volunteer training programme filled these gaps. The training programme was implemented prior to the volunteer task

to ensure that students were prepared appropriately before engaging with the community. The process outlined below shows the steps undertaken in this phase:

1. Three planning meetings were scheduled between the CYCC staff, the DUT academic staff and DUT students. The meetings allowed for the participants to discuss the concepts outlined in Phase One and collectively decide on the planning and development of the volunteer training programme. During the first meeting data collected from Phase One was jointly analysed and the findings were used as a guide for what content should be included in the volunteer training programme. Additional content for the volunteer training programme was derived from Chapter Two of this study which included the conceptual and theoretical notions underpinning CE, CUP and volunteerism. It is important to note that participants also discussed and agreed upon the evaluation process that formed part of this study.
2. The volunteer training programme was then developed by staff members of the CYCC, DUT academic staff, students and the researcher.
3. The pedagogical design of the training programme followed the CE, volunteerism, CUP conceptual framework, Curriculum of Engagement Approach; Social Contract theory and Ethics of Care Theory
4. The learning objectives of the training programme were agreed on so as to prepare students for volunteering. The four learning objectives that were decided on are:
  - Ethics and values;
  - Professional conduct;
  - Theories guiding volunteerism; and
  - Organisational conduct of volunteerism.
5. The letter of consent signed by students to participate in this study formed a contract to ensure that all parties understood and agreed on their given roles. The CYCC also required the volunteers to sign a confidentiality form so that information shared on the children's background would remain confidential.

6. The training programme was implemented by the researcher.
7. An additional meeting was held to provide a platform that allowed all the participants to jointly plan and develop a holiday programme (the volunteer task) for the children at the CYCC.
8. The volunteer task was implemented in the October 2017 school holidays.

The details below explain the process undertaken during Phase Two.

#### **4.3.1 Description of the volunteer training programme**

The volunteer training programme was named: “Kuqala Ngawe” (refer to Annexure L) which translates to “it begins with you”. The programme consisted of icebreakers and team building, group work, individual self-reflection, role-plays, dialogue and critical analysis of aspects of self, professional conduct and working with children. This served to contextualise the common principles of volunteerism and how they relate to the specific volunteer task that the students and staff would develop and implement. The pedagogical design of the training programme is mentioned above as identified in the literature and discussed in Chapter Two.

#### **4.3.2 Main dimensions of the volunteer training programme**

As discussed in Chapter Three, the training programme was developed from the findings of the Phase One data and the content included the following four dimensions:

- Ethics and values;
- Professional conduct;
- Theories guiding volunteerism;
- Organisational conduct.

These four aspects or dimensions were linked to the theoretical framework that guided the development of the training programme. Table 4.7 refers to the four dimensions and the learning objectives in each dimension. Firstly, the *ethics and values* dimension for student volunteers consisted of conceptualising ethics and values, which included aspects of personal values and building team rapport. Secondly, the *professional conduct* dimension incorporated students reflecting on the conduct required of them in their fields. Thirdly, the *theories guiding volunteerism* dimension probed students to firstly, understand the social contract and ethics of care theories and thereafter, to relate the theories to their role as volunteers. Lastly, the *organisational conduct* dimension explored aspects of partnership and the uniqueness of the organisation or community with which the students would be working.

Table 4.7: Learning objectives of each dimension in the volunteer training Programme

Dimensions	Learning Outcomes
<b>Pedagogical framework</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• CE</li> <li>• Volunteerism</li> <li>• CUPs</li> </ul>
<b>1.Ethics and Values</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Understanding what is meant by ethics</li> <li>• Understanding what are values</li> <li>• Understanding the importance of ethics when working with communities</li> <li>• Awareness of ways to uphold ethics</li> <li>• Recognising personal values in relation to the self as “being” and its importance to an individual;</li> <li>• Encouraging members of the group to get to know each other</li> <li>• Assisting group members to recognise the basis for relationships and get to know each other</li> </ul>
<b>2.Professional Conduct</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Understanding Professional Conduct</li> <li>• Conducting oneself in a professional manner</li> </ul>
<b>3.Theories Guiding Volunteerism</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Understanding social contract theory and ethics of care theory and explaining their importance to volunteering.</li> </ul>



Table 4.7: Learning objectives of each dimension in the volunteer training Programme (continued)

Dimensions	Learning Outcomes
<b>4.Organisational Conduct</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Understanding the context of the organisation (community) that is a partner</li> <li>• Explaining the ethical practices needed to volunteer in this specific organisation</li> <li>• Developing an understanding of and practice for partnership relationships</li> </ul>

The above learning objectives were implemented over a three-week period, with two hour sessions per week, to accommodate the students' study timetable commitments. The researcher facilitated the training sessions with the "Kuqala Ngawe" training booklet. As previously mentioned in 4.3.1, the booklet contained several activities that probed various methods of active learning. The training sessions were interactive and participatory in nature to allow for two-way learning and conversation. All ten students participated in the discussion and contributed their ideas, opinions, knowledge and experiences to the training sessions.

#### 4.3.3 The content of the volunteer training programme

The volunteer training programme was structured to ensure that the DUT students, the DUT academic staff and the CYCC staff members contributed to the development of the training guide. The data collected from Phase One was analysed by the participants and indicated areas that needed to be included in order to prepare the students for the volunteer programme. The areas identified were: pedagogical framework, ethics and values, professional conduct, theories guiding volunteerism and organisational conduct. The analysed data were then triangulated against the reviewed literature in order to identify suitable materials for the training programme curricula. The identified materials were subsequently incorporated into the four dimensions outlined in Table 4.7.

It was made explicit to the researcher that the participants had some practical knowledge of the components of CE, volunteering, CUP and the theories that guide this study but required additional knowledge to ensure their conduct was beneficial, as opposed to harmful, to the community in which they participated. Furthermore, the findings highlighted the interdependencies between these concepts. Additionally, the CYCC staff members emphasised the importance of students being prepared on the uniqueness of this specific community to ensure appropriate practices. Similarly, literature suggests that volunteer training programmes should be adapted to suit the context they will serve (Fritz 2018 para 6 line 1-2; Volunteer Now 2012: 1).

#### 4.3.3.1 Framework that governed the content:

##### 4.3.3.1.1 Pedagogical framework

During the meetings between students and CYCC staff concepts of CE, volunteerism and CUP were discussed with the assistance of the literature mentioned in Chapter Two and Four. The discussion were interactive in nature and allowed for two way learning and discussion. The researcher facilitated the process and provided the literature for each concept, however the process was kept fairly informal to allow for the participants to feel comfortable and enjoy the learning.

##### 4.3.3.1.2 Dimension 1: Ethics and values

Student capacity building was critical to the nature of the volunteer task and the nature of the community in this study. It was vital to ensure that the children involved were not harmed in anyway. The learning objectives within this dimension were combined to show the interrelationships between them. The first activity was based on the students' understanding of ethics and values. The researcher defined 'ethics' and 'value/s'. The students were then given the opportunity to reflect on the importance of ethics when engaging with communities and the awareness of ways of upholding ethics in a CYCC setting. This occurred through group discussions on two critical

components: ethical considerations for student volunteers and ethical consideration for working with children (refer to Annexure L page 3).

The training programme incorporated aspects of self, values and ethics to ensure students were self-aware. Students were given the opportunity to discuss their understanding and views on what was meant by a 'value' and aspects of 'being'. The researcher, thereafter, explained what each term meant in this study and related the definition to the volunteers' views (refer to Annexure L page 4). The students then focused on their own values, analysing what values are important to them, those closest to them and children (refer to Annexure L page 5). Their answers were discussed in the group, where the students were able to learn that what is important to them is not necessarily important to their peers or children. Through this exploration, students were able to recognise what is important to them and how that related to their sense of 'being'.

The training include aspects of ethics and values in general, as well as specific ethical issues that related to the specific volunteer tasks the students were expected to undertake. Ethics and values curricula included aspects of students as individuals, related to students' fields of study and allied to the volunteer programme.

The next learning objective was to encourage the students to recognise the basis for relationships and to get to know each other; the importance of being able to get along with different kinds of people (diversity) was discussed and the students participated in a relationship building activity with their fellow volunteers (refer to Annexure L page 6). Relationship building led directly into the next learning objective, which was to assist students in recognising different values and the need to maintain relationships/partnerships irrespective of the type of value system of each partner. In pairs, the students discussed the factors they perceived as important to maintain healthy relationships in four forms: professional; personal; with children in a CYCC; and with

their fellow volunteers. The pairs then discussed their answers with the groups and the common factors were discussed in detail (refer to Annexure L page 6-7).

The final learning objective for this dimension was that of partnerships and values. The learning objective was to recognise the values needed to have a healthy partnership. The students were divided into two groups and each group was given a topic: positive, healthy partnership with a CYCC and University Student; and negative, unhealthy partnership with a CYCC and University Student. The students were given time to develop a role play on their topic and then to perform their act. The students were then asked to identify the positive and negative values depicted and a discussion on positive values needed for volunteers and CUP followed (refer to Annexure L page 8). The training also highlighted the need to build a bond amongst the volunteers that promotes and upholds the principles of a CUP in preparation for building a partnership with the CYCC.

#### 4.3.3.1.3 Dimension 2: Professional conduct

Students were introduced to the next dimension, which focused on the professional conduct of student as volunteers. Two learning objectives were completed within this dimension, the first was to understand professional conduct. This was achieved through defining and explaining the meaning of professional conduct with subsequent group discussions on professional conduct in the students' various fields and professional conduct for student volunteers (refer to Annexure L page 9). The group then shared their answers with others and identified the commonalities between the different fields and those for volunteers specifically.

The second learning objective within this dimension was conducting oneself in a professional manner. In the same groups the students discussed how one should conduct oneself in a professional manner; students discussed general professional

manners; professional manners specific to their fields and professional manners important to the study specifically (refer to Annexure L page 10). Through the discussion, professional conduct for the student volunteers was established. The training provided opportunities for the students to critically reflect on how they defined 'professional conduct' in different contexts.

#### 4.3.3.1.4 Dimension 3: Theoretical framework

The learning achieved in this dimension was the understanding of Social Contract Theory and Ethics of Care Theory and explaining their importance to the practice of volunteering. The theoretical framework of social contract and ethics of care theories were critically analysed through firstly, conceptualising the theories and thereafter integrating their importance and relevance to the volunteer task. This allowed the students to link the theory to aspects of their role and further apply it in the volunteer task (refer to Annexure L page 11). The training contextualised the theoretical framework curricula through the lens of CE, CUPs and the future voluntary work with the CYCC.

#### 4.3.3.1.5 Dimension 4: Organisational context

Generic volunteer training programmes do not cater for specific volunteer needs. It is therefore important for students to familiarise themselves with the background and context of the community in which they are working (this was evident from the data collected in Phase One). Students discussed the reasons why children live in CYCCs. Thereafter, they critically analysed a case study, which probed ethical and appropriate practices with children from a CYCC setting. This allowed the students to understand the sensitivity of the children with whom they would be working and to conduct themselves appropriately when volunteering (refer to Annexure L page 12-13).

Finally, based on the CUP nature of the study, aspects of relationship building and partnerships were also included in the training in order to build rapport among the students themselves and between the students and the CYCC (refer to Annexure L page 14-15). Students developed a role-play of appropriate and inappropriate relationships, which lead to an interactive dialogue on ethical interactions and practices for volunteers in a CYCC. This aspect of the training was aligned with existing literature that focused on the importance of realistically contextualising volunteer training on a specific organisational, or community, setting (Common Wealth of Australian 2006: 9). Consequently, the training was designed to furnish students with organisational information in order to prepare them for their interaction with the CYCC during the period of their volunteer task.

#### **4.3.4 Development and implementation of the volunteer task: a holiday programme**

##### **4.3.4.1 Development of the volunteer task**

These areas linked to the different disciplines of the students thereby allowing the students the opportunity to use their knowledge and skills gained from the classroom, in a practical setting.

Through discussion with the students and the CYCC staff members, a plan for the holiday programme was devised for two groups of children: 4 to 9 years; and older children of 10 to 18 years to ensure age appropriate activities:

Table 4.8: Holiday programme plan

	<b>Monday</b>  <b>Art Day</b>	<b>Tuesday</b>  <b>Sports Day</b>	<b>Wednesday</b>  <b>Education and Healthy Living Day</b>
YOUNG 4- 9	Nature Collage	Warm up	Education of healthy bodies and colouring
OLDER 10-18	Speech and Drama	Warm up	Word puzzles on healthy eating
Young	Card Making	Fitness education (word puzzle)	Planting and maintenance of the vegetable garden
Older	Art and Drawing	Fitness education (word puzzle)	Planting and maintenance of the vegetable garden
Young	Colouring	Sporting activities (soccer, cricket, volley ball, netball etc.)	Story on safety
Older	Talent show	Sporting activities (soccer, cricket, volley ball, netball etc.)	Career Advice
Resources Needed :	Chart paper Crayons, colour pencils etc. Glitter Card board Markers Colouring pictures Music	Sporting facilities Exercise education Word puzzle	Cross word puzzles Colouring sheets Story Seeds Planting equipment CAO books

The aim of the holiday programme was to provide children in a CYCC residential care setting with activities and fun filled events during their school holidays.

#### 4.3.4.1 Implementation of the volunteer task

The volunteer task occurred over three days for seven hours a day. Only the students volunteered during the holiday programme. The CYCC staff members and DUT staff members were unable to participate due to time constraints. However, some of the

CYCC staff members did assist with supervision during the holiday programme. The students and CYCC staff members met to discuss potential areas to include in the holiday programme. The three areas agreed on were: art; sport and fitness education and healthy living.

The volunteer task was implemented by the seven DUT students who participated in all three phases of the study (three students dropped out on the first day of the holiday programme owing to study constraints and personal issues). The students attended the CYCC from 9am to 4pm daily, which allowed them adequate time to conduct the various activities planned. The holiday programme was completed without any major issues. A few changes were made to the original planned document due to unforeseen circumstances such as the lack of music equipment by the CYCC to allow the children to use music in their talent show. Additionally, during day two, the students opted to do Zumba (dance exercises) with the children, using music off their cell phones even though it was not ideal for sound distribution, but the children thoroughly enjoyed this activity.

#### **4.3.5 Summary: Phase Two**

Based on the analysis of the findings and the reviewed literature in Phase One, Phase Two focussed on training students and preparing them for the volunteer task. The data collected from Phase One and an analysis of the literature currently available governed the content that was included in the volunteer training programme. Through the training, students gained knowledge and skills in preparation for their participation within the CUP and for their role as a volunteer. Upon completing the volunteer training students then engaged in volunteer task-the holiday programme with the children as the CYCC.



#### **4.4 CONCLUSION OF CHAPTER FOUR**

In Phase One data collection took place through focus group interviews with the objective of exploring the participants' understanding and experience of the following concepts: community engagement; volunteerism; community university partnership; Social Contract Theory and Ethics of Care Theory; perceptions of care for children (students and the staff of the CYCC); and students' experience of working with children.

The focus groups- as well as recommendations of the participants in the focus groups also-contributed to the design of the volunteer training programme curricula. The findings suggested that prior to participating in the study, participants had ambiguous knowledge relating to concepts associated with CE, volunteerism and CUP. Despite some of the participants having experience in CE, volunteerism and CUP, the participants had variable levels of understanding of relevant concepts prior to their participation in the study. Consequently, the volunteer training curricula was designed to fill these gaps relating to CE, CUPs and volunteerism. Importantly, none of the participants had knowledge of the theories guiding this study, hence the training programme included materials that addressed the theoretical framework identified as being relevant to the volunteer programme.

The reviewed literature, analysed data and participant recommendations were used as a foundation for designing the content for the volunteer training programme. Special attention was given to filling the gaps identified in Phase One. This culminated in four learning objectives or dimensions being included in the curricula namely, ethics and values; professional conduct; theories guiding volunteerism and organisational conduct of volunteerism. Students undertook the training over a three-week programme. Upon completion of the training, the participants met to plan and develop a holiday programme which formed part of the students' volunteer task.

## **CHAPTER FIVE: EVALUATION PHASE**

### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

According to Volunteer Now (2012: 18), “evaluation is the process involved in making an assessment or judgement, comparing what actually occurred to what had been intended. In order to do this, certain information is needed, and the process of gathering the information is often defined separately as ‘monitoring’”. Typically, the evaluation of volunteer programmes can be implemented in three ways. The first is through an “exit interview” whereby the volunteers are either interviewed or fill out a questionnaire based on their experience. Through such a tool, successes, weaknesses, organisational factors, and recommendations are received to assist in improving the programme. The next tool is a “satisfactory survey” which is ideal if the volunteer numbers are too high for one-on-one interviews. Finally, the “programme evaluation” is a method which focuses on the overall volunteer programme, the processes of the volunteer programme and the outcome of the programme (Hospice New Zealand 2013: 24).

In this instance the volunteer programme evaluated the following themes: CE, volunteerism, CUP and the volunteer training programme. The evaluation phase is when the parties involved analyse whether aims were met, how they were met, methods used, what worked and what did not work, and what can be done differently to improve the programme. Mulvihill, Hart, Northmore, Wolf and Pratt (2011: 3) point out the following aspects to consider when developing an evaluation tool: (1) clear understanding on what is being measured and the reasoning; (2) areas of influence; (3) adjusting and filling gaps; (4) unforeseen results; and (5) resources. The authors further add that “...when evaluating a suite of diverse projects, it may be more effective to agree on some collective priorities and recognise a plurality of approaches in achieving

those” (Mulvihill *et al.* 2011: 3). These aspects were adopted in Phase Three of this study to ensure that a comprehensive evaluation approach was developed.

Evaluation forms an assessment to analyse whether the goals of engagement were achieved (Queensland Government 2017: 69). Evaluation within CE could have three possible outcomes: firstly, the “summative” evaluation determines whether the goals were achieved; secondly, the “formative” evaluation identifies gaps and areas for improvement and solutions; and finally, “research-based” evaluation which contributes to CE knowledge with the potential to improve existing knowledge and practices (Queensland Government 2017: 69).

Benefits of the process of monitoring and evaluation are as follows: it forms a representation of the principles of CE to the HEI and the community partners; it serves as an analysis of strengths, weakness and reasoning; identifies strengths and builds on them while correcting gaps and weaknesses; it increases success for further CE activities; it adopts learnings for future CE activities (Queensland Government 2017: 69). Whenever possible, all the participants-including the community members-need to be actively involved in the evaluation process because evaluation is fundamentally a learning exercise from which all can benefit.

According to Volunteer Now (2012: 18) the evaluation stage is the final phase. The areas that are evaluated depend on the organisers’ focus such as the effectiveness of the programme and achievement of the aims (Volunteer Now 2012: 18-19). Monitoring involves gathering data during the planning and implementation stages, which will also depend on the evaluation criteria that are set. Monitoring can be done through observations or volunteers can give direct feedback through evaluation forms and reflective interviews (Volunteer Now 2012: 19). Analysis consists of making sense of the information that was gathered. This is done through “collating, categorising and

summarising the information” thereafter, interpreting the information against the aim of the training programme (Volunteer Now 2012: 20).

The final stage is forming recommendations based on the information gathered to improve the quality of the training (Volunteer Now 2012: 20; Commonwealth of Australia 2006: 12). This study adopted and adapted the aforementioned monitoring and evaluation processes and the literature mentioned in Chapters Two and Four was used to evaluate the four elements of this study: CE; CUPs; volunteerism; and the volunteer training programme. A set of criteria to evaluate training programmes includes four factors: criteria for evaluation; monitoring; analysis and recommendation (Volunteer Now 2012: 18-20).

## **5.2 PHASE THREE: EVALUATION PHASE: RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS OF THE ONE-ON-ONE INTERVIEW**

Only the DUT student volunteer sample group took part in this phase. The DUT staff and CYCC staff members did not participate in the training or the volunteer task, due to time constraints and a lack of mutual availability. The purpose of the one-on-one interviews was to conduct a reflective exercise to assist the researcher:

- in assessing the changes that may have occurred in students’ understanding of the key concepts of the study, and
- to reveal the strengths and weaknesses of the volunteer training programme and community-university partnership. It also allowed for reflection on how the training programme could be improved.

The one-on-one interviews with seven students will be discussed under the following categories based on the evaluation of the volunteer training programme:

- Students' perceptions of the volunteer training programme;
- Students' understanding of: CE post-volunteer task; volunteerism post-volunteer task; CUP post-volunteer task;
- Strengths and challenges faced by students: as volunteers; within the partnership; as facilitators of the volunteer task; with respect to their supervision by the CYCC; with the training and with the programme
- Impact on the students' self-development and self-awareness
- Students' recommendations

### **5.2.1 Students' perceptions of the volunteer training programme**

#### **5.2.1.1 Students' views of the overall volunteer training programme**

Two themes emerged under the category of what students felt about the volunteer training programme, namely, (1) clarification and information; and (2) Philosophy of Ubuntu.

- Theme 1: Clarification and information

Five of the ten students described their perception of the volunteer training programme as clarifying and informative as the training detailed what was required of them. Students' comments were as follows: *"it prepared me..."*; *"I feel that it was very helpful, I feel like I got a better understanding on my expectations..."*; and *"having volunteered before, I had my own perspective. I have always volunteered but never gone through training for volunteering-so it just gave me another angle of how to approach things"*.

Ideally, volunteer training programmes should outline volunteers' expectations, roles and guidelines (Council of Higher Education 2006, cited in Maistry and Thakrar 2012: 63; National Youth Council of Ireland 2007: 11-12). Through the inclusion of roles, rules, guidelines and expectations in volunteer training programmes, students were made aware of the requirements, enabling them to meet the aims of the volunteer programme.

- Theme 2: Philosophy of Ubuntu

The second theme acknowledged by two students was that the training programme encourages values of Ubuntu. For instance, the students stated: *“the training as a whole, I feel that it gives me an opportunity to, it is reviving what [we] call Ubuntu because it makes me remember the importance of kindness and the importance of being passionate”* to highlight the values of Ubuntu.

Maistry and Thakrar (2012: 66) emphasise that CE has the ability to instil values of the Ubuntu philosophy in students. Grobbelaar (2017: 158) included the values of Ubuntu in her capacity-building programme, highlighting that the principles of Ubuntu encourage values of critical thinkers and socially responsible students. Thus, evaluation indicated that five of the seven students found the volunteer training programme to be helpful in clarifying their roles and what was expected of them in their volunteer task. Two students looked at the volunteer training programme in a different way by linking it to the South African philosophy of Ubuntu.

#### 5.2.1.2 Students' roles in the volunteer training programme

Students were asked to describe their roles in the programme. Two overarching roles were identified, namely, (1) contributing partner and (2) receiving partner.

- Theme 1: Contributing partner

Six of the seven students interpreted their roles in the programme as that of being a contributing partner to the decision-making processes, for instance students said: *“participation, I felt like my participation in the whole training programme was vital to me in terms of being involved”*; and *“I shared as much as I could in the short space of time that I was there...”*.

Students felt valued in their contributions to the programme. As the study was guided by the principles of CE, CUP and PAR, this perceived role of contributing partners is important to the collaboration. Such participation is ideal for CE or CUP and participatory volunteerism which requires principles of participatory decision-making and equity (Jiranek, Kals, Humm, Struble and Wehner 2013: 534; Holdsworth and Quinn 2010: 120). Such a role is critical to ensure that students are equal partners and contributors to the volunteer programme and volunteer training programme.

- Theme 2: Receiving partner

Lastly, one student indicated that his role was as a receiving partner, meaning that more emphasis was placed on the student’s self-learning. The student made the following remarks to describe his role: *“I felt the learning part was most beneficial. I know more now and I would be well informed in giving them a knowledgeable answer in what they could use, although it was more beneficial to me for the role I played”*.

The notion of passive participation as espoused by Pretty (1995, cited in Cornwall 2008: 27) aptly describes this student’s perception of his learning. Despite the need for participation within CUP, students and community partners may choose to be passive in their participation but still be learning from the team members. In such situations, the facilitator can probe responses from parties involved.

Six of the seven students interpreted their role in the volunteer training programme as interactive or participative. This may be due to the interactive nature and approach of the volunteer training programme or the PAR, which guided the research study. The remaining student saw his role as more of a learning (passive) role.

#### 5.2.1.3 Benefits of the volunteer training programme

In response to a question about how beneficial was the training programme to them, all seven students answered in the affirmative. Some of the students' reflections were as follows: *“it helped me understand that when you volunteer you ought to put other people before you”; “I learnt patience; “I had to ... mentally prepare myself for what I was getting myself into. It cleared up many lines that I did not know”; and “the training helped me indeed, because previously I dealt with older kids... You had to be very patient with the kids – that was something that I learnt from the training that we had”*

The training programme helped students with concepts of CE; aspects of self and 'being'; information on the organisation and working with children; and specifying their role in their volunteer programme. Aspects of the Curriculum of Engagement Theory and concepts of CE were evident in the responses by the students.

#### 5.2.2 Students understanding of community engagement post-volunteer task

In the category investigating students' understanding of CE after their interaction in the study, three central themes surfaced, namely, (1) Philosophy of Ubuntu; (2) mutual beneficial partnerships and (3) miscellaneous.



- Theme 1: Philosophy of Ubuntu

Three students described CE as part of the philosophies of Ubuntu using words such as mentioned below to describe CE: *“I am part of a community. I as an individual I don’t need to disassociate myself from it. Not just one person makes up a community – a community is like a group of people working together...”* and *“...my understanding of being part of a community is we need to help each other- that’s what a community is and if we are negligent of these situations- we don’t have much of a future and we are not much of a community at all- it’s just the gathering of people in the same place”*.

The African based philosophy of Ubuntu emphasises that people cannot live in isolation but rather form a community that should provide support for one another. Thus, students in the study identified themselves as part of the community and change agents in the issues faced in the communities.

- Theme 2: Mutually beneficial partnerships

The second main theme identified by three students was the view that community engagement was a mutually beneficial partnership. Students’ descriptions included: *“...while you are involved in the community, you also get something back like I got back happiness, self-fulfilment and I learnt a lot through the training programme...”*; and *“I noticed whenever you approach a community and it’s like you are going there to help a community but when you are there you start to notice that you are giving something to the community and the community is also giving back something to you”*.

Furco and Miller (2009: 51) define community engagement as “a responsive relationship bringing the university into mutually beneficial partnerships with place-based or area-of-interest based communities”. Similarly, several authors have also emphasised that CE is mutually beneficial (Jacob, Sutin, Weidman and Yeager 2015:

4; Preece 2013: 988). Three of the seven students identified CE as an activity that in addition to helping the community, enabled their own personal development.

- Theme 3: Miscellaneous

One student described CE as giving back, using explanations such as, “*community engagement is about getting yourself involved with the community*”.

As previously mentioned, a number of authors associate CE with giving back or being charitable (Bringle and Hatcher 2002: 273) However, Preece (2013: 988) argues that viewing CE as a charitable form of engagement indicates a one-sided approach and HEIs need to move away from such perceptions. Notwithstanding the argument by Preece (2013: 988), the study adopts the view that context matters in the application of CE discourse. Elements of charity in CE should not be discounted, as often charity may be the means by which an interest in CE is initially engendered. It is when charity is the basis upon which such interest in CE is sustained that careful consideration should be given to its utility in mutually beneficial partnerships. Consequently, the perceptions of these students are noteworthy.

In Phase One, themes identified in conceptualising CE were, (1) community interaction, (2) CE as an activity that contributes to community development, (3) as charitable activity and (4) miscellaneous. This phase revealed three themes namely, (1) Philosophy of Ubuntu; (2) mutual benefit; and (3) miscellaneous. The majority of the students related to CE as a mutually beneficial task, and linked it to the principles of Ubuntu while one student still associated CE with a charitable task. Students became more aware of the mutual benefit of CE as this was not mentioned in Phase One. Thus, five of the seven students’ perception of CE changed through their participation in this study and their understandings deepened.

### **5.2.3 Students' understanding of volunteerism post-volunteer task**

Students' understanding of volunteerism after their interaction in the study revealed one dominant theme, namely, altruism. Although students indicated that a volunteer does not expect anything in return, they however, gained personal growth through the experience.

Students used the following to describe volunteerism: *"taking initiative in helping out. Not necessarily wanting to gain anything back"*; and *"it's giving of yourself and not wanting anything in return"*.

These perceptions of volunteerism resonate with descriptions provided by Salamon, Sokolowski and Haddock (2011: 225). This study acknowledges the students' understanding and argues that altruism is recognised as both a motivation and benefit of volunteerism owing to the nature of the trait.

Understanding students' motives to volunteer gives research projects insights on how to retain volunteers and train volunteers according to their motives. According to Butt, Yu, Soomro and Acquadro-Maran (2017: 8-13), who categorise the motives of volunteers into four groups, collectively referred to as ABCE, one of which is known as "personal values and beliefs". Although volunteer participation is altruistic and based on a set of personal values, it is mutually beneficial as students may not expect any profit but they do gain valuable knowledge, skills and experiences through their participation.

In Phase One students used three themes to conceptualise volunteerism, namely, (1) working for free, (2) philanthropy, and (3) miscellaneous. In this phase, they used one main theme, namely, altruism. Thus, six of the seven students' conceptual

understanding of volunteerism was transformed during their participation in the training and the study and moved towards an understanding of humanitarian acts by individuals.

#### **5.2.4 Students' understanding of CUPs post- volunteer task**

In the category, investigating students' understanding of CUP after their interaction in the study, one core theme materialised, namely: partnership

While some students focused on describing CUP, other students focused their responses specifically on this study. One student provided a response that linked to two themes namely: partnership and the improving of communities.

- Theme: Partnership

Three students described CUP as a partnership between two groups of people namely the community and university or HEI: *“how well the university gets itself involved with the surrounding communities”*; and *“if there is a relationship between the universities in this case DUT and community, where the HEI tries to use their resources within the community”*.

Smith's (2016: 20) definition of CUP coincides with the students' understanding of CUP, as a partnership between a HEI and a community. It is evident that students have a better understanding of CUPs in the context of HEIs. In Phase One students recognised three themes, namely, (1) partnership, (2) sharing common goals, (3) mutual beneficiation and (4) miscellaneous, whereas in this phase students had one central theme namely, partnership. It has been observed that the students' understanding of CUP changed through their participation in this study, based on the richness and diverseness of their conceptual understanding of CUP. The study

highlights that the training programme and tasks have improved the students understanding of CUP.

#### 5.2.4.1 Students' perceptions of values needed for effective CUPs

Students indicated several values as critical to the effectiveness of CUP. The values are not mutually exclusive and hence some participants indicated several values in their answers. The themes identified were: (1) respect; (2) trust; (3) honesty; (4) understanding; (5) communication; and (6) patience.

- Theme 1: Respect

Respect was seen as being important to creating effective partnerships between students and communities, using descriptions such as: *“being able to respect the environment that we are in”*; *“respect each other”*; and *“mutual respect”*.

Several authors have emphasised the need for mutual respect in CUP (Morrell *et al.* 2015: 108; Eckerle-Curwood *et al.* 2011: 24; Brinkerhoff 2002: 216). Students within the study were able to understand the importance of respect, and mutual- and organisational respect.

- Theme 2: Trust

The second theme identified by four students is trust. One of the four students specifically emphasised trust by stating: *“if I don't trust you to come through for something then the relationship is not going to be effective so, to trust in what you are saying”*.

Associating the value of trust with CUP is not uncommon (Northmore and Hart 2011: 7). Trust is important and from the students' responses it is evident that they understand the importance of trust in CUP.

- Theme 3: Honesty

The third theme is honesty, which was acknowledged by four students. One of the four students used words such as: *"honesty, we both need to be honest in terms of our times you know that we are university students and we have classes, assignments and tests"*.

Honesty is important and goes hand in hand with trust. Rhodes University (2017: 15) emphasised the need for honest partnerships in CUP. Students were able to link honesty to their schedules as students in HEIs which also shows their understanding of CUP, including being open about their availability.

- Theme 4: Understanding

The fourth theme is understanding, with three students highlighting the value of understanding as important to CUP. Students used descriptions such as *"...understanding each other, because we are students at the end of the day and we are still growing, so as DUT and the organisation here – I think although you are older and can make more sense of this type of environment than the kids here, we ourselves are kids in regard to the helpful women who are working here"*.

In order for equal decision-making to take place, the parties need to accommodate and understand the perspectives of their partners; thus active understanding is critical (Eckerle-Curwood *et al.* 2011: 20). Within this study, the students were able to understand their roles and the roles of the CYCC staff which promoted their participation.

- Theme 5: Communication

The fifth and sixth themes as indicated by two students, respectively, is communication. One student added that communication should be “*proper and clear*”. Authors have added that communication is equally critical (Gass 2008 cited in Morrell *et al.* 2015: 115; Vaterlaus *et al.* 2015: 3). Thus, all parties involved in the partnership should have clear and open communication to ensure that all voices are heard equally.

#### Theme 6: Patience

Two students also indicated that patience is an essential value to any partnership. However, it is evident that there is a lack of literature around patience in CUP. In essence, it is assumed that patience is practiced based on the varying levels of cognitive abilities, knowledge and skills between communities and universities. Many students learned patience as per their responses in previous sections, through their participation within the volunteer training programme and volunteer task.

It should be highlighted that students’ understanding of the values governing CUP expanded and their agreement on certain values is apparent. The training programme and task played a major role in encouraging such a growth.

#### 5.2.4.2 Students’ perceptions of values practiced in this CUPs

Students were asked to indicate if the above values were practiced in the CUP formed in this study, to which all seven students replied in the affirmative. Students used phrases such as: “*we all trusted each other and the work or the fun that was had went on unhinged with no complications. I think the communication between yourself (the researcher) and the women in charge went on clearly and you were honest I think in who was coming and we all made it and we all did our part. I think so, we might not*

*be clear but it's clear in terms of the vibe and all that's happening” and “for me today was a success”.*

As previously mentioned, these values are critical to ensure the effectiveness and efficiency of a CUP, to meet its aim and be successful. Students' understanding of the values of CUP increased during their participation in CUP, as recognised in Phase One, where students mentioned the values of listening and communication, common goal, patience, understanding, ethics, mutual respect, and teamwork. However, in this phase their repertoire of values included Phase One values such as: respect, communication, patience and adding trust, honesty and understanding to the list. This study acknowledges the aforementioned values and reiterates that all the universal values should be practiced in a CUP.

Table 5.1: Summary of the values identified by students as drivers of effective community university partnerships

Values	Number of students who pointed out the value (n= 7)
<b>Respect</b>	5
<b>Trust</b>	4
<b>Honesty</b>	4
<b>Understanding</b>	3
<b>Communication</b>	2
<b>Patience</b>	2

#### **5.2.5 Strengths and challenges faced with fellow volunteers**

The students highlighted strengths and challenges related to working with their fellow volunteers.



#### 5.2.5.1 Strengths of the volunteers

The students identified one core theme: ‘understanding each other’ as strengths amongst the volunteers.

- Theme: Understanding each other

Understanding of each other as students. Two students emphasised this, using words such as: “*we all understood each other and the purpose we all came here for*”; and “*being able to be understanding of other people and where they come from and their backgrounds*”.

Within the students’ volunteer team, the students displayed values needed for an effective CUP. Within a partnership, it is important that the members practice and uphold these values to ensure that conflict within the volunteer team is avoided. This was encouraged during the volunteer training programme.

#### 5.2.5.2 Challenges as student volunteers

The students identified one central theme as a challenge amongst volunteers, which was ‘time’.

- Theme: Time

Two of the seven students indicated that time was a major challenge. For instance, the students emphasised: “*students lacked punctuality*”; “*the changing of the dates, hindered the programme*”; and “*they prioritised things and volunteering was one of their last prioritise*”.

Time, as a constraint, is a major issue within CUP due to students having different schedules and timetables. Finding a common time proved problematic and caused delays in the study. A number of authors emphasised the challenge of time to volunteerism and CUP (Braime and Ruohonen 2011: 12-19; Holland 2003: 4). Time was a major challenge in the study and should be discussed at the onset with all participants as unforeseen circumstances will always arise in such partnerships.

Other challenges highlighted by the students included: students' drop out; some students' inability to facilitate the task; aspects of trust and loyalty; miscommunication and coordination. Due to unforeseen circumstances and time constraints, owing to examinations and tests, three students did not complete the volunteer task, despite participating in the volunteer training. Bringle, Hatcher and Mutiah (2010: 38) note that retention of students within CE programmes is an issue. Additionally, it is evident that aspects of team building within the volunteer team should have been emphasised over a longer time frame to ensure that the volunteer team had a stronger bond. Training in facilitation should be included to ensure that students are equipped for situations requiring facilitation.

Despite the active upholding of integral values to CUP, students still faced challenges within their volunteer team. These challenges are commonly experienced in teams. However, for the purpose of the volunteer training programme, these challenges should be incorporated in volunteer and CE training programmes to ensure students build partnerships within their volunteer team and are equipped with facilitation skills. It is important to note that literature focuses on the challenges faced by the partnership while there is a paucity of literature relating to challenges faced by volunteers. However, as previously mentioned unforeseen circumstance could possibly arise in any task.

### **5.2.6 Strengths and challenges faced within the partnership**

The students highlighted strengths and challenges regarding the partnership with the CYCC.

#### **5.2.6.1 Strengths of the partnership**

Students identified strengths in relation to the partnership they had formed and built with the CYCC staff members. The students identified (1) transparency and (2) teamwork as strengths in the partnership

- Theme 1: Transparency

The most mentioned theme was that of transparency and this was recognised by three students who used descriptions such as: “*it is a transparent and open partnership*”; and “*everything was open*”, to describe the partnership. As previously, mentioned by the students, transparency is one of the values that CUPs should practice. Openness in a CUP allows partners to understand that the partnership is equal (Brinkerhoff 2002: 216). Transparency is important in any CUP to ensure that all participants are treated equally and are aware of every aspect of the CUP.

- Theme 2: Teamwork

The second theme highlighted was that of the importance of teamwork. Two students found that the staff collaborated with them and that all worked well together. Similarly, teamwork was also emphasised as a value needed for effective CUP. Vaterlaus *et al.* (2015: 3-4) highlights that CUP is a form of teamwork by two parties the student from a HEI and the community organisation.

Three students indicated that they had no problems with the partnership, which in turn is a strength.

#### 5.2.6.2 Challenges of the partnership

The students identified ‘postponing of the schedule’ as a major challenge in the partnership

- Theme: Postponing of the schedule

Two students indicated that the changing of the schedules due to the CYCC availability and the students’ schedules caused a challenge to the partnership. The time factors mentioned in 4.1.3.5 (Chapter Four-Phase One) regarding clashing of times is reiterated as a major issue within CUP (Braime and Ruohonen 2011: 12-19; Holland 2003: 4). Students have schedules for their lecture times, tests and timetables and the CYCC have their own schedules, which were sometimes disrupted due to unforeseen circumstances with the children. Additionally, school holidays and DUT holidays clashed on several occasions making it difficult for the students. Thus, the students agreed to organise the holiday volunteer task in October 2017 during their study period. The issue of time is a critical factor in partnerships and when there are clashes, understanding and compromise become important in a CUP.

Two students stated that the CUP did not have any reportable challenges.

#### 5.2.7 Strengths and challenges faced with the facilitating and supervising

Students were asked to reflect on the strengths and challenges faced within the facilitation of the volunteer task.

#### 5.2.7.1 Strengths of the facilitation process

Their responses elicited one main theme: availability of facilities.

- Theme: Availability of facilities

Two of the students indicated that the CYCC had some of the required facilities available for them, which made it easy for them to facilitate their role. Using words such as: *“they (the CYCC) were ready for us and if we needed something and they could assist us they did”*. The CYCC worked efficiently when the volunteers needed resources of facilities, this assisted the volunteers and the research to move along smoothly.

#### 5.2.7.2 Challenges of the facilitation process

Students acknowledged one main theme regarding challenges faced during facilitation. The core challenge was behaviour management and cooperation.

- Theme: Behaviour management and cooperation

Six of the seven students indicated that behaviour management and getting the children to cooperate in the holiday programme was a challenge. For instance, the students highlighted: *“when I gave the children an instruction, some of them did not follow through”*; and *“the behaviour of the children was a bit of a struggle. It was hard to get the children to cooperate”*.

Molepo (2015: 121) notes that managing the behaviour of children in a CYCC is a difficult yet necessary task. Additionally, Pancer *et al.* (2006: 7) add that training regarding behaviour management is needed for students who work with children. Despite the discussion of behaviour management techniques in the training

programme, students still experienced difficulties in their volunteer task, emphasising the need for more real-life training techniques to ensure students are prepared for potential behavioural challenges.

#### 5.2.7.3 Strengths of the supervision

Students were asked to reflect on the strengths faced within the supervision of the volunteer task. Students' core theme was the helpfulness of the CYCC to them.

- Theme: Helpful

All seven students acknowledged that the supervision by CYCC workers was helpful and helped during the holiday task. Students used words such as: *“strength was they could discipline the kids”*; and *“they (the CYCWs) look like very disciplined people, they know how to discipline the children, they talk to them (the children) and make them do as they need them to do in terms of behaving”*.

Supervision is an important element of volunteerism (Gazley and Brudney 2005: 134; Brudney and Kellough 2000: 114). The CYCC provided supervision through their Child and Youth Care Workers (CYCWs) and assisted with behaviour management and grouping of the children which was highly appreciated by the student volunteers. According to Wilson (2013: 160), “...students indicated that supervision plays an essential role in their development”. Supervision is therefore critical to the volunteer in ensuring that they have both support and management. Organisational staff should be included in the training and supervision to build rapport and provide support for the student volunteers.

#### 5.2.7.4 Challenges of the supervision

Students were asked to reflect on the challenges faced within the facilitation of the volunteer task. Only one student identified a challenge regarding supervision, using words such as: *“it made me uncomfortable, I felt like I am watched and I need to be careful in whatever I am doing”*.

Despite the majority of the students indicating that supervision was beneficial to their volunteer task, one student felt intimidated by the CYCWs supervision. This could have been resolved through the incorporation of the CYCWs, who supervised students, to be a part of the planning stages, which would have allowed the students to become more familiar with them as supervisors. However, the CYCC only allowed the management staff to participate in the planning processes and not the CYCWs.

### 5.2.8 Strengths and challenges faced with the training

The students reflected on the volunteer training programme and several themes were identified as strengths and challenges faced.

#### 5.2.8.1 Strengths of the training

The students recognised one primary characteristics as a strength of the training programme namely: information gained.

- Theme: Information gained

Six of the seven students emphasised that a great strength of the training was the amount of information they had gained from it, using descriptions such as: *“...it helped shape my perception of what I was getting myself into and gave me a clearer understanding of what’s expected”*; and *“everything was so much clearer for me, in*

*terms of what I was getting myself into and it opened me up to the world of volunteerism is: what it is, what it brings, what you are supposed to bring with yourself in this environment”.*

It should be noted that in a volunteer training programme, students should be provided with the relevant information needed for their task and the content should be organisation based (The Center for Substance Abuse and Mental Health Service Administration 2005: 21). As previously mentioned, students need information on the background, rules, regulations, roles and organisational context when volunteering. Through the volunteer training programme students gain clarity regarding the necessary knowledge and skills for their volunteer task (Council on Higher Education 2006, cited in Maistry and Thakrar 2012: 6; National Youth Council of Ireland 2007: 11-12).

#### 5.2.8.2 Challenges of the training

Students emphasised two challenges with the training programme, namely: (1) time (duration and scheduling); and (2) personal issues

- Theme 1: Time (duration and scheduling)

Four of the seven students had indicated issues regarding time, however, some of the issues raised seemed to have contradicted each other. One student noted that the changing of the schedule times was a challenge, whereas another student indicated that it was a challenge for them to make time from their schedules to participate in the training. Finally, two students’ challenges contradicted each other: one student indicated that training was too long and the other student indicated that the training was too short, using words such as: *“I felt we needed to get to know more about the centre as well as get to connect with each other at training so we can work really well together”.*



As previously mentioned, time was a challenge for the volunteer activities and the CUP. Additionally, concerns arose from changing the schedule to accommodate the different departments' schedules at DUT. Furthermore, while one student regarded the training as too long, another noted it as too short and added the need for more information on working in such a context. This study agrees that volunteer training programmes should be more comprehensive and in-depth to ensure learning takes place.

- Theme 2: Personal issues

Two students added that dealing with personal issues also affected their interaction in the training. For instance, the students said: *“I would say just my ignorance – I guess blissful ignorance at the time... I did not know so much was needed of me and I came into an environment like this but I am glad I did because I learnt a lot about myself”*; and *“I had to deal with personal problems and affected my participation in the training”*.

Personal issues are unforeseen and may arise. Such situations need to be taken into consideration and provisions need to be made for such eventualities. The level of participation of students depended on their own personal interests. Training sessions should ideally be participatory in nature, however, the level of participation depends on the individual.

### **5.2.9 Strengths and challenges faced with the programme**

Students reflected on the whole volunteer programme and several areas were identified.

#### 5.2.9.1 Strengths of the programme

Students identified one theme related to the programme namely, enjoyment.

- Theme: Enjoyment

Two students indicated that the programme was fun. The students enjoyed participating in the volunteer programme. Enjoyment has been posited as a benefit for volunteering by Braime and Ruohonen (2011: 19) and Pancer *et al.* (2006: 2). Creating an environment that captures students' attention is important in a training session. This can be achieved through various methods of facilitation, interactive sessions and using short slots over a period of time.

#### 5.2.9.2 Challenges of the programme

The core theme was recognised under the challenges faced in the programme, namely, time constraints.

- Theme: Time constraints

Three students emphasised time as a major challenge to the programme. Students used words such as: “...*finding time with our studies and with the organisation as well*”; and “*changing of dates and the time that we have with the kids – I think a day or two to get to know them(the kids) and their names would have been nice*”.

Time constraints was one of the most identified challenges in the study overall, as previously mentioned. Finding common times to meet collectively was difficult with academics and students from HEIs and community organisations having different schedules. Hence, students need to be made aware of such situations to avoid students becoming discouraged.

### 5.2.10 Impact on the students' self-development and self-awareness

All of the students indicated that they had grown personally from this programme through several aspects. The students reflected on their self-development and awareness through this study, using words such as:

Table 5.2 Students response on their self-development and self-awareness

Impact on students' self development and self-awareness	
Comments	<i>"I realised I have a passion for dealing with kids...my self-development was I found an interest in helping people";</i>
	<i>"after the training programme I started to evaluate myself, my values, what I value the most, what are my morals and I have some sort of morals now that guide me in the way I live";</i>
	<i>"I know more aware of my weaknesses and I grew on my strengths. I think it made me realise where I want to work";</i>
	<i>"I think because I do not come from a privileged background but I realise I have more than what these kids have... I just feel lucky to be a part of this programme";</i>
	<i>"I have learnt a lot here,... how to work with kids or how to deal with different personalities";</i>
	<i>"self- being I guess emotionally I grew as the programme pulled my willingness to do something for someone else first.... Self- awareness in the beginning of the programme I was afraid but now I am more aware of my fears... Self-development this was a new experience.... Because in my own personal life I do not deal with children at all, I am the last born at home ... I did not expect it to be this fun. It was great and I would come back again"</i>
	<i>"there is a certain role you need to play and for me it should be the leadership skills I might have especially with those kids and them looking up to me... Therefore, for me that was my self-development it got me to realise where I am in life and help me to grow. It boosted my self-awareness in the sense of my abilities with children".</i>

Personal development is an important benefit for students who volunteer (Rhodes University 2017: 10; Joseph 2016: 3). Grobbelaar (2017: 155-156) also included aspects of self-awareness and self-development in her capacity building programme.

The adoption of Barnette and Coate's (2005: 63-64) curriculum of engagement approach assisted in guiding students to understand what they know, how to act and how to become self-aware and self-disciplined. It is evident through their participation in CE, volunteerism, volunteer training, CUP and participatory research that students grew in certain aspects of self-awareness and self-development.

#### **5.2.11 Students' recommendations**

The following themes were highlighted in students' recommendations: (1) time; (2) training; and (3) interactive volunteer:

- Theme 1: Time

Two of the students acknowledged that they would have liked to have more time in the programme. Students used words such as: *"get to know the kids well enough so they don't say or do things that may offend them"*; and *"time wise as well should be better because everything feels very rushed as well"*

Participants attempted to justify why more time is needed. Building a partnership based on mutual respect and trust, requires adequate time to allow for the process of building rapport (Williamson *et al.* 2016: 61). Eckerle-Curwood *et al.* (2011: 21) add that trust and aspects of productive ways of working together should also be included in the time allocated for partnerships. Similarly, Northmore and Hart (2011: 9) emphasise that

partnerships need time to develop strong bonds and that CUPs are long-term and cannot be achieved in short periods of time. However, it was also noted that community members had difficulty allocating time solely for maintaining the CUP. The authors added that, should the partnership begin with allocating time for building rapport, issues of finding common times to meet would have been easily solved (Williamson *et al.* 2016: 61). The literature and students recommend more time during CUP to ensure that the partnership is both effective and successful. This recommendation will be discussed in detail in Chapter six.

## Theme 2: Training

Two students indicated that providing more training to students is also needed, saying that: *“this will help the volunteers to know what they are doing”*; and *“I know we did our best with the training we had but maybe one or two more days just preparing the students mentally...”*.

Learning takes time and students need to be given adequate time to gain the knowledge and skills required of them through the training (National Research Council of the National Academies 2012: 7). Training of volunteers takes time and requires adequate time to allow for retention of learning (Commonwealth of Australia 2006: 12-33). More time dedicated to training volunteers ensures that volunteers are effectively prepared for their role. This is supported by both literature and the students. This recommendation will be discussed further in Chapter six.

- Theme 3: Interactive volunteer

Two students recommended the need for interactive volunteers during training, volunteers need to participate-and said that: *“just getting the people to be open and be themselves is what you need to be when you are here- be yourself and just be open around the kids (not really truly who you are) just let them see your kindness”*; and

*“how we can make sure that we get everybody participating like a positive communication all the time to try and make sure of that”.*

Training sessions should be interactive sessions, which promote learning for volunteers. Such sessions probe volunteer interaction (The Common Wealth of Australia, 2006: 5). However, as mentioned in 4.4.1.1, students participated in different ways: some were interactive, others assertive and some were passive. Facilitators need to be aware of the levels of participation of individual volunteers and use a variety of techniques to encourage participation where required in the training programme.

#### **5.2.12 Summary of results of Phase Three**

It was evident in the evaluation phase that students did gain knowledge and skills for their roles as volunteers. However, the knowledge and skills gained may not have been commensurate with the needs for effective volunteering in a CYCC. Students identified several strengths and challenges regarding the volunteer task, the training programme, the partnership, facilitation of their volunteer task, supervision by the CYCC. They emphasised various gaps in the training that should be included in the amended volunteer training programme to meet the needs for future volunteer training programmes. The findings of Phase Three suggest the need for a more in-depth and intense training programme. The findings in this phase also suggest the need to have an outline of activities, timeframes and expectations when conducting community engagement and volunteer activities. Chapter Six will detail recommendations and the way forward for the training programme, as per the findings.

### **5.3 CONCLUSION OF CHAPTER FIVE**

Phase Three was the monitoring and evaluation of the volunteer training programme. Only the student volunteers participated in this phase. The purpose of Phase Three was to assist the researcher in reflectively assessing the changes that may have occurred in participants' understanding of the key concepts of the study, as well as the strengths and weaknesses of the volunteer training programme and community-university partnership. It also allowed for reflection on how the training programme could be improved and possibly adapted and expanded at DUT in the future.

Overall, the findings showed that students gained knowledge and skills regarding aspects of CE, volunteerism and CUP. Additionally, self-development of students and 'being' were also evident. Based on the informality, students found various challenges to the programme and recommended several changes to the programme. During training programmes there is a need for interactive learning, emphasising the need for informative sessions that ensure students are confident about the task expected of them. Recommendations from Phase Three will be discussed in detail in Chapter six.

The training programme covered the aspects identified through the literature and the findings of Phase One. However, through the monitoring and evaluation of the training programme it was evident that additional knowledge and skills need to be included in the training programme to ensure students volunteer in a manner that is beneficial to the community and themselves.

## **CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

This research aimed to develop, implement and evaluate a training programme that would prepare the DUT students as volunteers to work in a partnership relationship with a CYCC. The motivation for the study was to contribute to guidelines available to train and prepare student volunteers for their roles in communities during community engagement activities. This study sought to explore potential frameworks that served to prepare student volunteers from HEIs in general and at the DUT in particular.

The conceptual and theoretical underpinnings relevant for training and preparing students for their roles were investigated. The conceptual framework covered: community engagement, volunteerism, community-university partnerships and the notion of volunteer preparation. The theoretical frameworks, which guided this study were the Curriculum of Engagement Approach, Social Contract Theory and the Ethics of Care Theory.

The training programme was developed to ensure that students who participate in community engagement in general and volunteerism in particular, are equipped with knowledge and concepts related to community engagement. Opportunities were afforded to student volunteers to explore aspects of 'being' or 'self' prior to participating. During the orientation of these volunteers it became evident that the knowledge and skills necessary for their roles and additional knowledge on the specific context in which they are participating (including rules, regulations, appropriate behaviour and aspects of organisational ethics) were inadequate.



The aforementioned aspects are critical to ensure that students are able to apply the knowledge and skills gained during the training programme in their volunteer tasks. The volunteer training programme needed to ensure that the volunteers were effectively enabled to work with the community, as opposed to causing harm to the communities and themselves in the process of engagement.

The study used a qualitative methodology, with an exploratory and developmental research design and a participatory approach to fulfil the study's aims and to answer the research question which was: what kind of training and preparation do students of a University of Technology need prior to volunteering in a community-university partnership project? Due to the participatory nature of the study, the researcher, DUT academic staff, DUT students and the Child and Youth Care Centre staff worked together to develop and implement the student volunteer training programme. Thereafter, the sample groups worked together to plan, develop and implement a volunteer task in the form of a holiday programme. The design consisted of three phases: Phase One: Orientation, Phase Two: Planning and Implementation, and Phase Three: Evaluation.

During the development of the volunteer training programme the existing knowledge about the conceptual and theoretical frameworks which guided this study were identified in the findings of Phase One. The findings of Phase One were then used to develop the volunteer training programme which was later evaluated in Phase Three.

This chapter begins by providing a summary of the findings of this study as contained in Chapter Four and Five. The limitations of the study are then highlighted to ensure that the research study is appropriately contextualised. Recommendations for the development of a volunteer training programme for the DUT are then discussed. The

recommendations are twofold: recommendations focusing on the content of a volunteer training programme and recommendations for future research related to this field of study.

## **6.2 SUMMARY OF THE MAIN FINDINGS OF THE STUDY**

The first and second objectives of this study were to explore volunteerism as a form of community engagement and to develop and implement a volunteer training programme for students of the DUT. The literature on community engagement in general and volunteerism in particular were investigated. Phase One included focus groups with the participants to analyse their understanding of the concepts of community engagement, volunteerism, community-university partnerships, Social Contract Theory and the Ethics of Care Theory. Existing knowledge was analysed alongside the responses from the focus groups.

The findings from the participant interviews indicated that although they had some knowledge about community engagement, volunteerism and community-university partnerships, their insights were limited and lacked depth. In addition, literature on volunteerism as a form of community engagement in the South African context is also limited. Much of the literature on volunteerism in CE is dominated by American scholarship which suggests the need for context specific research and scholarship to meet the needs of volunteerism in the South African HEI environment.

The volunteer training programme was developed based on the participants' responses from the focus group interviews in Phase One. The programme ensured that the conceptual and theoretical understandings were detailed and further aspects included assisting students in the roles expected of them. Students were trained over a three-week period for two hours a week using the volunteer training guide. Phase Three

provided further knowledge, which led to the expansion of the volunteer training programme from four dimensions to eight dimensions of volunteer training. The original four dimensions were: ethics and values, professional conduct, theories guiding volunteerism and organisational conduct of volunteerism. The additional dimensions, which were orientation, recruitment, self-development and the Philosophy of Ubuntu.

The third and fourth objectives of the study were to create a partnership relationship between DUT and the CYCC. This entailed developing a platform for all three sample groups, thus, enabling the development and implementation of a holiday programme for young people at the CYCC. The partnership processes were developed at the beginning of the study when the researcher approached the CYCC to obtain permission for the Child and Youth Care Centre to be used as a case study. Initial discussions on the CYCC's needs analysis occurred between the CYCC Director and the researcher. The needs that were identified included: children within the CYCC who did not have a safe place to go home to, were left at the CYCC without any activities during the school holidays.

The researcher then developed a research proposal based on the Child and Youth Care Centre needs and gained the relevant approval to conduct the study. The Child and Youth Care Centre staff and the Durban University of Technology staff and students met on several occasions in Phase One during the orientation and in Phase Two during the planning and development of the volunteer task (the holiday programme). The partnership was built on the following values: a common aim; mutual respect; mutual benefit; trust; honesty; transparency; commitment; and dedication. These were upheld throughout the research study. Based on these values the planning and development of the holiday programme was implemented.

Phase Three of the study, which was evaluative in nature, compared students' initial understandings of concepts related to community engagement, volunteerism and community-university partnerships in Phase One, with their understanding after participating in this study. The findings suggest that students' understandings developed to some extent and students gained knowledge relevant to the conceptualisation of community engagement and volunteerism. The findings also indicate that self-awareness and self-development took place through the training, volunteering and community-university partnership. Importantly, the findings also highlighted potential gaps in the study and further aspects of training to be included such as the processes, timeframes, length of the training programme and volunteer task, context specific information, emphasis on appropriate behaviour and building better partnerships between the students and community. These findings are considered important for the development of an expanded volunteer training framework.

Based on the results presented, it is proposed that a volunteer training programme prepares students to effectively interact with communities and perform their volunteer roles. The study also demonstrates that the training prior to implementing the holiday programme did have utility-which goes some way to underscore the importance of appropriate training for students prior to engaging with non-academic partners.

## **6.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

### **6.3.1 Sample**

#### **6.3.1.1 Sample size**

The first limitation of the study is the sample size. Initially the aim was to select a sample from five DUT departments, five DUT academic staff and fifteen DUT students and a further five CYCC staff. However, due to only three departments willing

to participate in the study and only two DUT staff willing to participate, ten students participated in Phase One and Phase Two. Thereafter, three students dropped out during the implementation of the holiday programme and evaluation phase. Finally, only seven students participated in the evaluation possibly due to the gap between training and the actual volunteering. The CYCC only allowed their senior management to participate in the study. Four CYCC staff therefore formed part of the sample. Such a limitation could have been solved by approaching more than five departments with the aim of using five departments and their most willing staff and students. Additionally, community partners should have been encouraged to allow either their grassroots members or a representative of their grassroots members to participate in the study.

#### 6.3.1.2 Characteristics of the sample

The students' sample consisted of one ethnic group. Only African students showed interest in this study and one of the students found the English medium a challenge. Issues of race and language posed a limitation and should be considered in such research to ensure that students' ethnicity is respected. Although the medium of instruction at DUT is English, interpretation for volunteers (and if necessary community partners) could have been made available if and when required. Other than in formal interviews, such interpretation could have been informal as and when the setting required linguistic clarity. The demographics of the sample should be taken into consideration. For example, the DUT staff consisted of one African and one Indian staff member; the CYCC staff consisted of one African and three Indian staff members. The aforementioned interpretation delimiter could become part of protocols for conducting such research where the diversity of sample groups (participants and respondents) is apparent. Even if research is not being conducted, volunteer programmes should adopt similar approaches to work involving diversity of communities.

#### 6.3.1.3 Sample within one HEI

This study only included a sample from one HEI. An ideal sample would have been the use of different types of HEIs simultaneously. Such a sample would provide greater understandings of students in South Africa and possible needs for national level volunteer programmes.

### **6.3.2 Challenges experienced in conducting this study**

#### 6.3.2.1 Time constraints

The study faced severe challenges due to delays and time constraints in receiving ethical approval and additional delays were experienced due to mutual availability of the participants. Such delays need to be accounted for and explained to participants prior to their participation to ensure that they understand the nature of the research process and the partnership process.

#### 6.3.2.2 Evaluation

Only the students evaluated the programme. Due to the time constraints, the CYCC staff and DUT staff who participated in the study were not present at the training programme or holiday programme. The students were supervised by the Child and Youth Care Workers who were not part of the sample. Thus, only the students could evaluate the whole process of the study. A solution would be to ensure all participants are part of the volunteering processes and the evaluation to ensure that the community partners' perspectives are included in the evaluation.

## **6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE VOLUNTEER TRAINING PROGRAMME**

This study was motivated by the scarce literature on volunteerism as a form of community engagement in general and in South Africa particularly. Additionally, the second motivation for this study was a lack of available literature on volunteer training programmes for HEIs in general and UoTs in particular. The study intended to develop and implement a volunteer training programme that would prepare students to volunteer in a CYCC setting. This study aimed to provide knowledge, with the potential to be adapted and disseminated within UoT in general and DUT in particular. This knowledge could also be used in the Child and Youth Care context to ensure that volunteers, in general and student volunteers in particular, are adequately trained to effectively perform their roles in settings as sensitive as a Child and Youth Care Centre.

Based on the potential of such a training programme, the researcher developed a volunteer training programme for students from three departments at the Durban University of Technology for community engagement in general and volunteerism in particular. The development of the volunteer training programme was guided by a participatory approach, combined with a comprehensive analysis of current literature and the findings from Phase One. The participatory nature of the development of the training programme enabled all the participants involved to be equal partners within the decision-making process. Due to the developmental approach of this study, the volunteer training programme is open to further research and adaptation to suit specific contexts. Nevertheless, the study provides a prototype for similar engaged volunteer training programmes at other HEIs in South Africa.

#### **6.4.1 Objectives of the training programme**

The framework aims to provide a comprehensive guide to train students participating in community engagement in general and volunteerism in particular. The training programme was designed to prepare students prior to interacting with communities who may experience social injustices. Enabling student readiness for such interaction is critical to ensure that students are efficiently and adequately prepared for their role. In addition, the likelihood of volunteers causing harm to the community and potentially damaging the reputation of the HEI that they represent, could be minimized.

The framework has the ability to enhance students' knowledge and skills on aspects needed to ensure they perform appropriately in the volunteer role they agreed to participate in during their volunteer activity. Such a framework could not only act as a basis for contemplating social justice and the roles of student as volunteers in the realisation of the transformation in South African communities, but may also stimulate critical thinking and encourage social responsibility in students.

#### **6.4.2 Dimensions of the training programme**

The student volunteers evaluated the volunteer training programme and the volunteer task (the holiday programme) in Phase Three. The findings from Phase Three guided the content required for a volunteer training programme. The framework which should not be seen as a blueprint but rather, as work in progress, focuses on eight dimensions namely: recruitment, orientation, self-development, the Philosophy of Ubuntu, conceptualisation, ethics and values, professional conduct and organisational conduct. The aforementioned dimensions which serve as a foundation on which further dimensions could be added, are critical for the preparation of students for the task of volunteering. The training programme includes aspects of community engagement and community university partnerships to ensure that the processes are interlinked. The Curriculum of Engagement Approach, Social Contract Theory and the Ethics of Care Theory guide the dimensions. Each dimension should incorporate the values of



community-university partnerships in general and building rapport in particular, to encourage effective and efficient partnerships among students, and between the students and the community.

Table 6.1: Components for a volunteer training programme

<b><u>Dimension</u></b>	<b><u>Description of content</u></b>
<b>Recruitment</b>	<p>Introduction of the Project</p> <p>One-on-one interviews with participants on their reasons/motivation to participate (Motivations to volunteer)</p>
<b>Orientation</b>	<p>Introductions between students and/staff and the community partner</p> <p>Introduction and in-depth discussions on concepts of CE, volunteerism and CUP.</p> <p>Developing the aim of the partnership</p> <p>Description and outline of the project processes and procedures</p> <p>Building Partnership: Partnership/relationship formation activities</p> <p>Outline of the expected roles of students</p> <p>Developing potential times frames</p> <p>Language preferences</p>
<b>Ethics and values</b>	<p>-Activity on cultural tolerance</p> <p>-Defining ethics</p> <p>-Defining values</p> <p>-Reflection on personal values in relation to the self as “being” and its importance to an individual;</p> <p>-Reflection on external values</p> <p>Activity on patience</p> <p>Awareness of ways to uphold ethics</p> <p>Discussion on the ethics needed in student’s field of study</p> <p>Understanding the importance of ethics when working with communities</p> <p>Activity on active listening</p> <p>What is active listening</p>

Table 6.1: Components for a volunteer training programme (continued)

<b><u>Dimension</u></b>	<b><u>Description on content</u></b>
<b>Ethics and values</b>	<p>Introduction and explanation of the ethics of care theory</p> <p>Discussion on Tronto (1993) Elements of Care</p> <p>Introduction to and explanation of the social contract theory</p> <p>Introduction to and explanation of the curriculum of engagement approach</p> <p>Discussion on the relevance of such theories to volunteerism</p>
<b>Professional conduct</b>	<p>Activity on communication</p> <p>Awareness of professional conduct</p> <p>Discussion on conducting oneself in a professional manner</p> <p>Discussion on the role of professional conduct in the specific volunteering context</p> <p>Mentor-volunteer training: learning about the community/organisation</p>
<b>Organisational conduct</b>	<p>Reflection on values important for partnerships with the volunteer organisation</p> <p>Description on the organisation or community</p> <p>Introduction to and analysis of the organisation or community code of ethics</p> <p>Discussion on the ethical practices needed to volunteer in the specific organisation</p> <p>Reflection on values important for partnerships with the volunteer organisation</p> <p>Background information on the specific volunteer organisation or community</p> <p>Awareness of the rules and regulations of the organisation or community</p> <p>Discussion on policies that govern the organisation or community</p> <p>Knowledge and skills needed for the organisation or community (example: behaviour management techniques, communicating with supervisors)</p> <p>Mentor- volunteer training: Becoming part of the organisation/ community</p>

The study emphasises the need for a recruitment process that not only recruits students but also provides students with adequate knowledge of what is expected of them as community engagement practitioners. The recruitment phase should also focus on students' motivation to participate in the project, as student motivation influences

retention in CE and CUP activities. The data from the motivation can be used to tailor training programmes based on students' reasoning, building on students' interest.

The second dimension is the orientation of students. The students and community partners need to be orientated together to ensure that both parties are given the same information and to ensure transparency within the partnership. The higher education community and the community partner should familiarise themselves with each other. Through a participatory approach the project aims, outline, roles, rules and timeframes should be drafted and later finalised, to ensure that both communities are aware of what is expected of them. The orientation phase should also include aspects of partnership building, such as activities to strengthen the relationship between the students and the community partners, (e.g. building trust). Students and the community need to discuss and mutually agree upon a mode of communication i.e. their language preferences.

The third dimension to the training programme is self-development. This dimension focuses on an approach to aspects of 'being' as posited by Barnette and Coates (2005) in the Curriculum of Engagement Approach. Within this dimension, students should focus on building a bond between their fellow volunteers through activities that emphasise the values of community-university partnerships. Students are given an opportunity to discuss their motivations to participate and compare their motives with their fellow volunteers. Such activities promote rapport between volunteers. Thereafter, students should engage in a time management task where the student as an individual can devise how they allocate their time on activities such as study, entertainment, sports for example. Through this activity, the student is able to anticipate how much time they are willing to dedicate to the programme and whether this time can either fit into the timeframe, developed in the orientation, or be adjusted to the timeframe to ensure students' availability is incorporated. Giving students the opportunity to reflect on how they spend their time provides the opportunity for self-evaluation. This dimension should include activities entitled 'self and others', which promotes students introducing themselves and learning about their fellow volunteers.

The fourth dimension that guides the training programme is the Philosophy of Ubuntu. Within the South African context, the inclusion of African philosophies is critical to develop a framework of community engagement, volunteerism and community-university partnerships unique to such a context. Linking Ubuntu to aspects of self-history is critical to ensure students are able to relate their heritage to the principles of community engagement. The Philosophy of Ubuntu should be detailed and students should be encouraged to engage in research on this topic so that a diverse array of information on Ubuntu and the values associated with Ubuntu may be shared. The process of linking Ubuntu to self-history should be undertaken in a manner that minimises the risk of the derogation of either or both. The fifth dimension elaborates further on aspects of Ubuntu. This dimension focuses on trust and respect between the student volunteers.

Trust and respect are essential values for building strong rapport between individuals. The students need to build a bond between themselves to ensure that they are unified as a team, within the HEIs. Thereafter, the students may be better prepared to build professional relationships with community partners.

The fifth dimension is the conceptualisation of important key terms related to the programme. This dimension covers community engagement, volunteerism and community university partnerships. Concepts need to be defined, analysed, critiqued and understood by students to ensure that they are able to identify actionable meaning of the concepts in the higher education context in general- and in South Africa in particular. While contextualizing the concepts, students should also be able to link these to the philosophies of Ubuntu. Within this dimension, students are encouraged to participate in activities based on understanding and empathy. In new situations, which take students out of their comfort zones, it is important that the students are able to understand and be empathetic, as opposed to being subjective and insensitive.

Communities usually have their own perspectives and ways of solving problems and living. Students need to respect this and understand that different people think and live differently and one should be sensitive and empathetic in such situations.

The sixth dimension of the training programme is ethics and values. The students are provided the opportunity to reflect on the values important to them and values important to others (allowing them to be aware of others). Students should be given the platform to discuss the different values, the reasons they are important in the context of diversity inherent in the South African context. Thereafter, students focus on aspects of ethics in their respective disciplines. Students should then reflect on how ethics differ in diverse fields of study and work. In addition, students should critically analyse the types of ethical considerations for students working with communities. Finally, the theories guiding the framework are analysed and discussed with the students. This dimension should include activities on commitment, equality, and compassion, to ensure students understand the values, recognise the importance of the value and are able to action the values effectively.

The study suggests that a suitable combination of the Curriculum of Engagement Approach, Social Contract Theory and Ethics of Care Theory and the Key Concepts constitute an appropriate framework for guiding the volunteer training programme. The Curriculum of Engagement Approach combines aspects of what the volunteer knows with how they act and aspects of 'being'. Thus, the approach provides a cycle guiding students to use what they know, analyse how to act and become self-aware (Barnett and Coate 2005: 59-64). The Social Contract Theory is pertinent due to the nature of the partnership formed. Students working in a community based organisation such as the Child and Youth Care Centre that caters for children whose development is considered "at risk", need a formal understanding of appropriate and ethical interaction for the safety of the students and the children. The Ethics of Care Theory is suited to volunteerism, based on the nature of the partnership. The Ethics of Care

Theory governs the approach and attitude of the students in their work with the Child and Youth Care Centre and the children during the holiday programme.

Each approach or theory is unique in nature, yet when combined forms an effective and powerful guiding framework for the planning, implementation and evaluation of a volunteer training programme. Students are given the opportunity to discuss and analyse the theories used in the programme. Within this dimension activities promoting cultural tolerance, patience and active listening are encouraged. Such values are critical when working with diverse communities-as well as being broader life-skills that can be drawn on in the future.

The seventh dimension for the training programme is professional conduct which informs the students' understanding of professional conduct and professional behaviour in their respective fields of study. Students should be allowed to discuss how their fields differ in terms of appropriate professional conduct. Students should then discuss the guidelines for professional conduct during volunteerism in the community context. The values that should be encouraged within this dimension are linked to the previous dimension. It should be emphasised that communication is a two-way process. Students need to be active listeners and communicate their messages clearly and user-friendly. Thus, context specific communication activities are important. An additional suggestion for future training programmes is to include a 'mentor volunteer training' whereby the volunteers are partnered with a community or organisation member for a period of time, to learn the roles, rules, procedure and so forth, of the organisation.

The eighth and final dimension is related to organisational conduct. Students need to understand the nature of the organisation in which they volunteer, thus ensuring aspects relevant to the nature of the organisation are included in the training programme. The organisation's background, aim, services, code of ethics, policies,

procedure, rules and regulations should be explicitly reiterated to ensure that the students have a clear understanding of the process of the organisations. Students need to understand their role within the organisation and comprehensive training should enable them to perform their roles effectively. Organisational conduct should have specific aspects relevant to the type of community or organisation in which the student volunteers. In this study, students volunteered in a CYCC which required training on behaviour management, communicating with supervisors and understanding the child and youth care code of ethics. Within this dimension, students should reflect on the values needed for community-university partnerships and discuss values they felt to be important for inclusion. The activities should be conducted on the values that arise from the discussion. The practical element of this dimension is the ‘mentor-volunteer training’ which will allow students to be a part of real-life experiences in the community and with the help of the mentor to contribute to the solution of potential issues that may arise.

The aforementioned dimensions were designed to ensure that students are effectively and efficiently prepared for community engagement, volunteerism and community-university partnerships. Table 6.1 provides the basic foundational content for a community engagement training programme in general and a volunteer training programme in particular. The training programme is specific to the South African context and ensures that the methods practiced suit the needs of both the students and the communities/organisations in question.

#### **6.4.3 The approach to the volunteer training programme**

As previously mentioned the volunteer training programme can be adapted to meet the diverse needs of HEIs and their departments, communities or organisations and project aims. The volunteer training programme may be conducted over nine weeks (refer to Table 6.2), with intermittent community meetings to ensure that students build a strong partnership with the community. The training should be followed by a reflection in

week ten and thereafter, the students can begin volunteering in the organisation. Ideally, training should continue during the volunteering to ensure that students are reminded of what they learnt. This can be done through the ‘mentor volunteer training’. Students should also be encouraged to keep a diary of their volunteer tasks to allow for reflection on the day’s events and to assist in monitoring and evaluating the overall programme.

Table 6.2: Recommended schedule for the implementation of the amended volunteer training programme

	<b>Training Programme</b>	<b>Partnership building</b>
<b>Week 1</b>	Orientation	
<b>Week 2</b>	Self-development	Meeting with the community partner
<b>Week 3</b>	Philosophy of Ubuntu	
<b>Week 4</b>	Conceptualization	Meeting with the community partner
<b>Week 5</b>	Conceptualization (continued)	
<b>Week 6</b>	Ethics and values	Meeting with the community partner
<b>Week 7</b>	Ethics and values (continued)	
<b>Week 8</b>	Professional conduct	Meeting with the community partner Mentor- volunteer training
<b>Week 9</b>	Organisational conduct	
<b>Week 10</b>	Reflection on the training programme	Meeting with the community partner Mentor- volunteer training



## **6.5 CONCLUSION**

As HEIs actively implement and participate in community engagement activities such as volunteerism, it has become increasingly imperative to ensure that students are effectively prepared to play the role required of them within the context of community engagement and community-university partnerships. Higher education institutions have been instructed to produce graduates who are socially responsible and active citizens (Republic of South Africa, Department of Higher Education 1997).

This study confirmed that through participating in the volunteer training programme, students' knowledge and concepts are expanded and refined. This study also demonstrated that through a participatory approach students could provide their views on their training requirements. Additionally, through the students' reflections and evaluation of the project, it was evident that the students were able to think critically about the processes experienced. The students' recommendations were included in the adapted training programme to ensure that the training programme is effective, resourceful and sustainable. Thus, the final training programme is detailed and more intense in nature to ensure that relevant aspects are covered and students are adequately prepared. Such a training programme can be adapted for use with CYCC in South Africa and adapted for HEIs in South Africa, in general and at Universities of Technology in particular.

Despite the in-depth nature of the recommended volunteer training programme, further investigation and evaluation is required between the relevant personnel to further critique and fine-tune the programme. The programme will need to be trialled for other settings; and may require adaptation for different settings. The study posits that the training of student volunteers, prior to participating in volunteer tasks, is both beneficial and critical to the student and the community/organisation.

## **6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

- A study underpinned by the recommended training programme within a CYCC context.
- Studies with a larger sample of students, academic staff and community members, which provides more in-depth findings on the study. In addition, different organisations (settings) can also be used.
- Inclusion of communities in the participatory development approach to contribute to the content of the training programme and participate in the volunteer task.
- Studies focusing on how to ensure academic staff buy into community engagement, volunteerism and community-university partnerships
- Further studies on volunteerism within the South African HEIs, in general and University of Technologies in particular.
- A study in which the academic staff and community members are able to also evaluate the volunteer training programme and the overall volunteer programme.

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## **ANNEXURE A: Criteria for volunteers**

### **Thank you for your interest in my study:**

Community Engagement and volunteerism: Preparing DUT students to volunteer at a Child and Youth Care center in Durban.

**The following criteria is important in the study and only participants who match all the criteria will be considered:**

- Full time third year students in 2017
- Must be doing third year subjects only
- Available in August- September 2017 for training and
- October 2017 school holidays for the volunteer task
- Must have a passion for working with children and youth
  - Enthusiastic
  - Works well in a team

If you match the criteria and would like to join the study  
please email your details and  
a motivation (a paragraph on why you would be the best suited for the programme)  
to: [21121302@dut4life.ac.za](mailto:21121302@dut4life.ac.za).

[15 participants from (Child and youth development,  
Drama studies, fine art, food and nutrition and sports studies) who match the criteria  
will be,  
chosen through snowball sampling]  
Thanking You - Kristena Doorsamy



## **Annexure B- Information Letter for Students**



### **LETTER OF INFORMATION:**

#### **Title of the Research Study:**

Community Engagement and Volunteerism: Preparing DUT students as volunteers at a Child and Youth Care Centre in Durban

#### **Principal Investigator/s/researcher:**

Kristena Doorsamy (BTech)

#### **Co-Investigator/s/supervisor/s:**

Dr. M. Maistry

Prof. D.B. Lortan

Ms. H. Grobbelaar

#### **Brief Introduction and**

#### **Purpose of the Study:**

Volunteerism is one of the forms of community engagement. As a function of higher education community engagement also includes service learning, outreach and community based research (Hall 2010: 7). While volunteerism is not formalized and structured in any discipline, it nevertheless serves to promote and inculcate social responsibility and critical citizenry in students. This study focuses on building a volunteering partnership between academic staff and students of Durban University of Technology (DUT) and a community based organisation, a Child and Youth Care

Centre (CYCC) in Durban. In this partnership, the knowledge of academic staff and students partnered with, the experience and knowledge of the staff of the CYCC will be utilized to develop and implement a volunteer programme, preparing academic staff and students to develop and implement the volunteer task- a holiday programme at the CYCC.

### **Outline of the Procedures:**

- The CYCC has been approached to get consent to conduct the study
- The DUT has been approached to get consent to conduct the study.
- Upon the researcher explaining the study to you, you will then need to sign a consent form to indicate that you agree to participate in the study.
- If you agree, you will be asked to participate in a volunteer training programme to prepare you for a volunteer task with a community based organisation i.e. CYCC.
- Preparation will take approximately three weeks ( August – September 2017) and
- The volunteer task will be a week, during the October 2017 school break,
- You will then be meeting with the staff of the centre for orientation,
- Prior to the programme, you will participate in a focus group, with approximate 10-12 questions
- You will be required to be a part of a group decision-making plan- to plan the programme you will be trained on,
- A training or preparation process will then occur, that allows you to be trained for the volunteer programme,
- Upon completion of the programme, the researcher, DUT academic staff and students and staff of the CYCC will work together to develop and implement the volunteer task: holiday programme over the December holidays
- You will then be required to be a part of an one-on-one interview of approximately 10 questions,
- All focus groups and interviews will be conducted at DUT.

- The discussions in the groups will be voice recorded so that the researcher can refer to these at a later.
- All the information will be reported for the group as a whole and no individuals will be highlighted (ensuring that your identity will be anonymous).
- The results of the study will give light to: what is community engagement, volunteerism and the university-community partnership. It will also assist in understanding how to prepare student for volunteering and community engagement.

**Risks or Discomforts to the Participant:**

- There will be no risk as the data collected will be treated confidentially and only the researcher and his/her supervisor will have access to it
- There will be no discomfort to the participant

**Benefits:** (To the participant and to the researcher/s e.g. publications)

- The programme will provide you with valuable (but not accredited) training.
- You will gain field experience, and be a part of a community-university partnership.
- Research will be published in accredited journals and presented at national and international conferences
- You will be a part of developing knowledge of CE, Volunteerism, preparing student volunteers and community-university partnerships.

**Reason/s why the Participant May Be Withdrawn from the Study:**

- Participation is voluntary and you can withdraw at any time during the study
- Where there is non-compliance or incapacity during the research, a participant may be advised to withdraw
- In both instances above, no adverse consequences will accrue to the participant

**Remuneration:**

- No remuneration offered.

**Costs of the Study:**

- You will not endure any cost for participating.
- Transport costs to and from the community will be arranged for you,
- And light refreshments served at the interviews and focus groups.

**Confidentiality:**

- No identification of participants or names will be used in the study and research reports. You will be given a participant number.
- Data will be stored in a locked cupboard for a period of five years after which it will be disposed of by shredding. The researcher and supervisors will only have access to the data.

**Research-related Injury:**

- There will be no risk or research-related injury.

**Persons to Contact in the Event of Any  
Problems or Queries:**

Please contact the researcher Ms. Kristena Doorsamy on 0787899731, my supervisor Dr M. Maistry on 0822678642 or the Institutional Research Ethics Administrator on 031 373 2900. Complaints can be reported to the Director: Research and Postgraduate Support, Prof S Moyo on 031 373 2577 or [moyos@dut.ac.za](mailto:moyos@dut.ac.za)

Thanking you

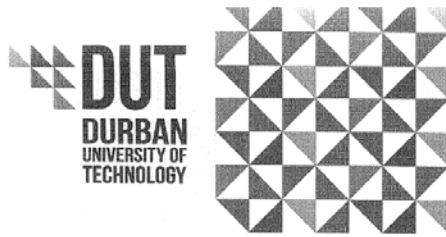
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Kristena Doorsamy

**General:**

Potential participants must be assured that participation is voluntary and the approximate number of participants to be included should be disclosed. A copy of the information letter should be issued to participants. The information letter and consent form must be translated and provided in the primary spoken language of the research population e.g. isiZulu.

## Annexure C: IREC Permission



Institutional Research Ethics Committee  
Research and Postgraduate Support Directorate  
2nd Floor, Berwyn Court  
Gate 1, Steve Biko Campus  
Durban University of Technology

P O Box 1334, Durban, South Africa, 4001

Tel: 031 373 2375

Email: lavishad@dut.ac.za

[http://www.dut.ac.za/research/institutional\\_research\\_ethics](http://www.dut.ac.za/research/institutional_research_ethics)

[www.dut.ac.za](http://www.dut.ac.za)

25 April 2017

IREC Reference Number: **REC 147/16**

Ms K Doorsamy  
11 Poona Place  
Merebank  
Durban  
4052

Dear Ms Doorsamy

**Community Engagement and Volunteerism: Preparing DUT Students as Volunteers for a Child and Youth Care Centre in Durban**

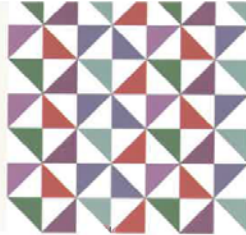
The Institutional Research Ethics Committee acknowledges receipt of your gatekeeper permission letters.

Please note that Full Approval is granted to your research proposal. You may proceed with data collection.

Yours Sincerely,

\_\_\_\_\_  
Professor J K Adam  
Chairperson: IREC





Institutional Research Ethics Committee  
Research and Postgraduate Support Directorate  
2nd Floor, Berwyn Court  
Gate 1, Steve Biko Campus  
Durban University of Technology

P O Box 1334, Durban, South Africa, 4001

Tel: 031 373 2375

Email: [lvishad@dut.ac.za](mailto:lvishad@dut.ac.za)

[http://www.dut.ac.za/research/institutional\\_research\\_ethics](http://www.dut.ac.za/research/institutional_research_ethics)

[www.dut.ac.za](http://www.dut.ac.za)

12 June 2019

Ms K Doorsamy  
11 Poona Place  
Merebank  
Durban  
4052

Dear Ms Doorsamy

**Community Engagement and Volunteerism: Preparing DUT Students as Volunteers  
for a Child and Youth Care Centre in Durban  
Ethics Clearance Number: IREC 009/17**

The Institutional Research Ethics Committee acknowledges receipt of your Safety Monitoring and Annual Recertification report.

I am pleased to inform you that the study has been approved to continue.

Please note that ethical approval has been extended till **8 February 2020**, if the research is not complete within this time, you will be required to apply for recertification three months before the expiry date.

Yours Sincerely

Professor J K Adam  
Chairperson: IREC



#### **Annexure D: Individual interview Schedule for Volunteers**

1. How do you feel about the volunteer training programme that was implemented?
2. What role do you think you played in the training programme?
3. Has the training programme helped you in the volunteer task?
4. What is your understanding of CE after being part of this programme?
5. How would you now, conceptualise volunteerism?
6. How would you conceptualise university- community relationships?
7. What values were needed for the effectiveness of the relationship- partnership?
8. Were these values practiced?
9. What were the strengths and challenges faced:
  - With the volunteers?
  - With the partnership?
  - With facilitating and supervising?
  - With training?
  - With the programme?
10. How did the training impact on your self-development and self-awareness?
11. What recommendations do you have for the preparation of volunteer work?



## **Annexure E: Focus Groups Interview Schedule- DUT Student Volunteers**

1. Have you heard of community engagement? And where?
2. What do you understand by Community Engagement?
3. How would you conceptualise volunteerism?
4. Have you volunteered or participated in CE before?
5. What was your role as a volunteer?
6. Are you aware of any community-university (partnership-relationships)?  
Explain
7. What do you understand by a partnership-relationship?
8. What values do you think are needed for a partnership relationship?
9. What do you understand by the social contract theory?
10. In your understanding, what do you think the ethics of care theory is?
11. Do you think showing care to young people is important?
12. Have you worked with young people before?
13. What do you think is important to include in a volunteer training programme?

## **Annexure F: Focus Groups Interview Schedule- DUT Academic Staff**

1. Have you heard of community engagement? And where?
2. What do you understand by Community Engagement?
3. How would you conceptualise volunteerism?
4. Would you as an academic staff at DUT encourage students to volunteer?
5. Do you think students will benefit from volunteering?
6. Are you aware of any community-university (partnership-relationships)?  
Explain
7. What is your understanding of a partnership-relationship?
8. What values do you think are needed for a partnership relationship?
9. What do you understand by the social contract theory?
10. In your understanding, what do you think the ethics of care theory is?
11. What do you think is important to include in a volunteer training programme?

**Annexure G: Focus Groups Interview Schedule - Child and Youth Care Centre Staff**

1. Have you heard of community engagement? And where?
2. What do you understand by Community Engagement?
3. How would you conceptualise volunteerism?
4. Are you aware of any community-university (partnership-relationships)?  
Explain
5. What do you understand by a partnership-relationship?
6. What values do you think are needed for a partnership relationship?
7. Has the centre been in partnership with any other university?
8. How would you describe that partnership?
9. What do you understand by the social contract theory?
10. In your understanding, what do you think the ethics of care theory is?
11. Do you think showing care to young people is important?

## Annexure H: Permission from the DUT Research Office



Directorate for Research and Postgraduate Support  
Durban University of Technology  
Tromso Annexe, Steve Biko Campus  
P.O. Box 1334, Durban 4000  
Tel.: 031-3732576/7  
Fax: 031-3732946  
E-mail: [moyos@dut.ac.za](mailto:moyos@dut.ac.za)

6<sup>th</sup> March 2017

Ms Kristena Doorsamy  
c/o Department of Public Management and Economics  
Faculty of Management Sciences  
Durban University of Technology

Dear Ms Doorsamy

### **PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT THE DUT**

Your email correspondence in respect of the above refers. I am pleased to inform you that the Institutional Research Committee (IRC) has granted permission for you to conduct your research "Community Engagement and Volunteerism: Preparing DUT students as Volunteer for a Child and Youth Care Centre in Durban" at the Durban University of Technology.

The DUT may impose any other condition it deems appropriate in the circumstances having regard to nature and extent of access to and use of Information requested.

We would be grateful if a summary of your key research findings can be submitted to the IRC on completion of your studies.

Kindest regards.  
Yours sincerely

**PROF. S. MOYO**  
**DIRECTOR: RESEARCH AND POSTGRADUATE SUPPORT**

## Annexure I: Permission Letters from the HODs of the participating departments

### ANNEXURE I



Department of Fine Art and Jewellery Design  
Faculty of Arts and design  
Durban University of Technology  
Room C60106, Dr Pixley KaSeme Street  
Durban, 4001

PO BOX 1334 Durban, South Africa, 4000

Tel: (031) 3736600  
Fax: (031) 3736644  
Email: fineart@dut.ac.za

[www.dut.ac.za](http://www.dut.ac.za)

22 March 2017

Ms Kristena Doorsamy  
c/o Department of Public Management and Economics  
Faculty of Management Sciences  
Durban University of Technology

Dear Ms Doorsamy

#### **Permission to Conduct Research in The Department of Fine Art and Jewellery Design**

Your email correspondence in respect of the above refers. I am pleased to inform you that in my capacity as the Head of Department of Fine Art and Jewellery Design, I grant you permission to conduct your research "*Community Engagement and Volunteerism: Preparing DUT students as Volunteer for a Child and Youth Care Centre in Durban*" at the Durban University of Technology".

Regards

C. de Beer  
HOD: Fine Art and Jewellery Design



Department of Food and Nutrition,  
Tel. (031) 373-2323

17 March 2017

Ms Kristena Doorsamy  
c/o Department of Public Management and Economics  
Faculty of Management Sciences  
Durban University of Technology


Dear Ms Doorsamy

**RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE FOOD AND NUTRITION  
CONSUMER SCIENCE DEPARTMENT**

Your email correspondence in respect of the above refers.

I am pleased to inform you that in my capacity as Head of Department of the Food and Nutrition Consumer Science Department, I grant you permission to conduct your research "*Community Engagement and Volunteerism: Preparing DUT students as Volunteer for a Child and Youth Care Centre in Durban*" with staff and students in our department at the Durban University of Technology.

Kind regards

  
Mrs Sue Vermeer

HOD: Food and Nutrition Consumer Science Department

DURBAN UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY  
Department: FOOD AND NUTRITION CONSUMER SCIENCES  
PO BOX 1334  
DURBAN  
4000

22 March 2017


Ms Kristena Doorsamy  
c/o Department of Public Management and Economics  
Faculty of Management Sciences  
Durban University of Technology

Dear Ms Doorsamy

**PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE SPORT MANAGEMENT  
DEPARTMENT**

Your email correspondence in respect of the above refers. I am pleased to inform you that in my capacity as the Head of Department of The Sport Management Department, I grant you permission for you to conduct your research "*Community Engagement and Volunteerism: Preparing DUT students as Volunteer for a Child and Youth Care Centre in Durban*" at the Durban University of Technology".

Kindest regards,  
Yours sincerely,

  
**Ms Colleen Lynn Lotz**

**HOD of the Sport Management Department**

## Annexure J: Permission from the CYCC

### ANNEXURE J



### **St. Monica's Children's Home**

*(Child and Youth Care Centre)*

*(Fund-raising No. 002-305 NPO)*

855 Marine Drive, Bluff, Durban, South Africa, 4052  
P. O. Box 16062, Brighton Beach, South Africa, 4009

Tel (031) 468 8656; Fax: (031) 468 1352

E-mail: [stmonica@mwebbiz.co.za](mailto:stmonica@mwebbiz.co.za)

Website: <http://www.stmonicas.org.za/>

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31<sup>st</sup> August 2016

Attention: Kristena Doorsamy  
Durban University of Technology  
Durban University of Management and Economics

Dear Madam

#### **Consent to conduct research**

We write to you regarding the above request you made in a discussion held on our premises.

Please be advised that consent is hereby granted to conduct the research on site.

Yours Faithfully

-----  
Director  
Althea Govender



## Annexure K



### CONSENT

Statement of Agreement to Participate in the Research Study:

- I hereby confirm that I have been informed by the researcher, Kristena Doorsamy about the nature, conduct, benefits and risks of this study- Research ethics Clearance number: 147/16
- I have also received, read and understood the above written information (Participant Letter of Information) regarding the study.
- I am aware that the results of the study, including personal details regarding my sex, age, date of birth, initials and diagnosis will be anonymously processed into a study report.
- In view of the requirements of research, I agree that the data collected during this study can be processed in a computerized system by the researcher.
- I may at any stage, without prejudice, withdraw my consent and participation in the study.
- I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and (of my own free will) declare myself prepared to participate in the study.
- I understand that significant new findings developed during the course of this research, which may relate to my participation will be made available to me.

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<b>Full Name of Participant</b>	<b>Date</b>	<b>Time</b>	<b>Signature/ Right Thumbprint</b>
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I, Kristena Doorsamy herewith confirm that the above participant has been fully informed about the nature, conduct and risks of the above study

_____	_____	_____
<b>Full Name of Researcher</b>	<b>Date</b>	<b>Signature</b>

_____	_____	_____
<b>Full Name of Witness</b>	<b>Date</b>	<b>Signature</b>
<b>(If applicable)</b>		

_____	_____	_____
<b>Full Name of Legal Guardian</b>	<b>Date</b>	<b>Signature</b>
<b>(If applicable)</b>		

***Please note the following:***

Research details must be provided in a clear, simple and culturally appropriate manner and prospective participants should be helped to arrive at an informed decision by use of appropriate language (grade 10 level  
- use Flesch Reading Ease Scores on Microsoft Word), selecting of a non-threatening environment for interaction and the availability of peer counselling (Department of Health, 2004)

If the potential participant is unable to read/illiterate, then a right thumb print is required and an impartial witness, who is literate and knows the participant e.g. parent, sibling, friend, pastor, etc. should verify in writing, duly signed that informed verbal consent was obtained (Department of Health, 2004).

If anyone makes a mistake completing this document e.g. a wrong date or spelling mistake, a new document has to be completed. The incomplete original document has to be kept in the participant's file and not thrown away, and copies thereof must be issued to the participant.

**References:**

Department of Health: 2004. Ethics in Health Research: Principles, Structures and Processes  
<http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/factsheets/guidelines/ethnics/>

Department of Health. 2006. South African Good Clinical Practice Guidelines. 2nd Ed. Available at:  
[http://www.nhrec.org.za/?page\\_id=14](http://www.nhrec.org.za/?page_id=14)

# Kuqala Ngawe

(It begins with you)

## Volunteer Training Programme

DUT

2017



**By: Kristena Doorsamy**

**The Objectives of this programme is:**

To prepare students for volunteering in relation to four dimensions: ethics and values; professional conduct; theories guiding volunteerism and organisational conduct of volunteerism.

Dimensions	Learning Outcomes
1. Ethics and Values	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Understanding what are ethics</li><li>• Understanding what are values</li><li>• Understanding the importance of ethics when working with communities</li><li>• Awareness of ways to uphold ethics</li><li>• To recognize personal values in relation to the self as “being” and its importance to an individual;</li><li>• To encourage other members of the group to get to know each other</li><li>• To assist group members to recognize the basis for relationships and get to know each other</li></ul>
2. Professional Conduct	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Understanding Professional Conduct</li><li>• Conducting oneself in a professional manner</li></ul>
3. Theories Guiding Volunteerism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Understanding social contract theory and ethics of care theory and explaining their importance to volunteering.</li></ul>
4. Organisational Conduct	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Understanding the context of the organisation (community) that is a partner</li><li>• Explaining the ethical practices needed to volunteer in this specific organisation</li></ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Developing an understanding of and practice for partnership relationships</li> </ul>
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## **DIMENSION ONE: ETHICS AND VALUES**

### 1. Understanding Ethics and Values

**Learning Objective:** Understanding what are ethics and values

***Ethics** (~morality) are a set of concepts deciding what is right and wrong for an individual or a group of people. It has also been referred to ‘the science of human character’.*

***Values** are beliefs whose implementations, one considers to be of high virtue, irrespective of them being either ethical or unethical.*

*Ethics and Values may differ from person to person, from culture to culture. They maybe blindly accepted/followed as traditions/dictations instead of conclusions of rational thinking.*

#### 1.1.Ethics

**Learning Objective:** Understanding the importance of ethics when working with communities

Awareness of ways to uphold ethics

1.1.1. In groups discuss ethical considerations for student volunteers:

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

5. \_\_\_\_\_

1.1.2. Secondly, discuss ethical consideration for working with children:

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

5. \_\_\_\_\_

1.2.Values

1.2.1. Self as “BEING”

**Learning Objective:** To recognize personal values in relation to the self as “being” and their importance to an individual

**Skill:** Self-awareness, awareness of differences

In your understanding, what is a value?

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In your understanding, what is “being”?

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When everyone has had a turn, tell the group:

*A value is a personal belief or feeling that something is important and worthwhile. It can be something you love to do, a way you choose to live your life, or even an idea. Values guide the way you behave and your decisions in life.*

*“Being” refers to your own identity as an individual.*

From this list, circle three values that are very important to you. You may add your own on the lines at the bottom of the list, but still choose three.



Having good grades



Having fun



Spending time with my family



Having good friends



Honesty



Being a good athlete



Being creative



Being famous



Freedom



Helping others



Being rich



Being popular

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

**Which value is MOST important to you?**

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

**1. Why is this value important to you?**

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

**2. What value do you think your closest friend would choose as most important and why?**

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_



**3. What value do you think children would choose as most important and why?**

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### **1.3.BUILDING RELATIONSHIPS**

1.3.1. Initiating a relationship

**Learning Objective:** To encourage group members to recognize the basis for relationships and get to know each other

**Skill:** Making friends

*It's important to be able to get along with different kinds of people (diversity in the South African context). One of the first steps in the process is getting to know one person at a time. Each bit of information you learn about someone will help you build a relationship with that person.*

(Ice breaker)

#### 1.3.2. Factors that are important to maintain a relationship

**Learning Objective:** To assist group members to recognize the different values needed to maintain relationships/ partnerships

**Skill:** Maintaining partnerships

In pairs, discuss the values that are important to maintain a healthy relationship in different situations. Write your answer down in activity sheet 1.2.

Please indicate the factors that you feel are important to maintain the following relationships?

### ACTIVITY SHEET 1.2.

#### Professional relationships

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

5. \_\_\_\_\_

**Personal relationships**

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

5. \_\_\_\_\_

**Relationships with Children at a CYCC**

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

5. \_\_\_\_\_

**Relationships with fellow Volunteers**

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_
4. \_\_\_\_\_
5. \_\_\_\_\_

### 1.3.3. Values and Partnership's

**Learning Objective:** To assist group members to recognize the values needed to have a healthy partnership

**Skill:** Practicing values needed for healthy partnerships

In groups of four (4), students will conduct a role-play for 5 minutes, on the following topics:

1. A positive, healthy partnership with a CYCC and University Student
2. A negative, unhealthy partnership with a CYCC and University Student

## **DIMENSION TWO: PROFESSIONAL CONDUCT**

### 2.1. Understanding Professional Conduct

**Learning Objective:** Understanding Professional Conduct

**Professional conduct** detects how one should behave as a professional. A professional body, either acting under statutory or contractual powers, may regulate this conduct.

Historically, professional conduct was wholly undertaken by the private professional bodies, the sole legal authority for which was of a contractual nature. These bodies commonly established codes of conduct and ethical codes for the guidance of their members.

In groups of three, answer the following questions:

2.1.1. In your understanding, what do you think is professional conduct in your field?

1. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
4. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
5. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

2.1.2. In your understanding, how would you conduct yourself professionally as a volunteer?

1. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
4. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
5. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

## 2.2. Professional Behaviour

**Learning Objective:** Conducting oneself in a professional manner

In the same groups, discuss how one needs to conduct oneself in a professional manner?

1.  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
2.  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

3.

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### **DIMENSION THREE: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

**Learning Objective:** Understanding social contract theory and ethics of care theory and explaining their importance to volunteering.

Two theories will guide the programme, read their definitions below, and as a team explain how they can be used in the volunteer programme.

### 2.3. Social Contract theory

*The functions of the social contract theory include volunteerism and implied (unspoken) agreement. Volunteerism, is perceived as ethics based. Parties willingly agree to be involved in agreements and relationships are entered into willingly. Consequently, due to the volunteer agreement, both parties are prepared to accept the outcome of the agreement or relationship, good or bad.*

How will this theory guide the study?

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### 2.4. Ethics of Care theory

*The Ethics of Care Theory is important for this volunteer programme as it supports the idea of social and civic responsibility that can be inculcated through volunteerism. It is that condition toward which we long and strive, and it is our longing for caring- to be in that special relation- that provides the motivation for us to be moral. Ethics of care theory can be simply understood as the activity whereby a person shows care to another person- this is influenced by their values.*

How will this theory guide the study?



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## **DIMENSION FOUR: ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXT**

### **3.1. Child and Youth Care Centre**

**Learning Objective:** Understanding the context of the organisation (community) that is a partner

*South Africa has approximately 18.5 million children (total population of children); roughly 4.5 million of the total population of children live with neither of their parents; about 5.2 million of the total population children are orphans; and approximately 13 000 children live in residential care facilities. The CYCC provides a variety of therapeutic and developmental programmes to cater for the needs of the children.*

*Therefore, a child and youth care centre can be seen as a safe place that works with children to assist them to work through the problems faced in their young lives. The goal of CYCC's is the reuniting of the child with their families once the child is both ready and there is a safe environment that promotes their development.*

3.1.1. In groups of three, discuss the types of circumstance children who live in CYCC's may have faced:

1. \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_
3. \_\_\_\_\_
4. \_\_\_\_\_
5. \_\_\_\_\_

3.2. Understanding the organisational ethics associated with volunteering

**Learning Objective:** Explaining the ethical practices needed to volunteer in this specific organisation

Read the below case study and in two groups discuss the questions that follow:

*Mpho is a 16-year-old female, who was recently sent to a child and youth care centre after, a teacher in her school had discovered that, Mpho was being physically abused in her home. She moved in with her uncle and his girlfriend, after her single mom died four years ago, from HIV. The uncle's girlfriend, Thando worked 12 hours a day while her uncle stayed at home, for no apparent reason he would start calling Mpho names and punish her physically. Mpho, was too afraid to tell anyone due to fear of being left homeless. Until, Mrs Mthembu, had noticed bruising on Mpho's arm and questioned her... Mpho was hesitant to tell Mrs Mthembu about her ordeal, but after a few counselling sessions with the school counsellor, the truth was finally*

*out. Her uncle was charged with physical assault and imprisoned, while Mpho has been introduced to a CYCC. Mpho is withdrawn, scared and very cautious.*

1. What do you think Mpho is feeling?

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2. As a volunteer, how can you assist Mpho to feel more comfortable?

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3. As a volunteer, what ethical considerations do you need to take into account?

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### 3.3. Partnership Relationship

**Learning Objective:** Developing an understanding of and practice for partnership relationships

Look back at activities done in exercise 1.2.

Varieties of values are needed to build and maintain a partnership.

1. What is your understanding of a partnership?

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2. What values do you think are important for effecting a healthy partnership relationship between the volunteers\students as part of DUT and the CYCC?

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3. How can these values be practiced in your volunteer task?

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4. Identify some of the challenges that may be experienced between the two partners in developing a partnership relationship and how these challenges may be addressed?

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5. Discuss the benefits of a partnership relationship for both DUT, volunteers and CYCC

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