

Exploring the practical implementation of two of the evidence-based parenting programmes in a small rural community.

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ABSTRACT

Many parents in South Africa face difficult obstacles when it comes to parenting. Evidence-based parenting programmes are a key to success to help parents to work in a more positive way with their children. In Touwsrante, the evidence-based Parenting for Lifelong Health (PLH) programmes have been implemented. Although these programmes have been tested in randomised controlled trials, the implementation process of the programmes has not been explored. This research aimed to explore the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes using the four phases of the EPIS framework. EPIS refers to exploration, preparation, implementation and sustainment phases. A qualitative explorative study was implemented focusing on the formative process of the implementation. Nine semi-structured interviews were used to collect the data and participants were purposively recruited. Four parenting facilitators, two principal investigators of a research study, two programme designers and one supervisor were interviewed. Data were analysed using thematic analysis. All ethical considerations were adhered to such as the confidentiality and anonymity of participants. The findings show that personal character and the internalising of programme principles were more important than qualifications when appointing parenting facilitators, that the formal training is insufficient but ongoing training provided by the programme designers and the organisation assures quality delivery, and that having been a programme participant enhances a facilitator's ability to implement the programmes. On an organisational level, retention, referrals, and recruitment were the biggest challenges. On a personal level, the exposure to secondary trauma that resulted in compassion fatigue was the biggest challenge for parenting facilitators. Challenges experienced included compassion fatigue of the parenting facilitators, and contextual factors such as hunger and excessive alcohol use by programme recipients. The advantages of group supervision for the facilitators were highlighted.

KEYWORDS

- Parents
- Caregivers
- Parenting
- Positive parenting
- Parenting programmes
- Parenting interventions
- Children
- Adolescents
- Implementation science
- Implementation



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LIST OF ACRONYMS

EBP	Evidence-Based Programme
ECD	Early Childhood Development
CWBSA	Clowns Without Borders South Africa
ISS	Institute for Security Studies
PLH	Parenting for Lifelong Health
RCT	Randomised Controlled Trial
SPI	Seven Passes Initiative
UCT	University of Cape Town
EPIS	Exploration, Preparation, Implementation, Sustainment Framework
KPA	Key Performance Appraisal
LMIC	Low and Middle Income Countries



DECLARATION

I declare that “Exploring the practical implementation of the evidence-based parenting programmes in a small rural community” is my own work, that it has not been previously submitted for any degree or examination, and that all sources have been acknowledged.

Wilmi Dippenaar

Signed:



29 October 2022



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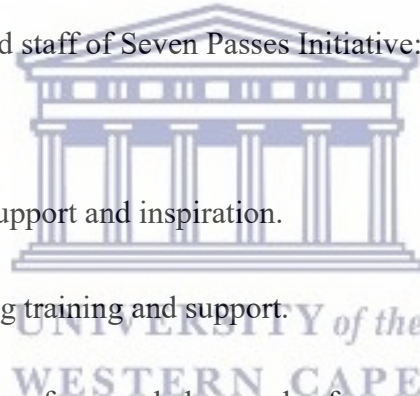


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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Background and Rationale

Parents in South Africa face substantial obstacles when it comes to parenting. Poverty, for instance, increases parental stress when parents are trying to provide for and protect their children; this can subsequently result in emotionally distant, inconsistent, and harsh parenting (Doubt et al., 2017). Positive parental involvement and consistent supervision can lead to higher life expectancy and lower risk behaviours, such as substance abuse and violence (Doubt et al., 2017). An urgent need was identified by government and international agencies for evidence-based programmes (EBPs) to improve parenting (Department of Social Development, 2014). As a response, a collaborative partnership between academics from the Universities of Cape Town, Stellenbosch, Reading, and Oxford, Clowns without Borders South Africa (a local non-profit organisation), the World Health Organization, and UNICEF culminated in the design of four parenting programmes, the Parenting for Lifelong Health (PLH) suite of programmes (Doubt et al., 2017). Each of these programmes has been assessed in the “gold standard” for evidence of effectiveness, a randomised controlled trial (RCT), and may thus be regarded as evidence-based (Rossi et al., 2019). Supervision or coaching forms part of the programme implementation. A supervisor was appointed that offered weekly supervision sessions.

This suite of programmes included:

1. Thula Sana: this programme focuses on fostering engagement in sensitive and responsive interactions between mothers and their babies. It is a home-visiting intervention for pregnant mothers until the infant is 6 months old (Cooper et al., 2019).
2. Dialogical Book Sharing: this programme creates reciprocal action between an infant and caregiver using a picture book. The adult does not read to the child; rather, it is an active dialogue between the adult and child, led by the child and supported by the caregiver (Cooper et al., 2019).
3. Sinovuyo Kids: this is a 12-week group-based programme promoting improved caregiver-child relationships through activities to enhance positive parenting. It suggests alternatives to harsh parenting and cognitive behavioural strategies to improve caregiver mental health (Ward et al., 2020)(Lachman et al., 2017).
4. Sinovuyo Teens: this programme uses principles such as non-violent discipline, house rules and routines, keeping adolescents safe, giving praise, and managing stress and anger. Problem-solving happens collaboratively between family members, and role-plays, stories, and mindfulness for stress reduction are used (Doubt et al., 2018) (Loening-Voysey et al., 2018). Both programmes used the metaphor of a rondavel (house) to explain the different principles. The metaphor for the programmes were adapted to a tree to make it more culturally appropriate for our area (Appendix O & P).

In 2016, the University of Cape Town (UCT), The Institute for Security Studies (ISS), and The Seven Passes Initiative (SPI), a community-based organisation in Touwsrante, a disadvantaged

rural community in the Western Cape Province, a settlement, which has 762 households and roughly 5,000 residents and is home to residents who work on farms or in adjacent towns, as well as labour migrants and unemployed persons (near Wilderness, South Africa), collaborated on a research project to determine whether an action media process combined with the implementation of the four PLH parenting programmes might positively change parenting practices across the whole community and therefore promote child safety in the entire population of Touwsrante referred to as the broader study. The goal of the broader study was to provide a "population dose" of parenting information (ensuring that messages are heard and then change behaviour) and to determine whether this approach, which is more practical and less expensive than requiring every parent to participate in a parenting program, can change parenting from the negative and inconsistent to the positive. The broader study was conducted from 2016 to 2019. The researcher was the Director of the Seven Passes during the time of the broader study and were therefore part of the research.

The broader study generated two kinds of data: 1. quantitative and qualitative data that this research is not drawing on. 2. A number of records such as meeting minutes, HR records, supervision reports, programme evaluations and fidelity checklists and training opportunities. For the broader study, household surveys of the whole community were conducted in three waves to assess the intervention. The first was held prior to the intervention, the second 18 months later, and the third 18 months after the second. Ethical approval was provided by the Ethics Committee, Faculty of Humanities, UCT, approval numbers PSY2012-08-01 and PSY2015-049.

Some of the key findings included:

- Caregivers who attended one or more of the parenting programmes during the study reported that they sought and received support from other caregivers; this finding was among female caregivers (Kleyn et al., 2020).
- There was a decline in the use of corporal punishment (Kleyn et al., 2020).
- Reported parenting stress and parent mental health symptoms declined over time.
- Behavioural problems among children in the 0-5 year category decreased by 33% and in the older age group decreased by 21% from baseline to wave three (Gould, et al., 2022).

The positive outcome of the broader study can be seen in the findings above. The implementation of the programmes came with numerous difficulties and challenges both in the organisation and the community. These challenges influenced the outcome of the programmes. It is therefore imperative to understand the interrelatedness between the EBPs and the process of implementing them and how delivery of the different programmes interacts. The effectiveness of the programme depends largely on its implementation. Often programmes implemented outside the confines of a randomised controlled trial (RCT) see a decline in their effectiveness (Gottfredson et al., 2015). The broader study inspired this research and raised this research questions. The two studies are separate and independent from each other and none of the qualitative or quantitative data of the broader study was used for this study.

Although the PLH programmes were found to have positive effects in RCTs, including increases in positive parenting and decreases in harsh parenting (Lachman et al., 2017) the implementation outside of trials has yet to be researched. Thus, although the outcomes of the implementation have been recorded, the process of implementation has not.

A major challenge in the health community is to implement evidence-based or proven interventions in the real world. Implementation research is critical in providing information to decision-makers on how the possibility of theory can be implemented in practice (Peters et al., 2013). Factors that contribute to the complexity of implementation include the unpredictability of life, the characteristics and attributes of the staff facilitating the programmes, the staff's understanding and knowledge of the programme, and their beliefs about the programme principles (Kelly & Perkins, 2012).

The effectiveness of the treatment or programme is not the deciding factor about whether it becomes widely used or scaled-up. The strength of the evidence contributes to a programme's possible adoption but a more extensive clarification for its non-adoption needs to include elements such as contextual factors, including the organisation's ability to implement the programme, the staff's ability to internalise the principles of the programme, and whether the community is ready for uptake (Bauer & Kirchner, 2020).

When implementers collaborate with other stakeholders involved in research, policy making, and programme management, they can influence the identification, design, and conduct phases of research. Collaboration is important to ensure that these processes are accurately followed from the beginning rather than carried out separately from the implementation process. It also ensures that scientific exploration forms part of problem-solving of the implementation processes. It further plays an integral part at the community level in increasing the accountability of community organisations, revealing underachievement, and identifying neglected issues (Peters et al., 2013).

Implementation research is not something that happens only once programmes are implemented but should rather be viewed as a fundamental part of the planning and continued delivery.

Implementation is not done primarily for other researchers. If researchers and implementers work together, implementers can use their understanding of the context and researchers can use their knowledge of methods and science to benefit and scale programmes (Peters et al., 2013).

The purpose of this study will therefore be to explore the practical implementation in a rural community of two of the four evidence-based PLH parenting programmes, Parenting for Lifelong Health for Parents and Teens known as Sinovuyo Teens and Parenting for Lifelong Health for Children ages 2-9 known as Sinovuyo Kids. <https://www.who.int/teams/social-determinants-of-health/parenting-for-lifelong-health>

Understanding the implementation of EBPs can identify shortcomings and gaps at the provider or delivery system level that can undermine effectiveness. Researching the implementation of any EBP can therefore support the implementation of the programme in the future. Factors influencing the possibility of taking programmes to scale can be identified, thus potentially making it more possible to make programmes widely available.

1.2 Overview and Problem Statement

There is sufficient global literature to suggest that parent programme is important to improve the parent-child relationship (World Health Organization, 2016). It shows effective results for children with high levels of troublesome behaviour. There is evidence for positive results, of which efficient crime prevention is one (Hutchings et al., 2007). There is also research showing that in order for a programme to be effective, evidence is required not only about the effectiveness of the programme itself but also the effectiveness of the implementation of the

programme (Gottfredson et al., 2015). In South Africa it is central to national development and violence prevention to support parents in their role as caregivers (Wessels et al., 2016), but there remains an urgent need for evidence-based parenting interventions to be implemented, tested, and evaluated (Doubt et al., 2017). Touwsrante is the only place in the world where all four of the PLH programmes are implemented simultaneously (Parker, 2018a). The programmes are embedded in a system of care, as suggested by early implementation studies of Sinovuyo Teens (Shenderovich et al., 2019). The Seven Passes Initiative (SPI) is a civil society organisation based in Touwsrante that delivers education, early childhood development (ECD), and youth development programmes. Although RCTs have been conducted for the parenting programmes (Baumann et al., 2018), a study of the implementation process of these programmes has not been done. Understanding the implementation is crucial for organisations implementing these programmes. Knowledge of implementation is also crucial to government in their search for scaling measures. Different factors influence the successful implementation of EBPs.

The research aims to establish the role of staff in the implementation process. For this study, the focus will be on the four core components discussed by Fixsen et al. (2005): staff selection and employment processes, training opportunities provided to staff before and during employment, coaching and consultation processes for staff (in which supervision played a considerable role in this research), and the evaluation of staff and programmes and the fidelity with which programmes were delivered.

This research aimed to address the gap between the implementation of EBPs as part of a RCT and in a real-life setting by exploring the practical implementation of the evidence-based PLH parenting programmes in a rural community. Science-based research of the implementation of parenting programmes used at the SPI has never been done and is urgently needed to enhance

the positive outcomes of the programmes.

1.3 Research Questions

A critical review of the process of the practical implementation of the evidence-based PLH parenting programmes in a rural community raises the following research questions:

1. How does staff selection influence the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes in a rural community?
2. What are the components of the pre-service and in-service training provided, and by whom, in the PLH parenting programmes in a rural community?
3. What ongoing consultation and coaching processes are implemented, and by whom, in the PLH parenting programmes in a rural community?
4. How do staff and programme evaluation and fidelity contribute to the practical implementation of the PLH parenting programmes in a rural community?

1.4 Aims and Objectives of the Study

1.4.1 Aims of the Study

The aim of the study was to explore the practical implementation of two evidence-based PLH programmes in a rural community.

1.4.2 Objectives of the Study

1. Explore the staff selection processes in the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes
2. Explore the pre-service and in-service training that is offered and needed in the

- implementation of the PLH parenting programmes
3. Explore the on-going consultation and coaching that is implemented and needed in the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes
 4. Explore staff and programme evaluation and fidelity in the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes in a rural community

1.5 Research Methodology

Qualitative research methods were utilised for this study. Qualitative research is characterised by inductive and open-ended methods (Maxwell & Reibold, 2015). Feelings and thoughts of the research participants can be accessed by researchers through qualitative research. This enables the development of an understanding of the interpretation that people assign to their experiences (Sutton & Austin, 2015). The use of a qualitative approach ensured the in-depth exploration of the implementation of the two PLH programmes in a rural community.

1.6 Research Approach and Design

Qualitative research was conducted using an explorative and descriptive approach within a case study design. To gain a more extensive understanding of a community, situation, or phenomenon, with enough background information to grant a study, an explorative and descriptive approach can be used (Bless et al., 2013). Case study research is a “linear but iterative process” (Yin, 2014, p xxii). Seeing that the SPI is the first organisation to implement the four PLH programmes, including the two Sinovuyo programmes, a case study was used. For this study, information from different role-players and other data sources in the implementation of the programmes were used as sources.

1.7 Significance of the Study

According to Olofsson, Skoog, and Tillfors (2016), the theoretical basis of current implementation research is frail and should be driven by theory in the future (Olofsson et al., 2016). This study will add to the literature of implementation research. The importance of applying effective implementation frameworks in the NPO sector has not received thorough attention and this study might add to the knowledge (Powell & Beidas, 2016).

It can improve the implementation of the existing programmes in South Africa and other communities. Implementation outcomes are influenced by the interaction between inner and outer components. This study will inform non-profit organisations on the environments within organisations and policy and funding environments as well as the cultures of different communities (Moullin et al., 2020). Research about the influencing factors of implementation on the outer level is most unknown and of value to organisations and government. Factors in play are public policies, funding opportunities and contracting principles (Leeman et al., 2019).

The importance of finding the right fit for an organisation, community and the EBP is really important. Staff in different unique settings can improvise on programmes and that can influence the effectiveness of the programme (Sarkies et al., 2022).

Implementation science and cultural adaptation offer useful tools and insights about how and how much context and/or therapies should be tailored to improve the use of evidence-based treatments in a variety of settings and populations. Creating pathways between these two disciplines can offer a better way for putting the finest accessible programmes into use (Cabassa & Baumann, 2013). Carra-Pardone et al (2021) state that interventions should demonstrate the following: (a) the necessity of embracing a cultural definition of prevention characterized by national commitments with expected shared efforts by governments and civil society, (b) the

necessity of carefully considering the impact of context when promoting prevention initiatives in LMICs, (c) the iterative, non-linear, and multifaceted nature of promoting a culture of prevention in LMICs, and (d) the importance of carefully considering Implications for enhancing preventative practices in LMICs (Parra-Cardona et al., 2021).

The findings of this study might be of significance to service delivery organisations which deliver EBPs, who can also advocate for the importance of implementation science in the non-profit sector. This, in turn, can result in scalable programmes that can reach more parents in South Africa. Improvements in parenting because of implementation in one sight might encounter resistance and not have similar benefits in other areas. Practice change across the board is challenging to accomplish (Sarkies et al., 2022).

The abovementioned can influence parenting in South Africa and therefore children's well-being. In an article written during the COVID pandemic and lockdown, the importance of parenting programmes were highlighted and explained that the world needs support for parents just as much as the need for a vaccine against SARS-CoV-2 (Perks & Cluver, 2020). Evidence from low to high income countries show the effectiveness of parenting programmes. Families who participate in evidence-based parenting programmes engage in constructive strategies to address conflict, improve relationships, reduce substance abuse and parenting stress (Perks & Cluver, 2020).

There are many successful EBP available but a problem identified by Bauer (2020) is the factors that hinders uptake. It can take 17-20 years to upscale an EBP into practice. This study can help identify contextual factors that inhibit the process (Bauer & Kirchner, 2020).

1.8 Definitions of Terms and Concepts

Parents: All those who provide important and/or primary care of children (Bray & Dawes, 2016).

Parenting: The relationships between children/adolescents and the adults who care for them, and the activities required in raising them. Parenting is influenced by community and the values and norms of the wider society. It is also seen as a cultural, gendered practice (Bray & Dawes, 2016).

Positive parenting: This is described as “warm, consistent parenting where parents have good relationships with their children, use non-violent forms of discipline and exercise supervision over their children as appropriate to their developmental stages” (Gould & Ward, 2015, p. 3).

Parenting programmes: Axford, Bywater, Blower, Berry, Baker and Morpeth describe these as “manualised, structured interventions for parents that include clear guidelines for implementation and fidelity and are designed to modify parenting behaviour in order to improve child behaviour and/or prevent or reduce child maltreatment and neglect” (2004, p. 397).

Implementation: Fixsen et al. define implementation as a plan to apply a programme or activity with a measurable extent through a set of specific activities (Fixsen et al., 2005).

Implementation Science: The scientific research of methods to advance the methodical uptake of research findings and evidence-based interventions into practice to enhance the efficacy and quality of care (Nilsen, 2015).

1.9 Outline of Chapters

Chapter 1

Chapter 1 presents an introduction to the study of the exploration of the practical implementation of two evidence-based PLH programmes. It provides background and context to the research. It also focuses on the research questions, aim and objectives of the study, research design, methodology, ethical considerations, and significance of the study.

Chapter 2

Chapter 2 addresses the theoretical framework of the research and gives a literature review of the theoretical framework. The chapter explore other frameworks and focusses on the EPIS framework that was chosen.

Chapter 3

Chapter 3 presents a literature review of parenting and parenting styles as a background to the study. It then further concentrates on parenting programmes, both internationally and nationally. Literature on implementation science is also reviewed and implementation research concerning the implementation of parenting programmes. Attention is given to different implementation frameworks and expanded on the EPIS framework.

Chapter 4

Chapter 4 provides details of the research methodology that was followed. It includes the study design and approach, population, data collection methods, analysis and verification, limitations, and ethical considerations.

Chapter 5

In chapter 5 the detailed themes and results of the research and the discussion of the findings of the qualitative research that was conducted using an explorative and descriptive approach within a case study framework are given.

Chapter 6

Chapter 6 provides a summary of the study that was done. It also considers the limitations of the study. The chapter closes with applicable conclusions and recommendations for the Seven Passes Initiative and other different sectors.



CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on exploring the theoretical framework of this study for the purpose of gaining an understanding of the implementation of two evidence-based PLH programmes. This is done by using four core components of implementation. The first part of this chapter explores implementation science, followed by a comprehensive description of the four core components of implementation according to Fixsen (2005) as the supporting theory used in this study (Fixsen et al., 2005).

2.2 Implementation Science

To implement something is to use it. Implementation practice, policy, and science are concerned with the use of innovations in situations where they can add value. When innovations are fully and effectively used in practice, we can describe Implementation Science as a study to see which factors will influence this use. As implementation knowledge is developed, we find that the goal of Implementation Science is to establish what is needed and what is not (Fixsen et al., 2019).

Implementation science is a discipline that shows potential for researchers and implementers who want to study responses beyond a controlled environment to work together to advance understanding of how to achieve programme effectiveness. These partnerships can have an effect on numerous levels of practice and policy (Douglas & Burshnic, 2019).

As a factor in producing socially significant outcomes, implementation must be done on purpose. Effective implementation methods must be teachable, learnable, doable, and assessable in practice so that scalable units can be replicated, expanded, and improved. Scalable aspects of interventions include both effective innovations and the effective implementation of those innovations (Fixsen et al., 2019).

Effective implementation is often the missing link in human service systems; it is most often the reason for the lack of progress in education, social services, and prevention of debilitating and costly diseases. This happens where effective innovations have been available and policies have been encouraging, but implementation support has been weak or missing. Without attention to effective innovations, effective implementation, and enabling contexts, socially significant outcomes cannot be produced on purpose, and thus wellbeing will remain tolerable (Fixsen et al., 2019).

There are many different implementation frameworks. Frameworks refer to a specific set of ideas that formulate theories and data in a certain accepted way. Frameworks can consist of a prescribed process of how implementation must be conceptualized and imposed (Bauer et al., 2015). To be able to select the best suited framework for a specific study it is important to know the differences in the models and frameworks even though there are similarities as well (Nilsen, 2015). Nilsen (2015) discussed the three main purposes of the use of frameworks, models and theories for implementation as translating research into practice, what plays a role in the result of implementation and evaluating implementation. Five categories of theoretical processes are characterised: Process models, Determinant frameworks, Classic theories, Implementation theories and Evaluation frameworks (Nilsen, 2015).

For this study the EPIS framework will be used. EPIS - Exploration, Preparation, Implementation and Sustainment. The EPIS framework focusses on important processes that characterize and show the implementation development and specify factors contributing across contexts, phases and within different levels. It also mentions linking outer and inner contexts as well as the role of the innovation designers <https://episframework.com/>.

2.2.1 History of implementation science

Implementation science became a sustained discipline when Everett Rogers published *Diffusion of Innovations* (Rogers et al., 2019). Drawing from the agriculture and health sectors, he hypothesised that there were more factors involved with the process of influence, than just the innovation itself. He saw implementation as a social process with numerous causal influences well beyond the evidence supporting the change itself (Bauer & Kirchner, 2020). Other influencers during the time of Everett Rogers were Weiss and Bucuvalas (Conklin et al., 1982). They were involved with the use of academic research and decision-making to influence social change through policy intervention. Another influence was the formation of registries for administering clinical trials (Barr et al., 2021).

Rogers is well-known for the presentation of the S-shaped curve that explained the acceptance of an innovation from early uptake and for those with a slower rate of response (Estabrooks et al., 2018).

Since then, the science of implementation has grown rapidly. This development can be credited to the recognition of the gap between service delivery and science, especially in the areas of education, social services, and health (Fixsen et al., 2019).

2.2.2 Definition and objective of implementation science and research

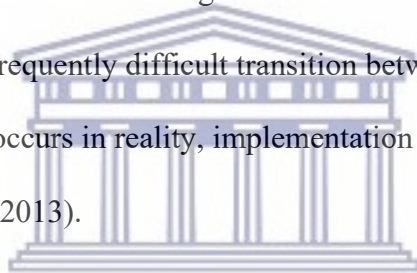
Fixsen et al. (2019) define implementation science as “the study of factors that influence the full and effective use of innovations in practice” (Fixsen et al, p.9, 2019). The words “programme”, “interventions”, and “innovation” all refer to preventative approaches (Durlak & DuPre, 2008).

When theorists and organisations try to use innovations in practice, there is a broad range of possible influences as identified by family, culture that is practice-based, supplier evidence, case studies, surveys and evaluations. For example, organisation culture, implementation environment, self-belief, self-confidence, viewpoints on innovations, the fit with staff ethics, mental preparedness, stratagem etc can all be potentially influenced. The way to set an envisioned practice in motion, is through networks which have been recognised as likely influences on the use of innovations on application (Fixsen et al., 2019).

Fixsen et al. (2005, p. 5) define implementation research as the study of the “specified set of activities designed to put into practice an activity or program of known dimensions”. Implementation processes are therefore reported in such a way that an objective bystander can view the set of activities as purposeful and realise the importance of the process. The EBP is defined separately and in detail so that an objective bystander can be assured of its power. The objective bystander should be conscious of two sets of activities: those of the EBP or intervention itself and those of the implementation of the EBP and intervention (Fixsen et al., 2005).

The objectives of Implementation Research can be seen as:

- Despite the overwhelming data supporting the effectiveness of accessible, life-saving interventions, there is little knowledge of how to effectively provide those interventions in a variety of settings and across the vast array of current health systems (Peters et al., 2013).
- Context considerations that legislators and management of the health system may not even have considered frequently cause implementation problems (Peters et al., 2013).
- By expanding and deepening our knowledge of these real-world factors and how they affect implementation, research work is essential to enhancing our comprehension of the difficulties we encounter while interacting with the real world (Peters et al., 2013).
- In order to highlight the frequently difficult transition between what is theoretically possible and what really occurs in reality, implementation research is of utmost importance (Peters et al., 2013).



2.2.3 How implementation research is used

Implementation research offers important understanding at different levels for implementers who should be aware that implementation is more than applying the same pattern in different settings, even in different countries. It is also used to measure performance and serves to make projections into the future. It can be used to compare the performances of different organisations that achieve similar results, considering discrepancies in outcomes. Monitoring and evaluation play an integral part in this kind of implementation research, often helping to determine major research questions.

Implementation Science relies on the impact of systems to be able to view the bigger picture and not tiny details of the picture. The ecological model of Bronfenbrenner (1979) is used to explain the different levels of influence (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). The ecological model gives a consistent and coherent way to investigate the interaction between the core components to the external influences (Moir, 2018).

Durlak and DuPre (2008) have identified factors that influence the fidelity of an intervention. Innovative characteristics including prevention delivery systems and factors relating to organisational capacity such as communication, self-efficacy and leadership. On the next level factors include provide characteristics such as perceived needs for the intervention, local needs and benefits of the intervention and on the outer level, community factors such as politics, funding, policy. These factors are similar to the core components, the organisational and the context components discussed by Fixsen et al. (2005).

Understanding implementation at small scale can be invaluable in thinking through how to implement a programme at large scale. The significance of context in the successful implementation of programmes has implications for the manner in which these interventions are scaled up. When small-scale interventions are scaled to national strategies, there is often a failure in implementation because the different real-world settings are not considered. The success lies in the interaction between the intervention and how the real world interacts with it.

Implementation research also has excellent advantages when it allows for a repetitive approach to improvement (Peters et al., 2013).

2.2.4 What implementation research entails

A broad definition of implementation research is “the scientific investigation into questions concerning implementation” (Peters et al., 2013). This definition can explore many different aspects of implementation, including contextual factors influencing implementation such as poverty or traditional beliefs, the process of implementation, and the end products or outcome of an intervention (Peters et al., 2013).

According to Durlak and DuPre (2008), implementation research focuses on the implementation of an EBP when it is delivered in a particular setting. They distinguish eight different aspects to implementation. *Fidelity* is the first aspect and is concerned with the degree to which an intervention correlates with the original intended programme. *Dosage* is the next aspect and refers to the frequency at which the programme was delivered. *Quality* focuses on how understandable and correctly the elements have been delivered. The degree to which the programme holds the attention of the participants is known as *participant responsiveness*. The uniqueness of the programme and how the theory and practices can be distinguished is known as *programme differentiation*. Other additional characteristics include the monitoring of standard conditions, the rate of involvement and representativeness of programme participants, and adaptation, which refers to changes made to the original programme. These aspects are connected but can be separated for research purposes (Durlak & DuPre, 2008).

Evidence-based interventions are vital to ensure that research increases value to improve public wellbeing. Implementation science plays a crucial role in addressing these attempts (Bauer et al., 2015). The gap between research and practice is a recurring issue in the programme and implementation literature. Implementation science seeks to bridge the gap between research and

practice by recognising and promoting the effective implementation of successful practices (Bauer et al., 2015).

The use of EBPs is growing in all sectors. To investigate the consideration of implementation science in relation to EBPs, it is important to define what an EBP is (Cook & Odom, 2013).

2.2.5 Definition of an Evidence-Based Programme

Even though there is a lot of debate around the level of evidence required for a programme to be regarded as evidence-based, it can be described as an intervention or programme that has a positive or noteworthy result for the participant (if the programme was implemented effectively). The gold standard for evidence is successful RCTs in community settings to illustrate that the programme is ready to be distributed to members of that community (Rossi et al., 2019),(Halle et al., 2013). It is important to use EBPs to bring change in communities, but making those programmes efficient for whole communities or specific families depends on more than just the evidence of effectiveness from RCTs. The implementation of these programmes is critical. If programmes have been tested and the evidence cannot be properly reproduced in other areas, the programme cannot be effective (Hutchings, et al, 2004).

2.3 Core Components for Implementation

According to Fixsen et al. (2005), there are six core implementation components that can positively affect the EBP. Two components were not researched in this study, namely facilitative administrative support and system intervention, which fall under the organisational components category (Fixsen et al., 2005). The four components that were explored are (i) practitioner training, (ii) coaching the staff member in the workplace, (iii) continuously gauging the fidelity

of the EBP, and (iv) using the information to refine the conduct of staff members that were carefully selected for the position. With these core implementation components in place, the behaviour of staff can regularly improve to guarantee the suitable performance of EBPs (Fixsen et al., 2005).

As an example, the importance of the study of implementation is highlighted in the study of the Early Risers advanced-stage effectiveness trial (August et al., 2006). The programme aimed to address risk factors and provide opportunities for high-risk children to conform to a developmental life. The programme was targeted at children ages 6-12 and used a multi focused intervention that involved the child, family and school (August et al., 2006).

Another example is of the Strengthening Families Programme. This programme targeted to address risk factors to reduce the risk of intergenerational substance abuse. The programme was aimed at primary school children. Parenting training, social skills training for children and family skills training were offered. After testing it was found that it reduced risk factors for substance abuse in parent, families and children (Gottfredson et al., 2006).

Both programmes failed to duplicate positive results. Early Risers with new participants and Strengthening Families after more rigorous testing. The barriers that hindered successful implementation were identified as organisational barriers such as high staff turnover, the responsibility and accountability of organisational management, and downsizing in the Early Risers programme and in the Strengthening Families programme the following aspects were identified: Staff skills and competencies to make a meaningful impact on participants, high staff turnover, lower quality facilitation, the environment for the youth to socialize together were negative and the programme were not sensitive to the specific population (August et al., 2006), (Gottfredson et al., 2006).

2.3.1 Staff Selection

Staff selection is an important implementation driver but is not often discussed or evaluated. The selection of staff such as the practitioners, trainers or coaches, and staff of the purveyor groups or in the parenting programme area (non-profit organisations), by affecting implementation via whether staff are suited to their positions, and adequately trained and supported. Not everyone will be suited for every role, and specific knowledge of the programme might be more important for some than others (McDaniel et al., 1994). Different techniques used during the hiring process, such as role-plays and behaviour vignettes, and the background and education of the interviewee, can be just as crucial for intervention outcomes as the intervention itself.

Van den Berg (2008) agrees with this viewpoint. He argues that a number of employees didn't understand what the job entailed. People with specific characteristics also performed better at the job. To decrease staff turnover these and other factors, such as understanding the job description better, behavioural rehearsals during the interview process and specific personality characteristics need to be part of the staff selection process (Van den Berg, 2008).

Fixsen et al (2018) describe best practice for staff selection and recruitment processes with the following: the job description is clear, human resource staff understand the expectations and accountability as well as the essentials for employment, behavioural vignettes and behavioural rehearsals, the applicant's ability to accept feedback and the change of behaviour and the skills and abilities of interviewers to assess the new job applicants successfully (Fixsen et al., 2018).

According to research (McDaniel et al., 1994), behavioral vignettes were the most crucial element that could be identified as a way to identify the most productive employees during the

hiring process. Behavioural vignettes are succinct explanatory sketches that place concepts in a tangible setting and show us how abstract concepts manifest in real-world situations. When interviewed, the productive employees gave very different answers than the low achievers. They responded better to instruction, had higher cognitive ability, and performed better during the interview process.

They also put in a lot more time at the organisation than the low achievers did (McDaniel et al., 1994). In a related study, it was discovered that role-play situations that potential workers acted out during a second interview process for therapists resulted in improved implementation.(Wessels & Ward, 2015).

In another study, recruiters looked for characteristics like a sense of humor, compassion, and the propensity to take an active role in gaining knowledge about child development and how to apply it in context. This study examined the core implementation elements for the Multidimensional Treatment Foster Care Program, which includes home visits.(Marks & Gersten, 1998).

The choice of additional staff is crucial at the organizational level. Positions like admin staff, coaches, instructors, and examiners fall under this category. For many programs, it was crucial that coaches and trainers were also participants in the program and had in-depth understanding of that program from personal experience. (Fixsen & Blase, 1993).

The facilitator's character, not their schooling or prior work experience, heavily influences the likelihood that an intervention will be carried out faithfully. Open mindedness, persistence in the face of difficulty, skill level, and responsibility are some character traits that may be relevant

(Wanberg & Banas, 2000). Gottfredson et al. confirmed the significance of staff personal qualities and qualifications as well as the conclusion of training.(Gottfredson et al., 2015).

2.3.2 Staff Training

This is another important core component for staff on all levels – practitioners, organisational staff, and purveyor staff. For this study the focus was on training opportunities for parenting facilitators who offered the parenting programmes to participants. There are different forms of training for different aspects of the work ranging from computer training to trauma informed counselling. Skills and expertise around the programme components and principles can be demonstrated and accompanied by behavioural rehearsal by the trainers, who are then given feedback. Training manuals are also used for some programmes (Rubenstein et al., 2000).

Dansereau and Dees (2002) made five recommendations for training that is similar to the research of Rubenstein et al. (2000). The recommendations are: highlight and exercise practical applications, assist trainees to merge thinking and doing in practice sessions, use techniques only when it is valuable, provide advice on adapting to suit their style, build a culture of support and embrace effectiveness with clients (Dansereau & Dees, 2002).

Change of behaviour is the core of implementation. Staff training therefore revolves more around building knowledge of the programme matter, practical aspects, and essential skills (Fixsen et al., 2005).

Effective training workshops consists of information or knowledge sharing, active or taped demonstrations of the programme principles, practical skills training through behaviour rehearsals (Joyce & Showers, 2002).

Moir (2018) is of the opinion that staff who will be running an EBP should complete a questionnaire to determine what their own training needs are and if they are ready to be trained to run the programme. Through this process, staff can become partners in the training process, taking more responsibility as the training advances. The characteristics of the staff are also important to the quality of the implementation. The staff should be committed and passionate (Moir, 2018).

Training should involve more than just learning the skills for a certain intervention. It should involve building motivation and considering the expectations of the staff. It should further focus on their sense of self-assurance, which can influence their execution of the programme and its potential success (Durlak & DuPre, 2008).

2.3.3 Staff Coaching

According to reflections on research done by Spouse (2001), there is a need for coaching to be accessible, reflective, work-based, and resourceful (Spouse, 2001). The four main roles of a coach are (i) to supervise staff on the EBP, (ii) to teach staff while engaging in learning activities such as practice or role-plays, (iii) to evaluate and report on the quality and acceptability of the practitioners, and (iv) to give emotional assurance to practitioners during implementation of the programme (Spouse, 2001). There are many different conceptions around coaching and can include supervision, accountability and peer coaching. For this study the focus is on coaching, peer coaching and supervision. With the support of constructive coaching and experience, a facilitator develops and becomes comfortable in an individual style while still integrating the core components of the programme. Behavioural adaptations influence others directly. Coaches can support facilitators to incorporate their own beliefs and values into the skills of the

programmes. It happens often that facilitators address their own unresolved issues when faced with the attendees of the programme. Coaches can be encouraging during such stressful times (Fixsen et al., 2005).

The time spent on coaching or supervision is also a factor that is not reported often and differs between different EBPs. Organisational structures and leadership also play a role in effective coaching as well as a coach's ability to provide adequate coaching. The development of a coaching relationship between coach and facilitator is of importance and should preferably start during training (Denton et al., 2003).

Coaching plays an integral role in implementation in the sense that it provides support and contributions to the preparation of facilitators. The key elements of coaching are teaching and reinforcing the development of evidence-based skills, adapting skills and knowledge to fit the personal style of the facilitator, and support during stressful times (Walker et al., 1984).

The importance of coaching and timely feedback about sessions to facilitators was highlighted by Berkel et al. (2019), who also discussed the challenges around supervision and coaching. According to their research, supervision rarely includes observations of direct service delivery and mostly focuses on administrative issues and problem-solving. Berkel et al. (2019) are of the opinion that supervision or coaching in community settings might lack the in-depth approach, and thus substantial information can be lost (Berkel et al., 2019).

Coaching and supervision will encourage sustained development by the facilitators of the programme. Peer supervision offers the collaborative development of new norms and ongoing practice. Coaching has an enormous impact on the success of training and should form part of every evidence-based intervention (Moir, 2018).

2.3.4 Evaluation and Fidelity

Fixsen et al. (2005) is of the opinion that staff and programme evaluation and programme fidelity should be a core component of successful implementation. Interestingly, most organisations only evaluated the performance of staff where the research rules are concerned and not as an ongoing part of the organisational monitoring and evaluation. There are very few organisations that have been operating for many years that has a built-in measuring system on a practitioner and organisational level in the organisation (Fixsen et al., 2005).

Three factors should be considered for staff evaluation and fidelity: context, compliance, and competence. Context refers to the logistics of the intervention such as staff qualifications, venue and completion of training. Compliance refers to the measure in which the facilitator were delivering the programme with fidelity. Competence refers to the skill the facilitator has to deliver the programme while taking the specific context and participants into consideration (Waltz et al., 1993). In institutions that are particularly effective, staff evaluations are integrated into the system with training and coaching, and the facilitator knows exactly what to expect. The feedback from these sessions in turn informs the coaching. In some organisations, videos of the intervention delivery are used for evaluation. Others ask stakeholders to rate the performance of the facilitator or self-evaluations as part of a bigger evaluation process. Staff evaluation should be done routinely and must be practical (Schoenwald et al., 2004).

Programme implementations with high fidelity are associated with the inclusion of training, coaching and supervision for facilitators as well as with the use of data gathering techniques that advise the complete process. A recommendation was made by Fixsen et al. (2005) for organisational fidelity to measure the success of implementation and not just on a practitioner

level. Aspects such as budget cuts and other organisational matters can influence the fidelity of a programme.

Successful interventions are those with the greatest fidelity; adaptations should not change the core principles of the programme. That being said, reflections on the process of implementation and discussions with other facilitators and coaches should form part of the process and influence the continuation of the programme. The discussions should impact future training through reports (Moir, 2018).

The kinds of modifications and explanations provided by community-based organizations lend credence to the notion that adaptation is a necessary component of bringing evidence-based interventions into practice. Researchers and funders may be better able to reach communities with evidence-based interventions that are a relevant match while aiming for fidelity if they include this insight into their distribution strategy (Carvalho et al., 2013).

Instead of viewing fidelity and adaptation as being mutually exclusive, the suggestion is that it would be more accurate to view them as being complementary. This would represent two synergistic viewpoints that could improve the relevance of research and offer a useful strategy for approaching the objective of improving patient outcomes (Schwarz et al., 2019).

2.3.5 Facilitative Administrative Support

Core components do not exist individually. They are incorporated within an organisation that institutes structures and processes which support and are used by the organisation over time. The likelihood of a programme being implemented with high and sustained fidelity is greater when strong core components are competently supported by secure organisational structures and

cultures (Fixsen et al., 2005). Policies and procedures of the organisation, motivated by the management team, should become coherent with new programmes in order to be implemented well. New programmes may inform new systems (Moir, 2018).

2.3.6 System Interventions

System interventions or influence factors are elements outside the organisational sphere or core components. Influence factors can be policy makers or government policies that change. If the policies change, funding could change and then the programme might no longer be feasible. Other influence factors include changes in laws, policies, funding priorities of government and corporate, community resources, and local consumers' interest in the programme. It can also include the norms, beliefs, and attitudes of consumers (Fixsen et al., 2005).

A study done by Durlak and DuPre (2008) identifies 23 factors influencing the outcome of a programme. They used the ecological model to organise these factors and found that contextual matters must be considered when an intervention is implemented in real world situations. The importance of these factors cannot be denied (Durlak & DuPre, 2008). The ecological model of influence on the implementation of an intervention agrees with the model used by Fixsen et al. (2005).

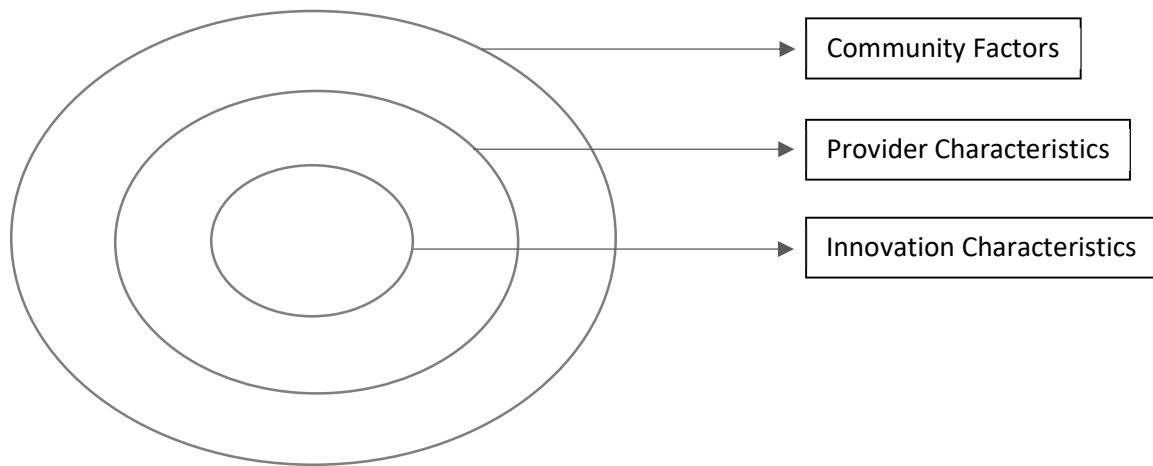


Figure 1: Framework for effective Implementation

Durlak and DuPre (2008) found that community involvement through collaboration and shared decision-making empowers community members and helps them to solve community problems and find connections between the intervention and local needs. When community members form part of the decision-making, the implementation of an intervention will improve (Durlak & DuPre, 2008). Changes in political climate as well as national policies will influence the implementation of programmes directly (Moir, 2018).

2.4 Conclusion

This chapter focused on understanding implementation science theory. The six core components used were staff selection, staff training, staff coaching, evaluation and fidelity, facilitative administrative support, and system intervention. Four of the six core components will be used for this research. The study focusses only on four components to establish what individual non-profit

organisations need to consider when embarking on delivering a parenting programme and ensuring that everything Seven Passes Initiative learned through the broader study was carefully documented. Implementation science was defined and a brief history provided. The definition of implementation research and how it is used was also addressed. The next chapter focuses on a review of the literature.



CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

This chapter is a review of literature that focuses on the history of parenting, parenting styles, parenting approaches of study, parenting practices, and parenting programmes. It will provide an overview of international and South African studies as well as a review of evidence-based parenting programmes. It provides a background on the two PLH parenting programmes that are the focus of study here: Sinovuyo Kids and Sinovuyo Teens. Attention will be given to implementation science and how it is used in relation to EBPs internationally and in South Africa. In addition, this study discusses other concepts, such as the impact of implementation on fidelity and scaling of EBPs.

3.2 Parenting

Parenting can be defined as activities with purpose to focus on safeguarding the survival and growth of children (Clarke-Stewart, 2006). Parenting is therefore an activity that normally involves parents, children, and other family members in a lasting relationship (Clarke-Stewart, 2006). Bray and Dawes (2016) define parenting in East and Southern Africa as “the activities entailed in raising children/adolescents and to the relationship between children/adolescents and the adults who care for them. It is viewed as a gendered, cultural practice influenced by community and wider societal values and norms” (Bray & Dawes, 2016, p. 4).

3.2.1 Parenting styles

In the 1960s, Diana Baumrind moved away from dimensions and identified three common styles of parenting, she realized that the dimensions needed more explanation and interrogation. She focused on how parents differed on several dimensions. The authoritative style of parenting is distinguished by high levels of responsiveness and demandingness. The authoritarian style of parenting was associated with low responsiveness and high demandingness. The permissive style of parenting was characterised by high responsiveness and low demandingness (Power, 2013). Maccoby & Martin (1983) describe a fourth parenting style that was low on both responsiveness and demandingness that they named the “uninvolved style”, very similar to Baumrind’s rejecting-neglecting style (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Since Baumrind’s innovative research, many studies have researched the correlation between parenting styles and child outcomes. In general, authoritarian parenting has been associated with poor academic achievement and depressive symptoms, authoritative parenting has been associated with positive developmental outcomes, and permissive parenting has been associated with poor self-control, aggression, and low self-esteem (Power, 2013). Parenting styles play an important role in the social development of children and adolescents. In particular, the various approaches to parenting have been associated with a number of psycho-social and behavioural outcomes, such as low self-esteem and engaging in risky behaviour (Davids et al., 2016).

When parents act on the needs of their children physically, mentally, and emotionally, it is referred to as responsive parenting. Science has shown that this approach is crucial for brain development, especially in the first years after birth (Gould, 2015).

Poor parenting methods are risk determinants for behavioural problems in childhood and adolescence. The absence of parental responsibility, inferior or no supervision, and irregular and rough discipline or punishment can anticipate unacceptable results in children and adolescents (Hawes & Dadds, 2006). A number of international studies show the significance of parenting style in children's emotional development (Besharat et al., 2011) and their accomplishments as adolescents (Matejevic, et al, 2014), which include academic performance (Salimynezhad et al., 2015).

It may be considered exclusive to only focus on Baumrind's styles because parenting is very intricate and societal norms play an integral part in parenting (Davids et al., 2016). In a study done by Roman, et al (2016) in South Africa, parent-child demeanor results in terms of parenting approaches, ethnicity, and gender are contrary to international research (Roman et al., 2016). In South Africa, the minority groups represented in the international study are the dominant groups. These groups have historically experienced violence, separation, and segregation due to socio-political issues, but in the recent two decades, new family and child protection legislation have helped to usher in a more compassionate and democratic society (Roman et al., 2016). This study analysed the parenting practices of mothers and fathers in various ethnic groups in South Africa and significant difference in parenting practices were found between the groups. Interestingly there were differences between mothers and fathers approaches but also the gender of the child. This may be the first study of its kind in South Africa to compare parenting practices amongst ethnic groups (Roman et al., 2016).

What is consistent with international literature is that adverse parenting ways are comparable with dysfunctional behaviour of children and adolescents (Roman et al., 2016). Adverse parenting approaches have a number of unfavourable impacts on child and adolescent

development (Davids et al., 2016). Harsh and irregular parenting, for example, is a risk element for the development of aggressive behaviours in young children (Van der Merwe et al., 2012). At the same time, positive, consistent parenting increases children's development in a variety of areas such as emotional and cognitive development and educational achievement (World Health Organization, 2004).

3.2.2 Parenting study approaches

When numerous dimensions or styles are examined, the person-centred approach normally seems to be the better approach because the distinctive combinations of parenting dimensions make it possible to predict child outcomes. There are, however, many other different approaches and advantages and disadvantages to them (Power, 2013).

3.2.3 Parenting practices

Parenting practices influence child outcomes in similar ways to the parenting styles and are a consequence of the parenting style being used. Depending on what research one studies, the parenting practice can have either a negative or a positive effect on the child. For example, in a study which aimed to find the correlation between parenting practices and life satisfaction and self-esteem in adolescents, the following parenting practices were identified as being associated with positive outcomes for the adolescents: behavioural control or setting limits through negotiation and inductive discipline, promotion of autonomy, warm affectionate relationship based on active listening and sensitivity to adolescents' needs, respect for their individuality, and many more (Pérez-Fuentes et al., 2019).

Negative parenting practices can have a detrimental effect on children's development, and therefore on the children's own parenting later in life. Parents, for instance, who encountered maltreatment or observed violence at home during childhood are at risk of engaging in neglectful or abusive parenting of their own children (Greene et al., 2020).

Barlow et al. (2016) found that when parents' parenting behaviours of strong and/or unpredictable discipline and minimal positive participation happens in early childhood, there is an increased chance of low results, including substance misuse and misbehaviour. On the other hand, children who have a lot of confidence and are capable in both academics and social skills coincide with parents who have a positive and proactive style that involves love and praise.

(Barlow et al., 2016). Parenting programmes aim to lessen the influence of risk factors and extend the factors that protect, by strengthening the parenting role (Rodrigo et al., 2012). Specific ways of strengthening the parenting role are through parenting programmes, which may be delivered as home visits or through group-based programmes that support parents to learn effective, non-violent parenting skills (Axford & Berry, 2018).



3.3 Evidence-Based Programmes

In the field of human services, EBP's is currently seen as revolutionary and completely different from former movements (Thyer, 2004). Evidence-based interventions (EBI) are defined by McKibbin (1998, p.396) "as practices by which the provider's decision is backed by the most appropriate information" (McKibbin, 1998).

According to Thyer (2004) the following steps need to be taken to administer an EBP: Create a question that can be answered, find appropriate clinical proof to answer, precariously judge the proof focussing on efficacy, clinical meaning and practicality, merge the proof with your own

clinical knowledge and contextual factors and values, measure your validity and competence for steps one to four and aim for improvement (Thyer, 2004).

In a systemic review of literature on EBP's the following as found as obstacles and promoters of implementation. The five most reported obstacles were: recruitment and retention of participants, adaptation challenges, funding availability, staff and challenges with implementation.

The factors promoting implementations were: compatibility between the EBP and the organisation, adaptability of organisation to implement the EBP, observed strength of the EBP, organisational agency to prioritize the EBP and committed leadership (Bach-Mortensen et al., 2018).

3.4 Parenting Programmes

The basis for the growth of children in different areas such as cognitive, behavioural, physical, emotional, and social is determined by the strength of the children's relationship with their parents/caregivers. Building the capacity of parents to encourage children's healthy development is a proven plan of action to improve children's development (Barlow et al., 2002).

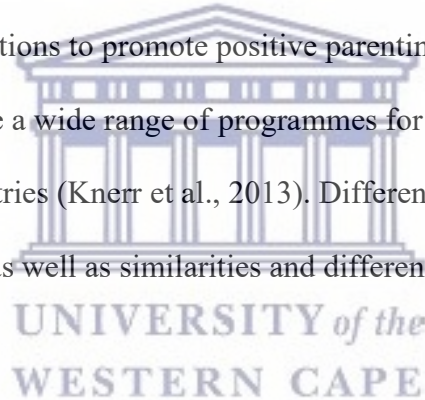
Numerous studies suggest that parenting programmes are effective in improving parenting skills (Gardner et al., 2006), (Hutchings et al, 2004), parenting psycho-social wellbeing (Barlow et al., 2014), (Doubt et al., 2018), (Bennett et al., 2013), managing child conduct problems (Hutchings et al, 2004), (Gardner et al., 2006), (Lachman et al., 2019), (Asiimwe et al., 2022), preventing child maltreatment (Loening-Voysey et al., 2018), (C. Ward et al., 2016), (Bray & Dawes, 2016), (L. Cluver et al., 2016), (Lachman et al., 2021), (Parra-Cardona et al., 2021), improve their cognitive outcomes (Mikton & Butchart, 2009), (Doubt et al., 2018),(Cluver et al., 2017), long-term crime prevention (Hutchings et al, 2004), (Gardner, 2017), reducing emotional and verbal

violence (Marcus et al., 2020), (Gardner, 2017), (Cluver et al., 2020) and addressing the economic burden of violence (Fang et al., 2017), (Hsiao et al., 2018), (Shenderovich et al., 2021).

Hutchings et al. (2004) found that there are certain crucial components in effective programmes: rehearsing the new parenting skills, teaching principles rather than techniques, parents doing home-practice of new behaviours, and programmes having discipline actions for negative behaviour and plans to build positive behaviour. (Hutchings et al., 2004).

3.4.1 The Global Evidence Base for EBP's

EBP's and studies around parenting programmes are not just important in a South African context. Internationally, interventions to promote positive parenting is receiving recognition and gaining momentum. This include a wide range of programmes for which evidence has been well-established in high-income countries (Knerr et al., 2013). Different international interventions will be looked at in this section as well as similarities and differences with EBP's in South Africa.



Research shows the importance of EBPs internationally for different reasons. Gonzales et al. (2018) used a systematic review to determine engagement strategies for parents. According to their findings, there is a need for further studies into recruitment and enrolment as well as attendance rates (Gonzalez et al., 2018). In another study done in the UK, parental recruitment and retention were researched. The authors found concurrence between the literature and practice on the difficulty around recruitment and retention (Axford et al., 2012).

In a study done by Leijten et al. (2016), the question of culturally specific programmes versus those imported from other countries was addressed. It was interesting to find that parenting programmes with similar principles had the same outcomes whether locally designed or imported from another country. This research supports programmes that are evidence-based rather than those which are culturally specific (Leijten et al., 2016).

In a study done in Birmingham, UK, the impact of three EBPs was investigated. The study, known as Brighter Futures, tested the implementation of three previously unknown programmes city-wide and focused on the effectiveness and efficacy of the programmes (Little et al., 2012). The findings of the study showed that the EBPS were more proactive than reactive and that they focused on possible future problems instead of trying to address existing ones (Little et al., 2012).

In two different studies, the impact of EBPs was researched in area-wide interventions. In the first study, a large-scale, early intervention was developed, targeted at families with children (birth 0- 20 years) in a disadvantaged urban area of Ireland. The initiative was called Youngballymun and comprised five service plans with a collection of EBPs (Hickey et al., 2018). The importance of this study is the match between the innovation and the systems it is being implemented in. In the Youngballymun intervention, an implementation stages framework was used to assess the needs and organisational development. Support for the intervention from the community service providers was a challenge and their active involvement in creating collaboration was found to be crucial (Hickey et al., 2018).

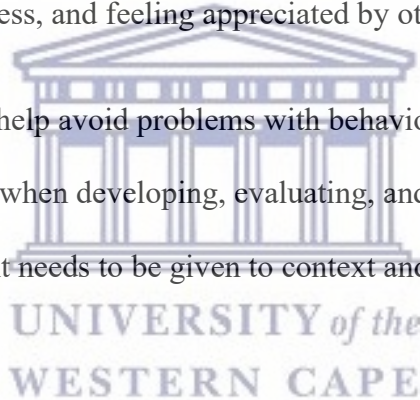
Another study, in South Carolina, USA, suggested the importance of a population approach that can improve the life course outcomes of parents and children. The aim shifts from an individual

level to measuring change on a community level. This approach incorporates the widespread delivery of EBPs and other theories and solutions from other disciplines. The proposal is exceptionally cost-effective and offers a high return on investment (Sanders et al., 2017).

3.4.2 South African Parenting Programmes

Many parenting programmes with many different positive outcomes are currently available in South Africa. According to participant perceptions, one such programme sparked change by fostering a learning atmosphere for alternatives. In doing so, it gave validity to a respectful reciprocity and new methods of spending time together, enabling parents and teenagers to change and normalize more positive behaviours. It accomplished this by placing a high priority on a process of mutual respect, openness, and feeling appreciated by others (Cluver et al., 2016).

Parenting programs may help avoid problems with behaviour and emotions in kids, according to research. However, when developing, evaluating, and implementing these interventions, much more thought needs to be given to context and cultural considerations (Baumann et al., 2018).



In recent years, the interest in evidence-based and evidence-informed programmes resulted in the establishment of SAPPIN (the South African Parenting Programme Implementers Network), which consists of NPOs who deliver different evidence-based and evidence-informed parenting programmes. The network consists of 12 organisations: Johannesburg Parent and Child Counselling Centre, Johannesburg Child Welfare, The Parent Centre, The Mikhulu Trust, Phaphama, The Seven Passes Initiative, Ububele, Dlalanathi, Clowns without Borders, Sonke Gender Justice, Lefika La Phodisa and Save the Children South Africa. They implement multiple parenting programmes such as Book sharing, Thula Sana, Baby Mat Service, Triple P, Incredible

Years, Sinovuyo Kids and Teens, Circle of Security Parenting, Teen Parenting Programme, and Men Care. These programmes vary from pre-birth to 18 years and the involvement of fathers (www.SAPPIN.org.za).

Gould and Ward (2015) are of the opinion that it would take cooperation between different government departments, civil society, and academics to develop and integrate a plan to deliver parenting programmes in South Africa. A strong policy framework is already in place and the planning should involve implementing programmes that have been shown to be effective and investigating how to scale these programmes. Collaboration between NGOs and government should receive priority (Gould & Ward, 2015).

The Violence Prevention Forum (VPF) was established in 2015 to actively work towards a violent free society. The VPF is a partnership between government, academics, international organisations, civil society, development partners and the private sector. <https://www.violence-prevention.org/home/> During a VPF meeting held in 2018, delegates identified, mapped out, and assessed violence prevention programmes in South Africa. The delegates felt that programmes are isolated and that even national programmes do not have a wide reach. They also confirmed that some provinces have more resources than others. The insight that there is little coherence between policy and interventions also came to light. The problem of working in silos was addressed, as was the fact that policies are not costed. The Forum outlined a clear communications strategy to make leaders aware of the findings (*Mapping South Africa's Resources for Preventing Violence*, 2019).

Violence prevention relies on effective parenting programmes. Parenting programmes are available in South Africa but hardly any are evidence-based (Wessels & Ward, 2015). Without

evidence, it is difficult to determine if these programmes are harmful or helpful. In an article by Wessels and Ward (2015), 21 parenting programmes were identified in South Africa and included in a study to determine whether programmes meet the requirements of evidence-based practices. Most of the programmes tested were not ready to be scaled-up because they were not evaluable. Developers of programmes need to draw on evidence from programmes created for and in low- and middle-income countries. To do this, meticulous evaluations should be done and the results should be shared. Government, NPOs, researchers, and funders should collaborate to make the evaluations possible (Wessels & Ward, 2015).

Many different parenting programmes exist, as indicated above. The Sinovuyo Programmes were chosen for the broader research with the following reasons in mind: The Children's Act and the White Paper on Families are the two laws that made provisions for parental help (Ward et al., 2015) and academics, the World Health Organization, and UNICEF collaborated to develop the initiative Parenting for Lifelong Health. Its objective is to create and evaluate parenting programs to stop child abuse in low- and middle-income countries. Parenting for Lifelong Health for Adolescents (Sinovuyo Teen) was created in South Africa during a five-year period in cooperation with the National Department of Social Development and a regional NGO called Clowns Without Borders South Africa. Phases of development and testing included qualitative piloting, feedback from 50 academic and programming professionals, involvement of adolescent advisory groups, two pre-post trials with sequential manual refining, and a full RCT (Cluver et al., 2020).

3.4.2.1 PLH programmes: Sinovuyo Kids and Teens

Sinovuyo Kids and Sinovuyo Teens are the two evidence-based parenting programmes studied in this research. The Sinovuyo Caring Families Programme for Kids is designed for parents with children in the 2-9 years age group. This programme has been tested in RCTs in Khayelitsha and Nyanga (Ward et al., 2020). It is a 12-week programme that suggests techniques to improve the relationship between parents and children such as parents' spending special time with their child where the child takes the lead in play. Other approaches focus on praising good behaviour of the child, using alternative methods to harsh punishment, and becoming aware of the parent and child's emotions through emotional regulation (Ward et al., 2014).

The Sinovuyo Caring Families Programme for Teens has been tested in the Eastern Cape, South Africa. It is a 14-week, group-based programme where the parent and adolescent attend some sessions together, and some separately (Lachman et al., 2017). Like the Sinovuyo Kids sessions, the focus is on parents spending special time with their adolescent, praise that is specific, initiating rules, and how to address crisis. Social learning theory are used (Ward et al., 2014). This programme also touches on mindfulness techniques to reduce stress associated with parenting, suitable methods to talk to children about poverty and HIV/AIDS, as well as content that addresses children's safety. Songs and stories that focus on cultural values such as respect and social responsibility are used in the lessons (Lachman et al., 2018).

Sinovuyo Kids and Sinovuyo Teens share a similar framework, and every session is between two and two and a half hours. Every session starts with a home practice exchange where parents give feedback on their implementation of the specific skill they were taught the previous week. The core lesson is introduced and captured through illustrated stories of ordinary South African

families using the new parenting skills. Role-plays are used to further internalise the new skills. The sessions always end with exercises for parents to practice at home (Lachman et al., 2018).

The results of a randomised controlled trial RCT during which Sinovuyo Teens was implemented to 552 families living in 40 communities, of which 32 were rural villages and 8 peri-urban townships in the Eastern Cape. The results include improvement in parenting practices, reduced depression of caregivers, improved family economic welfare, and decrease in alcohol/drug use, it further showed that the relationship between parents and children improved, and there was a reduced likelihood of parents abusing their children while parents' positive parenting techniques improved (Doubt et al., 2018). It was found that depression and stress of caregivers were reduced and less corporal punishment was used (Cluver et al., 2018).

3.5 Implementation Research

The purpose of implementation science is to build an evidence base for successful strategies concerning research translating to practice and to close the gap between research and practice (Metz et al., 2013). The scientific study of processes used in the implementation of programmes and of the circumstantial factors that affect these processes can be described as “Implementation Research”. This can furthermore be used to investigate any detail of implementation including the processes, the outcomes, or the factors affecting implementation (Peters et al., 2013).

Implementation frameworks describe direct and indirect service activities. It can include the implementation of the programme content as intended, but it can also refer to other aspects that influence the programme such as ongoing coaching and organisational systems that support the sustainability of quality implementation (Halle et al., 2013).

When different implementation frameworks are discussed, there are similar factors involved that apply to different frameworks such as core themes that emerge or to divide the process of implementation in different phases (Mendel et al., 2008).

Another factor is universal denominators across implementation models even though each model accentuates certain denominators above others as more important. One of these are known as the PAR framework and refers to community-based Participatory Action Research. Another is constructivist in approach and the attention is on the factors that can create a conducive community for implementation (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Four other frameworks that were introduced in public health are 1. PRECEDE-PROCEED: predisposing, reinforcing and enabling constructs in educational diagnosis and evaluation-policy, regulatory, and organisational constructs in educational and environmental development and 2. RE-AIM: reach, effectiveness, adoption, implementation and maintenance (Nilsen, 2015), AIF – Active Implementation Framework (Fixsen et al., 2021) and REP framework – Replicating Effective Programmes Framework (Kilbourne et al., 2007).

The last factor to be taken into account across implementation frameworks is formalizing change agents that is likely to play crucial roles while there is quite a lack of evidence. Examples of change agents are: leadership, training and dialogue, staff employment and termination (Fixsen et al., 2009). The framework chosen for specific research should be suitable for that specific research but negotiating the different change agents in the outer and inner context through the different phases into account (Aarons et al., 2011).

Ten recommendations were made by Moullin et al (2020) for implementation. They are: choose an appropriate framework, organise and sustain community partner meetings, describe

the intervention needed and establish appropriate monitoring and evaluation, develop a methods model, select monitoring and evaluation procedures, decide on implementation aspects, develop implementation action plan, decide on implementation effects and evaluation implementation, implement a specific framework at community level to change and adapt the implementation and lastly write the presentation and report (Moullin et al., 2020).

For this study the EPIS framework will be used. The EPIS framework is a well-documented framework that is widely used in implementation science and takes the different phases of implementation and change agents into account in the different domains of implementation (Nilsen, 2015).

The first phase is the exploration phase where growth in an organisation is recognized. An existing need might have been identified and a EBP is recognized that might address the need (Powell & Beidas, 2016). During this phase deliberation is held on how to make changes to individual, organisation or bigger systems (Moullin et al., 2019). Change agents that might play a role in the inner context for the exploration phase are an organisations willingness to change and their ability to grow. Change agents in the outer context for the exploration phase might include legislation, funding, networking opportunities with other organisations around EBP's (Powell & Beidas, 2016).

The second phase is the preparation phase. This is normally the phase were the organisation takes the step to implement an EBP (Powell & Beidas, 2016). During this phase possible obstacles and promotors are identified. Adjustments are considered. Implementation assistance such as training and coaching is important during this and the next two phases (Moullin et al., 2019). Change agents that might play a role in the inner context for the

preparation phase might include charismatic leadership and organisational structures and characteristics. Change agents in the outer context for the preparation phase might include legislation, funding, networking opportunities with other organisations around EBP's (Powell & Beidas, 2016).

The third phase is the implementation phase where organisations taking the first actions to implement an EBP (Powell & Beidas, 2016). The EBP is introduced into the systems of the organisation. measurement of the EBP should be part of the implementation phase. It is essential to determine and adapt to support the implementation (Moullin et al., 2019). Change agents that might play a role in the inner context for the implementation phase might include organisational eagerness to implement for change and a clear association with the values of the new innovation. Change agents in the outer context for the implementation phase might include legislation, funding, networking opportunities with other organisations around EBP's, developers of the intervention and leadership (Powell & Beidas, 2016).

The fourth phase is the sustainment phase. During this phase the EBP has become part of the organisational programming and is sustained (Powell & Beidas, 2016). Adjustments are ongoing during this phase to measure the impact of the EBP (Moullin et al., 2019). Change agents that might play a role in the inner context for the sustainment phase might include organisational capacity to deliver the EBP that includes monitoring and evaluation and staff that are able. Change agents in the outer context for the sustainment phase might include legislation that supports EBP's, continued funding, networking opportunities with academics that can support the sustaining of the programme and other collaborations (Powell & Beidas, 2016).

EPIS has four principal elements that define the implementation process. This includes the different phases, inner and outer contexts, novelty aspects related to the EBP traits, bridging aspects, and the interaction between the inner and outer contexts.

The first principal element is the four phases of the implementation process, characterized as Exploration, Preparation, Implementation, and Sustainment (EPIS) (Moullin et al., 2019).

The second principal element of EPIS is the expression of circumstantial factors consisted of the outer structure context and the inner organisational context. As described above, in every phase change agents could be contributing to the implementations process. The outer context is active whereas the inner context indicates change agents such as structures, leadership roles, staff, policies and individuals. These change agents can be multi-layered and is intricate (Moullin et al., 2019).

The third principal element are change agents relating to the EBP. The EBP should suit the specific organisation. This might include elements of adaptation to the EBP without changing the basis of the programme (Moullin et al., 2019).

The fourth principal element is the acknowledgement of the interdependence and connection between the inner and outer contexts, referred to as bridging elements (Moullin et al., 2019).

Adaptation is a strong theme that emerged from the study of Moullin et al (2019) and is compared to values-innovation fit that refers to the need for the EBP to belong to the necessities of the implementers. The study was conducted in 11 countries ranging from low to high income.

The study covered many different fields such as mental health, child welfare, education and public health (Moullin et al., 2019).

EPIS is an implementation framework known for the four phases and focussing on four principal elements. It is an inclusive, independent framework. The potential change agents can be measured quantitatively and qualitatively (Moullin et al., 2019).

3.5.1 Implementation Research regarding International Parenting Programmes

The global health community is facing one of the most substantial challenges: how to take accepted interventions and implement them in the real world. Research on implementation science is critical to meeting that challenge, providing a premise for the context-specific, evidence-based decisiveness needed to make theoretical possibilities practical realities (Peters et al., 2013). Prevention, according to scientific principles, has shifted the emphasis from identifying EBPs to understanding how EBPs can be implemented on a broader scale in order to have a greater effect on entire populations (Gottfredson et al., 2015). There is plausible and considerable empirical evidence that the level of implementation affects the outcome of the programme (Durlak & DuPre, 2008). Research done for the Sinovuyo Teens programme by Shenderovich et al. (2019) found that low-resource contexts can deliver a high quality of implementation (Shenderovich et al., 2019). Implementation is key to the success of the parenting programme; without correct implementation, there will not be effectiveness (Little et al., 2012).

It is noticeable that programme developers and researchers have historically neglected to provide information on the implementation of programmes even though several studies show a positive correlation between measures of fidelity and the level of success (Hutchings et al, 2004).

3.5.2 Implementation Research concerning South African Parenting Programmes

The South African government is instructed by the Children's Amendment Act No 41 of 2007 (Chapter 8) to provide positive parenting interventions. Violence prevention and national development are high priorities for government, and supporting parents is essential to promote this. There are presently no widely implemented interventions that are evidence based.

According to Wessels, Lester and Ward (2016), parents in South Africa encounter numerous challenges. Mostly these challenges relate to poverty, which makes positive parenting substantially more difficult. Parents living in poor communities or where there is much violence tend to use harsh discipline or are more likely to physically abuse their children. These parents also experience higher levels of stress (Wessels et al., 2016). These harsh parenting practices can have a negative effect on children's development, which might lead to other risk factors such as becoming involved with crime later in life (Hutchings et al., 2004), (Gardner, 2017), to prevent child maltreatment (Ward et al., 2015), substance abuse & HIV infection (Cluver et al., 2018), using more violence (Ward, 2007) – these factors contribute to the burden on public health (Doubt et al., 2017). Positive parenting improves children's chances of growing into well-adjusted adults. Evidence-based parenting programmes are one way of supporting parents to improve their relationships with their children (Wessels et al., 2016). How parents engage with these programmes is an important aspect to consider for implementation and scale-up of these programmes. The low attendance of parenting programmes and the reasons behind this are crucial to explore in order to refine existing programmes and to design future programmes. According to Wessels et al. (2016), who explored retention of parents attending the Sinovuyo Kids programme and the Parent Centre's positive parenting skills training. They found economic struggles was the main reason for low or no attendance. The specific barrier most frequently

mentioned for attendance of the Sinovuyo Kids programme was a lack of transport or the expense of public transport. Hunger was another factor that inhibited parents from attending the programme, as was the fact that childcare was not available during the programme sessions. Some parents were involved in shift work and could not attend sessions. Personal barriers such as mental or physical illness also affected attendance. Alcohol abuse would also prevent parents from attending, especially during the beginning of the month when they received grant money (Wessels et al., 2016).

The barriers of recruitment and retention can be discussed by facilitators at supervision. Partnerships and collaborations are also necessary to support parents in their difficult task of raising children. Connecting parents to specialised services that deal with alcohol or substance abuse or to organisations that can support with vegetable gardening or income-generating work would be advantageous (Wessels et al., 2016)

3.5.3 Implementation Research regarding PLH programmes: Sinovuyo Kids and Teens

In a study done in 2019 (REF), the implementation processes of the Sinovuyo Teens programme and its impact on attendees' outcomes was measured. The main conclusion of the research was that a high quality of implementation in a setting with scanty resources can be achieved. It showed that lay staff with the necessary training and supervision can deliver a complex programme with fidelity. The researchers mentioned the importance of measuring implementation in ordinary service settings and not just by the developers as part of a RCT (Shenderovich et al., 2019).

Loening-Voysey et al. (2018) found that the Sinovuyo Teens programme was easy to apply with the support of the practical training and the manual. According to facilitators of the programme,

the way in which the programme was delivered was empowering. The research further focused on the importance of the weekly group supervision sessions where facilitators could practice or reinforce weekly sessions before delivering them to participants.

Recommendations from Loening-Voysey et al. (2018) include the incorporation of the programme into local services whether by government or non-government. The authors further recommended initiating long-term support after the implementation period. Another recommendation was to test the programme in the real world with an understanding of the cost effectiveness and who would be responsible for the costs. The different structures of families should also be taken into consideration in any future assessment of the programme as well as how to share and keep the knowledge in the family (Loening-Voysey et al., 2018).

Doubt et al. (2018) describes the importance of empathy as part of the emotional support that facilitators, who come from similar backgrounds to the participants, give to participants of the Sinovuyo Teens programme during the implementation.

To ensure the cultural relevance of the programme, when addressing gender norms and concerns, the facilitators should be involved with the adaptation of the programme. They can also make suggestions to the logistics that should be considered when implementing the programme to ensure efficiency and effectiveness (Doubt et al., 2018).

3.6 Conclusion

The impact of parenting on the development of children cannot be underestimated. To support parents with this important role, parenting programmes are seen as integral to violence prevention programmes. Numerous research projects have been done on the effect of parenting

programmes and there is also evidence on the implementation of programmes. Research on the implementation of parenting programmes in a real-world setting is, however, lacking, and this thesis attempts to address this by focusing on the implementation of the Sinovuyo Kids and Teens programmes in the community of Touwsrante. The next chapter focuses on the methods that was used for this study.



CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the methods and the research design that were utilised are described in detail. The implementation of the study, which included the data collection tools, the collection methods, the data analysis, and trustworthiness of the study, is described. In conclusion, the ethical considerations of the study are examined, as well as the significance of the study.

4.2 Research Questions

A critical exploration of the process of the practical implementation of the evidence-based PLH parenting programmes in a rural community is based on the following questions:

1. How does staff selection influence the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes in a rural community?
2. What are the components of pre-service and in-service training provided and needed, and by whom, in the PLH parenting programmes in a rural community?
3. What ongoing consultation and coaching processes are needed and implemented, and by whom, in the PLH parenting programmes in a rural community?
4. How do staff and programme evaluation and fidelity contribute to the practical implementation of the PLH parenting programmes in a rural community?

4.3 Aim and Objectives of the Study

4.3.1 Aim of the Study

The aim of the study was to explore the practical implementation of two evidence-based PLH programmes in a rural community.

4.3.2 Objectives of the Study

1. To explore the staff selection processes in the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes.
2. To explore the pre-service and in-service training that is offered and needed in the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes.
3. To explore the on-going consultation and coaching that is implemented and needed in the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes.
4. To explore staff and programme evaluation as well as fidelity in the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes in a rural community.

4.4 Research Methodology

Hammersley (2013, p.12) defines qualitative research as “a form of social inquiry that tends to adopt a flexible and data-driven research design, to use relatively unstructured data, to emphasize the essential role of subjectivity in the research process, to study a small number of naturally occurring cases in detail, and to use verbal rather than statistical forms of analysis”

(Hammersley, 2013).

Qualitative research methodology was followed to explore the implementation of the two EBPs while applying the four core implementation components identified by Fixsen et al. (Fixsen et al., 2005). Qualitative research is distinguished by inductive and open-ended methods (Maxwell & Reybould, 2015), and the feelings and thoughts of the research participants can be accessed by researchers through a qualitative approach. This enables the development of an understanding of the interpretation that people assign to their experiences (Sutton & Austin, 2015).

In the past, qualitative research has been used in disciplines like sociology, history, and anthropology. With qualitative data, it is possible to maintain chronological flow, identify precisely which actions result in which effects, and arrive at useful interpretations. Qualitative techniques focus on the explanation of human behavior within the context of the social structures that such behaviors occur in. Therefore, researchers can, for instance, investigate how patients feel about their service, about their medications, or even about "being a patient" in the context of health care, and hospital pharmacy in particular (Austin & Sutton, 2014).

Researchers that undertake qualitative research accept the ontological premise of numerous realities or truths, that each person understands reality from a unique vantage point. The basis for qualitative research is the subjective and ignore actual objectives in favour of human realities of things. The researcher forms part of the study by serving as a research tool (Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2013).

Smith (2002) described methodology as the clarification of the approach, means and logistics with some explanation for their selection. Researchers must have solid theories to support the "methodology"—the procedures they use to conduct their research—in order to be

successful. For their personal positionality, research questions, and aims to be aligned, researchers must also have a deep awareness of various approaches (Smith, 2002).

The exploratory skill that researchers require to examine and investigate their research investigations is given an added advantage by the qualitative research approach. Researchers can improve and use their subjectivity and interpersonal abilities to their research exploratory procedures using qualitative technique (Alase, 2017).

Aiming to comprehend a particular aspect of social life, qualitative research is distinguished by its methodologies, which (mostly) produce words rather than numerical data for analysis (Alase, 2017).

The types of methodology most often used are: Ethnography, Grounded Theory, Phenomenology and Content Analysis. Ethnography entails long-term direct participant observation by researchers in their native contexts. The use of natural environments unsuited to the researchers' objectives is a crucial component of ethnography. In ethnography, the natural setting or environment is just as significant as the participants, and these techniques have the benefit of clearly recognizing how environmental restrictions and context affect behaviours and outcomes in the actual world (Austin & Sutton, 2014).

Grounded theory: In contrast to other research paradigms that advocate using data to test theory, grounded theory is a framework for qualitative research that contends that theory must originate from evidence. When little to nothing is known or understood about an issue, circumstance, or context, any attempt to begin with a hypothesis or theory would be at best conjecture, grounded theory may be especially helpful (Austin & Sutton, 2014).

Phenomenology seeks to comprehend issues, concepts, and circumstances from the stand point of shared knowledge and experience rather than from the perspective of distinctions. The goal of phenomenology is to comprehend how people perceive their surroundings. It provides scientists with an effective tool for comprehending subjective experience (Austin & Sutton, 2014).

Content analysis is the analysis of the topics raised by the text and data that have been gathered. The relational parts of qualitative content analysis involve the interpretation of the text's underlying meaning (Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2013).

Data collection and data analysis are the most important parts of qualitative research because the researcher finds meaning in human behaviour in a specific setting and in understanding what led to the particular behaviour. The researcher is asking the questions of why, where, what, when and how (Oun & Bach, 2014). The method of conducting this research is what separates it from other research approaches and gives it a specific identity (Denscombe, 2010).

The use of a qualitative approach ensured the in-depth exploration of the implementation of the two PLH programmes in a rural community. A qualitative research design was chosen because it was more exploratory in a new field, making it more appropriate to use for this research (De Vos et al., 2011).

4.4.1 Qualitative Paradigms

Translated from Greek, the word “paradigm” means “pattern”. It generally describes a researcher’s worldview or school of thought that illuminates the meaning of data (Kivunja &

Kuyini, 2017).

Researchers distinguish between positivist, interpretivist, critical, or pragmatic paradigms. Paradigms normally contain four elements, namely epistemology, ontology, methodology, and axiology, and these elements comprise the norms, values, beliefs, and basic assumptions that each paradigm holds. The research must be guided by the chosen paradigm (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). This research was guided by the interpretivist paradigm

The qualitative paradigm, specifically the interpretivist paradigm, was used in this research. It relies on a conversation between the researcher and the subjects to develop a meaningful understanding of their specific reality (in a context and time that cannot be generalised) through negotiating and collaborating (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016). The viewpoint of the interpretivist, or sometime referred to constructivist paradigm, is to form a better understanding of the subject and their experience and perception of their subjective world. The focus is not on the viewpoint of the researcher (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017).

Characteristics of research done using the interpretivist approach can include: a synergy between the researcher and the research subjects; realities are a social construct that differ in different circumstances; contextual aspects forms part of the research process; the social world is complex and multi-faceted and that action and reaction are interconnected (Morgan, 2007).

There are four criteria suggested by Guba (1981) for the interpretivist paradigm to ensure legitimacy and validity. The first is credibility that refer to the accuracy of the data and data analysis and the truthfulness of the study. The second is dependability and refers to the capacity of the researcher to reach the same conclusions in comparing circumstances, that the true findings come forth. The third is confirmability and refers to the ability of the researcher to

ensure that the results are the true narrative and account of the research subjects and not that of the researcher. The research must therefore be able to be confirmed and validated by other researchers in the field. The last criteria are transferability that relates to the provision of enough contextual data to correlate with that of the reader (Guba, 1981).

4.5 Research Approach

The qualitative research methods that were utilised for this study were conducted using an explorative and descriptive approach within a case study design. Case study is used to study an entity, individual, event, or component of investigation. Multiple sources of evidence are used to explore a current occurrence within a real-life situation (Noor, 2008). The implementation of the two PLH programmes in one organisation was researched. The fact that SPI was the only organisation worldwide to deliver all four of the PLH programmes, and therefore comparisons with other organisations were not possible, added to the decision to use a case study.

The case study method is very helpful to apply when trying to understand a topic, event, or phenomena in depth and in the context of real-world experience. It is a well-known research strategy that is widely applied in a range of fields, especially the social sciences (Crowe et al., 2011).

According to Stake (1995) a case study represents the end result of our learning as well as the process by which we learn about the case (Stake, 1995).

And Yin is of the opinion that case study's all-encompassing characteristic is its laser-like concentration on a single occurrence inside its contextual real-world setting. Case studies are research scenarios where there are far more factors of interest than datapoints (Yin, 2008).

Stake's writings had a significant impact on the development of the case study approach to scientific inquiry. He has helpfully distinguished between the intrinsic, instrumental, and

collective sorts of case studies. In order to understand a particular occurrence, an intrinsic case study is frequently conducted. The peculiarity of the phenomena, which sets it apart from all others, should be defined by the researcher. The instrumental case study, in contrast, makes use of a specific instance (some of which may be better than others) to develop a deeper understanding of a problem or phenomenon. A collective case study examines several examples concurrently or sequentially in an effort to produce an even larger understanding of a certain subject (Crowe et al., 2011).

Case studies can be used to examine, explain or characterize occurrences or phenomena in their natural environments. The Case study technique can provide more information about any delivery gaps or the rationale behind the selection of one implementation strategy over another. In turn, this can aid in developing or improving theory (Crowe et al., 2011).

Depending on the researcher's philosophical position, whether they adopt a critical, interpretivist or positivist approach, case studies may be approached in several ways. Although conceptually sound, it may be useful to use more than one approach in a case study (Crowe et al., 2011).

To do a case study, we concentrate on the key phases of the research process. These phases include framing the case, choosing the case, gathering and analysing data, interpreting data, and reporting the results (Crowe et al., 2011).

Examples occasionally just present themselves to the scientist, but even when investigating into a research windfall, consideration should be paid to how to best integrate that particular case into broader theoretical and analytical problems (Peters, 1998).

It is possible to find a means to compare even a single case, whether it be indirectly using theories or directly with other cases. If carefully designed and investigated, a single example can

be used to advance ideological science's analytic expertise, shed light on prevalent hypotheses, and even put them to direct test (Peters, 1998).

4.6 Research Setting

Touwsranten is a small community close to the popular holiday destination, Wilderness and 30km from George in the Western Cape. The community borders the, mostly dairy farms on the one side and Hoekwil, the more affluent, previously white community on the other hand. In 2019 the community consists of 762 households of which 481 had children. An average of 4 people per household. The Touwsranten community was a good research site for the assessment of community change (Kleyn et al., 2020). Important elements are the low level of change and the relative isolated population of Touwsranten. It offers the perfect "laboratory" environment to investigate if this integrated parenting intervention strategy can change parenting practices throughout the entire community. Touwsranten has clearly defined geographic limits, is geographically rather isolated from other communities, and experiences very low rates of in- and out-migration, making it a relatively confined and stable community. Due to the modest rates of population turnover, it is possible to follow changes in community-level caregiving behaviour across time (Parker et al., 2020).

Another reason why Touwsranten was chosen is The Seven Passes Initiative, a dependable community-based organisation located in the community, has been offering afterschool care and educational support to local kids since 2008. The organisation had determined that there was a need for parenting help, and a 2012 survey revealed that 53.8% of parents requested such support (Gould, et al., 2022).

The community consists of two different language groups: a large Afrikaans-speaking group and a much smaller isiXhosa-speaking group. This is a low-income settlement not far from George, a large sprawling and well-developed town. The approximately 5,000 inhabitants are people who are mainly farm workers or domestic workers in nearby communities.

Unemployment is among factors which contribute to the safety of children (Gould et al., 2022). According to the broader study, the percentage of unemployment among caregivers was 54%, 49% and 61% in 2016, 2017 and 2019 respectively (one caregiver per family was interviewed) (Gould, et al., 2022).

The SPI is a community-based organisation (www.sevenpasses.org.za) that was established in 2008 in order to prevent teen gang violence in the area, which had just started to occur. The SPI provides afterschool care to more than 80% of the Touwsranten community's children ages 5-18 year. The homework support is provided by young people, ages 18-35 years from this community. This forms part of the youth development programme supported financially by the Western Cape Department of Community Safety EPWP Project (Parker, 2018b). The organisation has an ECD Centre that offers a safe, learning environment for all cultures and races of the community. SPI further offers the four PLH parenting programmes to Touwsranten and other rural communities. <https://www.who.int/teams/social-determinants-of-health/parenting-for-lifelong-health>

4.7 Data Sources

4.7.1 Participants

Participants in this study were recruited through Seven Passes Initiative. The participants have all been involved with the implementation of the two PLH parenting programmes in the

Touwsranten community, in different ways. They were purposively selected according to purposive sampling, where the principle is to choose information-rich samples of most success with restricted resources based on specific criteria (Duan et al., 2015). In this study, the criteria for participation included people who have been involved with the implementation of the parenting programmes. Four parenting facilitators were selected because of their knowledge of the implementation of the programmes but also different organisational aspects such as human resource processes. Two principal investigators of the broader study in Touwsranten were selected because they were involved with the first staff employment process, were involved with the implementation and evaluation of the programmes. The supervisor was selected because she offered weekly coaching and supervision to the parenting facilitators. Two designers of the two programmes were selected for all their knowledge on the EBP's and the anticipated implementation processes.

The participant observation framework has been defined as the researcher studying through participation in the daily activities or having exposure to the routines of participants in the research setting. They become involved with the members of the community. This gives the researcher a better understanding of the participants (Kawulich, 2005).

As director of the SPI , this researcher conducted the project as a participant observer. Relationships already existed between the researcher and the participants. The researcher was immersed in the broader study and formed an intrinsic part of the research process.

Four of the nine parenting facilitators that have been employed through the years by the SPI were invited to participate in the study. They gave feedback on the four core components discussed (Fixsen et al., 2005). The supervisor, who runs weekly supervision meetings, was also invited to participate. Two principal investigators of the broader study, were also invited. The designers of the Sinovuyo Kids and Teens programmes were invited to participate in order to get a better understanding of ongoing consultation and coaching (Fixsen et al., 2005). The two designers of the two different programmes are employees of Clowns without Borders, South Africa, a NPO that offers training and coaching in the Sinovuyo Kids and Teens programmes. In total, nine participants were interviewed.



The other data sources included the following:

Table 4.1: Data Sources

Data Sources				
Resources	Staff Selection	Staff Training	Ongoing Consultation and Coaching	Staff & Programme Evaluation & Fidelity
Human resources records	x	x		x
Human resources records Including KPA records			x	x
Training opportunities		x		
Weekly Partner Meeting minutes	x	x	x	x
Employment Procedures	x			
Weekly reports from parenting facilitator supervisor		x	x	x
Weekly session reports			x	x
Programme fidelity checklists				x
Parent programme feedback				x
Interviews with:				
Parenting Facilitators	x	x	x	x
Programme developers		x	x	x
Principal investigators	x	x	x	x
Supervisor	x	x	x	x

4.8 Data Collection Tools

The data tools are two sources of meaningful data. 1. Various data sources from the broader research and organisational records, and 2. An interview schedule for individual semi-structured interviews were done with the various people involved in the parenting programmes.

Data sources from the broader research as well as organisational records, included human resource records, including employment process and KPA notes, training opportunities, meeting minutes of the weekly partner meetings of the broader research, weekly supervision notes, parents programme feedback and weekly session reports and programme weekly fidelity checklists.

Employment process records are records kept to provide support for employment of staff. This refers to notes during interview processes, observations, point awarded to be discussed at the deliberations of the employment panel. KPA notes include staff self-appraisal forms, goals for every six months, discussion document for KPA meeting, compassion-fatigue/satisfaction self-test and feedback on managerial staff. Training records include the different training opportunities that are offered during every year, some of these opportunities are for education staff, few for parenting, a couple for everyone in die organisation but most are for the youth who work for the organisation for one year. Certain training opportunities remain the same for every year and others differ.

During 2015 and 2019 weekly partner meetings were held between UCT, ISS and SPI to discuss relevant research matters. These weekly minutes were a source of information about the implementation of the parenting programmes and the research as a whole.

The weekly supervision notes of the supervisor were also a resource for data. Implementation of the programmes were discussed weekly and many other topics, support, coaching and brainstorming ideas.

The weekly programme feedback received by the parenting facilitators were included in the data sources as well as weekly session programme fidelity checklists. Lastly the parenting programme reports were added.

Individual semi-structured interviews

An interview schedule consisted of open-ended questions such as “What skills and attitudes do the parenting facilitators need?” or “Discuss contextual factors that became barriers in the implementation process”. Probes were also included to achieve depth in the interviews. Probes create flexibility to discover or elaborate on information that is important for the interviewee but may not have been thought of as relevant to the study (Gill et al., 2008). An interview schedule is attached (Appendix C). Using semi-structured interviews allowed the researcher significant flexibility to follow up on responses with new questions to be able to really understand and explore deeper and understand the perceptions and experiences of the participants better (Mueller & Segal, 2015). The interviewees were asked open-ended questions. The researcher as interviewer also used probing to get a deeper meaning of the data collected. The duration of each interview was 45 to 90 minutes.

During the interviews, the researcher kept the following communication techniques in mind for the interview to stay active:

- Avoiding interruptions of the interviewees' comments required the researcher to maintain minimum verbal responses and to actively listen.
- Throughout the interview, the interviewer frequently asked for clarification and rephrased comments to make sure that the facts were understood.

4.9 Data Collection Procedure

Permission to implement the research was provided by the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Western Cape (Sutton & Austin, 2015). The researcher had a meeting with the board of SPI asking for permission to do the research in the organisation. The chairperson of the board gave written consent.

4.9.1 Preparation of Participants

In qualitative research, samples are typically chosen with purpose. This indicates that interviewees are chosen based on their propensity to produce valuable data for the project. A maximum variation sample is one way to guarantee that this sample is reliable and includes the key groups in which you are interested. This entails picking important demographic factors that are likely to affect participants' opinions of the subject. Then you can assemble groups that represent different combinations of variables into a sampling framework (Patton & Cochran, 2002).

The majority of qualitative studies use purposeful, rather than random sampling techniques. According to the literature, prior experience, or theory, researchers pre-define which

types of participants or cases they must include in order to cover all variants that are anticipated to be relevant. This method is known as purposive sampling. Maximum variation sampling, crucial case sampling and extreme or deviant case sampling are a few types of purposive sampling (Busetto et al., 2020).

Purposive sampling has drawbacks, including the potential for researcher inaccuracy, low reliability, high degrees of bias, and the inability to generalize study findings (Dudovskiy, 2018).

The nine interviewees were identified by the researcher to participate in the research because they were closely involved with the implementation of the two PLH programmes. The participants will be referred to as Participant 1-9 to protect their identity. The interviewees were contacted individually and asked to participate in the project after an explanation was given of what the research entails. In this study, one parenting facilitator who was currently employed by the SPI was interviewed. Three previous parenting facilitators who had resigned earlier were also interviewed.

The two principal investigators of the broader study were interviewed because they were very involved with the implementation of the four PLH programmes, and the supervisor of the parenting programmes was interviewed. Two of the programme designers were interviewed: one who was involved with the design of Sinovuyo Kids, and one who was involved with the design of Sinovuyo Teens.

All the participants agreed to participate and voluntarily signed the consent forms. The researcher obtained permission to make audio recordings of the interviews. Field notes were also taken during the interviews. Appointments were made for the semi-structured interviews. Three (3) interviews were done virtually and six (6) were in-person interviews.

COVID-19 regulations were followed for all the in-person interviews. The interviewees were allocated numbers to represent their names in order to protect their anonymity. Paraphrasing was used to clarify the responses of the interviewees.

4.9.2 Interview process

Instead of facts or behaviours, interviews are used to gain insights into a person's subjective experiences, attitudes, and motives. Interviews can be classified according on how organized, open, or semi-structured they are. Open-ended questions and the use of an interview guide (or theme list) in which the general areas of interest, occasionally including sub-questions, are established are characteristics of semi-structured interviews (Busetto et al., 2020).

The interview guide's pre-determined themes may have been gathered from the literature, earlier studies, or an initial approach to data collecting, such as document analysis or casual observations. At the beginning of the data collecting process, the topic list is typically modified and refined as the interviewer gains more knowledge of the subject. If the interviewee is unable to respond to the questions, or if there are concerns about the interview's overall duration, the focus on the various questions may vary from interview to interview. Some questions may even be skipped entirely. Because it interferes with the interactive aspect of the process, qualitative interviews are typically not performed in written format (Busetto et al., 2020).

The development of thoughtful interview guides with fewer questions, flexibility on the part of the interviewer to deviate from predetermined plans, when necessary, effective use of follow-up questions to elicit extended descriptions, and the ability to assist participants, are all considered to be essential components of good interviewing practice from the perspective of a researcher (Flick, 2018).

The information contains verbatim quotes with adequate content and context to allow for interpretation. Semi-structured interviews may start with some predetermined questions, but the interviewer has a lot of freedom to tailor the questions to the answers in order to promote more intuitive and organic dialogues between the researchers and the participants. In general, you should keep interviewing new people until your topic of interest is saturated, or until you are not learning anything new (Austin & Sutton, 2014). The fullness of the data is reliant on the number of interviewees though more than 15 interviews might hinder the analysis process and making it cumbersome (Austin & Sutton, 2014).

The benefit of conducting qualitative interviews is that they are participatory, allowing the researcher to address unexpected topics as they arise. This can also aid in overcoming the bias that is frequently present in written surveys that, by their very nature, can only measure what is already known or presumed to be relevant to the researcher (Busetto et al., 2020).

It can be difficult for many inexperienced researchers to separate their own beliefs about the research subject and related problems. All researchers can benefit from the concept of bracketing. The act of consciously using one's past as a research tool is known as "bracketing". There are many levels of bracketing, ranging from interest about an occurrence to being experienced. Bracketing can take numerous shapes in various study methods (Peters & Halcomb, 2015).

Whatever shape bracketing takes, the basic objective is always the same: The participant's interpretation of the occurrence should not be influenced by the researcher. To increase the rigor of the research, bracketing should be done not only before but also during the conduct of unstructured interviews. Researchers frequently have to make choices about what information to share with participants, how to react to what is being said, and when to ask more

questions, change the subject, or refocus the dialogue. Making these choices calls for reflection on the part of the researcher, and they suggest that formulating suitable responses is akin to bracketing in terms of what they decide to disclose to participants and what they purposefully keep hidden (Peters & Halcomb, 2015).

4.9.3 Field notes

The documentation of much needed contextual information is known as field notes, which ensure that rich setting information that exists beyond the original study (Phillippi & Lauderdale, 2018) can also be taken into account. The researcher made field notes after every interview to ensure that no vital information was lost because the engagement with the interviewees was her primary focus.

The integration of practice and classroom knowledge is expected to be strengthened and deepened through the writing of fieldnotes. Writing fieldnotes would assist researchers in interactive learning to observe more carefully and methodically, to think about both the ordinary and the extraordinary, and to pay close attention to other people's actions and concerns (Emerson et al., 1995).

4.9.4 Other resources from broader study

Data sources from the broader research as well as organisational records, included the following: Human resource records, including employment process and KPA notes. Human resource records are the individual records of each employee. It includes a contract, all the relevant forms for compliance with SARS such as banking forms, leave requisition forms, overtime records and KPA records.

KPA records entail documents used for every KPA meeting that occur every 3 or 6 months. The records include: staff appraisal forms, management appraisal forms, compassion fatigue/satisfaction self-test and the discussion notes of the KPA meeting

Training opportunities are the record referring to the training opportunities offered to staff. In-house training was provided on a regular interval and depending on funding training from other institutions were provided as well. Parenting facilitators started with the training in the four different PLH programmes. Soon after training opportunities were arranged to address amongst other things their psycho-social wellbeing.

Meeting minutes of the weekly partner meetings between UCT, ISS and SPI of the broader research. Weekly agendas usually consisted of the following items: Parenting programmes, Community survey, Data analysis, SNA data analysis, Social activation and Process data with variations as needed.

Weekly supervision notes were kept by the supervisor. She reported weekly on progress of different programmes being implemented, delivering challenges experienced during a specific week and overall emotional support offered.

Parents programme feedback referred to the feedback that every parent who completed a programme gave after the roll-out. These included challenges that they experienced but mostly successes. Parents who reached their goals gave feedback on those processes.

Weekly session reports address the assessment of the delivery of a specific session. The facilitator who delivered the session would give feedback on challenges, successes and other interesting facts.

Programme weekly fidelity checklists are built into the two Sinovuyo programmes and facilitators would give feedback on a weekly basis.

All of the different data sources gave information on aspects of the four research questions. The HR records show processes that were followed during employment of staff at different times. The training opportunities reflected on different training that was offered and how that impacted the delivery of the parenting programmes. The weekly supervision notes, weekly partner meetings and KPA processes informed the ongoing coaching and consultation. The weekly partner meeting, supervision notes, KPA processes, programme fidelity checklists, parent programme feedback as well as the weekly session feedback gave information about the staff and programme evaluation (Fixsen et al., 2005).

4.10 Data Collection Analyses

For this study, thematic analysis was used to analyse data. According to Caulfield (2020), thematic analysis is a flexible method that can be adapted.

The Thematic Analyses approach is a strict, yet inductive, series of steps created to extract and analyse themes from textual material in a visible and reliable manner. The methodology draws on a wide range of theoretical and methodological viewpoints, but ultimately, it's main focus is on precisely and completely setting narratives and experiences shared by study participants (Guest et al., 2012).

Because patterning across languages can be found and examined without having to conform to any specific language theory or interpretive meaning paradigm for people, experiences, or behaviours, theoretical analyses can be seen as theoretically flexible. This indicates that theoretical analyses can be used with a variety of theoretical frameworks (Braun & Clarke, 2013).

To interpret emerging themes in a text, such as a transcript, the researcher typically follow these steps: knowledge and familiarity with the material, coding, theme development, theme reviewing, theme definition and labelling, and theme writing (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Familiarisation implies the researcher must become completely immersed in the data in order to determine the level of the content. Researchers advise active reading repeatedly, to become familiarized with every fact of the information. To get a comprehensive understanding, the entire set of data must be read before coding. All of the data components are significant and if the focus is only on one or two, the risk is ignoring the rest. In reality, certain patterns and meanings in the writing progressively become apparent through analysis of the data (Javadi & Zarea, 2016).

Coding: By limiting the amount of raw data to the information that is pertinent to the research topic, dividing the data into digestible chunks, and using coding, researchers can turn the raw data into higher-level insights or abstractions, such as the emergence of themes. The coding process is started to disclose explicit and implicit meanings once a basic comprehension of the subject matter and context of the phenomenon being studied has been reached (Vaismoradi et al., 2016). Raw data can be sorted through coding. This enables the extraction and analysis of every section (Busetto et al., 2020). In this study, texts were highlighted and codes were created for similar content in interviews and other data sources such as human resource data (Caulfield, 2020).

Themes: Every time the original codes are produced, the themes are identified from the codes. The extensive list of various codes should be understood for this reason. Similar codes can be eventually brought under a set. Each set can be given a name with a brief description for each name separately. The codes should be meaningfully arranged according to the code sets. Other

codes serve as themes, some serve as sub-themes and some don't yet belong to a theme but must be recorded temporarily in order to subsequently identify the theme to which they belong. It may also be essential to extract a theme from such codes. Various codes might be combined to create a larger theme (Javadi & Zarea, 2016). (Majumdar, 2022). During this study, patterns were mostly identified according to the four different core components identified by Fixsen et al. (2005). Other themes that emerged from the data were: Referrals, Organisational Structure and evaluation and Challenges and Contextual Obstacles.

Theme reviewing: The reviewing phase is like a quality control exercise, to ensure that the themes work well in relation to the coded data, the dataset, and the research question. In some instances, the review of themes alongside the dataset confirms that they actually do work well and tell a distinctive and meaningful story that answers the research question. Other times the review process leads to adjustments to the current themes or start the theme development anew (Willig & Rogers, 2017).

Theme definition: During this step the defining of topics and then examining and improving them while analysing. The process of defining and refining leads to the theme's essence. This occurs when the topic explicitly states what it is about and which part of the data it covers. The things about the data that are fascinating and how they become important are determined in addition to the interpretation of the data's content. It should also be determined whether each theme has a sub-theme or themes. Sub-themes are actually themes within themes, and a collection of sub-themes creates a large, complicated theme that demonstrates the meaning hierarchy in the data. In this section the breadth and content of each theme is described in maximum two sentences. The names given to themes must be distinct, correct and obvious (Javadi & Zarea, 2016). The emerging themes should be in agreement with the research

questions (Majumdar, 2022). In this study, the defining and naming was again related to the four core components of implementation research according to Fixsen et al. (2005).

Theme writing: The researcher now has the opportunity to present the report. They will have written a big quantity already. Writing is a key component of qualitative analysis from the beginning. To construct the final analysis in whatever form, familiarization notes, codes, topic definitions, and a wide range of other writing are all helpful (Willig & Rogers, 2017).

The story of the themes is precisely, systematically, rationally, without duplication, and with appeal through or from within the themes, is vital to note. The offered core needs to be simple to recognize (Javadi & Zarea, 2016). The reader should also have an adequate understanding of the validity and reliability of the thematic analysis (Majumdar, 2022).

The thematic approach is often used for qualitative research to make meaning out of an interview transcript or survey responses about people's knowledge, opinions or values (Caulfield, 2020).

The next step is to consider a specific approach – inductive or deductive. An inductive approach was used in this study, meaning that the data determined the themes of the study (Caulfield, 2020).

In order to get an exhaustive overview of the data of this study, these steps were followed: transcribing of the interviews, reading repeatedly through the transcriptions, referring to other data resources as mentioned in Table 1 above, and making notes (Caulfield, 2020). This step assured that the researcher was guaranteed that the data had been captured in the most effective way and that the data was credible (Majumdar, 2022).

4.11 Self-Reflexivity

Recognizing a person's own subjectivity in their study choices and findings is known as self-reflexivity. This typically employed at the data analysis stage or of the research planning process. Fook (1999) asserts that, even though that is true, it ought to be an aspect of every aspect and step of the research procedure itself (Fook, 1999)

The observer-expectancy effect, also known as the experimenter-expectancy effect, anticipation bias, spectator effect or experimenter effect, is a phenomenon that arises through methodological self-reflection. Self-reflexivity is viewed as a process, position, action and outcome all in one. Reflexivity is a non-linear, dynamic spiral process that is likely to have no end (Popoveniuc, 2014).

The process involves more than a reflection of the research process and the outcomes; it assumes different layers and levels of reflection within the research. It questions the self and the knowledge of the researcher (Symon & Cassell, 2017). The researcher would be aware of their own knowledge and beliefs that are brought to the research.

Reflexivity is the understanding that the researcher and the subject of the study have ongoing reciprocal effects on one another. In order to be a reflective researcher, the researcher must consider how her thinking developed, how prior knowledge is constantly updated in light of new knowledge, and how this influences the study.

While reflexivity is more nuanced and involves considering our experiences and challenging the standard way of doing, reflection denotes and observation or investigation of the ways of doing or an assessment of our own practice (Symon & Cassell, 2017).

With the support of a research diary, field notes, and the data analysis process, the researcher in this study stayed aware of herself in the process. The most important aspect of personal self-reflexivity for the researcher included awareness of her own ideas and beliefs about parenting and parenting programme implementation, her hopes, intentional and unintentional responses to people, situations and the data (Francisco et al., 2023). As part of interpersonal reflexivity, her role as director of the implementation organisation where the research was done had an influence towards her subjectivity that she had to guard against (Francisco et al., 2023). During the semi-structured interviews to be aware her beliefs and inherent desire for the organisation to be successful and not let that influence her direction of questioning and/or follow-up and negatively influence the outcome of the research in any (Popoveniuc, 2014). Another kind of reflexivity is methodological reflexivity that starts with a paradigm. A paradigm is a way of thinking that guides research efforts, has an impact on the research procedures, and affects the findings of the study (Francisco et al., 2023). Contextual reflexivity refers to the question: What effects do contextual factors have on the research and those involved? The researcher was aware of the context in which the study occurred. Factors she was aware of ranged from cultural to historical factors such as power and race (Francisco et al., 2023).

4.12 Trustworthiness

It is widely acknowledged that methodologies used in qualitative research must be acceptable, important, rigorous, and ethical (Cohen & Crabtree, 2008). Research integrity and soundness are equally crucial in qualitative studies as they are in other types of research, despite the fact that the labels "reliability" and "validity" are controversial among social scientists, with some favouring the term "verification" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Meaning is influenced by culture and evolves over time. Depending on the phenomenon's cultural relevance, several theories will be used to explain it. Culture can refer to a nation, a neighbourhood or another real-world or virtual organisation and people can participate in culture on different levels. Consistency amongst research projects is possible when determining meaning for members of a specific group (Hammarberg et al., 2016).

Qualitative researchers use a variety of strategies to uphold the integrity of their work, with continuity, relevance, integrity, and validity serving as the main evaluating criteria (Hammarberg et al., 2016). The validation of qualitative research requires thoroughness. A reliable study is one that is executed justly and ethically to represent the experiences of the participants as closely as



possible. The same thorough procedure description as in any other study should be included in the report of a qualitative investigation (Busetto et al., 2020).

According to Guba (1981) the following aspects of trustworthiness needs to be addressed regardless of the research study.

1. How can a researcher feel confident in his or her findings, or how can we tell if the results provided are real? This addresses the truth interest.
2. How can we tell if the research conclusions apply to other contexts or to different respondents? This addresses the transferability interest.
3. How can one determine if the results would be consistently repeated with the same people in the same situation? This addresses the consistency interest.
4. How can we be sure that the investigation was unaffected by the researcher's prejudices, goals or interests and that the findings come only from the participants? This addresses the neutrality interests (Guba, 1981).

Trustworthiness is a key concept in research to ensure the study's integrity. The researcher applied the following methods to ensure the integrity of the research: triangulation, neutrality, credibility, transferability and transparency.

4.12.1 Triangulation

To improve the reliability of a research study, data triangulation includes using multiple sources of data. Participants, other researchers, program employees, other community members, and so on are possible sources for this information. Because it is the simplest to apply, triangulation, in which researchers employ many sources, is probably the most widely used (Guion et al., 2011).

The threats to trustworthiness include prejudice from the researcher or the participants, which can be mitigated through the strategies of triangulation. This entails documenting the processes of data collection, analysis, and approaches to ensure trustworthiness (Maxwell & Reybould, 2015). Convergence of information from different sources, referred to as triangulation, is a qualitative research strategy that tests validity (Carter et al., 2014).

Triangulation has several advantages, such as boosting research data confidence, generating novel explanations for phenomena, exposing novel findings, questioning or merging theories and facilitating a better comprehension of the issue. These advantages are largely due to the variety and volume of data that may be analysed (Guion et al., 2011).

In this study, data triangulation was used through the written data from the broader study and organisational records and the data from semi-structured interviews.

4.12.2 Neutrality

This refers to the extent to which research discoveries are exclusive of the interviewer's perspectives and have no other motivations, such as those of the researcher (Krefting, 1991). The researcher's opinions and perspectives should not play a role in the research. Seeing that the researcher is the director of the organisation and some of the interviewees were staff members at SPI, extra measures were taken to assure the neutrality of the study. Two objective people, independent from the organisation or the research study read through the transcripts and listened to the recordings to verify that the data was authentic.

4.12.3 Credibility

The suggested criterion for determining the genuine worth of a qualitative investigation is credibility (Beck, 1993). This component is founded on the idea that there is only one tangible

reality that can be gauged. A study's trustworthiness depends on how precisely it describes the participants' experiences so that they may easily identify the representations (Krefting, 1991).

The standard for assessing the internal validity or trustworthiness of the data of qualitative research is credibility. A qualitative study is credible if the participants and others who care for or treat them can identify with the findings when they are presented with proper context descriptions. Verbatim quotes from the data are provided to show and corroborate the researcher's perceptions. As the instrument in qualitative research, the researcher defends her credibility using techniques including reflexivity, triangulation and significant exposition of the interpretation process. The validity of the study is questioned when data parts and interpretations conflict (Hammarberg et al., 2016)

A qualitative report must contain information on the researcher because they are the tool in qualitative inquiry. What background, education and viewpoint does the researcher contribute to the topic? What ties to the subjects, programmes or research question does the researcher personally have? How did the researcher enter the study location? What background information did the researcher bring to the study location and the research study (Patton, 1999)?

The general rule is to disclose any personal or professional information that might have had a favourable or negative impact on data collection, analysis, or interpretation (Patton, 1999).

4.12.4 Transferability

The idea of transferability has more to do with the applicability of research findings in different contexts than it does with the research methodology or data analysis techniques. The researcher does not need to be familiar with other settings, but is encouraged to provide enough details about the research environment so that the reader can assess its relevance that a reader may judge whether the current environment is comparable to another setting they are familiar with and

whether the findings can legitimately be transferred to that other settings (Shenton, 2004).

The researcher in this study provided adequate characteristics of the context for the reader to be able to determine if the findings of the current study can appropriately pertain to another settings.

4.12.5 Transparency

The transparency of a research process directly influences the quality of the research. The confirmation of results and findings relates to credibility. These issues make a study reliable and valid (Kapiszewski & Karcher, 2021). These principles were adhered to during this study through meticulous record keeping and leaving a clear audit trail.

4.13 Ethics Statement

The attempt to strike a balance between the possibility of harm and the potential advantages that may result from study participation for people, groups, communities, organisations, and even societies is the basis of ethical research. The various forms of injury, their propensity to occur, and strategies for reducing them must all be taken into account (Iphofen & Tolich, 2018). From start to the finish of the study process, ethics should be viewed as a negotiating process (Moosa, 2013). In this study it was difficult to be able to distinguish between participants' observations but the decision was made to protect their identity and not define their different roles.

The four ethical concepts of independence, non-maleficence, benevolence, and fairness are listed by Beauchamp and Childress (2008). The safeguarding of the participant in qualitative study is based on these concepts (Beauchamp & Childress, 2008).

Ethical Considerations

Permission to implement the research was provided by the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Western Cape (Sutton & Austin, 2015).

Permission was given by the chairperson of the board of SPI (Appendix D).

The researcher's foremost responsibilities were respect towards participants, active listening, and self-knowledge. Being non-judgemental was also adhered to by the researcher.

The aims and objectives of the study were clearly explained to all participants, and they received an information sheet (Appendix A). They were asked to sign a consent form if they agreed (Appendix B). The following ethical considerations were followed by the interviewer:

4.13.1 Beneficence

All the interviewees were asked for written permission and were assured that they would not be harmed during the study. The data were stored in a password protected computer. Participants had the right to refuse to participate at any time in the research (Mouton, 2001). Participants have been given full access to the findings of the research.

4.13.2 Anonymity

Every researcher is obligated to make sure that their research participants are safeguarded and anonymity is a crucial ethical process.

Even though ethical principles are intended to inform and direct researchers, how they are used by less experienced researchers can experience significant difficulties for individuals conducting research in various cultural contexts (Moosa, 2013).

Anonymity serves three other purposes in addition to those related to ethics that may have an impact on the general quality of the study. First, from an ontological perspective, anonymity is a

method of converting what someone has said into data. Second, anonymization is used to “analyse” data, which transforms participants into illustrations of particular theoretical groupings. Thirdly, anonymity’s “autonomy” allows the researcher to analyse the data without regard to the participant’s preference (Vainio, 2013).

All interviews and reports were reported without identifiable details of the nine participants of this study. After consideration it was decided that the participant would not be grouped under different roles but just numbers.

4.13.3 Actions and competence of researcher

To ensure the validity of the study, verification was done throughout the research. The accuracy and interpretation of the data were reviewed regularly. The interviewees could freely share their views and opinions and were encouraged to do so. The researcher conducted the research with the foremost goal of contributing to improving service delivery at SPI. Another goal was to share the research with other organisations implementing parenting programmes. At regular intervals, the question of the significance of the study and the contribution to the existing literature was reflected upon. Independent, objective observers verified the interview process. In addition, the supervisor overseeing this research project holds a PhD in psychology and specialises in family and child wellbeing with a focus on parenting, family structures and practices.

4.13.4 Publication of findings

The findings of the study might be published in an academic journal to contribute to the current academic research on implementation science. Findings will be reported in such a way as to prevent the identification of participants.

4.13.5 Disclosure

The researcher's personal roles and traits that might influence the study or its outcome were disclosed (Yin, 2016), including the fact that she is the director of the organisation where the research was conducted. Her influence and role in the organisation were acknowledged and two independent, objective observers were asked to review the recordings and transcripts.

4.13.6 Permission to conduct the study

The researcher obtained permission from the University of Western Cape's Senate Research Committee to conduct the research. The researcher obtained permission from the Seven Passes Initiative board to conduct the study at Seven Passes Initiative. Permission to use the broader study's data was also obtained from ISS and UCT.

4.13.7 Informed consent

The researcher gave a detailed explanation of the purpose of the study to the participants, after the information sheets were provided to them (see Appendix A). The informed consent form also included all the relevant information about the research. All the participants signed the consent forms (Appendix B).

4.13.8 Voluntary participation

Participants were informed that participating in this study was voluntary. Voluntary participation means that participants were recruited following clear explanations of the purpose of the study. They were also advised that they had the choice to participate or to withdraw at any time from the study, without prejudice (Leedy, 1989).

4.13.9 Confidentiality and the right to anonymity

The confidentiality of participants was ensured by protecting their identity while sharing the data. Their real identities were not disclosed. The researcher assigned numbers to each participant to ensure their anonymity. The participants were informed of the audio recordings of the interviews and permission was given for that (De Vos et al., 2011). They were further informed that the data is kept on a password protected computer and on Dropbox. Two independent people read through the transcriptions and listened to the interviews to ensure the trustworthiness of the study. They both signed a confidentiality agreement (Appendix F). Through these steps, the researcher ensured confidentiality and privacy of the participants.

4.14 Significance of the Study

This study will advance the research of Implementation Science. This study will add to the literature of implementation research. The importance of applying effective implementation frameworks in the NPO sector has not received thorough attention and this study might add to the knowledge (Powell & Beidas, 2016). The level of implementation and therefore the outcomes acquired are influenced by contextual factors such as the organisational factors discussed in this study (Durlak & DuPre, 2008).

The execution of current programs in South Africa and other areas may be improved (Moullin et al., 2020). Factors influencing implementation in the inner and outer components, such as staff employment, training, ongoing coaching and consultation, and staff and programme evaluation as inner factors within the organisational environment and influencing factors on the outer level such as contextual barriers, culture, policy and funding, will be more clear to other organisations (Leeman et al., 2019).

The value of finding a suitable EBP for an organization or an area cannot be overstated. The research around adaptations to have a better cultural fit will gain from this study (Sarkies et al., 2022).

The study's conclusions may be significant for service delivery of The Seven Passes Initiative through the different findings produced (Cooper et al., 2022).

Studies using evidence-based programmes have revealed a correlation between trainer expertise and programme integrity and better client results and less anti-social child conduct (Webster-Stratton et al., 2014).

Improvement in service delivery of parenting programmes by NPO's will consequently improve parenting and therefore the wellbeing of children in South Africa (Gould et al., 2022).

4.15 Conclusion

In this chapter, the research questions, the design, and the methods that were used for this study as well as its aim and objectives were explained. The procedures and methods used for data collection, analysis, and verification were also discussed. Factors that contribute to the trustworthiness of the study were explored. Importantly, the ethical considerations of the research were addressed. The significance of the study was highlighted. In the next chapter, the focus shifts to the findings of the study.

CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this research was to explore the practical implementation of two of the evidence-based PLH parenting programmes in a rural community. In order to achieve this objective, qualitative research was conducted using an explorative and descriptive approach within a case study framework. In addition, the researcher utilised thematic data analysis to make sense of, or attach meaning to, the information supplied by the participants. The accomplishment of the research aim was directed by the following objectives:

1. Explore the staff selection processes in the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes.
2. Explore the pre-service and in-service training offered and needed in the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes.
3. Explore the on-going consultation and coaching that is implemented and needed in the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes.
4. Explore staff and programme evaluation and fidelity in the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes in a rural community.

5.2 Sample

The nine participants were interviewed by the researcher to participate in the research because they were closely involved with the implementation of the two PLH programmes.

Four parenting facilitators were interviewed, one parenting facilitator who was currently employed by the SPI was interviewed. Three previous parenting facilitators who had resigned or were dismissed earlier were also interviewed.

The two principal investigators of the broader study were interviewed because they were very involved with the implementation of the four PLH programmes.

One supervisor of the parenting programmes was interviewed.

Two of the programme designers were interviewed: one who was involved with the design of Sinovuyo Kids, and one who was involved with the design of Sinovuyo Teens.


Eight females and one male were part of the study. Four participants were coloured, one black and four white. All the parenting facilitators at the time of the broader study were coloured female employees and representative of the majority of the community Seven Passes served. Education levels were as follows: three had PhD's, two had degrees, one had ECD level 4 qualification, one had Grade 12 and some ECD knowledge, one unknown and one had Grade 10. Their ages range from late twenties to mid-fifties.

5.3 Themes of the study

In this part of this chapter, the different themes and sub-themes that were identified by participants are discussed. The following themes emerged from the study: Staff Selection; Pre- and In-service Training; Ongoing Consultation and Coaching; Staff and Programme Evaluation; Other.

Table 5.1: Themes of the Study

Themes of the Study				
	Themes	Sub-themes	Categories	Sub-categories
1.	Staff Selection	<p>Selection process</p> <p>Characteristics of a parenting facilitator</p> <p>Qualifications / Education</p>	<p>Interview with panel</p> <p>Practical component</p>	<p>Interview consisted of behavioural vignettes</p> <p>With Role-plays</p>
2.	Staff Training	<p>Formal training provided by CWBSA</p> <p>Experience training as participant</p> <p>Behavioural rehearsals and Change</p> <p>Challenges experienced with implementation</p>	<p>Inadequate training</p> <p>Refresher training</p> <p>Accredited trainer process</p>	
3.	Ongoing coaching and Consultation	<p>Importance of Supervision</p> <p>Timeframes of Supervision</p> <p>Characteristics of Supervisor</p>		

		<p>Training of Supervisor</p> <p>Consultant vs Employee</p> <p>Group or individual supervision</p> <p>Peer coaching</p> <p>CWBSA coaching</p> <p>Barriers to coaching</p>	
4.	Staff & Programme Evaluation	<p>Staff Evaluation</p>  <p>Programme Evaluation</p> <p>Fidelity</p>	<p>Key Performance Appraisal Process</p> <p>Other evaluations of PF's</p> <p>Videos</p> <p>Parental Programme Feedback</p> <p>Retention of Staff</p> <p>Videos</p> <p>Weekly Session Reports</p> <p>Roll-out Evaluations</p> <p>Fidelity Checklists</p> <p>Adaptations</p> <p>Registers</p>

5.	Other Themes	Referrals Organisational Structures & Evaluations Challenges and Contextual Obstacles		
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5.3.1 Theme 1 – Staff Selection

Table 5.2: Theme 1 - Staff Selection

1. Staff Selection		
a. The selection process	b. Characteristics of a parenting facilitator	c. Qualification/ Education

a. The Selection Process

Five participants (2, 5, 6, 8, 9) gave detailed responses on the employment process followed at SPI. According to the staff selection policy of SPI, all interview processes were done by a panel with no less than 3 representatives on the panel. In 2016 when the first three parenting facilitators were employed the panel consisted of the two principal investigators of the broader study and the director of SPI. At the end of 2016 the organisation realized that we needed to employ another parenting facilitator. One of the education facilitators who completed the training with the first three parenting facilitators were offered the position. At the end of 2017 two of the parenting facilitators resigned. The new panel for the interview process consisted of the director and the remaining two parenting facilitators. The decision was made to employ three parenting facilitators to be able to deliver the programmes to the isiXhosa section of the

community. Two Afrikaans speaking and one isiXhosa parenting facilitators were employed. The isiXhosa parenting facilitator absconded after two months. In 2019 one of the parenting facilitators resigned and again two positions were advertised, both preferably for isiXhosa-speaking people. The panel consisted of the director and two of the three parenting facilitators. Since 2019, one parenting facilitator resigned and another was dismissed.

The employment process consisted of two sections:

1 Interview Procedure.

An interview procedure that was done with a panel; the interview consisted of questions, role plays and behaviour vignettes.

During the interview part of the employment process the questions varied from personal information such as previous experience and education to creating behavioural vignettes (emotional stories) to establish the candidate's ability to do the work.

Questions such as the following were asked:

Why do you want this job? Can you tell us a bit about your previous experience and what do you think is relevant to this job? If you are in a shop and a child is having temper tantrum, how do you think a parent should react? Tell us if you have ever had to lead a group or speak in front of a group of people? What advice would you give a parent whose teenager has dropped out of school? What advice would you give a parent whose teenager is going out with someone they don't like How comfortable would you be visiting someone's home and speaking to them about their baby, their body, their relationships. How would you handle it if you have been visiting a mom for some time and then she tells you that her partner is violent towards her?

2. A practical component.

During the practical section, the applicant had to do a role-play with a parent and a baby. The applicant was asked to get to know the mom and baby. Questions were suggested. During the ten-minute interaction the panel were establishing: whether she could establish rapport with the mom and baby; whether she could follow the mom's lead; what kinds of questions she was asking; warmth and connection; whether she was critical and or judgemental.

While children played in the holiday programme offered by SPI, the applicant had to choose a child and spend half an hour observing the child – watched body language, how the child interacted with adults and children, noticed the child's attitude, behaviour, language use – and anything else that they found interesting or remarkable. The child should not have known that they were being watched. The applicant then had to write a report in English about their observations of the child.

Participants 2, 5, 6, 8, and 9 shared that the process was sufficient because it addressed different aspects and used various methods. Participants 5 and 9 mentioned that they felt the behaviour vignettes and the role-plays made them feel uncomfortable as it might influence the panel's decision too much in appointing a specific candidate. Both had been present at the interview process as part of the panel and had realised how much weight the vignettes and role-plays carried as the decision-making tools.

According to participants 8 and 9, the use of role-plays in the employment process was an important aspect of the practical component because they gave a clear indication of the interviewee's ability to interact with a parent and child. The role-plays also prepared the applicants for the different role-plays which were used in the programme curriculum and gave

the panel a clear indication of whether an applicant would be able to become involved with a parent and child and be able to use role-plays comfortably during the implementation of the programme.

Participants 5, 6, 8 and 9 all said that they had been part of the panel during the interview process(es) for other people. It was a positive experience for them to be part of the employment process.

Through the interviews and organisational records, it is evident that the process of staff selection has a major influence on the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes in the following ways:

- The employment process followed was sufficient to select the best candidates for candidates having the necessary qualifications, credentials, and abilities for the task (Mihalic et al., 2004).
- The two sections of the interview process supported the process of seeking the best candidates.
- Specific attention during the process was given to role-plays, observations, and behaviour vignettes. This agrees with McDaniel (1994), who focused on behaviour vignettes and role-plays as part of their research. A manual was developed by them to codify the selection of practitioners and included aspects such as those mentioned above (McDaniel et al., 1994).

Effective interviewing strategies that were connected to later work-results for employees included role-plays and behaviour vignettes, exchange of information regarding the work to be done, and questions about education and background (Maloney et al., 1983).

b. Characteristics of parenting facilitators

All nine participants gave clear characteristics of a parenting facilitator or community worker who is able to implement parenting programmes. These included the following personality traits and skills: be able to connect with children; understanding the importance of not using corporal punishment; the ability to understand that parents are the experts; parents work alongside the parenting facilitator to draw out knowledge; have a high level of facilitation skills; be kind and assertive; having good communication and observation skills; being able to interact non-judgmentally with self-confidence; not be too old and set in their ways; not be too young; know what parenting involves; be flexible and adaptable; appreciate and incorporate the values and principles of the parenting programmes; openness of mind; be able to read English with understanding; good interpersonal skills; a basic understanding of child development; be able to give information emphatically; be a person with strong boundaries; at the same time be able to work in a team; be trainable; be able to handle conflict flexibly; be honest and patient; be role-models; speak with integrity; be friendly; be passionate about parenting; love for communities and working in communities; they must be able to adjust in situations; be humble, helpful, and hardworking; be goal-oriented and well organised.

When interviewing candidates, it's crucial to probe their philosophies and values to see how well they align with the EBP. Within the confines of education and coaching, philosophy and values are seen as "unteachable." It is therefore crucial to choose a candidate with a philosophy and principles that are compatible with the EBP or organisation (*National Implementation Research Network*, n.d.). This aspect was not completely part of the SPI process. Candidates were tested for kindness and not being judgemental and acknowledging parents as experts but they were not asked about their own personal philosophies and values.

Even though the combined personality traits mentioned by research participants were unrealistic for any one person to have, it confirmed the finding that qualifications were less important than personality traits. Grade 12 was required by SPI as the highest qualification. Caution was however given that staff had to be able to do the administrative work required (Fisher & Chamberlain, 2000).

c. Qualification and Education

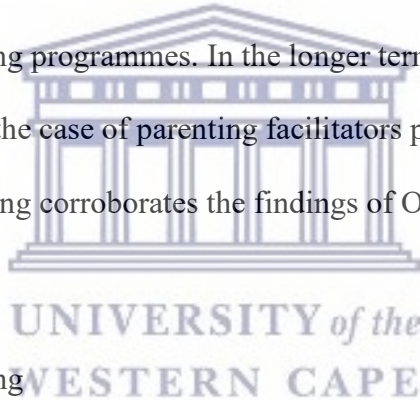
All participants were of the opinion that a qualification or education was not the most important aspect; according to the criteria for employment stipulated by SPI, the applicant should have had Grade 12, have prior work experience, be able to read English with meaning, be able to write a report in English, and be computer literate because of the administrative work that needed to be done. Participants 3 and 7 commented that people with less professional background need more supervision and/or coaching. This is consistent with the research of Mihalic et al (2004) that found workers with less formal training or qualifications made less improvement overall during training sessions. They frequently needed more experience learning programme procedures and background knowledge on important issues (Mihalic et al., 2004). One participant (8) felt that Grade 12 was not necessary but rather that skills and experience were. Participants 2, 6, and 9 felt that an ECD background was advantageous.

According to research on hiring staff in the human service sector, it may be important to consider both formal training like education, background, certification and experience as well as less quantifiable personal and social traits like devotion, communication abilities, and attitudes toward young people (A. J. R. Metz et al., 2009).

Knowledge of child development and having an ECD qualification were mentioned by the participants as being important because it meant that facilitators had a better understanding of the

principles of the programmes and were better parenting facilitators. This agrees with a study which looked at the core implementation components of the Multidimensional Treatment Foster Care Program. This included home-visits where interviewers looked for attributes such as a sense of humour, empathy, the inclination to take an active role in treatment, and knowledge of child development (Marks & Gersten, 1998). In a contrasting study in a high income country, the findings differed and the use of highly skilled therapists who had experience and knowledge in collaborative leadership skills and social learning theory delivered more successful programmes (Hutchings, Gardner, & Lane, 2004).

The researcher is of the opinion that having an ECD qualification can, in the short term, be beneficial for the employee, facilitator or programme presenter in terms of understanding the concepts of the two PLH parenting programmes. In the longer term, however, it does not have the same beneficial effects as in the case of parenting facilitators practicing and internalising the programme principles. This finding corroborates the findings of Olds et al. (Olds et al., 2002).



5.3.2 Theme 2 – Staff training

Table 5.3: Theme 2 - Staff Training

2. Staff Training				
a. Formal training provided by CWBSA	b. Programme participant prior to implementation	c. Extra training	d. Behavioural rehearsals/ changes	e. Challenges with implementation

a. Formal training provided by CWBSA

The formal training provided by CWBSA was a 5-day training where a collaborative and role-play approach were used. This gave a thorough insight into the content of the parenting programme. The training was backed up with meticulous manuals for facilitators and parents. Participants 1, 2, 4 and 7 felt that the training was not sufficient in addressing elements such as successfully delivering of the Sinovuyo Kids and Teens programmes, one participant (1) said the training was not efficient for when a problem occurs and in the early days there were no support from CWBSA. Another participant also felt the training was not adequate for working with groups without specialized facilitation training, building self-confidence, and teaching actual facilitation skills.

Despite the fact that using community members has some benefits, there have been some issues with it as well. Many of the study participants who delivered the primary intervention got just rudimentary training (a one-week to one-month workshop). This form of training restricts later faithfulness and mastery of the intervention's substance (Asiimwe et al., 2022).

CWBSA also provides refresher training to organisations who need it. Participant 3 mentioned that it was offered when organisations are having challenges implementation and it guides a process where parenting facilitators can expand their knowledge and skills (Participants 3 and 7). The situation with SPI was different. Other forms of training and skills building included weekly supervision sessions and coaching delivered by CWBSA and coaching later by SPI's own staff. The structure that CWBSA follows was that experiential learning was critical. Using mentorship, trainers could become more skilled and competent according to Participant 3.

The formal training provided by CWBSA, which followed a collaborative approach, was fun and instructive. This training lasted for five days and they provided a facilitator's manual for the two PLH programmes. The training was, however, not sufficient to implement the two PLH programmes with success. CWBSA does provide refresher training as well as coaching, but these services were not available when SPI started implementing the programmes. CWBSA's capacity as training organisation developed during the years of the broader study. In contrast to prolonged, active, self-reflective, and principle-based teaching, short, docile, teaching training approaches are typically useless. The finding of this study corroborates with the training approach of CWBSA (Webster-Stratton et al., 2014).

b. Experiencing the programme as participant before implementing it

Certain study participants attended the parenting programmes as participants before they delivered the programmes as a parenting facilitator. It formed part of the training process. Being part of a programme had definite advantages, according to participant 1: they became advocates for the programme, it improved their relationships with their own children, and they became role-models for the programme. Participant 4 said that they learned how to present by watching the others facilitate the programme. Participants 5 and 9 added that they delivered the programme with quality and authenticity because they believed in the values and principles.

Another finding was that being a programme participant before implementing it as a facilitator enhanced the implementation of the two PLH programmes. Five of the nine parenting facilitators employed by SPI attended a parenting programme as participants. It improved the fidelity of their presentations and made them advocates for the programme. This agrees with the findings of the Teaching-Family Model described by (Gersten et al., 2000).

c. Extra training

A few parents who formed part of the broader study as well as parents who attended the parenting programmes identified challenges that they needed support with. These parents were referred to different support structures. All of these elements had an impact on the parenting facilitator's coping skills, particularly their emotional support. They experienced secondary trauma, which affected their capacity for emotional regulation and led to levels of compassion fatigue and burnout. Interviewees 5,6,8 & 9 also felt that in the beginning of a programme roll-out parents did not trust them, the group, or the process to find solutions through problem-solving. One participant said that parents felt threatened that the facilitators were going to give information that they share with social services. As time went by and more parents attended the programmes and no information were given to social services people felt confident to share more.

With the exception of participants 3, 7 and 9, all identified a number of extra training opportunities that were offered by the organisation when the realisation came that the parenting facilitators were grappling with challenges mentioned above.

A substantial number of extra training opportunities were necessary to improve the parenting facilitators' ability to implement the two PLH programmes. Training mentioned by participants included: trauma counselling; Lifeline personal growth and active listening/counselling programme; working with groups – facilitation skills; Men Care – A Sonke programme that promotes impartial and non-violent fatherhood; Tall Trees – was a programme to explain a person's personality type to better understand themselves and those they are interacting with; Emotional Freedom Technique/Tapping – was an alternative treatment for physical pain and

emotional distress. It's also referred to as psychological acupressure, computer training, and facilitating skills; Persona Dolls was an excellent approach to comprehend and encourage children's development of socio-emotional abilities, particularly empathy. Children can acquire the practical skills necessary to effectively use their intrinsic empathy by using Persona Dolls; Sparks – A programme that helps young people with their awareness of triggers and their responses to emotional triggers; Our Story Your Story -through personal storytelling, OSYS workshops seek to strengthen community bonds, advance cultural diversity and give people more power; Communication & Conflict Management – training offered to improve communication skills and guide how to solve conflict; Sustainable Gardening – using techniques that doesn't cause harm to the earth; Work Ethics – training to support a system of moral principles and attitudes about what is and isn't appropriate conduct at work; First Aid & Health and Safety – standard training for representatives of the organisation to be able to perform these duties; Accredited Computer Training – entails training in the basic programmes such as Microsoft Excel, Word, PowerPoint, Email and Internet use; Mindfulness – Mindfulness Body Stress Reduction holistic, participant-centred approach training was delivered by two volunteers; Basic Counselling Skills – Skills for staff to use their interpersonal and professional abilities to better understand and interact with their clients; Inclusive Education / Dealing with Children with Difficult Behaviour – training offered to help staff understand how children, regardless of their behaviour should be able to access equal education and the services of SPI. How to help them use different coping strategies and being aware of their and personal triggers; Budgeting – forms part of the Sinovuyo Teens programme; Leadership – Different types of leadership of each staff member and how it is applied within the organisation; Personal Identity Documents (PID's) – refers to the different personality types in the organisation, similar to Tall Trees.

Training opportunities helped with staff retention as well as personal development according to participants 1 and 2. People who deliver parenting programmes needed the correct training and support to continue with high levels of fidelity (Axford et al., 2017). The training of parenting facilitators (and other staff members) was a process where needs arose and were addressed to the extent in which SPI had the financial capacity or volunteering to arrange training.

d. Behavioural Rehearsals and Changes

Behavioural rehearsal formed an integral part of the Sinovuyo Kids and Teens programmes. It also played an important role in the personal development of employees of SPI. Behavioural rehearsal involved practicing appropriate behaviour responses within social situations. There were many methods for rehearsing social behaviours. Methods included role-plays or individuals imagining or thinking about themselves performing and responding appropriately to others. According to participant 3, behavioural rehearsal was an important part of behavioural change, supporting change in three ways:

- You were more likely to do the rehearsed behaviour in the real world;
- It made you more competent at doing it;
- It increased chances it went well.

A similar model is found in the Incredible Years programme that uses self-reflective, experiential peer support, problem-solving and targeted training techniques that enables trends in acquiring behaviour management skills in addition to assisting parents in managing their own self-regulation and stress (Webster-Stratton, 2015).

Role-modelling forms part of the essence of the two PLH programmes; behavioural rehearsals contain the principles of social learning theory (mentioned by participant 3). The trainers modelled the principles to the facilitators, who modelled it to the parents, who in turn could model it to the children. The more the principles were practiced, the more they became part of a lifestyle.

Research from a systemic review, verified that role-plays was advantages because it gave adults a chance to practice new abilities, memorize tactics, and develop empathy for their kids (Butler et al., 2020).

Participants 6 and 7 believed that behavioural rehearsals were not just important for implementing the programme but in all aspects of life. They were of the opinion that you have to role-model the desired behaviour. Participants 5, 6 and 9 felt that behavioural changes were important to be a parenting facilitator. They were of the opinion that facilitators had to be reliable, be a role-model in the community, believe that they should be the change they wanted to see in the world (for instance, not be drunk on the street, not curse or scold but be friendly, and live an exemplary life).

The research done by Adams et al (1980) confirmed the statement of participants 5,6 and 9. Training personnel used behaviour modification strategies, particularly to reinforce proper client conduct, was a priority in human services organisations. However, the ability of the role-playing staff members kept becoming better. Role-playing may be superior to a lecture due to feedback and physical interactions (Adams et al., 1980).

Behavioural rehearsals contain the principles of social learning theory and, through role-plays and role-modelling, form an integral part of the two programmes. Values associated with

the two PLH parenting programmes are empathy, effective communication, kindness, and support. According to Hsiao et al. (2017), it is of utmost importance for those who deliver the programmes to internalise and practice the values in their personal and professional capacity (Hsiao et al., 2017).

The parenting facilitators found that behaviour rehearsals not only improved the implementation of the programmes but encouraged personal behaviour changes that influenced their whole life. These changes became visible through the years.

There is compelling evidence that behavioural family interventions are successful in reducing disruptive behaviour in kids (Hutchings et al., 2004).

e. Challenges experienced with implementation

The challenges that participants 5, 6, 8, and 9 experienced were similar. They were all greatly stressed when implementing the parenting programmes in the beginning. They were not familiar with the content and did not have enough self-confidence. The biggest challenge was dealing with parents' emotions within a group setting in addition to the usual emotional problems of parents. They also felt that in the beginning of a programme roll-out parents did not trust them, the group, or the process to find solutions through problem-solving. Participant 4 mentioned that it is a difficult community to work in because it is a small community and people are distrustful. Through the support of the extra training supplied and as the programme develop, trust was built between facilitators and participants and between participants. Training that supported this process was counselling training and facilitation skills training.

Challenges experienced with implementation, according to participants, contradict previous findings of SPI. Participants suggested that the biggest challenge was handling the emotional aspects of parents during and outside of the group sessions. The previous findings from SPI suggested that the retention, referrals, and recruitment of parents were the biggest challenges on an organisational level (Hsiao et al., 2017). On a personal level, parenting facilitators were exposed to secondary trauma because of being exposed to the emotional burdens of the programme participants. Programme implementers must experience the programmes' values, such as empathy, good communication, and support, for them to deliver the programmes effectively, especially if they experience trauma themselves (South African Dialogue Forum, 2019). agree with this principle. They are of the opinion that implementing staff should be supported and encouraged by coaches, especially when unresolved elements that surface in participants' lives mirror their own.

Intervention science in LMICs has frequently encountered issues with ongoing resource and training support, particularly supervision and post-training support, for program implementation. The educated and trained facilitators were in charge of maintaining the program's operation and community benefits once EBP developers/researchers leave the target location. These providers may end up burnt out and lose their newly acquired skills, motivations, and confidence in their ability to continue providing the EBP if they were not supported by continued supervision, refresher trainings, and resources (Asiimwe et al., 2022).

5.3.3 Theme 3 – Ongoing Consultation and Coaching

Table 5.4: Theme 3 – Ongoing Consultation and Coaching

3. Ongoing Consultation and Coaching								
a. Importance of supervision	b. Time frames of supervision	c. Characteristics of supervisor	d. Training of supervisor	e. Consultant vs Employee	f. Group or individual supervision	g. Peer coaching	h. CWBSA coaching	i. Barriers to coaching

a. Importance of supervision

Developing and strengthening evidence-based abilities and technical skills to meet practitioners' individual learning styles appears to be the foundation of coaching. Assistance during stressful times was also cited by various authors as a crucial component (Fixsen et al., 2005)

The two PLH programmes were designed with coaching and supervision as integral parts. Two participants (1 and 2) concurred with this. They realised that supervision was essential, especially for a lay person living in the community where the programme was implemented after only 5 days of training. Participant 2 mentioned that there was no degree of separation for the parenting facilitators between work and life. Supervision gave parenting facilitators the opportunity to reflect on what happened in a session, to polish skills for the next session, and to deal with difficult issues.

Participant 4 perceived supervision as the place where both content and problems in the group could be discussed and/or addressed through the use of role-plays. It was intended to provide emotional support and to create a space where debriefing could happen. Supervision could also be a space where conflict could be addressed and problem-solving done. It should, however, not be an assessing space. This echoes the words of Spouse (2001) that believes coaching involves

supervision, giving emotional assistance, evaluation and reaction and educating while performing practical tasks (Spouse, 2001).

The importance of supervision was highlighted in this study in the interviews, weekly supervision notes, and meeting minutes. Supervision was a space where parenting facilitators could review, prepare, and debrief, but it was also used to address other issues such as conflict that had an indirect influence on the implementation of the programmes. This corroborates the findings of the roll-out of Sinovuyo Teens in the Eastern Cape by Child Care Workers. The belief was that weekly group supervision sessions were crucial for programme support. Child Care Workers revered their relationship with the coaches and felt supported by receiving positive reinforcement (Doubt et al., 2018).

Participants 5, 6, 8 and 9 echoed the sentiment that supervision was essential. They all commented on how supervision supported them through the years. Participant 5 felt that it was one of the best things about work: personnel felt supported with the preparation of sessions, and feedback about highlights and challenges of sessions from both the supervisor and colleagues.

Increased coaching and supervision condition improved practitioner's ability to support group members practically, collaborate during treatment, understand cognitive-behavioural concepts and childhood development and successfully moderate vignette conversations (Webster-Stratton et al., 2014).

Ager et al. support the value of formal review procedures, attitude modification, and supervisory processes as supplements to staff training in intervention techniques (Ager & O'May, 2001).

b. Time frames of supervision

Participants 1, 2, 4 and 8 were of the opinion that two hours per week (as scheduled) was sufficient for supervision. Participants 5, 6, and 9 felt that it was not enough, and that a richer and deeper discussion could be had if more time was spent on challenges brought forward by facilitators. This was reported as being especially true when three or four of the programmes were running concurrently.

There is little research on the amount of supervision required to ensure effectiveness of the program and whether this amount represents a cost-effective strategy (Lachman et al., 2019).

The importance of the time frames for supervision was also discussed. Most participants felt that two hours every week was enough time for supervision. Ongoing and regular supervision is an important point of implementation and is regarded to be a vital ingredient of successful implementation. According to Robbins et al. (2019), research has shown that the outcomes of interventions decline over time if supervision is withdrawn (Robbins et al., 2019).

Even though timeframes for supervision has not been research often Diamond et al. (2002) is of the opinion that two hours per week is adequate (Diamond et al., 2002).

c. Characteristics of the Supervisor

Establishing crucial professional repertoires like peer feedback skills and public speaking abilities can be made possible through group supervision. Nevertheless, how the supervisor organizes the experience's elements to optimize these educational experiences affects the success

of the group supervision experience (Valentino et al., 2016). The following characteristics and skills were identified by interviewees

It is expected of the supervisor to display the behaviour that was expected from the parenting facilitators:

- role-modelling the principles of the programmes;
- be highly skilled and professional;
- have experience in the programmes and preferably deliver the programmes;
- be trainable and meticulous.

According to Carifio et al. (1987) superior levels of empathetic performance, respect, sincerity, adaptability, care, investment, and openness are characteristics of high-functioning supervisors. Good managers promote themselves as being competent, experienced, and specific. When they supervise others, they employ the proper teaching, goal-setting, and feedback strategies. Additionally, helpful and non-judgmental people who respect their supervisees and avoid trying to turn the supervisory experience into psychotherapy seem to be characteristics of good supervisors (Carifio & Hess, 1987).

Participants 8 and 9 added that:

- the supervisor had to be supportive and understanding;
- had to be able to give training;
- had to be humble and tactful;
- had to be able to guide the parenting facilitators to find the answer themselves and not provide it for them.

The importance of the characteristics of a supervisor as a role-model for the behaviour that is expected of parenting facilitators, parents, and children must not be under-estimated.

Effective supervisors assign their supervisees duties for case management, chances to carry out processes, chances to review clients, direction, and constructive criticism. Basic facilitating, persuasion, and assertiveness skills, counselling and evaluation abilities, mentorship skills, resource expertise, and testing standards are all necessary for supervisors (Nelson, 1978). These characteristics mirrors what participant 8 and 9 were emphasizing.

One of a coach's responsibilities is to help the facilitator anticipate possible responses to their behavioural change and to provide support during the initial stages of implementation until the new behaviour is more expertly ingrained in the implementation setting (Joyce & Showers, 2002).

Though the circumstances are not completely similar another viewpoint of successful supervisors can be found in research done by Kilminster et al. (2000). Successful supervisors are interpretive, courteous, attentive, flexible, knowledgeable, interested in supervision, good at keeping track of supervisees, and pragmatic (Kilminster & Jolly, 2000).

d. Training of the Supervisor

Participants 5, 6, 8 and 9 felt that training was sufficient. Participant 3 was of the opinion that the supervisor should implement the programme before becoming a supervisor.

The viewpoints about the training of the supervisor were contradictory. Participant 3 believed the supervisor needed to deliver the programme itself before being competent to be the supervisor.

On the other hand, participants 1, 2, 5, 6, 8, and 9, as well as the records, confirmed that the supervisor was doing well. In contrast to what is accepted as the norm at CWBSA, the supervisor

at SPI was a professional who did not experience the programme before acting as supervisor but was professional and supportive, according to the participants. The supervisor had however delivered a similar programme, Triple P, prior to being the supervisor.

e. Supervisor as Consultant and not Employee

In most cases, supervision was supplied by CWBSA to organisations who deliver Sinovuyo Kids or Teens programmes. In these cases, the supervisor was a consultant employed by CWBSA not an employee of the organisation. At SPI, the supervisor was contracted as a consultant as part of the broader study and not through CWBSA. Participants 1, 2, 5, 6, 8, and 9 felt positive about the supervisor as a consultant. Participants 4, 5, and 6 shared experiences of the supervisor being able to help with conflict because of their objectivity, fairness, and seeing things from a different perspective.

Another finding was that the supervisor being a consultant and not an employee was positive for the implementation of the programmes. The fact that an objective person from outside of the SPI ran the weekly supervision was perceived as positive by participants. Meeting minutes confirmed the ability of the supervisor to objectively resolve conflict and guide parenting facilitators with programme preparations.

f. Individual or group supervision

Group supervision has been the standard operating procedure at SPI and individual supervision was never offered except in very specific situations where parenting facilitators experience intense emotional stress. The question was asked to speculate on the value and measure if the need

existed. Participants 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, and 8 were of the opinion that group supervision was more positive than individual supervision for the following reasons:

- Individual supervision was very expensive; in a group, people learn from each other;
- There was social support and it built the team;
- Even though individual supervision might have given opportunities for self-reflection, group supervision taught conflict resolution and problem-solving;
- Participant 4 highlighted the fact that emotional unburdening and psycho-social support were experienced because of the group being small enough to share and build trust;
- Participant 5 said that different people see things differently and that gave more opportunities to find solutions to challenges; there were other opportunities for individual debriefing for people who did not feel comfortable sharing in a group.
- Participant 8 said that a disadvantage of group supervision was that some staff were not mature enough to receive criticism from peers. An example of a situation where this happened was when one parenting facilitator discussed a difficult situation that happened in the previous parenting session and the supervisor asked the group what a potential resolution could be. One of the other parenting facilitators suggested an excellent solution and was praised by the supervisor. The parenting facilitator who asked the question didn't like that. There were also instances where people felt jealous when other people received praise.

Group supervision has been implemented and was preferred by participants. Through input from the whole group, individuals could clarify challenges and improve implementation better than in one-on-one supervision. Problem-solving also developed as supervisors did not provide solutions to the problems brought forward by the group; group members had to work together to do this

for themselves. There was a referral system at SPI for parenting facilitators who wanted to debrief on an individual level, which meant that the issue did not have to be addressed in supervision.

g. Peer coaching

In 2016 SPI started delivering the parenting programmes and appointed a consultant as supervisor. She delivered weekly supervision between 2016-2019. She conducted two-hour weekly supervision sessions that included the following: providing emotional support while demonstrating the program's guiding principles, resolution of conflicts and a thorough supervisory report.

As two of the parenting facilitators progressed through the CWBSA criteria to become trainers, coaching received from CWBSA formed part of this process. The CWBSA coaching was mostly done virtually through Zoom and more focussed on content and facilitating support. SPI continued to make use of the supervisor consultant's services. The two parenting facilitators became coaches in 2018 and started coaching the other SPI parenting facilitators instead of the CWBSA coaches.

Peer coaching, where one of the SPI parenting facilitators coached another staff member of SPI on a particular session, according to participant 2, was not the strength of the SPI. There were low levels of trust between staff that hindered honest feedback. Participants 6 and 9 concurred. Parenting facilitators perceived the coaches' feedback as negative. The coaching created conflict and coaches stopped giving honest feedback. Participant 5 experienced the peer coaching as negative and only focusing on criticism and mistakes. The finding that peer coaching is a difficult endeavour for parenting facilitators at SPI has not been a surprise. Supervision notes and

HR records show how peer coaching has been strenuous. The lack of trust among staff prevented honest critique and inhibited true coaching. The ability of members to provide candid and constructive criticism is essential to the success of peer groups (Borders, 1991). The personal growth of and trust between parenting facilitators enabled the coaching processes to improve significantly.

The opposite of the SPI peer coaching was found in a study done by Van Den Homberg et al. (1999) that showed a significant improvement where peer coaching was implemented (Van Den Hombergh et al., 1999).

h. CWBSA coaching

Participant 7 felt that coaching from CWBSA is essential for parenting facilitators who have just finished the 5-day training. It provides support to new trainees. It also provides support for correct and high-quality implementation and fidelity.

There was a transitional phase between coaching received from CWBSA and that from SPI. Coaching provided by CWBSA is important for implementing the programmes with fidelity. In the situation of SPI, a consultant supervisor was fulfilling that role. As part of the broader study, the coaching from CWBSA was aimed at supporting parenting facilitators to become trainers.

i. Barriers to Coaching and Consultation from CWBSA

According to participants 3, 6, 7, and 9, the primary barriers to coaching between CWBSA and SPI were internet connectivity, the schedules of the coaches and facilitators, and language. In-person coaching was always the first prize according to participant 3. Participant 9 mentioned language as a barrier for coaching.

5.3.4 Theme 4 – Staff and Programme Evaluation

Table 5.5: Theme 4 - Staff & Programme Evaluation

4. Staff & Programme Evaluation		
a. Staff Evaluation	b. Programme Evaluation	c. Fidelity
1. KPA process	1. Weekly session reports	1. Fidelity Checklists
2. Other evaluations	2. Roll-out evaluation / Parent Programme Feedback	2. Adaptations
3. Videos		3. Registers
4. Parental Programme Feedback		
5. Retention of Staff		

a. Staff Evaluation

1. Key Performance Appraisals Process:

A periodical evaluation of an employee's work efficiency and contribution to the organisation is known as a key performance appraisal. Annual reviews, performance reviews or evaluations, and employee appraisals are other names for performance reviews. SPI had three monthly (for new staff) and six monthly for other staff, Key Performance Appraisals. The KPA process involved a scheduled meeting between a staff member and their manager. The staff member prepared by completing a staff appraisal forms, a management appraisal form and the compassion fatigue/satisfaction self-test. The manager and staff member then discussed the feedback from the forms and created new Key Performance Indicators (KPI's) for the next period. The discussion forms were dated and signed and a copy of the KPI's given to the employee. The

process was led by the staff member. The process involved work aspects but also other growth areas such as emotional regulation or conflict resolution.

Participants 1 and 2 shared that the Key Performance Appraisals (KPA) process of SPI was progressive in the sense that it didn't just focus on the delivering of parenting programmes but included personal growth, staff set the process and the process is not rigid. During the process, staff set their own goals, which created opportunity for self-reflection and goal-setting. It made the staff member aware of their areas of growth and strengths.

Participants 5, 6, 8 and 9 were of the opinion that the KPA process was thorough, and they all perceived it as positive. One described it as getting support continuously with encouragement to practice the programmes and do things in a different way. Another said it both empowers them to deliver the programmes better and also helped to improve other areas such as conflict resolution. Participant 8 reported that the two goals set during the first year (improving report writing and communicating with confidence) helped to achieve other goals as well. Participant 9 explained how the self-appraisal form, which is part of the KPA process, helped her to find strengths and growth areas.

Employee evaluations must be feasible so that they may be conducted regularly inside the organisation, and the managers doing the evaluations must be equipped for their responsibilities (Wineman & Fixsen, 1979). This is consistent with the processes that were implemented at SPI.

2. Other evaluations of parenting facilitators:

The SPI had different staff evaluation processes in place. These were, among other things, the assessment process done by CWBSA (Participant 1), soft evaluation that referred to the

communication lines between the supervisor, director and principal investigators. A problem was identified in supervision, it was communicated with the director and discussed during the weekly partner meeting and addressed (Participant 2), peer evaluation as part of supervision, coaching and everyday interactions between staff (Participant 2), meeting the goals and aims of the programme (Participant 4), coaching (Participants 5, 6), check-ins by management (Participant 6), and a KPA-process (Participants 1, 2, 5, 6, 8 and 9).

3. Videos

Every session of every programme delivered at SPI was recorded and the videos were used afterward to peruse their performance for individual improvement but also as part of supervision and part of the CWBSA process to qualify as a trainer. Videos were used as an ongoing coaching and evaluation tool. Participants 1 and 2 mentioned that videos were a positive feedback tool because parenting facilitators judged their own work without input from someone else, the same strategy is used by the Incredible Years Programme (Hutchings, et al, 2004).

Videos are used for ongoing coaching and consultation, as well as staff and programme evaluation. The importance of videos cannot be underestimated. Approaches such as video recording, behavioural rehearsals, and role-plays have been used successfully in enhancing behaviours, in line with what Hutchings et al. (2004) remarked.

Participant 4 and 9 shared that videos were used continually as part of supervision. During supervision sessions, videos were used to look at challenges and highlights. Another study discovered that videos were utilized to give both positive and negative feedback on how they were using the program's skills. Facilitators self-reported on their effectiveness following each

week, while supervisors rated one activity per session using video recordings (Berkel et al., 2019).

Participant 5 mentioned that videos were also used for external evaluation with CWBSA that ensured that parenting facilitators could move up through the system to become trainers.

As the session is being delivered, a video is being used to record how successfully the facilitators are doing their jobs. The presenters' abilities are honed through training using these films (Lachman et al., 2019).

A technique for delivering consultation services is coaching with embedded video-analysis, which uses technology to record teaching sessions, examine and evaluate videos, determine a goal improvement area and apply the knowledge obtained to practice (Lane et al., 2020). This research is supported by research done to test the validity of the Incredible Years Programme (Hutchings et al., 2004)

4. Parental Programme Feedback:

Parents who completed a parenting programme gave feedback at the end of a roll-out. The feedback included challenges but focussed more on success stories of families and changes that they incorporated as a result of the programme they attended. The feedback that parents gave were not primarily focussed on the delivery of the programme but on the changes that they have made to their lives.

Another question was asked to investigate the possibility of feedback from programme participants as part of staff evaluation. In research done by Fixsen et al. (2005) staff evaluations

by programme participants formed part of a more complex staff evaluation process (Fixsen et al., 2005)

Participants of the parenting programmes did not perform a formal staff evaluation of the parenting facilitators. Participants 1 and 2 were of the opinion that it would be a wonderful source of information if evaluations were done in a way to account for the participants' literacy levels and to retain their anonymity. Participant 2 suggested the use of open-ended questions by someone not living in the same community. Participants 5, 6, 8 and 9 remarked that parents evaluated in an informal way by praising the facilitator or expressing their gratitude or excitement about the next session. Participant 2 felt that evaluations done by participants of the parenting programmes would be a very good feedback tool to improve the work of parenting facilitators. Participant 6 felt that people from the same community would not be able to give an unbiased opinion and that could be hurtful towards parenting facilitators; participant 9 said that the informal feedback they received was sufficient. If it became a formal process, it would complicate matters and create disagreements between staff.

5. Retention of staff

In January 2016, three staff members were appointed as parenting facilitators. The chance to attend the training with the three appointees was extended to a fourth candidate who worked for SPI as an education facilitator but were not hired for the parenting facilitator position. In August 2016 the fourth candidate was offered the position of parenting facilitator. December 2017 two of the original three employees resigned and both have since studied further to become primary and high school educators. Three positions were advertised and filled in January 2018. The reason for the third position was to employ an isiXhosa person and extend the programmes to the isiXhosa sector of the community. The isiXhosa parenting facilitator was dismissed in March

2018 after absconding from work. The four Afrikaans speaking parenting facilitators continued until one resigned in June 2019. Two isiXhosa parenting facilitators were employed in July 2019. In 2022 one parenting facilitator resigned and one was dismissed.

The retention of parenting facilitators was another theme that emerged and cannot be viewed without a discussion of the characteristics necessary for parenting facilitators. The success of programme implementation can be strategically influenced by trainers. Two parameters in a study conducted by Boyd et al. (2017) showed early signs of effect. The first factor, named "Charisma," included items relating to traits that help the instructor and student form a good rapport (e.g., being warm and kind), while the second factor, named "Credibility," included items that underline the trainer's credentials (e.g., professional, experienced) (Boyd et al., 2017).

Overall, it was discovered that neither trainer qualities nor the accreditation status, model, or credential type of the program had an impact on trainers' opinions of evidence-based methods. However, it was discovered that instructors with prior experience instructing evidence-based intervention courses had more favourable opinions of evidence-based evaluations and interventions than instructors without that background (Reddy et al., 2017).

Participants 1, 2, 4 and 6 felt that a number of factors contributed to the loss of staff. Staff evolved through the different trainings and their workload increased, along with the stress that is associated with the work. Their salaries cannot be compared to other sectors. In 2016, when the first parenting facilitators were trained, the trajectory for the future was a lot more unsure than now. Some staff members struggled to incorporate the values and principles of the programmes in their lives (such as mindfulness practices and non-violent discipline). This reflects on the importance of the characteristics of the parenting facilitators.

Higher facilitator self-efficacy was strongly correlated with implementation in a study by Turner et al. (2011) that echoes the importance of the programme facilitator. Programme supports (quality of format and materials) and obstacles (managerial challenges and insufficient fit) had an effect on facilitators self-efficacy. Previous work experience, training contentment, and organizational variables did not serve as reliable predictors. These findings emphasize the value of fostering facilitators' perceptions of competence or programme expertise in order to facilitate the adoption of evidence-based programs in primary care settings (Turner et al., 2011).

Funding for NGOs who deliver violence prevention programmes is unpredictable, which influences their capacity to employ quality staff members (South African Dialogue Forum, 2019). The support from co-workers and the administration of the organisation mentioned by Fixsen et al. (2005) were reflected in this study.

The negative aspect associated with retention, mentioned by participants 2 and 6, is that staff become emotionally involved with other staff members. Staff members rely on each other and when someone leaves, new relationships have to be built.

The advantage of retention was that every time a new position was filled, the whole staff received refresher training. The training opportunities were also used to further the processes of previous staff to become certified facilitators, coaches, and trainers. This was mentioned by participants 5 and 9.

b. Programme Evaluation

1. Weekly programme reports

Participants 4, 5, 6 and 8 remarked that reports were done and sent to all the parenting facilitators, the supervisor, and director on a weekly basis for feedback. The reports were discussed in supervision, and if there were urgent matters such as referrals, it was addressed immediately by the director and/or supervisor. Highlights and challenges were discussed. The session was evaluated by the facilitator. Logistical challenges were also mentioned. Parents completed weekly programme checklist. According to participant 9, a weekly session report was completed (Appendix G).

1. Parent programme feedback:

After 12 weeks for Sinovuyo Kids and 14 weeks for Sinovuyo Teens, parents have the opportunity to share their feedback with the other members of the group. There were opportunities to share challenges but the focus was mostly on successes. The facilitator who delivered the last session gave feedback of the roll-out that included these stories. Success stories included photos of participants during the celebration.

c. Fidelity

Fidelity of the implementation of the programmes were of the utmost importance to the team. When using the five components of fidelity identified by Hutchings et al (2004): Adherence, Exposure, Quality of programme delivery, Participant responsiveness and Programme Differentiation the fidelity of the implementation was upheld in the following ways (Hutchings et al, 2004):

Adherence – through supervision, video recordings of sessions, weekly session reports, weekly checklists, weekly partner meeting where staff, programmes, supervision and other logistics were discussed such as referrals (Participant 2).

Exposure – through weekly registers, checklists, video recordings and parenting programme feedback.

Quality of programme delivery – through staff evaluation processes, training opportunities, video recordings, coaching and supervision, weekly practice sessions. Participant 1 also shared that Staff evaluation formed an integral part of fidelity because it formed part of personal development, that in turn became part of programme delivery.

Participant responsiveness – weekly session reports by facilitators, videos, supervision, parenting programme feedback. Reports for home-visits and weekly partner meeting minutes where possible participation challenges were discussed

Programme differentiation- through weekly fidelity checklists, supervision, videos, weekly partner meetings.

Participants 1 and 2 believed a high standard of fidelity was maintained during the broader study. Fidelity was upheld by the director and the two principal investigators. Administrative procedures and logistics were put in place to ensure the fidelity of all four of the PLH programmes. Different fidelity measures were in place such as weekly checklists and reviewing parents' goals for a programme once the programme had ended to see whether they had been achieved.

Different aspects of fidelity were applied. A strong desire by the team members of the broader study supported the fidelity of the two programmes (UCT, ISS, SPI). This finding corroborates with organisational capacity according to Durlak and DuPre (2008). Organisational capacity refers to programme champions, especially people with higher rank and positions in an organisation, who have the respect of other staff and can influence the process dissemination process (Durlak & DuPre, 2008).

Planning and implementing parenting programs should take into account a number of significant aspects, including making sure that facilitators receive high-quality training and guidance, striking a balance between adaptability and fidelity to allow for customised material to suit the individual, attentiveness to unfavourable parental situations, the need for broader familial support, and the availability of ongoing support after a program has ended. (Butler et al., 2020).

1. Fidelity checklists:

Weekly fidelity checklists that form part of the programme (see Appendix H) are completed by the facilitator. The checklists are sent to all the parenting facilitators, the supervisor, and the director for feedback.

2. Adaptations:

Participant 7 mentioned that no structural adaptations were made to either of the Sinovuyo Programmes for the Touwsrante roll-out, and therefore the fidelity of the programmes was not compromised in that way. Surface adaptations, however, were made to make the programmes culturally acceptable: The original programme refers to a rondavel as representation of the principles of the programme, but this was changed to a tree to fit better with the community and

Afrikaans-speaking participants, as rondavels are not a part of their culture. The changes were discussed with the programme designers before the implementation of the programmes. Only surface adaptations were made to the two programmes and the adaptations were discussed with the programme designers before implementation commenced to ensure the fidelity of the programmes. To enhance fidelity, a necessary goal is to ensure achievability of implementation and adapt target results, thus attaining cultural relevance (Mejia et al., 2017).

3. Registers:

Weekly attendance registers were used to strengthen the fidelity measures, and they were kept and sent to all the parenting facilitators, the supervisor, and the director after every session.

According to participant 2 the registers were an important tool to measure attendance. If a big number of parents, for instance were lost at a time, it would have been critical to follow up. All the attendance and evaluation data were kept in password-protected files in Dropbox. After level 4 of the COVID-19 lockdown was announced, the parenting facilitators started keeping a COVID-19 register for every session to adhere to the government regulations.

Weekly attendance registers were kept (Appendix K). This finding is reflected by the work of Axford et al. (2017), who are of the opinion that it is important for organisations to track what practitioners are doing. Fidelity tools include attendance registers and tracking quantity, adherence, calibre, and participants' receptiveness (Axford et al., 2017).

5.3.5 Other themes

Table 5.6: Other Themes

5. Other		
a. Referrals	b. Organisational structures and evaluations	c. Challenges and Contextual Obstacles

a. Referrals

With a large network of volunteers, a number of options for referrals were available to staff and participants of the parenting programmes. The following referral possibilities were mentioned by participants 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 8 and 9: paediatrician, psychiatrist, psychologists, counsellors, doctor, social services, and Options (a non-profit organisation working with crisis pregnancies).

According to the referral list of the broader study a total of 48 people were referred. Contextual factors such as hunger, poverty, substance abuse, intimate partner violence and other factors such as health and mental health problems were responsible for the referrals. Sixteen were referred to psycho-social support services, six were referred for medical problems, nine were school related referrals, nine were referred for abuse and mostly intimate partner violence, four needed assistance, for themselves or family members for substance or alcohol abuse, one didn't eat for five days and another needed physical help with a leaking roof of an informal structure where a family of seven lived.

Staff and organisational records of SPI show the referrals that were made to different role-players in the network of volunteers or statutory referrals (Appendix L).

The challenge organizations experienced negotiating the child-protection system, with its lengthy waiting lists and regular failure to follow-up, was one of the insurmountable difficulties they

encountered when offering parenting programs. Programmatically and morally and ethically, the absence of a referral system for cases requiring child protection actions is problematic (Hsiao et al., 2017). SPI was one of the organisations referred to in this document. With the support from numerous volunteers, referrals could be made to professionals who volunteered their time and expertise.

b. Organisational structures and evaluations

Participants 5 and 9 emphasised that the structure of SPI could create division between departments and therefore played a role in the implementation of the programmes. The SPI originally started in 2008 as an afterschool facility, and currently delivers five programmes of which the four parenting programmes are one. SPI employs 24 people in the five different programmes. The participants felt that mistrust and division transpired between departments, which can create conflict. They felt that knowing the organisational structures before commencing work would be important.

The SPI's ability to implement the programmes with fidelity was not measured against other implementing organisations (Participants 2 and 3). Participants 5, 6, 8 and 9 felt that the SPI was constantly assessed by the board of the organisation and the members at the annual general meeting.

Two advisory boards were established during the broader study that evaluated and advised the research (Appendix M). One was a local advisory board and the other was a provincial advisory board. Board members of the local advisory board included representatives from the Department of Social Development, Department of Health, the George Municipality, other NPOs doing statutory work in the Touwsranteen community, and a psychologist. Members of the provincial

board consisted of representatives from other parenting programme implementers, representatives from government departments, representatives from the Western Cape Commissioner for Children, and other researchers.

c. Challenges and Contextual Obstacles

Several challenges are uncomplicated and could be resolved easily, such as if there was a change in venue for a parent meeting. There are however challenges that participants 4, 5, 8, and 9 felt were not resolved and may not be resolved easily. These included alcohol misuse by parents, a challenging community where people are hopeless and expecting someone to solve their problems for them (Participant 4). Participant 5 described some parents “as already lost”.

Contextual challenges include: retention of parents, hunger, uncommitted participants that do not give their cooperation, parents who feel discouraged or hopeless about their children, parents who dominate their children (especially in the Sinovuyo Teens sessions), and the future of children in the community.

One of the challenges experienced by the parenting facilitators was compassion fatigue, especially at the start of implementation where the secondary trauma they were exposed too was affecting them. The SPI uses a self-assessing compassion satisfaction / fatigue tool for every KPA meeting (Appendix J).

Compassion fatigue is a frequent and expected reaction to the duty of regularly providing care for children. Compassion fatigue symptoms frequently resemble trauma reactions. Health care personnel can be shielded from the negative impacts of compassion fatigue by putting into practice methods that span the personal, professional, and organizational domains (Rourke, 2007).

The impact of compassion fatigue and the exposure to secondary trauma on frontline workers is discussed in the policy brief of the South African Dialogue Forum (2019). Just as in the experience at SPI, the effects of hunger and poverty appeared when parents revealed that hunger and having to plan a meal were preventing them from attending a parenting programme (Wessels et al., 2016).

Working with the many trauma-related stressors that their clients encounter can cause behavioural health professionals who work with traumatized clients to have a variety of reactions, including burnout, caregiver burnout, and empathy fulfilment (Craig & Sprang, 2010).

5.4 Conclusion

In this chapter, the different aspects of the research were discussed within the framework of implementation science. Themes that emerged from the data analysis corresponded with the core implementation components. The four core components are: staff selection, staff training, ongoing consultation and coaching and staff and programme evaluation.



CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the study, the conclusions of the findings, and the limitations and recommendations of the study. The objectives of the study were:

1. Explore the staff selection processes in the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes.
2. Explore the pre-service and in-service training that is offered and needed in the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes.
3. Explore the ongoing consultation and coaching that is implemented and needed in the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes.
4. Explore staff and programme evaluation and fidelity in the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes in a rural community.

Five key themes that were explored in Chapter 5 emerged from the analysis of the data gathered from the participants involved and the data from the broader research. The findings of this study were supported, clarified, compared, and contrasted using literature and theory. The recommendations will be divided into recommendations to SPI for further implementation, recommendations for other implementing organisations, and opportunities for collaboration and potential further research.

6.2 Summary of the Study

The summary of the study provides a gives an overview of all chapters together without going into specifics because they have already been adequately explored.

6.2.1 Chapter 1: Introduction of the Study

Chapter 1 provides a plan for the rest of the study. A discussion of the background, the research question, the aim and objectives, and the methodology is discussed.

6.2.2 Chapter 2: Theoretical Framework

In Chapter 2 a detailed discussion of the theoretical framework of the study. The four core components of Fixsen were used as the theoretical framework.

6.2.3 Chapter 3: Literature Review

Chapter 3 explored the literature in relation to implementation and specifically implementation of EBP. Implementation research, parenting approaches, styles and practices, international and South African parenting programmes and the two Sinovuyo programmes were explored.

6.2.4 Chapter 4: Research Methodology

A qualitative research design was chosen. A case study design was used and for the semi-structured interviews purposive sampling was used. Nine participants were interviewed. Four parenting facilitators, one supervisor, two principal investigators of the broader research and two programme designers were interviewed.

6.2.5 Chapter 5: Presentation and discussion of the findings

After gathering and analysing data, the researcher presented and discussed the research's findings in chapter five. The audio recordings of the data collection were also transcribed and analysed verbatim. The concepts that arose were then thoroughly explained. The findings were based on the themes that emerged from the study.

6.2.5.1 Theme 1: Explore the staff selection processes in the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes.

Staff selection and the employment processes followed to implement parenting programmes were discussed in detail. The data from the interviews were referenced with the data from the broader study and other research. The following was discussed:

For the staff selection and employment processes, an interview and practical sections were done. For the interview much attention was given to the history of the candidate and the use of behavioural vignettes.

In the practical component the focus was on role-plays and observations. The attention was on candidates' values. Both of these elements reflects the work done by McDaniel et al., (1994).

An interesting theme that emerged that opens a new research question was the theme of the characteristics of a parenting facilitator. There has not been much research done on this theme and can be very important in the light of the finding in this study that personality/characteristics are more important to be a good parenting facilitator than education.

With regards to education and qualification the findings were ambiguous with no definite result. Some of the interviewees felt that a grade 12 was necessary, one felt skills and knowledge were more important and a couple were of the opinion that an ECD qualification would be beneficial. The researcher is of the opinion that an ECD qualification benefits the candidate in

the short term but that a person who internalizes the principles of the programmes in their lives will be a good and successful parenting facilitator. This finding correlates with the international research done by Damschroder et al. (2009). They also add a different element to their research that hasn't been investigated in this study. Despite the fact that the characteristics or qualities mentioned are monitored on an individual basis, analyses often make better use of a dataset for teams, units, or service levels. The setting of the study determines the level of analysis to be done. In an examination of the elements impacting the execution of a programme, for instance, a consolidated measure of knowledge and abilities from the individual to the group level was made. Individual behaviour modification is the first step towards organizational change. The two most prevalent individual measures in theories of individual differences are self-efficacy to make the change and individual belief systems and knowledge toward altering behaviour

(Damschroder et al., 2009).



6.2.5.2 Theme 2: Explore the pre-service and in-service training that is offered and needed in the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes.

The formal training provided by CWBSA was fun and interactive and the use of role-plays linked to the first research question. The finding was that the five-day training was not sufficient for the facilitation of the groups and also if a challenge occurred. The training of CWBSA is experiential and learning takes place by implementing with the support from coaches. CWBSA offers refresher training for organisations who need it.

Two of the four parenting facilitators interviewed participated in the parenting programme as a participant before they became implementers. This created the opportunity for them for experiential learning and to become role-models of the programme in the community.

Many different trainings were identified and offered in-service as added support to the implementation of the Sinovuyo Kids and Teens Programmes. Training opportunities included aspects such as mindfulness, trauma counselling and computer training as counter support when the parenting facilitators were grappling with challenges mentioned above. The training also supported the retention of the staff and personal development.

Behavioural rehearsal was an important part of behavioural change and features in the two Sinovuyo parenting programmes, supporting change in three ways:

- Someone was more likely to do the rehearsed behaviour in the real world;
- It made you more competent at doing it;
- It increased chances that it went well

The programme training methods correspond with international literature on parenting programmes (Hutchings et al., 2004).

Challenges experienced with implementation, according to participants, contradict previous findings of SPI. Participants suggested that the biggest challenge was handling the emotional aspects of parents during and outside of the group sessions. The previous findings from SPI suggested that the retention, referrals, and recruitment of parents were the biggest challenges on an organisational level (Hsiao et al., 2017). On a personal level, parenting facilitators were exposed to secondary trauma because of being exposed to the emotional burdens of the programme participants.

6.2.5.3 Theme 3: Explore the ongoing consultation and coaching that is implemented and needed in the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes.

Ongoing coaching is embedded in the design of the two Sinovuyo programmes. The necessity of

supervision was discussed in this study in the interviews, weekly supervision notes, and meeting minutes. Supervision was a space where parenting facilitators could review, prepare, and debrief, but it was also used to address other issues such as conflict that had an indirect influence on the implementation of the programmes.

The findings of the study are reflected in the research done by Moir (2018). Coaching and supervision will encourage sustained development by the facilitators of the programme. Peer supervision offers the collaborative development of new norms and ongoing practice. Coaching has an enormous impact on the success of training and should form part of every evidence-based intervention (Moir, 2018)

Not a lot of research has been done on the time needed for supervision but according to most of the interviewees and research 2 hours per week is sufficient. The researcher made the assumptions that supervision times depend on the ability of the facilitators as well as the context of delivery and importantly, the funding capabilities.

The importance of the characteristics of a supervisor as a role-model for the behaviour that is expected of parenting facilitators, parents, and children must not be under-estimated.

The training of the SPI supervisor was sufficient even though she didn't deliver the Sinovuyo programmes before becoming a supervisor. She however delivered another similar parenting programme.

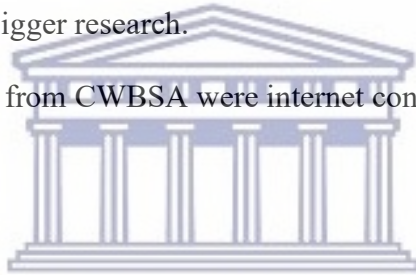
Another finding was that the supervisor being a consultant and not an employee was positive for the implementation of the programmes. The fact that an objective person from outside of the SPI ran the weekly supervision was perceived as positive by participants. Meeting minutes confirmed the ability of the supervisor to objectively resolve conflict and guide parenting facilitators with programme preparations.

Group supervision has been implemented and was preferred by participants. Through input from the whole group, individuals could clarify challenges and improve implementation better than in one-on-one supervision. Problem-solving also developed as supervisors did not provide solutions to the problems brought forward by the group; group members had to work together to do this for themselves.

Peer coaching, where one of the SPI parenting facilitators coached another staff member of SPI on a particular session, according to was not the strength of the SPI. There were low levels of trust between staff that hindered honest feedback.

As part of the broader study, the coaching from CWBSA was aimed at supporting parenting facilitators to become trainers. The role of coaching was fulfilled by the consultant supervisor contracted by SPI as part of the bigger research.

The primary barriers to coaching from CWBSA were internet connectivity and language differences.



6.2.5.4 Theme 4: Explore staff and programme evaluation and fidelity in the implementation of the PLH parenting programmes in a rural community.

The KPA processes of SPI were fluid and the process should be led by the staff member.

The SPI had other different staff evaluation processes in place apart from the KPA process.

These were, among other things, the assessment process done by CWBSA, soft evaluation, peer evaluation as part of supervision, coaching and everyday interactions between staff, meeting the goals and aims of the programmes.

Videos were used as an ongoing coaching and evaluation tool. Parents who completed a parenting programme gave feedback at the end of a roll-out. Parents did not evaluate the

implementation of the programmes. Some interviewees thought it would be a good opportunity for evaluations on staff but others felt that the feedback would be biased.

The retention of parenting facilitators was another theme that emerged and cannot be viewed without a discussion of the characteristics necessary for parenting facilitators. The success of programme implementation can be strategically influenced by trainers.

Weekly session reports were done and e-mailed to the group, director and supervisor. Any problems were discussed.

Parent programme feedback was done after every roll-out. This mostly focussed on success stories and changes of families.

Fidelity of the implementation of the programmes were of the utmost importance to the team.

When using the five components of fidelity identified by Hutchings et al (2004): Adherence, Exposure, Quality of programme delivery, Participant responsiveness and Programme Differentiation the fidelity of the implementation was upheld. Fidelity programme checklists were done on a weekly basis.

No structural adaptations were made to either of the Sinovuyo Programmes for the Touwsrante roll-out, and therefore the fidelity of the programmes was not compromised in that way. Cultural adaptations were made.

Weekly registers were kept

6.2.5.5 Theme 5: Other themes

Different referrals were made on a regular basis but challenges were experienced with the insufficient child-protection system and health systems.

The SPI's ability to implement the programmes with fidelity was not measured against other

implementing organisations but SPI was constantly assessed by the board of the organisation and the members at the annual general meeting.

Many challenges were experienced as part of the implementing of the two Sinovuyo Programmes. One of the biggest challenges experienced by the parenting facilitators was compassion fatigue, especially at the start of implementation where the secondary trauma they were exposed too was affecting them.

6.2.6 Chapter 6: Conclusion and recommendations

The study's conclusions and recommendations are presented in chapter six. It gives a general overview of the chapters included in the study, together with the restrictions that must be observed along with its conclusions.

6.3 Limitations of the Study

In light of the research being a case study, the study sample size was very small and only nine participants were interviewed. The character of the interviewed participants, the organisation, and the programmes, might differ from other research sites and findings can thus not be generalised.

The context of the community as part of the ecological approach could have been used to have a deeper understanding of the influence of the community and the impact on the delivery of the programmes.

The fact that the researcher formed part of the SPI and had a role of power in the SPI might be viewed as a limitation. All possible precautions were taken to assure the validity of the study, as described in Chapter 1. The neutrality of the researcher was assured through an ongoing process

of self-awareness and self-reflexivity. Another precaution was to consult two objective people, independent from the organisation or the research study to read through the transcripts and listened to the recordings to verify that the data was authentic.

COVID-19 caused a delay in the study due to interviews that could not happen during lockdown level 5.

6.4 Recommendations

6.4.1 Recommendations to SPI:

The first recommendation is that in-depth independent research be done in future to further the current research.

a. Staff selection process:

- Thorough interview processes: To continue and improve on the current employment processes of the organisation.
- According to the requirements of SPI, to qualify for the position as parenting facilitator, computer literacy is needed. Many applicants declare that they are computer literate, and some can even show a certificate of accredited training. The recommendation from one of the research participants was to ask applicants to do a practical test to be able to measure the true computer literacy of the person. This will ensure that hours are not spent by other staff to support the new employee with administrative tasks.
- SPI currently uses role-play with a parent and child as part of the practical component of the interview process. Another suggestion from a research participant was to use more

role-plays during the interview process and suggested a role-play of delivering a short portion of a parenting programme.

- Fixsen et al. (2005) suggested using a questionnaire for new employees; in this situation, it would be to gauge their knowledge of parenting and the values and principles of the programmes. To do this would enable SPI to start with pre-service training on an appropriate level which would give the new employee time to become familiar with and to practice and internalise the concepts even before attending the formal training of CWBSA (Fixsen et al., 2005). This sentiment was echoed in the study done in the Eastern Cape where Child Care Workers implemented the Sinovuyo Teens programme (Loening-Voysey et al., 2018).
- Adding to this recommendation is extra reading and knowledge sharing of relevant subjects that form a person's belief system such as gender equality, parenting, trauma and self-care, exclusion, the humanising of children, and effects of corporal punishment. To expose a new employee to parenting programmes without prior exposure to issues that influence a person's being makes it more difficult to really internalise the principles of the two PLH parenting programmes.
- Another recommendation is to continue with the current practice of new employees participating in a programme as a parent before implementing the programme as a facilitator. Just practicing the principles on a weekly basis encourages participants to integrate the principles into their lives.

b. Staff training:

- SPI should continue with the extra training it is currently offering. The recommendation is that more attention should be given to trauma training to understand the impact of one's own and group trauma on the experience of parenting and the effects on children.
- The SPI is currently working with the New School in New York on a model to create debriefing supervision sessions between two community workers in an effort to address compassion fatigue and secondary emotional trauma. This model can be duplicated in other implementing organisations.

c. Ongoing consultation and coaching:

- Peer coaching has not been SPI's strength. The recommendation is to build trusting relationships where peer coaching can materialise. The coach will take on the role of mentor.
- To continue with the constant support services from a supervisor / coach.

d. Staff and Programme Evaluation:

- The recommendation from one of the research participants was to focus more on an explanation of goals and goalsetting before a KPA meeting. The opinion of the participant was that new employees do not have enough knowledge of goals and goalsetting to really understand the KPA process. That makes the process arduous for new employees and can be discouraging.
- Weekly session reports were a problem for new employees. To support them, a template can be designed to ensure that important information about sessions is not lost. This will contribute to the fidelity of the programmes.

6.4.2 Recommendations to other organisations implementing parenting programmes:

- a. The recommendation to other organisations implementing parenting programmes is to contract a consultant supervisor if the possibility exists. The fact that the SPI supervisor is a consultant contributed positively to the implementation of the two PLH programmes. It furthermore contributed to better working relationships and conflict resolution between staff.
- b. The recommendation to CWBSA is to provide coaching in the home language of the parenting facilitators. The recommendation comes with the acknowledgement that although CWBSA has grown immensely during the last five years, they are also reliant on funding to deliver training and coaching services. Therefore, it may not be feasible or possible for them to fulfil this recommendation at the moment.
- c. Another recommendation to other implementing organisations is to consider using the KPA process that is driven by individual staff members with clear goal setting for professional and personal growth.
- d. For organisations who want to include parenting programmes as part of their suite of programmes, it is of the utmost importance to have buy-in from management and staff. There should be a enthusiast in the organisation who will advocate for the programmes and encourage and motivate staff. The parenting programmes will not be successful without belief in the programmes and the collaboration of the community.

6.4.3 Recommendations for collaboration:

- a. Referrals are such an immense challenge in the NPO world. The resources for psycho-social support are limited and costly. NPOs, government, researchers, and the private sector should gather resources and investigate different ways to approach trauma.
- b. NPOs should communicate implementation information with other NPOs, government, and researchers to enhance the knowledge sources that currently exist. Networking and collaboration should be priority between different sectors to address implementation challenges and to celebrate implementation successes that occur in South Africa.
- c. NPOs and government should together find solutions for the disproportion of funding between NPOs and government. Structural changes in government and the private sector can be made to enhance the funding opportunities for NPOs. Salaries and other advantages should reflect the quality of the sector. NPOs should prioritise working together to uplift and support each other and collaborate towards change.

6.4.4. Recommendation for research:

- a. The recommendation is that there should be more open conversations between implementers and researchers around implementing of parenting programmes to promote more implementation from implementers.
- b. The sample size of this research is very small. The recommendation is for other organisations to do similar research to get a sense of the broader field.

- c. In-depth research on the specific characteristics for successful parenting facilitators

6.5 Conclusion

The research question was answered through a qualitative approach and the research aim and objective were achieved. The results of the study provided insight into the practical implementation of the PLH programmes using the four factors, staff selection, pre-service and in-service training, ongoing coaching and consultation and staff and programme evaluation. A summary of the study was provided in chapter 5. Numerous recommendations were made for SPI, for other implementing organisations, and for collaboration between organisations to promote national change. In conclusion, the researcher hopes that the study will support further implementation of parenting programmes in SPI and add to the knowledge of literature on implementation research.



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APPENDICES

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APPENDIX A

INFORMATION SHEET

Project Title:

Exploring the practical implementation of the evidence based PLH parenting programmes in a rural community

What is this study about?

This is a research project being conducted by Wilmi Dippenaar at the University of the Western Cape. We are inviting you to participate in this research project because you are a parenting facilitator / supervisor or principal investigator / programme designer who participated in the Sinovuyo Kids / Teens programme. The purpose of this research project is to explore the implementation of the programmes in the Touwsrante community.

What will I be asked to do if I agree to participate?

Parenting facilitators: You will be asked to share your experience of delivering the two PLH programmes. Special attention will be given to the employment process, training opportunities, ongoing coaching and consultation and staff and programme evaluation.

Supervisor: You will be asked to share your experience with ongoing coaching and consultation and staff- and programme evaluation.

Principle investigators: You will be asked to share your experience with the staff selection process, pre- and in-service training, ongoing coaching and consultation and staff- and programme evaluation.

Programme designers: You will be asked about the original design of the programme with special reference to staff selection, pre- and in-service training, ongoing coaching and consultation with the organisation and staff and programme evaluation.

Would my participation in this study be kept confidential?

The researchers undertake to protect your identity and the nature of your contribution. To ensure your anonymity, the interviews will not contain information that may personally identify you". For coded identifiable information, state the following, if applicable (1) your name will not be included on the interviews and other collected data; (2) a code will be placed on collected data; (3) through the use of an identification key, the researcher will be able to link your survey to your identity; and (4) only the researcher will have access to the identification key.

To ensure your confidentiality, your contribution will not be made available to other people. This means that all your contribution will be kept safe at all times by using passwords-protected computer files and ensuring that the notes that will be taken down during the interview are stored

in locked storages. If we write a report or article about this research project, your identity will be protected.

In accordance with legal requirements and/or professional standards, we will disclose to the appropriate individuals and/or authorities information that comes to our attention concerning child abuse or neglect or potential harm to you or others. *In this event, we will inform you that we have to break confidentiality to fulfil our legal responsibility to report to the designated authorities.*

What are the risks of this research?

There may be some risks from participating in this research study. All human interactions and talking about self or others carry some amount of risks. We will nevertheless minimise such risks and act promptly to assist you if you experience any discomfort, psychological or otherwise during the process of your participation in this study. Where necessary, an appropriate referral will be made to a suitable professional for further assistance or intervention.

What are the benefits of this research?

The benefits include improving the delivery of the two PLH programmes in the Touwsrante community and making more information with regards to the implementation of the two PLH programmes available to other organisations in future.

Do I have to be in this research and may I stop participating at any time?

Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. You may choose not to take part at all. If you decide to participate in this research, you may stop participating at any time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you stop participating at any time, you will not be penalized or lose any benefits to which you otherwise qualify.

What if I have questions?

This research is being conducted by Wilmi Dippenaar from the Department of Child and Family Studies at the faculty for Community and Social Studies at the University of the Western Cape. If you have any questions about the research study itself, please contact Wilmi Dippenaar at 0726734346 or e-mail 3912710@myuwc.ac.za

Should you have any questions regarding this study and your rights as a research participant or if you wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact:

Head of Department:

Dean of the Faculty of Community and Health Sciences:

Prof Anthea Rhoda

University of the Western Cape

Private Bag X17

Bellville 7535

chs-deansoffice@uwc.ac.za

This research has been approved by the University of the Western Cape's Senate Research Committee and Ethics Committee.



UNIVERSITY *of the*
WESTERN CAPE

APPENDIX B

Title of Research Project: **Exploring the practical implementation of the evidence based PLH parenting programmes in a rural community**

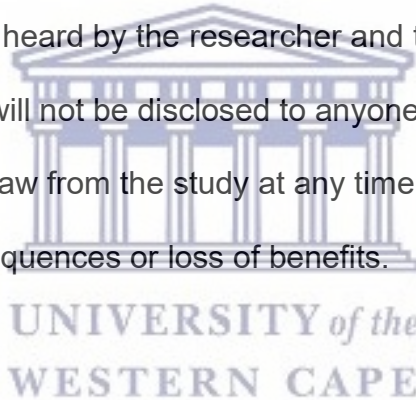
The study has been described to me in language that I understand. My questions about the study have been answered.

I understand what my participation will involve and I agree to participate of my own choice and free will.

I give my consent to be audiotaped. I understand that the audio will be used for transcriptions and will only be heard by the researcher and two objective individuals.

I understand that my identity will not be disclosed to anyone.

I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time without giving a reason and without fear of negative consequences or loss of benefits.



Participant's name:

Participant's signature:

Date:

APPENDIX C

Interview Schedule

Questions for parenting facilitators:

1. Tell me more about how you became a parenting facilitator.
Vertel asb vir my hoe jy n ouerskapsfasiliteerder geword het
2. How long have you been a pf? Why did you resign?
Hoe lank is jy al 'n of? Waarom het jy bedank?
3. Tell me more about how you experienced the employment process.
Vertel my meer van die indiensnemingsproses
Probes:
What process was followed?
Watter procedure is gevolg

What interview processes were followed?
Watter onderhoudsprosedure is gevolg

How were role-plays or behaviour vignettes used as part of the interview process?
Hoe is rolspelle of gedrags kortverhale gebruik as deel van die onderhoudsproses

What important personal characteristics do you think a parenting facilitator should have?
Watter persoonlikheidseienskappe dink jy moet n ouerskapsfasiliteerder he

How is education and background information important to be a parenting facilitator?
Hoe is opvoeding en agtergrond belangrik om 'n ouerskapsfasiliteerder te wees

In your opinion do you need knowledge of organizational structures and matters to be a parenting facilitator?
In jou opinie, is dit nodig om organisatoriese strukture en sake kennis van te he indien jy n ouerskapsfasiliteerder is

In the criteria for pf's are: write and manage case notes – is language a problem and how was it overcome
Deel van die aanstellingsvereistes is dat evaluasies en notas gemaak meot word – is taal 'n probleem en hoe is dit oorkom
4. Tell me more about the pre- and in-service training that was offered and needed for the implementation of the PLH Pro
Vertel my meer van die voraf en indiensopleiding wat aangebied en nodig is vir die implementering van die PLH programme
Probes:
What was the initial pre-service training offered? Tell me more about this experience

Wat was die oorspronklike vooraf opleiding? Vertel my meer van hierdie ervaring

How intense was the training?
Hoe intens was die opleiding?
Was it sufficient in your opinion?
Was dit voldoende in jou opinie?

What obstacles did you experience in the beginning of delivering the programmes?
Watter probleme het jy in die begin van die aanbieding van die programme ervaar

What other training did you realize were necessary for training for you to deliver the programmes with success?
Watter ander opleiding het jy besef is noodsaaklik vir jou om die programme suksesvol te kan aanbied

How did other training prepare you better to deliver the parenting programmes?
Hoe het ander opleiding jou voorberei om die ouerskapsprogramme beter aan te bied

Did behavioural rehearsals form part of the training process?
Het gedragsoefeninge deelgevorm van die opleidingsproses

What other forms of training support was offered to you?
Watter ander opleidingsondersteuning is aan jou aangebied

What other forms of training, in your opinion do you still need to implement the two PLH programmes?
Watter ander vorme van opleiding in jou opinie het jy nog nodig om die PLH programme met sukses aan te bied

How were skills building and professional development resources available to you?
Hoe is vaardigheidsopleiding en professionele ontwikkelingshulpbronne beskikbaar gemaak aan jou

Were referral resources available to you? If yes, please tell me more
Is verwysingshulpbronne beskikbaar gemaak aan jou? Indien wel, vertel my asb meer.

What role did staff turnover play in the pre-service and in-service training?
Watter rol het personeelomset gespeel in vooraf en indiensopleiding

What are challenges that other organisations might experience with training to deliver the programmes?
Wat is uitdagings wat ander organisasies moontlik kan ervaar met opleiding om die programme aan te bied

How, in your opinion can they overcome those?
Hoe, in jou opinie kan hulle dit oorkom

In your opinion what is necessary for behaviour change apart from training?

In jou opinie, wat is nodige vir gedragsverandering behalwe vir opleiding

How does the roles in the organization impact staff training eg supervisor, director, coaches etc.?

Hoe beïnvloed die rolle in die organisasie die impak van opleiding bv die supervisor, direkteur, afrieters en dies meer

5. What ongoing consultation and coaching opportunities is implemented and needed for successful implementation?

Watter deurlopende en afrigtingsgeleenthede is geïmplementeer en nodig vir die suksesvolle implementering van programme

Probes:

How was organizational structure adapted to accommodate better implementation of parenting programmes?

Hoe is die organisasie se struktuur aangepas om beter implementering van programme te akkommodeer

Was peer coaching used? How?

Is "peer" afrigting gebruik? Hoe?

What, in your opinion is the interactive effect of staff selection, staff training and coaching on implementation of the PLH programmes?

Wat in jou opinie is die interaktiewe effek van werknemers aanstelling, opleiding en afrigting op die implementering van die PLH programme

What systems are in place to help with your psychosocial needs and how is it implemented?

Watter sisteme is in plek om te help met psigo-sosiale behoeftes en hoe word dit geïmplementeer

How does supervision improve your implementation of the two PLH programmes?

Hoe help supervisie om jou implementering van die programme te verbeter

How can supervision, coaching and ongoing consultation improve in your opinion?

Hoe kan supervisie, afrigting en deurlopende konsultasie verbeter

What obstacles did you experience with coaching?

Watter struikelblokke het jy ondervind met afrigting

6. How does your own and program evaluation and fidelity contribute to the implementation of the PLH programmes?

Hoe dra jou eie en program evaluasie en getrouheid by tot die implementering van die PLH programme

Probes

How are you evaluated and how regularly is this done?

Hoe word jy evalueer en hoe gereeld word dit gedoen?

How effective is this evaluation process? What changes can you suggest?
Hoe effektief is die evalueringsproses? Watter veranderinge kan jy aanbeveel?

How did the evaluation process empower you, if it did, to implement the programmes?
Hoe het die evaluasieproses jou bemagtig, indien wel, om die programme beter te implementeer

How do participants “rate” your delivery of the programme? How can this be improved?
Hoe beoordeel deelnemers van die program jou aanbieding? Hoe kan dit verbeter?

How are the programmes evaluated?
Hoe word die programme ge-evalueer

What set of practitioner and organizational performance levels are in place to evaluate implementation?
Watter prestasievlakke vir die ouerskapsfasiliteerder en organisasie is in plek om implementering te evalueer

Was the programmes implemented with fidelity? How was it measured?
Is die programme met getrouheid aangebied? Hoe is dit gemeet?

Explain how compliance, context and competence contribute to fidelity of implementation?
Verduidelik hoe nakoming, konteks en bekwaamheid bydrae tot die getrouheid van implementering

What challenges were experienced with the implementation of the two PLH programmes?
Watter uitdagings met die implementering van die 2 PLH programme is ondervind

How was this addressed?
Hoe is dit aangespreek

How do contextual barriers influence the implementation of the two PLH programmes?
Hoe beïnvloed kontekstuele hindernisse die implementering van die 2 PLH programme



APPENDIX D

Short Street 6

George

6529

October 2020

The Seven Passes Initiative Board

6 Bester Street

Touwsranten

Hoekwil

6538

Dear Naizel and Board members

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT SEVEN PASSES INITIATIVE

I am currently busy with my Master's degree at the University of Western Cape. The title of my research is: Exploring the practical implementation of the evidence based PLH parenting programmes in the Touwsranten community.

I want to ask permission to do interviews with people who have been involved with the implementation Of the two Sinovuyo parenting programmes - four parenting facilitators, the supervisor, the two principal investigators of the research and two programme designers.

The study is important because it will add to the literature of implementation research. It will add quality to the implementation of the existing programmes in other communities. The findings of this study will be of significance to service delivery organisations who deliver evidence-based programmes. The study can influence the quality of implementation of similar programmes throughout South Africa. It can advocate for the importance of implementation science in the non-profit sector. Importantly, the study might improve the implementation of the Sinovuyo programmes at the Seven Passes Initiative.

All ethical considerations will be adhered to.

This research has been approved by the University of the Western Cape's Senate Research Committee and Ethics Committee.

If you have any questions or additional information, you are welcome to contact me or my supervisor, Prof Nicolette Roman.

Kind regards

Wilmi Dippenaar

APPENDIX E

Short Street 6

George

6529

June 2020

University of Cape Town and The Institute for Security Studies

Dear Cathy and Chandre

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO USE DATA FROM THE RESEARCH: TO DETERMINE WHETHER AN ACTION MEDIA PROCESS COMBINED WITH THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE FOUR PLH PARENTING PROGRAMMES WILL POSITIVELY CHANGE PARENTING PRACTICES IN AN ENTIRE POPULATION

I am currently busy with my Masters degree at the University of Western Cape. The title of my research is: Exploring the practical implementation of the evidence based PLH parenting programmes in the Touwsrante community.

I want to ask permission to use data from the research conducted by UCT, ISS and Seven Passes for my personal research.

The study is important because it will add to the literature of implementation research. It will add quality to the implementation of the existing programmes in the Touwsrante and other communities. The findings of this study will be of significance to service delivery organisations who deliver evidence-based programmes. The study can influence the quality of implementation of similar programmes throughout South Africa. It can advocate for the importance of implementation science in the non-profit sector.

All ethical considerations will be adhered to.

This research has been approved by the University of the Western Cape's Senate Research Committee and Ethics Committee.

If you have any questions or additional information, you are welcome to contact me or my supervisor, Prof Nicolette Roman.

Kind regards

Wilmi Dippenaar

APPENDIX F

Questions for parenting facilitators and principal investigators:

1. Give me a bit of background about your role as PI in the research that was done.
2. Tell me more about the staff selection process of the first parenting facilitators.
Probes:
What process was followed?
What interview processes were followed?
Were role-plays or behaviour vignettes used as part of the interview process?
What were recruitment criteria for these positions?
What were the important personal characteristics we were looking for in parenting facilitators?
Were men and women considered for the positions?
Did education and background information play a role in the selection process?
Were knowledge of organizational structures and matters considered in the process?
What were problems experienced with staff selected?
How were these overcome?
Describe the process how the supervisor was employed?
My own employment -does this play a role in implementation of 2 prog
3. Tell me more about the pre- and in-service training that was offered and needed for the implementation of the PLH programmes
Probes:
What was the initial pre-service training offered?
How intense was the training?
What obstacles did the parenting facilitators experience in the beginning of delivering the programmes?
What other training did you realize were necessary for training for them to deliver the programmes?
Did behavioural rehearsals form part of the training process?
What other forms of training support was offered to them?
Were skills building and professional development resources available to them?
Were referrals resources available to employees?
What role did staff turnover play in the pre-service and in-service training ?
What are challenges that other organisations might experience with training to deliver the programmes?
In your opinion what is necessary for behaviour change apart from training?
How does the roles in the organization impact staff training eg supervisor, director, coaches etc.?
4. What ongoing consultation and coaching opportunities is implemented and needed for successful implementation?
Probes:
If we refer to Spouse who said that a coach's 4 main roles are: supervision, teaching while in practice activities, assessment and feedback, provision of emotional support. What in your opinion is the role of a coach?
How was coaching and ongoing consultation provided to the employees of the organization?

Were there master criteria for facilitators? What did this entail?
What functional and adaptable set of skills was imparted to employees and how?
In your opinion what behavioural changes is needed from a coach to influence behaviour change in employees?
Group supervision vs individual reflective supervision
What systems are in place to help with parenting facilitator's psychosocial needs and how is it implemented?
How was organizational structure adapted to accommodate better implementation of parenting programmes?
Was peer coaching used? How?
What, in your opinion is the interactive effect of staff selection, staff training and coaching on Implementation?

5. How does staff and program evaluation and fidelity contribute to the implementation of the PLH programmes?

Probes:

How is staff evaluation done?

What role, in your opinion does the organization play in staff evaluation?

Tell me more about the KPA/Individual performance evaluation of staff in relation to the implementation of the programmes?

What other forms of evaluation are done with staff?

What practitioner level and organization level performance measures are in place to evaluate fidelity of the programmes?

How did the organization measure contextual factors, compliance and the competence of the parenting facilitators?

Were videos used? Describe

Were staff evaluated by programme participants?

Were staff evaluated against other implementation organisations?

Are there any self-evaluation methods/tests in place?

Have parenting facilitators, in your opinion contextualized the parenting programmes in the bigger research?

How was programme evaluation done?

Was programme evaluation measured to staff performance?

What set of practitioner level and organizational level performance levels are in place to evaluate implementation?

Was the programmes implemented with fidelity? How was it measured?

Explain how compliance, context and competence contribute to fidelity of implementation?

How did administrative decisions or changes affect the implementation of the programmes, things such as budget cuts, employing new staff members, moving offices? How is the affects minimized?

What fidelity measures are in place to measure the outcome of the programmes and who assess the measure?

Questions for supervisor:

1. Tell me how you came to be the supervisor of the two Sino programmes
2. In your opinion what role does staff selection play in the successful implementation of the programmes
What could we have done differently?
Was there master set criteria for facilitators? How can this be improved/change?

3. Tell me more about the pre- and in-service training opportunities that was offered to pf's. In your opinion was it sufficient? If not, can you think of other training opportunities they can benefit from?
4. What ongoing consultation and coaching opportunities is implemented and needed for successful implementation

Probes:

If we refer to Spouse who said that a coach's 4 main roles are: supervision, teaching while in practice activities, assessment and feedback, provision of emotional support. What in your opinion is the role of a coach? And how do you see your role as supervisor?

Was coaching and ongoing consultation provided to the employees of the organization and how was it implemented?

Tell me about the training that you received to consult and coach the parenting facilitators?

How is it relevant to the PLH programmes?

Was the allocated time per week enough, in your opinion?

What functional and adaptable set/s of skills was imparted to employees?

In your opinion what behavioural changes is needed from a coach to influence behaviour change in employees?

In your opinion, what set of functional and adaptable skills did you need to coach the parenting facilitators?

Discuss challenges, regarding implementation that was experienced with coaching and how these were addressed?

Was peer coaching used? How?

What, in your opinion is the interactive effect of staff selection, staff training and coaching on Implementation?

In your opinion, what structures do organization need to have in place to successfully implement the PLH parenting programmes?

Evaluate the success of the supervision regarding you being a consultant and not a permanent employee of the organization?

Group supervision vs individual reflective supervision

Questions for programme designers:

1. Tell me more about the staff selection process of trainers to train organizational staff?
Probes
Describe the process of staff selection for trainers to train organizational staff?
How does education and background play a role?
What characteristics are important, in your opinion to become a trainer?
What was the initial criteria for Implementers and how was this communicated with the organization?

2. Tell me more about the pre- and in-service training that was offered and needed for the implementation of the PLH programmes?

Probes

Is there a specific structure for training for implementation organisations?

How would you say are the following skills incorporated in the development of the training programme:

- Assessment skills
- Family and support involvement
- Social and cultural engagement skills
- Treatment skills
- Consumer relationship skills
- Community resource management

In your opinion, did the trainees of The Seven Passes Initiative learn these skills?

What, in your opinion did you learn about staff training through your involvement with SPI?

How were adaptations made to the original programme as a result of your involvement with SPI, if any?

How was behavioural rehearsals used to train parenting facilitators?

How was role-plays used to train parenting facilitators?

3. What ongoing consultation and coaching opportunities is implemented and needed for successful implementation

Probes

How are coaching and evaluation used to modify training sessions?

What, in your opinion is the interactive effect of staff selection, staff training and coaching on Implementation?

What barriers were experienced with ongoing consultation and coaching?

How was the programmes designed to ensure ongoing consultation and coaching?

How were adaptations made concerning ongoing consultation and coaching as a result of your involvement with SPI, if any?

4. How does staff and program evaluation and fidelity contribute to the implementation of the PLH programmes?

Probes

Are there a set of practitioner and organizational performance levels in place in the programme design to evaluate implementation?

Were the programmes implemented with fidelity at SPI? How was it measured?

Was it important as designers of the programme to monitor the implementation of the programmes? Why?

Explain how compliance, context and competence contribute to fidelity of implementation

How does it compare to other implementation sites?

How was programme fidelity tested against the performance of the implementers?

Are core components identified? How are they operationally defined and are there clear agreed upon criteria for implementation?

Have there been planned and unplanned variations of the programmes?

What fidelity measures are in place to measure the outcome of the programmes and who assess the measures?



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APPENDIX G

Objective observer verification of interviews and confidentiality agreement

To whom it may concern


With this letter I

ABRAHAM C.N. PRELLER (Name and Surname), the objective observer.

ID no. 35070657037088 declare that I have listened to the recordings of the nine interviews and read the 9 transcriptions of the research: **Exploring the practical implementation of two of the evidence based PLH parenting programmes in the Touwsrante community.**

I further declare that the transcriptions and the recordings correspond.


I will keep the information confidential and not share any detail or name of any participant of this research.



Signed

14-06-2021

Date



To whom it may concern

With this letter I

Dr Elize du Plessis (Name and Surname), the objective observer

ID no 5902160096084 declare that I have listened to the recordings of the nine interviews and read the 9 transcriptions of the research: **Exploring the practical implementation of two of the evidence based PLH parenting programmes in the Touwsrante community.**

I further declare that the transcriptions and the recordings correspond.

I will keep the information confidential and not share any detail or name of any participant of this research.



Signed



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15/7/2021

Date

APPENDIX H

Weekly session evaluations

GELUKKIGE FAMILIE OMGEE PROGRAMME 2-9YEARS ROLLOUT 11 SESSION 1- SPENDING SPECIAL TIME WITH YOUR CHILD

Date: 18 September 2018

Facilitator:

Co-fac:

- 5 parents attended the first session and I am proud to say that we have a father amongst them.
- It was a bit difficult for the mothers to set goals for themselves and I had to really listen to what they really want to achieve.
- One of the mothers made it clear that she and her son has a perfect relationship and there is nothing that she wants to work on.
- The more questions I asked, the more perfect the relationship became.
- She did say that she wants to teach her son what she was going to learn from the programme.
- The father participant was clear on what changes he wants to see in his relationship with his step-daughter.
- One of the mothers shared that her son is being bullied at school and that he is not attending school regularly.
- He's father died a while ago and now the kids at school bullies him because of that and she wants help for her 9-year-old son.
- They were eager to participate in the roleplays and it was easy for them to turn the negative into a positive roleplay.
- It was also easy for them to say why it is important for parents to spend time with their children and what it does to parent child relationship.


APPENDIX I

Weekly fidelity checklist

SESSIE EEN FASILITEERDERS KONTROLELYS

HET ONS...	JA	NEE	LEER
1. Elke ouer verwelkom saas hulle ingekom het	✓		
2. Ofs. Oï gesing		✓	
3. Fisiese opwarming	✓		
4. Naambordjies	✓		
5. Stel die Gelukkige Familie Omgee program/Vrugbare Boom van Ondersteuning	✓		
6. Maak reëls	✓		
7. Stel ouer doelwitte	✓		
8. Vertel 'vreemde dier' storie	✓		
9. Bespreek die 'vreemde dier' storie	✓		
10. Bespreek Spesiale Tyd met jou kind	✓		
11. Oinkskrum aktiwiteite om in deel te neem gedurende spesiale tyd met jou kind	✓		
12. Groeps oefening: Leiers demonstreeer swak oorskop	✓		
13. Groeps oefening: Ouers oefen goeie oorskop	✓		
14. Groeps oefening	✓		
15. Bespreking oor groeps oefening	✓		
16. Bespreking oor hulpvolle wenke vir Spesiale Tyd	✓		
17. Stel voor en oinkskrum tuis oefening	✓		
18. Deel met handboeke uit	✓		
19. Naam evaluasie vorms in	✓		
20. Bedank en moedig ouers aan	✓		

Vergedrukte aktiwiteite is kern program elemente.



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3E

APPENDIX J

Staff appraisal form



Werknemer KPA vorm

Employer KPA form

NAAM/ NAME:

Afdeling/ Department:

Wat maak jou opgewonde oor jou werk by Seven Passes Initiative?

What makes you excited about your work at Seven Passes Initiative?

.....
.....
.....
.....



Wat, in jou opinie dra jy by tot die werk van Seven Passes Initiative?

What in your opinion do you contribute to the work of Seven Passes Initiative?

.....
.....
.....

Verwys asb spesifiek na/ Please refer to the following:

Jou doel in die organisasie/Your purpose in the organisation

.....

Het jy jou doelwitte bereik in die laaste 6 maande? En gee jouself 'n punt uit 10.

Did you achieve your goals in the last 6 months? Give yourself a mark out of 10

.....

Spesifiseer/ Specify:

.....
.....
.....

Kan jy onder hoë druk funksioneer? Gee voorbeelde

Can you function under pressure? Give examples

.....
.....
.....

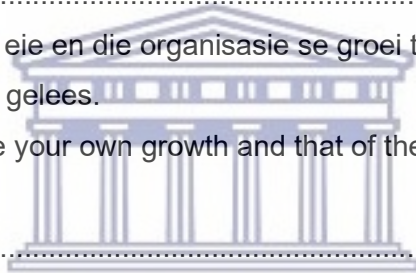
Op watter manier het jy jou ondervinding en vaardighede in hierdie tydperk uitgebrei?

In which way did you improve your experience and skills in this period?

.....
.....
.....

Wat het jy ekstra gedoen om jou eie en die organisasie se groei te bewerkstellig? bv opleiding, opvoeding, vaardighede, artikels gelees.

What did you do extra to improve your own growth and that of the organisation? Ex. Training, education, skills, articles read.



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.....Hoe het jy die organisasie se waardes in die tydperk uitgeleef? Gee voorbeelde

How did you live out the values of the organisation in this period? Give an example

.....
.....
.....

Noem 'n voorbeeld of voorbeelde hoe jy eties opgetree het. Give an example or examples of how you displayed ethical behaviour.

.....
.....
.....

.....Hoe het jy bygedra tot die spanwerk van die organisasie? En gee jouself n punt uit 10

How did you contribute to the teamwork of the organisation? Give yourself a mark out of 10

.....
.....
.....

Hoe het jy jou produktiwiteit verhoog? Gee voorbeelde

How did you increase your productivity? Give examples

.....
.....

Gee bewyse van prestasies wat jy gedurende die tyd bereik het

Give proof of achievements you achieved during this period

.....
.....

Hoe het jy bygedra daartoe dat die organisasie as 'n eenheid funksioneer? Gee voorbeelde

What contribution did you make towards the unity of the organisation? Give examples

.....
.....
.....

Hoe het jy inisiatief geneem om die organisasie te verbeter in die laaste 6 maande? En gee jousef n punt uit 10

In which way did you take initiative to improve/better the organisation in the last 6 months? Give yourself a mark out of 10

.....
.....
.....

Hoe het jy ander in die organisasie laat groei? Gee voorbeelde

How did you help others grow in the organisation? Give an example

.....
.....
.....

Vertel meer van jou kommunikasie vermoëns in die tydperk? En gee jousef n punt uit 10.

Describe your communication abilities in this period? Give yourself a mark out of 10.

.....Enige ander
kommentaar?/ Any other comments?

.....
.....
.....

Bestuursposisies/ Managers Position:

Hoe gee jy ondersteuning vir jou span? Noem voorbeelde

How do you give support to your team? Give examples

.....
.....

..... Hoe help
jy individue in jou span om n ontwikkelingsplan uit te werk? Gee voorbeelde

How do you help individuals in your team to compile a developmental plan? Give examples

.....
.....

Hoe hou jy werknemers verantwoordelik om hulle resultate te bereik?

How do you hold staff responsible to achieve their results?

.....
.....

Hoe verleen jy ondersteuning aan jou span gedurende tye van veranderings in die organisasie?
Gee voorbeelde

How do you support your team during times of change in the organisation? Give examples

.....
.....

Hoe gee jy konsekwente erkenning aan individue in jou span? Gee voorbeelde

How to you give consistent recognition do individuals in your team? Give examples

.....
.....

Hoe hanteer jy konflik as bestuurder / vanuit n bestuursposisie? Gee voorbeelde

How do you deal with conflict as a manager?/ from a manager's position? Give an example

.....
.....
.....

Waarom kan jy verbeter wat konflik betref?/ How can you improve conflict resolution?

.....
.....
.....

Hoe bewerkstellig jy 'n werksomgewing waar jou spanlede individueel kan groei?

How do you create a work environment where your team members can grow individually?

.....
.....
.....

Hoe bewerkstellig en behou jy n werkplek wat seksuele uitbuiting en mishandeling voorkom / hanteer?

How do you creating and maintain an environment which prevents and responds to sexual exploitation and abuse?

.....
.....
.....

Kan jy uitbranding van werknemers erken en aanspreek? Hoe doen jy dit?

Can you identify burn out of employees and address it? How do you do it?

.....
.....
.....

Geteken:.....

Datum:.....

Signature:.....

Date:.....

APPENDIX K

Compassion Satisfaction / Fatigue Self-Test

DEERNIS TEVREDENHEID / MOEGHEID SELF-TOETS VIR HELPERS

Om ander mense te help plaas jou direk in kontak met ander mense se lewens. Die gevolg van jou hulp vir jou is beide positief en negatief. Hierdie self-toets help jou om die status van jou empatie te bepaal. Wat die risiko is vir deernis moegheid en uitbranding maar ook jou deernis tevredenheid deurdat jy andere help. Neem die volgende eienskappe van jou en jou huidige situasie in ag. Druk 'n kopie van die self-toets uit en skryf die getalle in. Gebruik 'n pen of potloep en vul die getalle in wat eerlik weerspieël hoe gereeld jy hierdie eienskappe ervaar het in die laaste week. Volg dan die puntestand aan die einde van die self-toets.

0 – NOOIT 1 – SELDE 2 – 'N PAAR KEER 3 – SOMS 4 – GEREELD

5 – BAIE GEREELD

_____ 1. Ek is gelukkig

_____ 2. My lewe is bevredigend

_____ 3. Ek het oortuigings wat my in stand hou

_____ 4. Ek voel vervreemd van ander

_____ 5. Ek vind dat ek nuwe dinge leer by die waarvoor ek omgee

_____ 6. Ek dwing myself om sekere gedagtes of gevoelens te vermy wat my aan 'n skrikwekkende ervaring laat dink

_____ 7. Ek kom agter ek vermy sekere aktiwiteite of situasies omdat dit my herinner aan 'n skrikwekkende ervaring

_____ 8. Ek het gapings in my geheue oor skrikwekkende gebeurtenisse



- _____ 9. Ek voel verbind aan ander
- _____ 10. Ek voel kalm
- _____ 11. Ek glo ek het n goeie balans tussen werk en my vrye tyd
- _____ 12. Ek sukkel om aan die slaap te raak of aan die slaap te bly
- _____ 13. Ek het woede uitbarstings of is geirriteerd met min uitlokking
- _____ 14. Ek is die persoon wat ek nog altyd wou wees
- _____ 15. Ek skrik maklik
- _____ 16. Terwyl ek werk met 'n slagoffer, dink ek aan geweld teen die oortreder
- _____ 17. Ek is 'n sensitiewe persoon
- _____ 18. Ek het terugflitse gekoppel aan diegene wat ek help
- _____ 19. Ek het goeie ondersteuning van my eie portuur wanneer ek deur 'n baie stresvolle ervaring gaan
- _____ 20. Ek het eerstehandse ondervinding van traumatiese gebeure in my volwasse lewe
- _____ 21. Ek het eerstehandse ondervinding van traumatiese gebeure in my kinderjare
- _____ 22. Ek dink ek het nodig om deur 'n traumatiese ervaring in my lewe te werk
- _____ 23. Ek dink ek het meer nabye vriende nodig
- _____ 24. Ek dink nie ek het iemand om mee te praat oor hoogs stresvolle ervarings nie
- _____ 25. Ek het tot die gevolgtrekking gekom dat ek te hard werk vir my eie voordeel
- _____ 26. Om met diegene te werk wat ek kan help, bring vir my baie tevredenheid
- _____ 27. Ek voel verfris nadat ek gewerk het met diegene wat ek help
- _____ 28. Ek voel bang oor dinge wat iemand gese of gedoen het wat ek help

- _____ 29. Ek ervaar ontstellende drome soortgelyk aan die wat ek help
- _____ 30. Ek het gelukkige gedagtes teenoor die wat ek help en hoe ek hulle kan help
- _____ 31. Ek het indringende gedagtes beleef van tye wanneer ek moeilike mense gehelp het
- _____ 32. Ek het skielik en onwillekeurig 'n vreesaanjaende gebeurtenis herroep terwyl ek gewerk het met iemand wat ek gehelp het
- _____ 33. Ek is besig in my gedagtes met meer as een persoon wat ek help
- _____ 34. Ek verloor slaap as gevolg van 'n persoon wat ek help se traumatiese ervaring
- _____ 35. Ek het vreugdevolle gedagtes oor hoe ek slagoffers kan help waarmee ek werk
- _____ 36. Ek dink dat ek dalk "besmet" is met die trauma stres van diegene wat ek help
- _____ 37. Ek dink ek is positief "ingeënt" deur die traumatiese stres van diegene wat ek help
- _____ 38. Ek herinner myself daaraan om minder bekommerd te wees oor die welstand van diegene wat ek help
- _____ 39. Ek voel vasgevang deur my werk as helper
- _____ 40. Ek het 'n gevoel van hopeloosheid geassosieer met diegene wat ek help
- _____ 41. Ek voel "on edge" oor verskeie dinge en ek skryf dit toe aan my werk met diegene wat ek help
- _____ 42. Ek wens ek kan party mense wat ek help vermy
- _____ 43. Party mense wat ek help is besonder lekker om mee te werk
- _____ 44. Ek was in gevaar deur te werk met sekere mense wat ek help
- _____ 45. Ek voel asof party mense wat ek help nie van my persoonlik hou nie
- _____ 46. Ek hou van my werk as 'n helper

- _____ 47. Ek voel asof ek die vaardighede en middele het om my werk te doen as helper
- _____ 48. Ek voel moeg, swak en afgerem as gevolg van my werk as helper
- _____ 49. Ek voel depressief as gevolg van my werk as 'n helper
- _____ 50. Ek het gedagtes dat ek 'n sukses is as 'n helper
- _____ 51. Ek is onsuksesvol om my persoonlike lewe te skei van my werk as helper
- _____ 52. Ek geniet my medewerkers
- _____ 53. Ek is afhanklik van hulp van my medewerkers wanneer ek dit nodig het
- _____ 54. My medewerkers kan op my staatmaak vir hulp wanneer hulle dit nodig het
- _____ 55. Ek vertrou my medewerkers
- _____ 56. Ek voel min empatie tenoor meeste van my medewerkers
- _____ 57. Ek is tevrede hoe ek byhou by hulp tegnologie
- _____ 58. Ek voel asof ek meer werk vir geld / prestige as vir my persoonlike vervulling
- _____ 59. Al moet ek papierwerk doen waarvan ek nie hou nie, het ek nog geog tyd om met diegene te werk wat ek help
- _____ 60. Ek vind dit moeilik om my persoonlike lewe van my werkslewe te skei
- _____ 61. Ek is tevrede met hoe ek byhou oor help tegnieke en prosedures
- _____ 62. Ek het 'n gevoel van waardeloosheid / ontnugtering / wrokkigheid teenoor my rol as helper
- _____ 63. Ek het gedagtes dat ek 'n mislukking is as helper
- _____ 64. Ek het gevoelens dat ek nie suksesvol is in die bereiking van my doelwitte nie
- _____ 65. Ek moet burokratiese onbelangrike take in my werk as helper doen

_____ 66. Ek beplan om 'n helper te wees vir 'n lang tyd

Punte:

Omkring die volgende:

4, 6-8, 12-13, 15-16, 18, 20-22, 28-29, 31-34, 36, 38-40, 44

Maak 'n kruisie by die volgende:

17, 23-25, 41-42, 45, 48, 49, 51, 56, 58, 60, 62-65

Maak 'n regmerkie by die volgende:

1-3, 5, 9-11, 14, 19, 26-27, 30, 35, 37, 43, 46-47, 50, 52-55, 57, 59, 61, 66

Tel al die omkringde nommers se getalle bymekaar – dit is vir deernis moegheid.

Die risiko faktor is: Totaal = _____

26 of minder = uiters lae risiko; 27-30 = lae risiko; 31-35 = gemiddelde risiko; 36-40 hoë risiko;

41 en meer = uiters hoë risiko

Tel nou al die getalle met n kruisie bymekaar – dit is vir uitbranding.

Die risiko faktor is: Totaal = _____

36 of minder = uiters lae risiko; 37-50 = gemiddelde risiko; 51-75 = hoë risiko; 76-85 uiters hoë risiko

Tel nou al die getalle met die regmerkie bymekaar – dit is vir deernis tevredenheid.

Die faktor is: Totaal = _____

118 en hoër = uiters hoë potensiaal; 100-117 = hoë potensiaal; 82-99 goeie potensiaal; 64-81 gemiddelde potensiaal; onder 63 = lae potensiaal

Verdere interpretasie

Kyk na jou getalle en besluit of jy jou werk moet verander en of jy net jou manier van werk kan verander. Die verskillende kombinasies is:

TELLING:	UITBRAND VLAK	DEERNIS MOEGHEID	DEERNIS TEVREDE
Hoog	Hoë uitbrand	Hoë DM	Hoë tevredenheid
Medium	Gemid uitbrand	Gemid DM	Gemid tevrede
Laag	Lae uitbrand	Lae DM	Lae tevrede

VERANDER BEROEP: HOë UITBRAND, HOë DM, LAE TEVREDENHEID

VERANDER WERK: HOë UITBRAND, LAE DM, HOë TEVREDENHEID

BLY EN HANTEER STRES: LAE UITBRAND, HOë DM, GEMIDDELDE TEVREDENHEID

VERANDER KLIËNT: LAE UITBRAND, LAE DM, LAE TEVREDENHEID




APPENDIX L

Weekly attendance registers

The Seven Passes Initiative: Creating a Caring Community with a Positive Future

NPO Registration Number: 065-133-NPO




The Seven Passes Initiative
Creating a Caring Community with a Positive Future

P.O. Box 155
Hoekwil
6538

Tel: +27 (0) 44 850 1267
Email: admin@sevenpasses.org.za
Web: www.sevenpasses.org.za

GELUKKIGE FAMILIE OMGEE PROGRAM DATUM: 26 Oct 2016

Naam	Van	Adress	Telefoon nr	Handtekening
Naizel	Buy	Prinsent 11	073 450 221	Naizel
Glennie	Kirshly	29 Prinsent 11	073 450 221	Glennie
Cherick	Buy	Prinsent 11	073 450 221	Cherick
Mark Rubin	Buy	Prinsent 11	073 450 221	Mark Rubin
Cherick	Buy	Prinsent 11	073 450 221	Cherick
Leppan	Buy	Prinsent 11	073 450 221	Leppan
Percey	Buy	Prinsent 11	073 450 221	Percey
Maria	Buy	Prinsent 11	073 450 221	Maria



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 Naizel Buys (Secretary), Ryan Soldin, Daan Louw, Jenny Foster, Mandy Busson, Walter Damons, John Rutgers,
 Magdalena van Rensburg

APPENDIX M

Referral letter

Child's name:
Hospital no: <i>(if appropriate)</i>
DOB:

Confidential referral of child/family from Seven Passes

TO: **Date:**

Date of appointment	<i>(if known)</i>
History	<i>Age Family circumstances</i>
Intervention to date:	<i>Mother/baby visits Parenting programme, etc.</i>
Current concerns	<i>Developmental concerns Drug/alcohol issues in the family</i>
Reason for referral	<i>(state reason for referral)</i> Thank you for continuing management of this child/family. Please assess and intervene as appropriate.

Please contact xxxxxxxx at xxxxxx for any further information.

APPENDIX N

Invitation to join advisory board



22 September 2015

Dear All

The Institute for Security Studies, the Psychology Department of the University of Cape Town and the Seven Passes Initiative are collaborating to undertake a three-year project to determine whether it is possible to achieve a population shift towards warm, positive parenting in the community of Touwsrante. The project is funded by the World Childhood Foundation.

The project, which starts in September, will combine an action media campaign with the roll-out of four parenting programmes: Thula Sana (infant attachment programme), a book sharing programme for parents of infants and the Sinovuyo Caring Families programmes (for 2 – 9 year olds and teens). We will be combining the roll-out with a rigorous testing and evaluation process at community level to determine the effectiveness of the approach. Ultimately we hope that the outcome of the project will inform policy making and national and international discussions about how evidence-based parenting programmes might be taken to scale.

We would like to invite you to join an advisory group for the project. The advisory group would meet at least twice a year for the duration of the project. The first meeting will take place on 18 November 2015 at 10:30am. At these meetings we would like to share details about the project, challenges we face and the outcomes of the various stages of implementation and assessment. We intend this forum to enable us to share ideas and outcomes of the project, and get your input and advice as we go along.

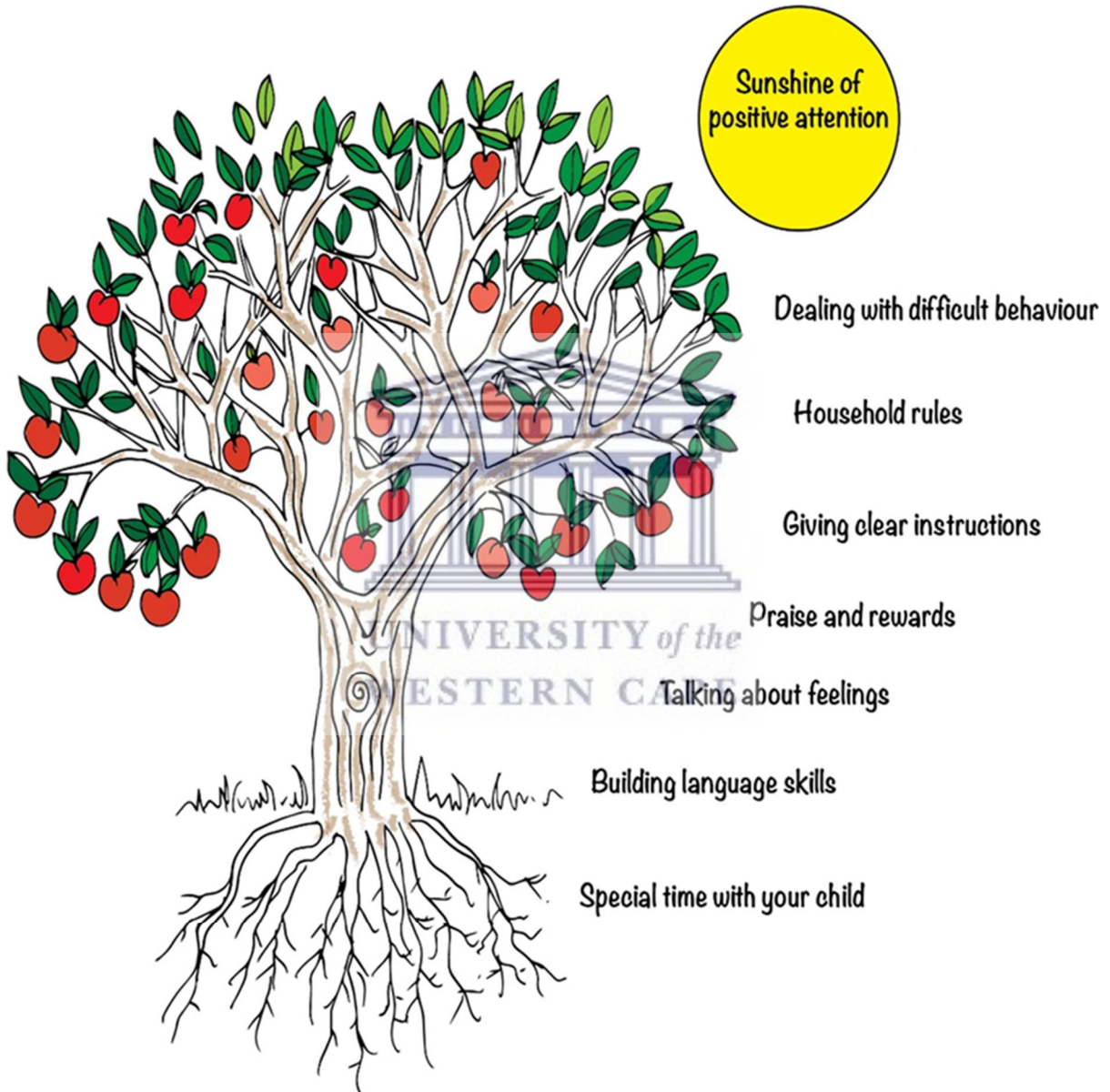
The meetings will take place at the offices of Child Welfare and meeting dates will be scheduled well in advance to aid your planning.

We hope that you will agree to join us in this exciting, ambitious and challenging process.

Sincerely

Chandre Gould, Cathy Ward and Wilmi Dippenaar

APPENDIX O



APPENDIX P

House of support

