

**IDENTIFYING THE NEEDS AND ASSETS OF A PRIMARY  
SCHOOL IN A RURAL COMMUNITY: A CASE STUDY**

by

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## **DECLARATION**

I declare that this dissertation of a limited scope: "Identifying the needs and assets of a primary school in a rural community: A case study", is my own work and that all references have been properly cited and acknowledged according to departmental rules and regulations.

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## **ABSTRACT**

Schools are one of the major services present in many rural communities in South Africa. Whole school development requires a broad set of participants, and a shared vision of what the school should be like in the future, looking at the whole system and not just the parts and the interaction between all parts. The shift in school development is from a deficiency-based model to a capacity building model.

The research question is: What are the educational needs and assets of a primary school in a rural community in the Greater Sekhukhune District?

The study is action research, a qualitative ethnographic study using a descriptive case study. Within the Emancipatory Action Research Model, the community action planning workshops were implemented for data collection using semi-structured interviews, silent observations and note-taking (all data were audiotaped). Data were analysed inductively which implied that data were transcribed, coded, categorised, and analysed.

Findings reflect the educational needs and assets, and the community education programme. Twelve indicators of effective school-family-community partnership were identified and served as guidelines to develop the community education programme. A Logic Model of programme development was applied to design the identified school-family-community partnership programme.

## **KEY WORDS**

Educational needs

Educational assets

Primary school

Rural

Community

Community development

Community building

Programme development

Community Education Programme

Education, training and skills projects

Community improvement

## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION, RESEARCH QUESTION AND AIM OF THE STUDY

#### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

Schools are one of the major centres of learning within South African rural communities. Rural schools accommodate a broader spectrum of participants that should be brought into concert for the purpose of the schools to serve as co-ordinating units (Totten & Manley, 1990:6). Participants in the schools engage in diverse educational activities in unfolding the reality. The unfolding of reality at school level involves dynamic and multi-dimensional processes that require various resources for effective fulfilment of educational goals. Creating, implementing, and administering programmes of learning are the main goals of the schools (Totten & Manley, 1990:6). Van Deventer and Kruger (2003:256) states, *“The school is the main institution for the transmission and acquisition of knowledge, values and skills, and thus it can be regarded as the most important asset of any community”*. This implies that rural schools should integrate the well-being of the community as a whole in order to offer quality public education and community support services, clean and orderly facilities, and comprehensive volunteer and resource development programmes (Dodd & Konzal, 2002:281; Burke & Picus, 2001:7).

Schools, families, and communities share interconnected, interdependent and mutual relationships, and therefore, rely on each other. Since schools in the rural communities are the strongest community institutions, they are there to serve as gathering points, centres symbolising families and communities, and resources that can unite the communities through reciprocal and interactive learning (Lane & Dorfman, 1997:12; Miller, 1995:4). As such, schools, families, and communities are an integrated system that involves every member of the community in pluralistic and co-ordinated educational activities (Lane & Dorfman, 1997:12).

After ten years of democracy, most South African schools located within the rural communities are still under-resourced and reflect numerous complex educational problems (Department of Education, Republic of South Africa, 2005:2). The provision of quality public education in the rural schools is currently a serious challenge to South Africans

(Maphumulo, 2003:96; Bender, 2003:4). The challenge is to make a shift in rural education in order to enhance sustainable development in the rural communities (Tager, 2003:94). These implies that there should be a departure in South African rural education, from a narrower classroom and deficiency-based model to a broader, capacity building, and asset-based model in teaching and learning (Tager, 2003:94; Department of Education, Republic of South Africa, 2005:3)).

Research indicates that educational problems encountered in South African rural schools, especially in Kwazulu Natal, Limpopo Province and Eastern Cape, revolve around the scarcity and poverty in terms of educational resources. Such educational problems include inadequate and poor infrastructure, high illiteracy levels among parents, small budgets, poor attendance of both educators and learners, teenage pregnancy, vandalism, gangsterism, rape and drug abuse, poor school results, weak leadership, management and administration skills, apathy among educators, demotivation and low morale, shortage of educators, poor parental participation, shortage of textbooks, malnutrition, lack of support from the district office, poor family lives, high dropout rate, poor health services, HIV/AIDS, shortage of electricity, school furniture, and scientific and technological apparatus and poor performance (Hartley, Visser & Sheppard, 1998:7; Mafefe, 2000:23; De Beer & Swanepoel, 1998:12; Tager, 2003:93; Human Sciences Research Council & Education Policy Consortium, 2005:133; Department of Education, Republic of South Africa, 2005:20). These backlogs consequently resulted in rural students being poorly equipped to cope with an industrialised urban society (Mafefe, 2000:23). The segregation of rural education also left students, teachers and parents disempowered, dependent and relying on the government for supply of educational resources (Kallaway, 1998:21; Mafefe, 2000:21). Lockheed, Verspoor and Associates (1991:12) notes that learners who received under- education in the primary school, often fail to meet the national and international standards of the cognitive performance in mathematics, science and reading comprehension. Tager (2003: 93) notes that the poor standard of education children in the rural schools in which children are being taught under trees, with the lack of textbooks, stationery and educational aids is exacerbated by the prevalence of inadequately qualified teachers, and therefore not provide children with skills which they can use competitively in the labour market. The result in these settings is an educational experience that lacks meaning and importance to the learners (Knapp & Associates, 1995:1). Swap (1993:4) refers to these kind of children (black, working class, and rural) as "*potential failures*".

It is indispensable to identify the educational needs and assets of South African rural schools in order to improve the deteriorating educational conditions rural people are faced with. The educational needs and assets are two sides of the same coin. On one side educational needs reflect the “What Should Be”, and deficiencies while on the other side educational assets indicate the wealth that is present in the schools, families, and communities (Heaven, 2003:3). The educational needs and assets are usually hidden and remain unknown. Currently there are two paths in community building that should be followed in dealing with the existing educational circumstances in South African schools located within the rural communities. Firstly, is the traditional path that focuses on identifying the community’s needs. Secondly, is the asset-based approach that focuses on finding and mobilising community’s assets (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:1).

## **1.2 MOTIVATION FOR THE CHOICE OF THE STUDY**

The need for this study originates out of my fourteen years experience as an educator, parent, and member of a School Governing Body of a primary school in a rural community of Ga-Masemola in the Greater Sekhukhune District, Limpopo Province, South Africa.

It is vital to review the status of South African schools in the rural communities during this post apartheid times in order to initiate transformation that should foster flexibility, empowerment and development of community education programmes suitable for the demands of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. The poor quality of rural education exists in all the levels of schooling, but it is important to start with improvements at the primary level because learners should develop and acquire fundamental attitudes and approaches to learning. Improving the quality of education in the rural primary schools should serve as an en-route for developing the human resource base that is essential for meeting the dynamic, global and technological challenges of the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Lockheed, Verspoor & Associates, 1991:18). The fact remains, “*an improving school is a self-evaluating school*” (Stoll & Fink, 1999:171).

The democratic dispensation in South Africa emphasise the restructuring of education in order to redress the imbalances that emerged from the apartheid era. The Republic of South Africa, Department of Education has issued a White Paper on Education and Training, RSA (1995), in which values and principles underlying the new education policy have been made. Such values and principles are as follow:

- Education is a basic human right
- Parents have an inalienable right to choose the form of education best suited for their children
- The state has an obligation to provide advice and counselling on education services
- The overarching goal should be lifelong learning and training of good quality
- Equal access for all
- Special emphasis on redress
- Equity must inform provision of resources
- The improvement of quality is essential
- The rehabilitation of schools is vital
- Democratic governance should be reflected in all aspects of the system
- A culture of accountability is critical
- Democracy, liberty, justice and peace are necessary cornerstones (RSA, Department of Education, 1995:21).

Furthermore, it is important to argue for South African rural education because the constitution requires it; people are living there; it has a popular demand; it contributes to human development; rural people deserve a more stimulating and joyful learning for social progress and political participation, social justice, democracy, and development (Human Sciences Research Consortium & Education Policy Consortium, 2005:140). Schools in the rural communities should serve as communities within the broader community. In this way, every stakeholder should be able to share responsibility, communicate, support one another, work together, and identify and link the educational needs and assets in helping to improve the standard of rural education (Burmester, 2001:1; Decker & Associates, 2000:8). Schools that serve as communities are more educationally advanced because they provide and promote diverse educational services, citizen involvement, community improvement, interagency co-ordination and co-operation, leadership and accountability, needs assessment and planning and extended use of public facilities (Burmester, 2001:1; Decker & Associates, 2000:1; Dewees & Velázquez, 2000:218; Totten & Manley, 1990:7). Dodd and Konzal (2002:129) refer to this kind of schools as “full-service schools”, “shared facilities” and “community learning centers”. In rural areas, these kinds of schools provide lifelong learning and numerous services, a community curriculum, and develop entrepreneurial skills (Dodd & Konzal, 2002:130). When a school becomes a centre of service for the satisfaction of the learning wants and needs of people, it has taken a long

step toward becoming a community school (Totten & Manley, 1990:11). Totten and Manley (1990:12) highlight that community schools are characterised by their abilities to: make facilities and trained personnel available day and night, year round; adapt their facilities to multiple uses and to persons of all ages; inspire their staff with a desire to be of service in real life and beyond the classroom responsibilities; expand and diffuse leadership throughout the community; seek to enrich all phases of the daytime programme by use of community resources; aim to develop a sense of unity and solidarity in the neighbourhood; initiate programmes of usefulness for persons of all ages, classes and creeds; take responsibility for relating living learning and service activities of other agencies in the community to the school's programmes; and do much to establish confidence in the minds of people so that they can co-operatively solve most of the community problems.

According to Dodd and Konzal (2002:118) schools in the rural communities have unique resources to help address community needs, develop knowledge and skills, and enrich the curriculum. Such resources include getting firsthand experiences about farming and other local rural businesses. A school in a rural community is a multi-purpose centre that provides vital services as follows (Lane & Dorfman, 1997:12):

- Context: In a rural community, a school is a local resource that can meet local needs
- Linkages: If students learn about the places in which they reside, they will easily know their homes historically, geographically, and economically significant places
- Authentic engagement: They also learn to do what the community will absorb because the local school is the best place to learn locally useful skills
- Norms: The school is the transmitter of culture
- Intergenerational links: The school is also a physical space in which people can gather, for example, it can be a venue for debate on local, regional, or national political issues, community discussions, or dialogues.

Every community has needs and assets that should be identified, valued and utilised to enhance sustainable development (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:13; Kowalski & Fallon, 1986:14). Communities are also characterised by their untapped potential for creative leadership, which can mobilise unused resources to serve unmet needs, desires and problems (Kowalski & Fallon, 1986:15). The implication is that each rural school should conduct its assessment of educational needs and assets in order to discover, map and have a holistic picture of its deficiencies and assets. These should ensure effective capacity building at grassroots level. Community participation in assessment does not only



involves people in identification of needs and assets, but also empowers them to create a fruitful environment for establishing solutions to identified needs (Clark, Cary, Diemer, Ceballos, Sifuentes, Attebury, Vue & Trieu, 2003:457). Assessment of community assets should be a vital process that helps maximise the potentials of the target school community (Delgado, 1996:2). There is a need to initiate transformation and renewal by those involved in the rural schools in order to facilitate flexibility and openness in addressing educational matters.

This study should add to the existing knowledge and understanding of the current situation in South African rural schools. Presently there is no existing research in South Africa that is based on identifying the educational needs and assets of a primary school in a rural community. Identifying the educational needs and assets of the target primary school should be like finding a buried treasure in the backyard (Snow, 2001:4). It is also significant to know what the current situation is in the target rural school and what the potentials are for improving it (Dryfoos & Maguire, 2002:23).

### **1.3 RESEARCH QUESTION**

In order to understand and describe a primary school in a rural community, the following research question was investigated:

**What are the educational needs and assets of a primary school in a rural community in the Greater Sekhukhune District?**

### **1.4 AIMS OF THE STUDY**

The proposal was that a study be done to understand and describe the educational needs and assets of a primary school in a rural community.

The aims of this study are as follows:

- To identify the educational needs and the assets of a primary school in a rural community in the Greater Sekhukhune District.
- To provide knowledge and understanding regarding the needs and assets of the target primary school.



- To assist the principal, educators, learners, parents, members of the School Management Team, and members of the School Governing Body of the target primary school, to identify the needs and assets in order to become empowered asset builders in identifying a community education programme for community building.

## 1.5 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

The ecological perspective was viewed as an appropriate framework within which to conceptualise this study. This approach emphasises the multiple contextual influences on human behaviour and the concept of reciprocity between the individual and the environment. Ecological theory is based on the interdependence and relationships between different organisms and their physical environment. These relationships are seen as important as another in sustaining the cycles of birth and death, regeneration and decay that together ensure the survival of the whole (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 1999:35).

Figure 1.1 represents a way of viewing these interdependent and interacting relationships. It displays the individual person in interdependent and interacting relationships with different levels of organization in the social context. Each level interacts with (influences and is influenced by) other levels within the whole ecological system (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 1999:36).

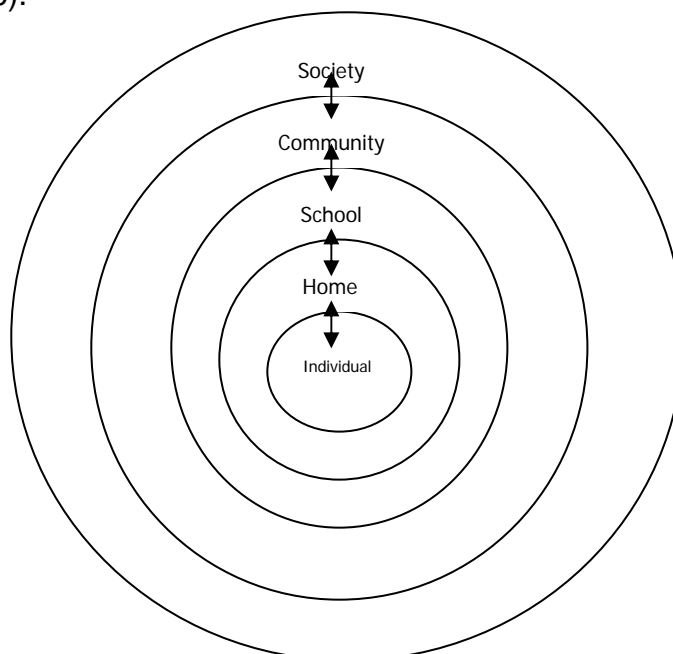


Figure 1.1: Interacting levels of organisation within the social context  
(Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 1999:36).

The systems theory sees different levels and grouping of the social context as 'systems' where the functioning of the whole is dependent on the interaction between all parts. A school is a system that has different parts, consisting of staff, students, curriculum and administration. The systems have subsystems within them, which interact with the whole. The system itself interacts with the other systems outside it (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 1999:36).

The ecosystemic perspective has evolved out of a blend of ecological and systems theories. Its main concern is to show how individual people and groups at different levels of the social context are linked in dynamic, interdependent, and interacting relationships (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 1999:34)

According to Bender and Heystek (2003:148). "*Schools are organizations and organizations are systems*". This implies that schools are composed of subsystems that interact with each other within their physical setting. Such subsystems include principals, educators, learners, parents, members of the School Management Teams, and members of the School Governing Bodies. Their interaction is extended to other social systems such as the family, community and the broader society. The link between the ecosystemic perspective and the nature and structure of schools as organizations and systems is reflected by the emphasis of showing how individual people and groups at different levels of the social context work in dynamic, interdependent, and interacting relationships (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 1999:34).

The ecological perspective is relevant to this study in that it gives access to:

- Understanding how the various subsystems within the target rural primary school interact and influence with each other.
- Understanding how the origins, maintenance, and solutions to social problems and special needs cannot be separated from the broader context and systems within it.
- Understanding the educational needs and assets within the context of the target rural primary school (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 1999:39).

The needs-based approach is focused on beginning community development processes with what is lacking (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:2). Experts are regarded as providers of

ready-made solutions to problems while disregarding the views and concerns of the people on the ground on matters that affect their lives (Ebersöhn & Eloff, 2003:5).

In South Africa the ecosystemic approach has made a valuable contribution to overcoming the limitations of the needs-based approach in that it is focused on the broader social context in which problems are manifest (Ebersöhn & Eloff, 2003:4). It also contributed to a more complex understanding of problems, where interrelatedness and mutual dependency is given. The needs are immense and the resources are limited, and are likely to remain so for the foreseeable future. The needs-based approach is still deeply entrenched in the society we live in (Ebersöhn & Eloff, 2003:4).

The asset-based approach put emphasis on what is currently present in the environment. It sets out to identify the capacities inherent to individuals in their environment. It does not start with what is absent or problematic. It has a strong internal focus, indicating that problem solving and mission development need to come from within. The asset-based approach is relationship driven and should be based on the strengths and talents of the individuals involved, and not on the weakness and problems. Relationships need to be built and rebuilt constantly (Ebersöhn & Eloff, 2003:10).

## **1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

### **1.6.1 Research design**

This study is qualitative in nature using a case study. Qualitative research is interpretive and useful for describing and answering questions about participants and contexts. It explores complex research areas about which little are known. It is therefore, suited for exploration, for beginning to understand a group or phenomenon (Gay & Airasian, 2003:163).

A case study is not a methodological choice but a choice of what is to be studied. It draws attention to the question of what specifically can be learned from the single case (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:435). Case studies provide a real example of real people in real situations. They investigate and report on the complex and unfolding interactions of human relations in a unique instance (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000:181).

The purpose of a case study is to collect detailed information from a group of participants. Based on the case study, conclusions should be drawn, but only about the primary school

and only in this particular context. By using a case study to identify the needs and assets of a rural primary school, the researcher endeavoured to give a more holistic interpretation of the findings obtained in the qualitative research.

Yin (cited in Cohen, *et al.* 2000) identifies three types of case studies in terms of their outcomes: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory case studies. For the purpose of the study the descriptive case study should be used in order to allow participants opportunities to provide narrative accounts about the educational needs and assets of their school (Cohen, *et.al.* 2000:183).

This study is an action research focused on encouraging change and empowering of individuals in the target school through collaboration of all the stakeholders. Action research encourages reflection and examines methods and ideas (Gay & Airasian, 2003:261). The implication is that the researcher and the participants should critically assess the current situation in their school, develop clear insights and understanding of the daily school activities focused on the general improvement of the school.

Action research is concerned with social practice, aimed towards improvement; a cyclical process; pursued by systematic enquiry; a reflective process; participative; and determined by the practitioner (Kember, 2000:24; Zuber-Skerritt, 1996:83). The overall aim of action research, as opposed to much traditional or fundamental research, is to solve the immediate and pressing day-to-day problems of the practitioners (McKernan, 1996:12). Action research is about the nature of the learning process, the link between practice and reflection, the process of attempting to have new thoughts about familiar experiences, and the relationship between particular experiences and general (Winter, 1996:16).

In this study, Zuber-Skerritt's emancipatory action research model has been applied. This model recognises change as a continuous, cyclical, lifelong learning process, rather than a series of programmes. It is based on team collaboration, coordination, commitment and competence; and it needs to foster critical, double-loop learning in order to effect real change and emancipation, not only for the participants themselves, but also for the target rural primary school as a whole (Zuber-Skerritt: 1996:95).

## 1.6.2 Research methodology

The setting of this research study is natural using the ethnomethodological approach. Ethnomethodology is concerned with how people make sense of their everyday world. It is directed at the mechanisms by which participants achieve and sustain interaction in a social encounter by observing the assumptions they make, the conventions they utilize, and the practices they adopt (Cohen, *et.al.*2000: 24).

The research methodology chosen for this study was Community Action Planning Workshops (Leuci, Wade, Hackman, McCall & Littrell, 1994: 34). Based on Community Action Planning Workshops, participants have created a vision and purpose of their school, identified the educational needs and assets, and identified a community education programme for community building.

According to Cohen, *et.al.* (1996:18) Community Action Planning Workshops offer practical and cyclic exercises that reflect on an analysis of the learning situation, planning of new targets, planning how to reach those targets, and assessing the achievement of the targets and re-enters the cycle reflection of and planning.

### 1.6.2.1 Data collection

Three Community Action Planning Workshops were conducted for data collection. Each workshop was conducted once a month (from March to May 2005). Each workshop was of duration of approximately four hours. The researcher played the role of a leader, manager and facilitator. There was an assistant researcher who was responsible for note-taking, silent observations, and operating of the tape-recorder during the workshops. The procedure for capturing the data was according to the steps of the Community Action Planning process (Leuci, *et.al.* 1994:34; Bender, 2003:9).

- Workshop 1 (Day 1): Creating a vision and identifying the educational needs
- Workshop 2 (Day 2): Identifying the educational assets
- Workshop 3 (Day 3): Identifying a community education programme for community building.

The following research techniques were used for capturing data:

- Group discussions within Community Action Planning Workshops: composed of the principal, two educators, two learners, one parent, one member School Management Team, and one member of the School Governing Body (Mahoney, Lafferty & Nutter, (2003:137). The intention was to capture a rich data from participants's perspectives in a group.
- Semi-structured interviews with each participant at the end of the Community Action Planning Workshops in order to make clarifications and final comments, project their own point of views, permit flexibility of each participant out of a group, and raise and pursue issues and matters that might be left out in the group discussions (Mahoney, Lafferty & Nutter, 2003:138; Cohen.*et.al.* 2000:146).
- Silent observations by the assistant researcher during the Community Action Planning Workshops with the intention of collecting additional data.
- Tape-recording by the assistant researcher during the Community Action Planning Workshops in order to preserve what was said for analysis (Merriam, 1998:87).
- Note-taking by the assistant researcher during the Community Action Planning Workshops in order to ensure the consistency of the data (Bender, 2003:15).

#### **1.6.2.2 Data analysis**

De Vos (2002:339) states "*Data analysis is the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data*". The process of analysing data was conducted through the inductive data analysis (Gay & Airasian, 2003:229; Cohen, *et.al.* 2000:151; McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:462; Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, 2002:426). Inductive data analysis means that categories and patterns emerge from the data rather than being imposed on data prior to data collection (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:462). Data were transcribed, coded into main themes, and further categorised into minor themes for analysis.

In order to ensure the validity and reliability of the research results, data were analysed separately in terms of each research technique and individual opinions, later compared, and integrated to form one research report. Data were interpreted using an empiricist interpretive repertoire in which the interpretations and conclusions drawn were provided within the framework of this research and design, and that all relevant data were included (Silverman, 2001:180).

## **1.7 DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH POPULATION, SAMPLING METHOD, ETHICAL ASPECTS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

The unit of this study is Tiitšane Primary School at Ga-Masemola in the Greater Sekhukhune District. Greater Sekhukhune District is a rural territory located approximately 85 kilometres south-east of the city of Polokwane in the Limpopo Province, South Africa. Blacks who are originally, traditionally and culturally referred to as Bapedi, inhabit this region. Their home language is Sepedi. English and Afrikaans are offered as additional languages for instruction at the target rural primary school. The school is comprised of 12 female educators, one male educator, and 438 learners. There is one class of 25 learners with special learning needs. Currently this school is fenced and has 18 electrified classrooms.

The sample of this study is comprised of the principal, two educators, two learners, one parent, one member of the School Management Team, and one member of the School Governing Body. Participants were selected on the basis of a non-probability sample in which the researcher targeted the primary school in the full knowledge that it does not represent the wider population; but it simply represents itself with its unique educational needs and assets (Cohen, *et.al.* 2000:102; Strydom & Venter, 2002:206; McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:173). Participants were also selected on the basis of purposive sampling in which they were considered for being typical, representative and informative about their prior experiences, knowledge, skills and values in relation to the target rural primary school (Gay & Airasian, 2003:115; McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:175; Ary, *et.al.*2002: 169).

The following ethical aspects were considered when conducting this study in order to maintain and ensure the well being of the participants (Gay & Airasian, 2003:79; Cohen, *et.al.* 2000:68; McKernan, 1996:241; Winter, 1996:16; Strydom, 2002:63; Ary, *et.al.* 2002:437):

- A written permission was granted from the target rural primary school before the study was conducted.
- The researcher has clarified the goals and objectives of the study to participants.
- Participants had the right not to be involved at any time of the study.

- The relationship between the researcher and the participants was of trust, fairness, respect, dignity and honesty.
- Participants had the right to remain unharmed during the entire research study.
- Participants had the right not to disclose their names during this study.
- Participant's confidentiality and personal privacy were recognised during the period of conducting this study.
- Participants had the right to be informed about what was to be done with the information they provide.
- Participants had equal access to discussions regardless of age, religion, gender, ethnicity or sexual orientation.
- The researcher has explained the findings and the significance of this study to the participants.
- The researcher was obliged to keep efficient records of this study and made these available to participants and authorities on demand.

The limitations of this research include the following:

The limitations in this study emerged from the research aims, research sample, and research design and methodology,. As such research findings and conclusions are very unique and not generalised to other rural schools in South Africa.

## **1.8 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS**

The following are definitions of key concepts used in this study: educational needs; educational assets; primary school; rural; community; community development; community building; programme development; community education programme; education, training and skills projects; and community improvement.

### **1.8.1 Educational needs**

Witkin (1995:9) defines the concept 'need' as "a noun that refers to the gap or discrepancy between a present state (what is) and a desired end state, future state or condition (what should be)".



O'Sullivan (2000:213) states, "Need is the measurable discrepancy between a present state of affairs and a desired state of affairs".

Bender (2002:2) defines a need as "a gap or discrepancy between an existing state of affairs (what is) and the desired or preferred results (what should be)".

Educational needs are the gaps or discrepancies between what is present and what is desired in education. They are what is lacking / deficient in the current educational arena. Educational needs should be addressed for the proper allocation and effective utilisation of available local educational resources.

For the purpose of this research, educational needs refer to the gap/s between the current state of educational affairs and the desired educational status in the target primary school. Educational needs reflect what is currently lacking or deficient in the school. They form a foundation to determine the solutions for attaining the future educational goals in the target primary school.

### **1.8.2 Educational assets**

Kretzmann and McKnight (1993:6) indicate that assets are "individuals, associations, institutions, gifts, skills and capacities of community residents such as private businesses, schools, libraries, parks, police, fire stations, hospitals and social service agencies".

Ebersöhn and Eloff (2003:14) define assets as "skills, talents, gifts, resources, capacities and strengths that are shared with individuals, institutions, associations, the community and organizations".

Snow (2001:1) refers to assets as "talents of people, the web of local associations, the strength of institutions, and available land, property and economic power to create new opportunities".

Educational assets are the strengths, skills, knowledge, gifts, competencies, experiences, talents, relationships, capacities, infrastructures, individuals, associations, and organisations inside the school and outside in the local community.

In the context of this research, educational assets refer to all those valuable resources, skills, strengths and opportunities available in the target school, learner's families, and the local rural community. Educational assets enhance the academic performance and lifelong learning in the school.

### **1.8.3 Primary school**

Department of National Education, Republic of South Africa (1997:2) refers to a school as "a public school or an independent school which enrolls learners in one or more grades [between] from grade zero [and] grade 12".

Republic of South Africa, Department of Education. (1995:26) indicates the levels of education according to the National Qualification Framework. They are as follow:

- General Education and Training Band: which includes Foundation Phase (grade R-3), Intermediate Phase (grade 4-7) and Senior Phase (grade 8-12).
- Further Education and Training Band: School, College and Training institutions
- Higher Education and Training Band: Institutions offering tertiary education and awarding diplomas, occupational certificates and degrees.

A primary school is an institution offering formal education from Foundation Phase to Intermediate Phase (grade 0 to grade 7).

In this study, a primary school is an institution offering education to Junior or Foundation Phase (grade 0 to 3) and grade 4 in the Intermediate Phase.

### **1.8.4 Rural**

Mafeke, (2000:10) defines rural as "areas where sustenance is through natural resources and agriculture, and economic support and services are lacking".

The concept 'rural' in this study simply indicates the geographical milieu and lifestyles in which the target primary school is located. The settlement type is dispersed and based on religion and tradition. The main social activity in the Greater Sekhukhune District is subsistence farming that includes stock farming and ploughing of millet, maize, sorghum, beans, and watermelon.

The rural community of Ga-Masemola is characterised by the following physical features: schools, shops, motels, clinic, police station, post office, filling station, bakery, public phones, churches, dam, river, agricultural lands, mountains, tribal office, Department of Education (Masemola circuit office), and a taxi rank. There is only one tarred road that leads to Jane Furse and Polokwane. Community members use various means of transport, such as donkeys, bicycles, motorcars, taxis, and buses. Taxis are the dominating means of transport. People travel longer distances to Jane Furse, Lebowakgomo, Marble Hall, Groblersdal and Polokwane for banking, faxing, library, internet, higher education and other commercial services.

The village has been electrified by ESCOM in 1997. Due to high unemployment rate, most families do not afford to purchase electricity for most domestic purposes. They only use electricity for domestic lights. As such most women collect firewood from the bushes and mountains for cooking. The community has been provided with water in the form of street taps from by the local Makhuduthamaga Municipality. Women from those sections without street taps fetch water from the river, wells and the purchasing trucks. Community members participate in various life skill activities such as sports, choral and gospel singing, traditional and modern dances, burial societies, churches and entrepreneurial projects. There is a high rate of crime, illiteracy in adults, unemployment and poverty.

### **1.8.5 Community**

Bender (2002:1) argues that a community is “ordinarily everyone functioning within the geographic boundaries of a city, town, neighbourhood, or local school district, however, may occasionally refer to other specified geographic area (county, agency service area, etc) or may refer to group of members, supporters, or participants with common interests and goals such as a church or legal community groups”.

According to Lane and Dorfman (1997:2) a community is a “group of people who share common values, ideas, and beliefs about the world; with a sense of the linkages, the interrelationships, between community members that serve to identify individuals as part of a community and allow others to recognise individuals as part of a community”.

Aigner, Raymond and Smidt (2002:86) indicate that a community is “those face-to-face social interactions and relationships, a sense of belonging, informed by what is familiar, what seems safe, and what is shared”

A community has to do with a group of people within a particular geographical area in which unity is the goal. The achievement of unity is done for specific purposes and interests through social interactions and networks, and support for one another in various spheres of life. Community members develop a sense of sharing, togetherness, belonging and security, and their strength is determined by the nature of their connectedness.

In this study, a school is regarded as a community within a broader rural community. Community members include the principal, educators, parents, learners, members of the School Governing Body, and School Management Team. They participate in the school activities as educational partners, in interacting and interdependent relationships.

### **1.8.6 Community development**

According to Kretzmann and McKnight (1993:18), community development is “ a process by which local capacities are identified and mobilized”.

Bender (2002:1) refers to community development as a “purposeful effort by community people to learn together to guide the future education, training and development of their communities, and making full use of their own resources as well as external resources. It includes the physical, financial and human resources used to improve the community; involves economic development and infrastructure utilization. It is aimed at enhancing greater self-fulfilment for individuals, more positive and productive human interaction, increased citizen participation in community affairs, increased collaboration among the various community agencies by focusing on the learning processes and outcomes and collaboration, improved programmes, services, and activities for all segments, and the effort to examine and address community problems experienced by the community”.

Swanepoel (2002:118) refers to community development as “a constructive process people involve themselves in to eradicate a serious need or solve a serious problem. They participate not because they enjoy it, but because they regard it as a last resort, as only alternative left to them”.

Community development is a collaborative learning process by a small or large group of people within a particular organization or geographical area, with the intention of addressing a particular problem/s in order to improve community services and

programmes, and enhance the sustainability of the living conditions. Community development is a gateway to community building.

For the purpose of this study, community development is a democratic and school-based effort in which people within the rural primary school are involved in learning, sharing and contributing of ideas, knowledge, capacities, skills, and values in addressing educational problems encountered in day-to-day school activities. It is a way of improving and enhancing educational programmes in the target primary school.

### **1.8.7 Community building**

Mattessich and Monsey (2001:60) state, "Community building generally refers to building the social networks within the community, and developing group and individual problem-solving and leadership skills. Community building as any identifiable set of activities pursued by a community in order to increase community social capacity". Furthermore, Mattessich and Monsey (2001:8) indicate that "community building activities can be initiated either as a result of a decision or as a result of some effort outside the community".

Weil (1996:482) refers to community building as "capacities, practices, and policies that support and foster positive connections among individuals, groups, organizations, neighbourhoods and geographic and functional communities".

Flora (1997:1) states, " community building implies a broad set of participants and a shared vision of what the community should be like in the future, looking at the whole and not just a few parts".

Community building is a comprehensive and empowering process that develops, strengthens and maximises community relationships, skills, capacities, potentials, and talents of the local people for the general growth of the community.

In this study, community building refers to an empowering process that is based on collective, participatory, and grassroots-orientation activities, that recognise local assets and strengthen relationships within and outside the target primary school in order to meet the challenging educational demands of the 21<sup>st</sup> century.

### **1.8.8 Programme development**

Dean, Murk and Prete (2000:135) indicate that programme development is about “producing instructional materials, organising support staff, creating and launching a promotional campaign and accommodating special needs, and offering appropriate recognition and rewards”.

Galbraith, Sisco and Guglielmino (2001:13) refer to programme development as a process that “is comprised of analyzing program context and needs, collaborating with instructors in setting objectives, selecting and organizing learning activities, and evaluating program worth”.

Epstein, Sanders, Simon, Salinas, Jansorn and Van Voorhis (2002:23) argue that programme development embraces “good planning for thoughtful implementation, well-designed activities, and pointed improvements”.

Programme development is concerned with designing organised activities that serve as solutions to the identified educational needs. It shows the procedures and requirements for planning, implementing, observing and evaluating the new learning solutions.

In this study, programme development refers to the process of designing the identified community education programme for community building, by identifying the programme’s inputs, goal, outcomes, activities, and impact.

### **1.8.9 Community Education Programme**

According to Bender (2002:3) Community Education Programme is “the collective activities and functions directly associated with the community education initiative in a community”.

Epstein, *et al.* (2002:5) outlines Community Education Programme as “plans undertaken at school, home, and community for the children’s learning and development. It results in better communications, interactions and exchanges between the school, family and the community”.

Kowalski and Fallon (1986:14) define Community Education Programme from dimensional perspectives. Firstly they refer to Community Education Programme as “a structured and

regularly scheduled activity in which individuals participate, based on interest, perceived need, or desire". Secondly they refer to a Community Education Programme as "the sum of all community education activities, the purposes of which may be educational, recreational, vocational or social, and designed for people of all ages".

Community Education Programme is a group of planned activities aimed at improving the school. Its focus is on new knowledge acquisition, skills development, change of attitudes, and community renewal.

In this study, Community Education Programme is a long-term and broader community education action plan that is developed according to the formulated vision, and identified educational needs and assets.

#### **1.8.10 Education, training and skills projects**

According to Bisschoff, Govender and Oosthuizen (2004:8) education, training and skills projects are "temporary endeavours undertaken to create unique products (e.g. a new tennis court; improving ABET levels) or service (e.g. assessing staff performance; an HIV/AIDS awareness campaign) over a specified period of time". Furthermore, the above authors elaborate that "*Temporary*" means that every project has a definite beginning and a definite end. "*Unique*" means that the product or service is different in some distinguishing way from all similar products or services.

Education, training and skills projects are different and temporary scheduled activities within a community education programme.

In this study, education, training and skills projects refer to various short-term community education activities that enhance new knowledge acquisition, training, skills development and services for improvement of the rural primary school.

### 1.8.11 Community improvement

Bender (2002:1) defines community improvement as “making the community a better place in which to live and work. Increasing the quality of life and times in a community”.

Community improvement is a key for enhancing success, self-reliance, independence, social capacities and sustainable living environments. It is an on-going process, especially, in impoverished and marginalized rural communities that eradicate the barriers for attaining a better life for all.

In the context of this research, community improvement refers to a never-ending process that eradicates the current deficient, powerless, and marginalised rural education practices, but enhances and strengthens solidarity, critical and analytical thinking; and decision making for the holistic educational benefit of the entire rural primary school community, South Africa and the global world.

## 1.9 CONTENTS OF RESEARCH REPORT

This chapter contains an introduction to the present study. The chapter is an orientation to the contextual and theoretical framework guiding the study, and contains the purpose of the study, the research question, the research methodology employed and definitions of the key concepts. **Chapter 2** consists of a literature review focused on the assessment of needs and assets in Community Building. **Chapter 3** focuses on the research design, methodology and findings. **Chapter 4** contains a detailed account of the major conclusions, community education programme, recommendations, limitations of the study and implications for future research.



## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW: ASSESSMENT OF NEEDS AND ASSETS IN COMMUNITY BUILDING**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter contains a literature review of the assessment of needs and assets in community building. Firstly, an exploration is made on the needs-based approach in community building. Various needs assessment models are critically discussed with special attention paid on the essences, schematic representations, advantages and disadvantages, and wrap-up summaries of each model.

Secondly, focus is on the asset-based approach in community building. This section contains a brief discussion of the asset-based approach, and the different models of assessing community assets. Each model is discussed in terms of its essence, schematic representation, advantages and disadvantages, and a summary.

Thirdly, this literature review entails a discussion based on the schools as community assets and centers of learning; partnership models for strengthening ties between the school, family and community; possible partners in education; and different kinds of communication techniques necessary for successful school, family and community partnership.

The chapter ends with a brief conclusion that summarises the different sections of this literature review.

#### **2.2 NEEDS-BASED APPROACH IN COMMUNITY BUILDING**

The needs-based approach is a traditional, humanistic and deficiency or needs-driven path of community building that is focused on minimising or closing the gap/s between the current state and the future state of affairs by identifying the barriers that make it difficult to reach the specified target (Academy for Educational Development, 1999:10; O'Sullivan, 2000:230).

The needs-based approach is necessary for diagnosing the existing weaknesses, challenges and deficiencies of the individual people, groups and communities (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995:18). This approach is strongly integrated in community development processes because it creates opportunities for understanding what is lacking in the community. It also empowers community members to make decisions, assess the needs at present, and allocate available community assets appropriately. Since community development is grassroots-oriented, community members are encouraged to participate in needs identification for community action planning. As such, the needs based approach assists community members and developers to draw up appropriate community education programmes based on the needs data (Swanepoel, 2002:2).

Needs identification is the starting point of any community development effort and the main source for constructive and positive community change and renewal (Swanepoel, 2002:108, Kaufman & English, 1979:8). If needs are not known prior to initiating any community development project, the end result would be an immediate collapse of such a project due to poor planning. *“Poor planning will take you to unwanted and unintended destinations, possibly ones even worse than those currently being reached”* (Kaufman and Herman, 1991:4). The needs-based approach is, therefore, a democratic and sophisticated endeavour that examines what is currently problematic and lacking before initiating any community development activity. Stoll and Fink (1999:168) state *“Knowing what does not work well does not explain how to change it, but offers a starting point for reflection on why something is not as effective as it might be, the barriers that prevent improvement and what needs to occur to ensure improvement”*. The insights and contributions of all community members in needs determination are the core for solid, understandable and valid changes. These mean that the sustainability of community development projects rests heavily on the knowledge and understanding of the kind of needs that are addressed (Swanepoel, 2002:8).

Needs differ according to the context in which they occur. They arise from the imbalances related to either the physical, health, social, educational, psychological, housing, safety, agricultural or economic spheres of life. Community needs also vary in terms of the degree at which they impact on people’s lives. It is invaluable to untap and address correct needs because if wrong needs are tackled, chances are great that wrong interventions would be the end-results (Kaufman & English, 1979:8). Relevant interventions relieve and free people of the hardships they had been trapped in. Relevant interventions also suggest

strategies, and produce and provide resources the community has been longing for. The needs-based approach creates awareness that problems should be reduced to prevent chances for frustrations and serious crisis in people's lives (Swanepoel, 2002: 8).

Figure 2.1 shows the three variables of the needs based approach: current results (actual state), gap (needs), and the desired results (target state). The needs are the gap between the current results and the desired results. Community needs should be assessed in order to reach the target state of affairs.

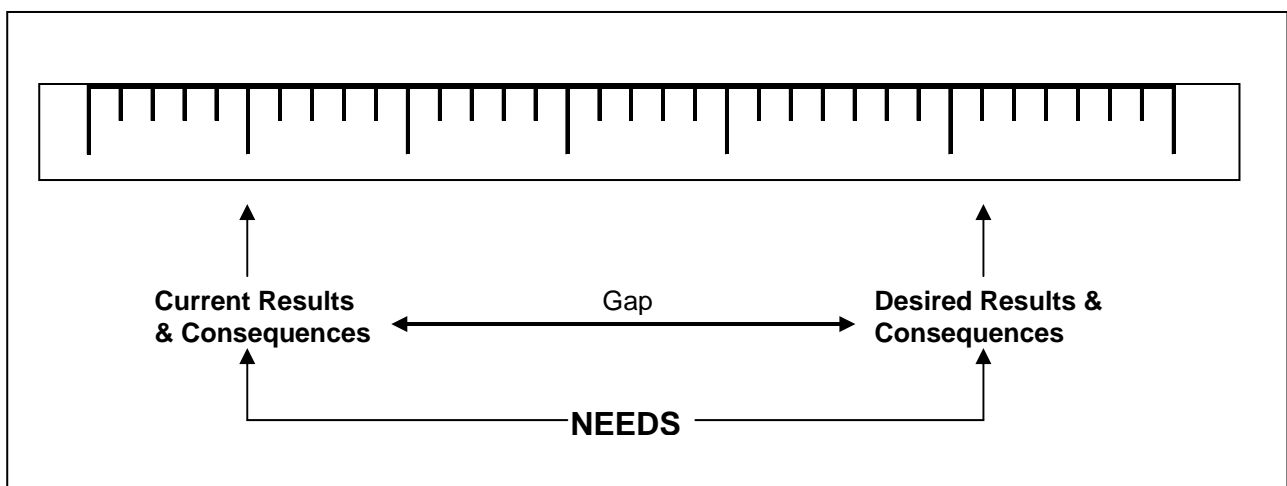


Figure 2.1: Three variables of the needs-based approach (Kaufman, Rojas, & Mayer, 1993:4):

### 2.2.1 Advantages and disadvantages

The needs-based approach is advantageous in that it provides knowledge and understanding about what is lacking in the community. It is a source for successful planning and thus helps to allocate community assets appropriately. It also directs community members towards the intended vision (Witkin, 1995:6).

The disadvantages of the needs-based approach are as follows: possibilities are high for expert domination if the needs assessor is externally based; external experts can provide action plans that are ready for implementation without direct consultation with community members; and if wrong community needs are identified, community members may be trapped in situations worse than the present (Kaufman & English, 1979:8).

## 2.2.2 Summary

The needs-based approach is one side of a coin in Community Building. It is a channel through which communities can exercise their powers to explore what they are lacking. The needs-based approach helps communities to allocate the assets appropriately, and develop relevant programmes essential for eradicating the needs, and moving in the direction of the target vision.

## 2.3 MODELS OF CONDUCTING NEEDS ASSESSMENT

This section presents a discussion of the different models of assessing the needs. Knowledge and understanding of the different models of assessing the needs is necessary for diagnosing and developing the most innovative solutions to existing problems.

### 2.3.1 The Three Phase Model of B.R. Witkin and J.W. Altschuld (1995)

#### 2.3.1.1 Essence

The Three Phase Model provides a framework for critically assessing the needs within organisations and communities. In terms of this model, needs are assessed in three phases: pre-assessment, assessment, and post-assessment. These phases take place logically and sequentially and end with a documented record (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995:14). The phases are briefly discussed as follows:

- Phase 1: Pre-assessment (exploration)

The pre-assessment phase is exploratory in nature. It is a formative evaluation that serves as a preliminary investigation into what is known about the existing needs in the community before the main needs assessment could be designed and implemented. Its purpose is to set the focus and scope of the main issues that should be addressed in the needs assessment, and build commitment of all community stakeholders for active and holistic participation. The pre-assessment phase is useful for setting up planning and management groups, as well as selecting the best methods for gathering, analysing and interpreting the needs data (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995: 20).

The following are the steps for gathering preliminary needs data: identify issues related to the needs assessment area; determine indicators of need in each issues area; identify what is already known about the need from archival data and the current wisdom; identify what kinds of information would more clearly define the need; identify the best potential sources of the information and methods of obtaining it; and set general preliminary priorities for each at the three levels of the need as a focus for gathering data (Witkin & Altschuld,1995:29).

- Phase 2: Assessment (data gathering)

The assessment phase is a formal and the main evaluation process of determining the needs on the basis of the preliminary data from the pre-assessment phase. Focus is on critically assessing the needs at present and finally comparing them with the target vision (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995:40).

The following are the steps to be followed when assessing the needs in phase 2 of the Three Phase Model: select system boundaries, focus, and target group(s); gather data in need areas to be assessed; prioritise Level 1 needs; perform causal analyses; synthesise all data on needs and causal and contributing factors for each need area (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995:41).

- Phase 3: Post-assessment (utilisation)

The post-assessment phase is a summative evaluation of the already collected needs data. Its emphasis is on developing the means to how the needs data should be applied for community development processes. Causal analyses are then conducted in order to interpret and prioritise the needs, choose the best alternative, and develop appropriate action plans. Action plans are then developed for the purpose of revising the existing community programme or coming up with new ideas that contribute towards the vision. Community action plans are synthesised in the form of a written and oral report (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995:75). Tasks that should be accomplished during the post-assessment phase include: setting priorities on needs; selecting solution strategies; proposing an action plan; evaluating the quality of the needs assessment; and preparing reports and briefings (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995:76).

Figure 2.2 displays the Three Phase Plan (pre-assessment, assessment, and post-assessment) for assessing the needs. Each phase is clearly focused on specific set of tasks and outcomes that should be accomplished for assessing community needs.

<b>PHASE 1 Pre-assessment (exploration)</b>	<b>PHASE 2 Assessment (data gathering)</b>	<b>PHASE 3 Post-assessment (utilisation)</b>
Set up management plan for NA  Define General purpose of the NA  Identify major need areas and/or issues  Identify existing information regarding need areas  Determine: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Data to collect</li> <li>• Sources</li> <li>• Methods</li> <li>• Potential use of data</li> </ul> <b>Outcomes:</b>  Preliminary plan for Phases 2 & 3, and plan for evaluation of the NA	Determine context, scope, and boundaries of the NA  Gather data on needs  Set the preliminary priorities on needs - Level 1  Perform casual analyses at Levels 1,2, and 3  Analyse and synthesise all data  <b>Outcomes:</b>  Criteria for action based on high-priority needs	Set priorities on needs at all applicable levels  Consider alternative solutions  Develop action plan to implement solutions  Evaluate the NA  Communicate results  <b>Outcomes:</b>  Action plan(s), written and oral briefings, and reports

Figure 2.2: The Three Phase Plan for needs assessment (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995:15).

### 2.3.1.2 Methods and techniques

According to Witkin and Altschuld (1995:47), there are different sources of generating needs data: archival, communication processes, and analytic processes.

- Archival data refer to data that has been gathered for other tasks in the community, such as social indicators, organisational records, demographic records, census data, results of educational assessments, and programme evaluation.
- Communication processes: seek qualitative data that are generated directly from other people. They provide information about opinions of different people in the community. Communication processes use survey questionnaires, interviews, Critical Incident Technique, the mailed Delphi, and Nominal Group Technique, and focus groups.
- Analytic processes: integrate data gathering with analysis. They basically identify and analyse the factors that have led to the presence of the current needs or that have prevented such needs from being addressed in the past. Analytic techniques include task analysis, trend analysis, force field analysis, cross-impact analysis, causal

analysis, fish-boning, cause and consequence analysis, and fault tree analysis (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995:49).

#### 2.3.1.3 Advantages and disadvantages

The following are the advantages of the Three Phase Model for community building: it builds commitment, responsibility and accountability for identifying the needs in concert; promotes active widespread stakeholder participation and a broad base of information from many perspectives; integrates all levels of the organisation or community in needs assessment; prioritise the needs for proper action planning; allocate resources appropriately for developing new and improved programmes (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995:18).

On the other side, the Three Phase Model bears the following disadvantages: large scale of participants may be included and ultimately making it difficult for reaching consensus; it may need more time to complete the tasks; it may contribute towards competing and conflicting values about the vision to be attained; and community members may resist to change and thus leaving the needs assessment results on the shelf without any purpose (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995:276).

### **2.3.2 The System Approach Model of R. Kaufman and F.W. English (1979)**

#### 2.3.2.1 Essence

The System Approach Model is a generic; six-step systematic process in planning that determines discrepancies between the present state of affairs and the desired community outcomes. Kaufman and English (1979:38) refer to this model as "*a system approach because it intends to identify, define, justify, design, implement, evaluate, and revise a system from the beginning*". The steps of the System Approach Model are as follows: needs identification; determination of solution requirements and identification of solution alternatives; selection of solution strategies from alternatives; implementation of selected methods and means; determination of performance effectiveness; and revision as required (Kaufman & English, 1979:38).

The first two steps of the System Approach Model are focused on problem identification, verification, and justification. The last four steps are focused on problem resolution with special emphasis on implementation, evaluation and revision. The sixth step (revision) is a

continuous process that is performed in all the five steps. Its main goal is to monitor the level of achievement and make improvements where possible (Kaufman & English, 1979:46).

The six steps of the System Approach Model correspond with a Planning Taxonomy that was formulated in the previous works of Kaufman (Kaufman & English, 1979:48). This taxonomy allows planning to start at any step of the System Approach Model. The starting place is the foundation for classification of this taxonomy. There are no clues or hypothesis as to how planning should be done (Kaufman & English, 1979:48). The Planning Taxonomy together with the six steps of the System Approach Model are briefly discussed below:

- The first step of the System Approach Model is related to the “Alpha mode” of the Planning Taxonomy. The “Alpha needs assessment” is concerned with identifying the needs in order to change and formulate policies. It is followed by execution of ground rules and regulations (Kaufman & English, 1979:56).
- The second step of the System Approach Model is directly linked to the “Beta mode” of the Planning Taxonomy. The “Beta needs assessment” is basically aimed at identifying the needs in order to verify that the goals, objectives, and policies being implemented are correct and immutable (Kaufman & English, 1979:57).
- The third step of the System Approach Model is related to the “Gamma mode” of the Planning Taxonomy. A “Gamma needs assessment” is concerned with sorting existing goals and objectives with the aim of obtaining a ranking of goals. Alternative programmes are then developed as a result. (Kaufman & English, 1979:57).
- The fourth step of the System Approach Model corresponds with the “Delta mode” of the Planning Taxonomy. The “Delta needs assessment” is necessary for identifying the needs in order to manage and accomplish the tasks properly (Kaufman & English, 1979:58).
- The fifth step of the System Approach Model operates in conjunction with the “Epsilon mode” of the Planning Taxonomy. The “Epsilon needs assessment” identifies the needs in order to determine the level at which the set community outcomes have been accomplished. It is a summative evaluation since emphasis is on checking as to



whether community goals have been reached successfully (Kaufman & English, 1979:58).

- The sixth step of the System Approach Model ties with the “Zeta mode” of the Planning Taxonomy. The “ Zeta needs assessment” identifies the needs on an ongoing basis in order to make decisions for continuous system restructuring, transformation and improvement (Kaufman & English, 1979:59)

Table 2.1 below shows the different needs assessment tools and strategies, and their relationship to the System Approach Model. These needs assessment tools and strategies are focused on different kinds of needs.

Table 2.1: A possible taxonomy of needs assessments. Possible needs assessment tools and strategies and their possible relationship to the System Approach Model (Kaufman & English, 1979:60).

System Approach Functions		Needs Assessment Type	Possible Characteristics	Possible Assumption Base
1.0	IDENTIFY PROBLEM BASED UPON NEED	ALPHA	Eternal utility plus partnership- based perceived needs referent for survival and contribution. Single emphasis upon “need” as an outcome gap.	Almost anything may be changed and questioned, there are no “sacred cows”, even laws can be added, deleted, modified, organizations may be challenged, disassembled, rebuilt, or eliminated.
2.0	DETERMINE SOLUTION REQUIREMENTS AND IDENTIFY SOLUTION ALTERNATIVES	BETA	Partnership-based, analysis of output gaps of the system; analysis of process and product gaps within the system.	Work is to be conducted within a context, usually organizational, and for the most part, the rules, policies, goals and objectives of the organization, as they now exist, are the ground rules for planned change.
3.0	SELECT SOLUTION STRATEGIES FROM AMONG ALTERNATIVES	GAMMA	Ranking of solution partners. Cost- efficiency models, cost-effectiveness models, etc. Emphasis on processes and inputs.	The existing organizational goals and objectives are useful and appropriate, and the change is to find the most efficient and effective manner to meet the objectives. The purpose is to develop products using effective and efficient processes and inputs.
4.0	IMPLEMENT	DELTA	Determination of gaps in prespecified	It is known what is to be done and how to do it, the important function here is to successfully administer

			performances. Management-by- objectives, management-by- exception, scheduling, etc.	the jobs to be done and manage the resources to help accomplish the overall organizational mission identified products.
5.0	DETERMINE PERFORMANCE EFFECTIVENESS	EPILSON	Determine discrepancies between results and objectives for the end-of- term/project/program for decisioning. Gaps in outputs and outcomes evaluated.	The jobs have been done, this function is to determine the gaps between the goals and objectives, and the accomplishments.
6.0	REVISE AS REQUIRED	ZETA	En-route evaluation of both processes and progress toward outcomes, with possible changes of inputs, processes, products, and/or outputs.	While the jobs are getting done, or after we have finished any segment of one or more jobs, discrepancies between our goals and objectives (usually en-route) are determined, and corrective action is instituted, or a decision not to change is accepted and implemented.

### 2.3.2.2 Methods and techniques

According to Kaufman and English (1979:264) the following are the methods and techniques for gathering needs data when using the System Approach Model. Each method and technique has specific advantages and disadvantages that should be considered before or during the capturing of the needs data.

- Mailed surveys: these are about sending questionnaires to the participants. They are regarded as the cheapest way of conducting the needs assessment. The disadvantage of these techniques lies in their non-response bias.
- Telephone surveys: these involve gathering needs data by telephonically interviewing a certain group of people within a specific geographical area that have telephones. The disadvantages of this technique are that they are more complex to administer, more time consuming, and more expensive. There are also possibilities of interviewer bias. The degree to which the telephone interviews help the respondents is unknown. In areas with fewer telephone installations, the groups may be underrepresented in the sample. Poor listeners and those with hearing problems are disadvantaged. Their advantages are that the “call back system” is easier, and does not take a physical tramping down blocks of houses to complete.

- The Delphi Technique: This is forecast on the probability of the future events occurring. It is a linear and sequential pattern of questions and answers by the expert group. It may be used to develop and rank goals as possible educational outcomes (Kaufman & English, 1979:264).

### 2.3.2.3 Advantages and disadvantages

The System Approach Model has the following advantages: it identifies, verifies and justifies the problems before choosing solutions; encapsulates different kinds of needs assessments; distinguishes and integrates means and ends for meaningful problem resolution; allows relevant stakeholders to create a vision of what the community should be like in the future; helps schools to identify their educational needs in order to know, understand, and improve the quality of the curricula; helps to allocate resources appropriately; promotes group ownership, sharing of ideas and accountability of results; strengthens community partnership in action planning (Kaufman & English, 1979:23).

The disadvantages of applying the System Approach Model include the following: it may be difficult for participants to reach consensus; there are possibilities to create vague goals; and there is often a reluctance to translate the goals into more behaviour-guiding principles (Kaufman & English, 1979:238).

### **2.3.3. The Organisational Elements Model of R. Kaufman and J. Herman (1991)**

#### 2.3.3.1 Essence

The Organizational Elements Model is a five-element strategic educational planning model that identifies the needs in terms of organisational efforts, organisational results, and societal consequences (Kaufman & Herman, 1991:36). Its intention is to make the system deliver, improve and grow continuously, and become more successful by being results-oriented. It promotes the fact that educational planning should start by defining the kind of goals people are striving for. It guides educational planners with how to deal with the “what is” and “what should be” in planning. The implication is that planners should assess the needs of the individuals, organization and society for the purpose of identifying, defining and justifying the barriers for improvement and development (Kaufman & Herman, 1991:23).

The Organizational Elements Model distinguishes three client groups for strategic planning purposes. The client groups include the society and community (Mega planning); educational organization (Macro planning); and individuals or small group within the organization (Micro planning) (Kaufman & Herman, 1991:5).

There are specific results related to each client group for strategic planning. Results at the Mega level are known as “Outcomes”, those at the Macro level are referred to as “Outputs”, and those at the Micro level are called “Products”.

Table 2.2 below displays the three levels of clients together with their results, descriptions and examples.

Table 2.2: The three types of educational results and their associated levels and scopes of planning (Kaufman & Herman, 1991:23).

Types of results	Description	Typical examples	Level and scope of planning
PRODUCTS	Results that are building blocks for a larger result.	Test score, course passed, competence gained.	MICRO
OUTPUTS	Results that are delivered outside to society; quality of contribution.	Graduate, certificate of completion, licensure.	MACRO
OUTCOMES	The social impact and payoffs of results.	Individual self-sufficiency, self-reliance, collective social payoffs.	MEGA

The three types of results (Products, Outputs and Outcomes) are among the five elements of a comprehensive framework known as the “Organizational Elements Model” (Kaufman & Herman, 1991:23). Two other elements, (Inputs and Processes), are regarded as organizational efforts. The five elements of the Organizational Elements Model are classified in three domains:

- Organizational efforts (Inputs and Processes – resources, activities, methods, procedures and functions within the organization)
- Organizational results (Products and Outputs – products delivered by the organization)
- Societal consequences (Outcomes – impact or effects to and for the community)

The Organizational Elements Model emphasises assessment of needs based on the three types of results. The argument is that the three types of needs are the origin of the three

types of needs assessments (Kaufman & Herman, 1991:145). The three types of needs assessments are as follows:

- Mega-type needs assessment: identifies existing needs for the purpose of knowing and understanding what the organization delivers to the community or society (Outcome level).
- Macro-type needs assessment: identifies the needs in order to justify, prioritise and verify what the organization produces and provides to the community (Output level)
- Micro-type needs assessment: identifies the needs so as to get a clear picture of what is produced within the organization by a specific small group of stakeholders (Product level).

Figure 2.3 displays the three types of needs, each for the three varieties of results: Outcomes, Outputs, and Products. These three varieties of needs are shown with regular arrows while the quasi-needs are shown with shaded arrows shows (Kaufman & Herman, 1991:30):

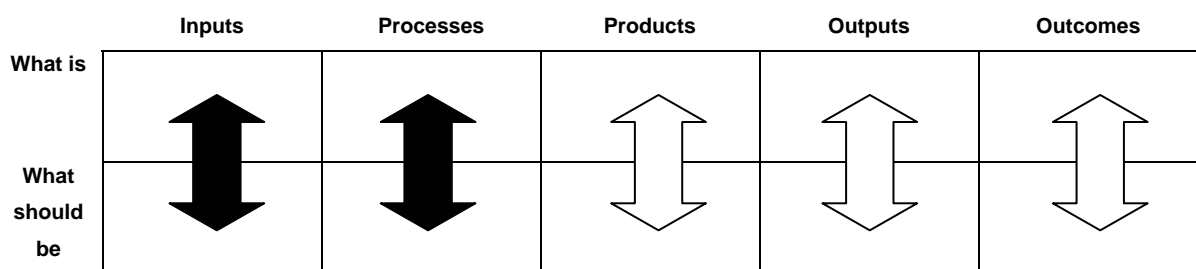


Figure 2.3: The two-tiered Organizational Elements Model including the dimensions of “What Is” and “What Should Be” (Kaufman & Herman, 1991:30).

The following are the nine steps of the Organizational Elements Model (Kaufman & Herman, 1991:151):

1. Decide to plan using data from a needs assessment.
2. Choose the needs assessment scope to be used: (A) Mega, (B) Macro, and (C) Micro.
3. Identify the needs assessment and planning partners.
4. Obtain needs assessment partners participation

5. Obtain acceptance of the needs assessment frame of reference: Micro, Macro, and Mega.
6. Collect needs data (both externally and internally).
7. List identified, documented, and agreed-upon needs.
8. Prioritise the needs and reconcile disagreements
9. List selected needs to be resolved and obtain agreement of partners.

#### 2.3.3.2 Methods and techniques

The following are the various methods and techniques that educational planners may use when applying the Organizational Elements Model:

- Cost-results analysis: is related to the costs of a result with the payoffs to be delivered by the successful associated results (Kaufman & Herman, 1991:246).
- Systems analysis: is a method for selecting the most effective and efficient alternatives to meet delineated requirements (Kaufman & Herman, 1991:247).
- Simulation: builds and uses a model from a real or predicted situation.
- Cross-impact analysis: considers the reality that many things interact on impact on one another (Kaufman & Herman, 1991:245).
- Nominal group technique: is a structured process devised to stimulate new ideas and produce group accord through voting (Kaufman & Herman, 1991:244).
- Delphi technique: is a method of obtaining group input and response without gathering the groups together. It employs the conclusions and analyses of authorities acting as panelists (Kaufman & Herman, 1991:244).
- Strategy trees: are used when one can identify hierarchies or distinct levels of complexity of events, with each lower level in a "tree" providing increasing detail. One can identify the associated pathways and alternatives by breaking down a series of a system's sequential component objectives and milestones into those programmes, methods, tasks, or actions for major strategies. (Kaufman & Herman, 1991:240).
- Polling: is a structured process that asks representative people to provide preferences or predictions in order to assist the planner to devise his/her strategies (Kaufman & Herman, 1991:245).
- Force-field analysis: is a systematic procedure for analysing the supporting and restraining forces that exist for each alternative action approach being considered (Kaufman & Herman, 1991:247).

### 2.3.3.3 Advantages and disadvantages

The following are the advantages of the Organizational Elements Model: it promotes a holistic, inclusive and integration of stakeholders in planning; focused on planning to create a useful and productive future; identifies the needs before selecting possible solutions; and it is based upon results that are both measurable and valuable (Kaufman & Herman, 1991:17 & 30).

The only disadvantage of the Organizational Elements Model is that planners may ignore the linkages between the three levels of planning and results, and ultimately change only a part of the system (Kaufman & Herman, 1991: 22).

### **2.3.4 The Quasi Needs Assessment Model of R. Kaufman, A.M. Rojas and H. Mayer (1993)**

#### 2.3.4.1 Essence

The Quasi Needs Assessment Model identifies the needs between the now and the future in order to meet the community's performance standards effectively and efficiently, as well as assuring the quality of the procedures and resources applied (Kaufman, Rojas, & Mayer, 1993:101). Kaufman, Rojas and Mayer (1993:102) state "*Quasi needs are not the gaps in results but gaps in processes/inputs. Quasi Needs Assessment is also termed method-means analysis because through the analysis, possible tactics and tools are identified for achieving organizational results, and the advantages and disadvantages of each are revealed and noted*". One may conduct the Quasi Needs Assessment if he/she wishes to know the most appropriate and less expensive ways, tools, techniques, interventions and resources for accomplishing the best results or meeting high quality performance targets. It is actually a quality assurance type of a needs assessment (Kaufman, Rojas & Mayer, 1993:103). The following steps should be followed when conducting the Quasi Needs Assessment (Kaufman, Rojas & Mayer, 1993:105):

Step 1: Specify the desired availability and /or quality of the organizational resources and methods.

Step 2: Determine the current quality and/or availability of the organizational efforts (i.e. resources and methods).

Step 3: Determine Quasi Need (s) – the gaps between the desired and the current status of the organizational efforts (i.e. inputs and processes).

Step 4: Align the Quasi Need (s) identified with the needs at Mega, Macro, and Micro levels.

Step 5: Place Quasi Need (s) in order of importance, based on the cost to ignore versus the cost to address each identified Quasi Need (s).

Step 6: Identify alternative ways and means to close the identified Quasi Need (s) and to Need(s).

Step 7: Identify advantages of each possible method and means available to get the job done.

Step 8: Identify constraints and eliminate them if possible.

Step 9: Present alternative method-means for addressing all agreed upon Needs and Quasi Needs to your clients, for agreement on the methods and means to be selected for actions

The relationships between the gaps in organizational efforts (Quasi Needs Assessment) and organizational results (Micro-and Macro-level Needs Assessment) along with societal impact (Mega-level Needs Assessment) are presented in Figure 2.4 below.

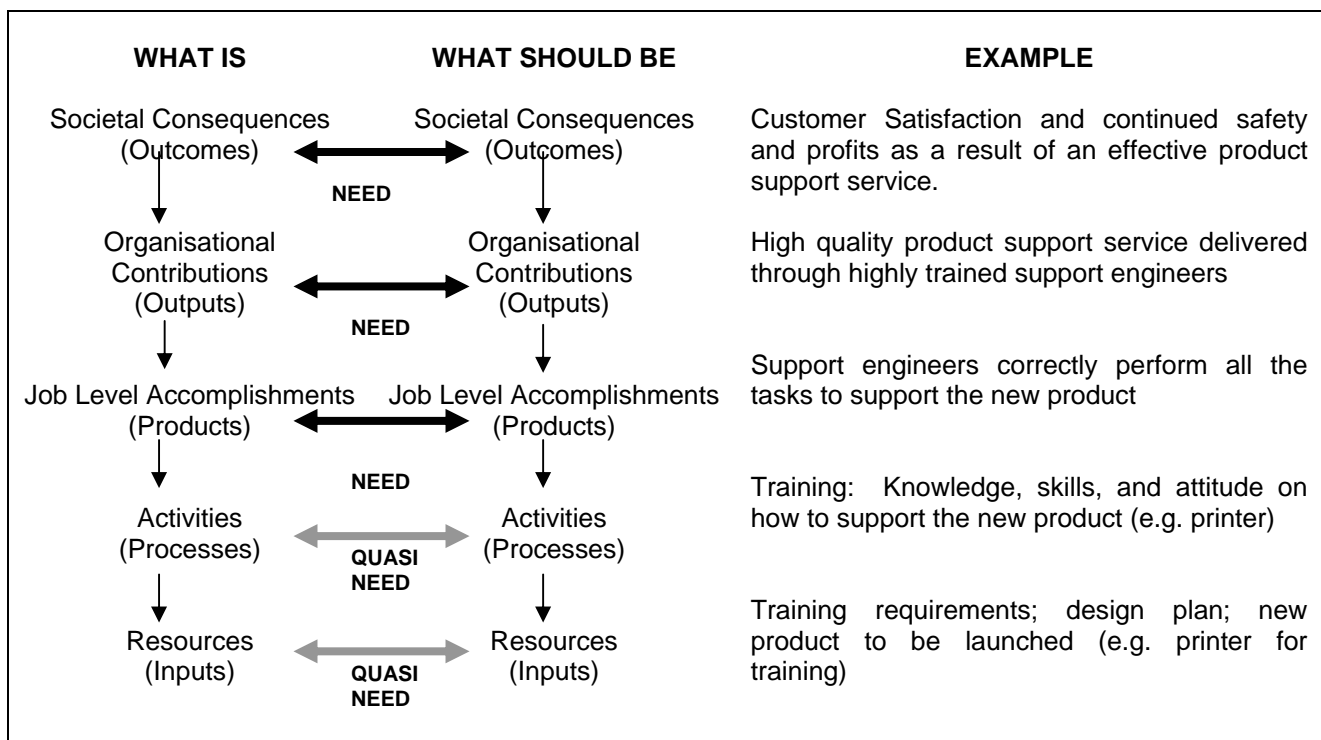


Figure 2.4: The relationships among the different levels of Needs Assessment (Kaufman, Rojas & Mayer, 1993:104).



#### 2.3.4.2 Methods and techniques

Quasi needs (quality assurance) data may be collected from the users of the resources, legislation on standards, subject/education specialists, managers, supervisors and strategic planners in the form of documented reports or verbal feedback (Kaufman, Rojas & Mayer, 1993:107).

#### 2.3.4.3 Advantages

The Quasi Needs Assessment has the following advantages: it is a quality assurance type of a needs assessment that assists in carrying the tasks effectively and efficiently; identifies the quasi needs in order to provide information essential for meeting specific social performance standards; helps in developing the best and quality interventions; helps in identifying and selecting the right job before doing the right job; recommends choosing the correct planning partners to guide and conduct the process; and reduces expenses by producing or delivering quality and less costly services in the local community (Kaufman, Rojas & Mayer: 1993:102).

### **2.3.5 The Needs Identification Model of H. Swanepoel (2002)**

#### 2.3.5.1 Essence

The Needs Identification Model of H. Swanepoel (2002:3) is a humanistic, two-phase approach to community development that identifies community needs and formulates action-planning groups to address those needs. It promotes grassroots participation in community development and enhances ownership of community projects by local people. Needs are identified in partnerships of various community stakeholders, as a result benefiting the entire community. It is a holistic system that empowers all community partners to initiate, take a lead, and sustain the projects (Swanepoel, 2002:3).

The Needs Identification Model ensures that every community member enjoys his/her democratic rights in relation to community development. It gives people opportunities to make use of their knowledge and understanding in decision-making. As such people are liberated from the crisis of depending and relying on external experts for any sort of

development effort. These result in building the capacities, self-reliance, trust, and self-responsibility for community improvement (Swanepoel, 2002:8).

The Needs Identification Model enhances collaborative community learning and adaptiveness through provision for intensive research that identifies needs. It is based on the notion of simplicity for community improvement and thus removes the barriers for development (Swanepoel, 2002:12). The end-result is the establishment of a number of community development projects that are directed at meeting the different community needs. Each project addresses one need. The role of the community builder, in this regard, is to facilitate and empower community members to actively participate and own the projects (Swanepoel, 2002:109). The two phases of the Needs Identification Model are briefly discussed as follows:

- Informal phase: contact making

At the start of the Needs Identification Model is the informal phase. At this level, the community builder proposes to conduct a needs assessment in a particular community. The community builder should enter the community without any preconceived objective or programme (Swanepoel, 2002:73). The community builder and community members meet; establish contacts and relationships for the sake of addressing similar or different community needs. Community members informally and collectively discuss and investigate into what are the real community needs. As such learning takes place by involving community members and the community builder in strategising how to overcome the problems. The contact-making phase is aimed at:

- Assisting the people to know and accept the community builder.
- Assisting the community builder to get to know the people and their conditions.
- Assisting the community builder and the people to identify the needs (Swanepoel, 2002:73).

- Formal phase: need formulation

This is the second phase of the Needs Identification Model. It is a need formulation stage in which community members make detailed descriptions and clarifications of what their

needs are. It is significant to conduct a causality and linkage exercise, at this point, in order to clarify the causes and results of the needs (Swanepoel, 2002:110).

#### 2.3.5.2 Methods and techniques

The Needs Identification Model applies a new method known as Participatory Rural Appraisal. It is a survey method that is focused on doing research for development, especially in most rural and deprived communities (Swanepoel, 2002:98). Participatory Rural Appraisal is most applicable during the contact making phase. Its emphasis is on the roles of local rural people in community development. The main objectives of the Participatory Rural Appraisal are to: gather field data in a reliable manner; analyse it by using local and indigenous knowledge and perceptions of reality; and to initiate a community action that leads to other actions (Swanepoel, 2002:99).

The basic principles underlying the Participatory Rural Appraisal are as follows (Swanepoel, 2002:98):

- Optimising trade-offs – which refers to the choice between quantity, relevance, accuracy, and timelessness.
- Offsetting biases that discriminate against rural areas and the poor.
- Learning from and with rural people.
- Rapidly and progressively learning the flexible use of methods, opportunism and improvisation through conscious exploration.

The Participatory Rural Appraisal may be applied in conjunction with the following techniques:

- Conversations/interviews with individuals: these are good for gathering needs data because they allow easy, informal and friendly attitude of the interviewer, while on the other side putting the interviewee at ease. The interviewer is able to compile a list of items on which needs data are collected, but should preferably be learned by heart in order to promote a relaxed, informal and friendly environment. The interviewer is not allowed to use a tape recorder or take notes as a sign of data gathering (Swanepoel, 2002:101).
- Conversations/interviews with groups: these interviews should be representative, structured and homogenous in order to guard against certain groups, for example,

youth not feeling free to take part in the presence of their parents, or women and men vice versa. It is important to apply group dynamic techniques in order to ensure the full participation of the group members during the interview session (Swanepoel, 2002:103).

- Questionnaires: should be given to a specific group of people who must fill them within a particular period and be sent back to the researcher. Respondents should be able to read, write and understand the language in which the questions are put (Swanepoel, 2002:105).
- Physical observation: This is concerned with data gathering through listening and looking at what is taking place in terms of a particular community development scenario. The community builder should observe the speeches, attitudes, relationships, reactions, and actions and illusions of the participating group (Swanepoel, 2002:104).

#### 2.3.5.3 Advantages and disadvantages

The Needs Identification Model bears the following advantages: it is suitable for improving the living conditions in the rural areas and most deprived communities; developed within the South African context: promotes collective participation of community members in needs identification; begins with problem-diagnosis before prescribing solutions; goal-directed; grassroots-oriented by giving local people access to identify and address their own needs; creates awareness of community needs and paves the way for identification and allocation of community assets; and builds capacities of community members by strengthening networks for sustainable lives (Swanepoel, 2002: 3).

The disadvantages of the Needs Identification Model are as follows: opportunities are high for developing irrelevant projects that do not favour and address the needs of the less privileged community members; community members may experience problems in terms of reaching consensus when prioritising the needs; identified needs may result in large-scale, and sophisticated and expensive projects; the community builder may not be regarded as an empowerer and facilitator, but as a benefactor and spokesperson of the community; community members may be disappointed if their raised expectations are not met; community members may regard themselves as incapable and useless entities who should depend and rely on authorities, agencies and government departments for supply of funds and other resources (Swanepoel, 2002:113).

### 2.3.6 Summaries of the needs assessment models

The Three-Phase Model of B.R. Witkin and J.W. Altschuld (1995) is used to assess community needs in three phases: pre-assessment, assessment, and post-assessment. The needs data are collected from the service receivers, service providers, and community resources. Needs assessors applying this model use a variety of research methods in order to obtain quality and rich data. The Three-Phase Model helps organisations and communities for the purpose of designing effective programmes (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995:5).

The System Approach Model of R. Kaufman and F.W. English (1979) have six steps of conducting needs assessment. Each step is linked to a particular level of Planning Taxonomy, and identifies specific type of needs. These needs assessment types include the: alpha, beta, gamma, delta, epsilon, and zeta. The System Approach Model encourages educational institutions, such as schools, to identify the needs on an ongoing basis in order to attain renewal and transformation for excellent community outcomes. It also applies methods and techniques that engage broader representation in planning (Kaufman & English, 1979:61).

The Organizational Elements Model of R. Kaufman and J. Herman (1991) is a planning template that identifies the needs on the basis of the three varieties of results: Products (building blocks results), Outputs (organizational results which can or will be delivered to society), and Outcomes (the consequences and payoffs for these results in and for society). Each of the three results of the Organizational Elements Model is related to the different levels or scopes of planning. Planning at Mega level focuses on results called Outcomes. Results at the Macro level are labelled Outputs, and those at the Micro level are Products (Kaufman & Herman, 1991:35).

The Quasi Needs Assessment Model of R. Kaufman, A.M. Rojas and H. Mayer (1993) is a way of identifying and resolving the gaps between the actual and desired quality and/or availability of organizational efforts, inputs and processes (Kaufman, Rojas & Mayer, 1993:118). This model is referred to as the Methods-means analysis because through the analysis, possible tactics and tools are identified for achieving organizational results. The Quasi Needs Assessment uses or assumes that needs have been assessed and are being

used. It identifies the gaps in resources, methods and means; and places the gaps and means in priority order (Kaufman, Rojas & Mayer, 1993:118).

The Needs Identification Model of H. Swanepoel (2002) identifies community needs in two phases: informal (contact making) and formal (need formulation). It is basically focused on identifying the needs and later developing various projects. Focus is also on empowering the grassroots to take initiative and leadership for sustainable community development (Swanepoel, 2002:108).

## **2.4 ASSET-BASED APPROACH IN COMMUNITY BUILDING**

### **2.4.1 Essence**

The asset-based approach originates out of the traditions of community organising, community economic development, and planning in the communities across the United States. It is an alternative path of community building that is “*asset-based, internally focused and relationship driven*” (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:9). It is a new approach about anti-poverty strategies (Page Adams & Sherraden, 1997:432). The asset-based approach is opposed to the traditional needs-based approach that begins development with what is problematic and lacking. Beaulieu (2002:3) indicates, “*Once we know the full breadth of people, organizational, and institutional resources that exist in the community, we can then move in the direction of undertaking a needs assessment*”. The asset-based approach is a “*Capacity Focused Development*” that starts by determining the capacities, skills and assets in the local community (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:8; Beaulieu, 2002:4; Page-Adams & Sherraden, 1997:423).

The asset-based approach is a bottom-up system that stresses development efforts from inside the community. Its internal focus simply puts emphasis on local effort investment, and creativity. This means that the success of community building initiatives depends heavily on the commitments and capacities of local people, associations and institutions. This rejects the issue of starting development on a high note that is externally based. This does not mean that the external resources are rejected but implies that resources from the outside could be effectively used if internal assets are identified, empowered and invested. (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:5; Snow, 2001: 3; Beaulieu, 2002:5).

Emphasis is on mapping and making inventories of community assets in order to discover, and enhance awareness and understanding about available resources, skills, and talents that may be useful for community development. These serve as invaluable resource base for strengthening, rebuilding and developing new community structures, policies and programmes (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:6; Weil, 1996:481; Dorfman, 1998:3; Fuller, Guy & Pletsch, 2002:3; Beaulieu, 2002:4). By being relationship driven, it means that community builders should put strength on uniting local people, associations and institutions (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:9; Delgado, 1996:2; Beaulieu, 2002:5).

#### 2.4.2 Advantages and disadvantages

- It is focused on discovering community capacities, skills and gifts.
- It is an approach that begins from the inside out.
- It promotes sound relationships between people, associations and institutions in the local community (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:5).
- It neglects the needs of the community (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:5).

#### 2.4.3 Summary

The asset-based approach is an alternative path to the needs based approach. The asset-based approach is asset-based, internally focused, and relationship driven. Its emphasis is that of initiating development efforts through community assets as opposed to the needs based approach that is deficiency-oriented (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:5).

## **2.5 MODELS OF CONDUCTING ASSET ASSESSMENT**

### **2.5.1 The Asset Mapping Model of J.P. Kretzmann and J.L. McKnight (1993)**

#### 2.5.1.1 Essence

The Asset Mapping Model is a community building model that enhances learning about one's community by displaying and revealing the relationships between the skills, capacities and gifts in the local community in the form of a picture or a drawing (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:6). According to Fuller, Guy and Pletsch (2002:4) the Asset Mapping Model is predominantly used in both rural areas and small towns in Canada, especially by



Aboriginal peoples, the elderly, farm families, and ex-urban residents. As such “*the Asset Mapping Model celebrates differences rather than homogeneity*” (Fuller, Guy & Pletsch: 2002:4). Community assets may be mapped in categories according to: gifts of individuals, citizens ‘associations, and local institutions (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:7).

The goals of the Asset Mapping Model is to explore and discover the most important resources in the local community; categorise the community assets; strengthen the linkages between the assets, and indicate the best way to access them (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:6).

The Asset Mapping Model creates the easiest way to identify and recognise community assets, as well as planning how to improve on the assets in order to sustain and enhance them for the future. It also provides local people with powers to shape their community (Fuller, Guy & Pletsch, 2002:3; Beaulieu, 2002:2).

Fuller, Guy and Pletsch (2002:3) note that mapping of community assets is all about collecting an inventory of all the good things in the community; making the most valued aspects in the community; and discovering the reasons why people place high value on such assets in the community.

The following approaches may be considered when applying the Asset Mapping Model in the rural communities (Fuller, Guy & Pletsch, 2002:6):

- The Whole Assets Approach is a comprehensive approach that identifies all the assets within and outside the rural community. Community assets are then grouped in terms of their purposes such as leadership, housing, technology, educational, social, economic, physical, infrastructural and agricultural development. This approach requires a large scale of community representatives in order to obtain a rich data about community assets in totality.
- The Storytelling Approach allows rural people to map information about the most successful historical local people and events that are currently hidden and unnoticed. Such historical people and events are assets that should be unveiled for the purpose of giving vision for the community.



- The Heritage Approach assists rural people in mapping the physical features or anything from the landscape that is viewed to be of utmost importance by people living in the local area. These features may include rivers, mountains, trees, buildings, etc.

According to Beaulieu (2002:11) the Asset Mapping Model is of paramount importance towards community economic development, especially in the rural areas. It involves mobilising the assets of the whole community for development of the vision and action plans. The following are the steps for conducting the Asset Mapping Model for community economic development (Beaulieu, 2002:11):

#### Step1: Mapping the assets

This is the start of the Asset Mapping in which people locate and make inventories about the gifts, talents, and abilities of individuals, associations and institutions in their local community.

#### Step 2: Building relationships and broadening the local leadership

This involves strengthen networks within and outside the community in order to solve local problems effectively. There should be unity among local people, as well as development of new and existing leadership for community building.

#### Step 3: Mobilizing for economic development

Community building should be of internal origin, based on available community assets. The implication is that the skills of the individuals should be located and mobilised for community economic growth and development.

#### Step 4: Convening the community and developing a vision for the future

Local people need to be empowered to develop a shared vision and planning. This step is concerned with assessing the present situation for the purpose of making decisions for attaining the desired future. The means for reaching the vision (destination) is thoroughly debated at this point.

Step 5: Leveraging outside resources to support local priority activities

Once local assets are mapped, external resources may be prioritised and located appropriately for local economic development. Partnerships are also build and rebuild between community members and other outside individuals, associations and institutions.

Figure 2.5 indicates an example of a Community Asset Map. It displays categories of mapping community assets i.e. gifts of individuals, citizens' associations and local institutions. Community assets are linked to each other on the map because they operate collaboratively in building the community. At the centre of the asset map is the gifts of the individuals that reflect that community building should start from the inside out.

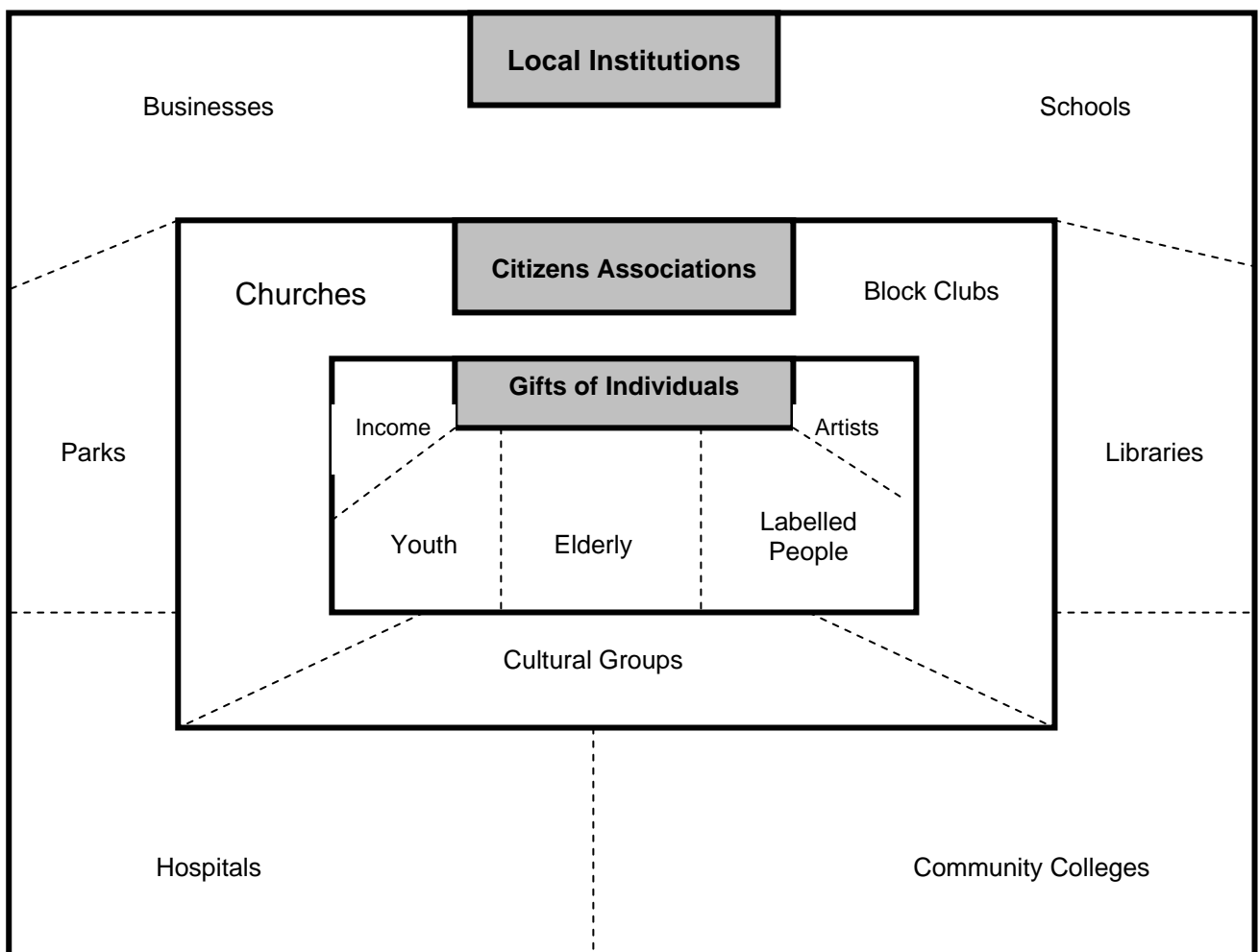


Figure 2.5: An example of a Community Asset Map (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:7)

### 2.5.1.2 Methods and techniques

The Asset Mapping Model of Kretzmann and McKnight (1993) apply methods and techniques that provide greater opportunities for identifying community assets. Such methods and techniques include focus groups and interviews.

- Focus groups are more educational because they allow community members to acquire information for community asset building activities, as well as encouraging active participation and provision of input (Mahoney, Lafferty & Nutter, 2003:144).
- Interviews may provide opportunities for clarification and final comments after focus groups (Mahoney, Lafferty & Nutter, 2003:138).

### 2.5.1.3 Advantages and disadvantages

The Asset Mapping Model has the following advantages for community building. It is realistic, inclusive, a form of discovery, and relevant for both rural and urban community building (Fuller, Guy & Pletsch, 2003:5). However, the Asset Mapping Model embraces the following disadvantage: it does not reflect the needs of the community (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:6).

## **2.5.2 The Capacity Inventory Model of J.P Kretzmann and J.L. McKnight (1993)**

### 2.5.2.1 Essence

According to Kretzmann and McKnight (1993:14) the Capacity Inventory Model is an asset-oriented approach for identifying individual capacities, skills and talents invaluable for community building purposes. Beaulieu (2002: 10) indicates that a capacity inventory may be used for identifying the talents of informal organizations in the community. Informal organizations are those that meet only when the need arises with the aim of making the community a better place to stay. The Capacity Inventory Model is composed of four parts that are summarised as follows (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:14; Beaulieu, 2002:6):

- Part1: Skills information

This is a process of obtaining information about the skills that a person has acquired throughout his/her life. The kinds of skills the person possess are useful assets for developing or improving existing community programmes. A Priority Skills is then formulated; in which the interviewee is asked to identify the skills he/she likes the most that he/she can contribute towards community building.

#### Part 2: Community skills

This involves identifying the kind of activities the person has taken part in his/her community. Furthermore, the person is asked to give the kind of community activities he/she prefers to perform in the future.

#### Part 3: Enterprising interests and experience

This part serve as an investigation into the current money-making project of the interviewee and the kind of business he/she prefers to initiate in the future.

#### Part 4: Personal information

This is a follow-up exercise for clarifying as to whether there is any useful personal information left unidentified.

Beaulieu (2004:10) suggest the following steps for conducting the capacity inventory of informal organizations within the community:

- Step 1: Examine printed materials – such as newspapers, local magazines, and community directories.
- Step 2: Contact local formal institutions – such as libraries, parks and recreational facilities, churches and schools.
- Step 3: Contact local individuals – such as specific people in the community.

#### 2.5.2.2 Methods and techniques

According to Kretzmann and McKnight (1993:15) the researcher undertaking the Capacity Inventory may use either interviews or questionnaires for the purpose of identifying the

skills, talents, capacities, and gifts of the individuals in the local community. Such information is then connected and used as a start for community building. Community members are also encouraged to contribute and develop their skills, talents, capacities and gifts for community improvement (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:27).

#### 2.5.2.3 Advantages and disadvantages

The advantages of the Capacity Inventory Model include the following: helps to develop the capacities of the individuals in order to contribute effectively to community building; an effective strategy for uncovering the talents in the community; and untap emerging leaders in the community (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:17).

The disadvantages of the Capacity Inventory Model are: chances are high for asking information that is too personal or private; the information gathered may not be used for capacity building by keeping it confidential; and the information collected may only be used for a particular study, but not address the issue of assisting that person to contribute to the community (Beaulieu, 2002:6; Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:17).

#### **2.5.3 Community Action Planning Workshops of M.S Leuci, J.L.Wade, D. Hackman, J. McCall and D.Littrell (1994).**

##### 2.5.3.1 Essence

Community Action Planning Workshops are vision-based community building processes that empower people at grassroots level to identify their needs and mobilise community assets. Community Action Planning Workshops promote meaningful, innovative and reflective decision-making, commitment, active and full participation of community partners in the development process. Emphasis is on addressing the imbalances between the present situation and the desired future. Community members have the powers to monitor, lead, manage and revise their own progress for their own benefit (Leuci, *et.al.*1994: 15).

Figure 2.6 illustrates a schematic representation of Community Action Planning Process. The various steps of conducting Community Action Planning are illustrated.

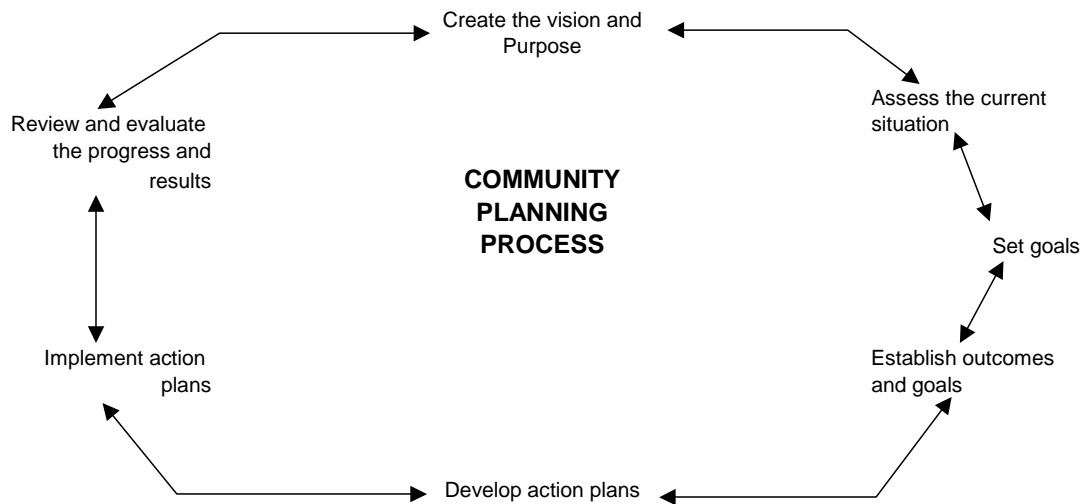


Figure 2.6: Community Action Planning Process (Bender, 2004:11).

The following is a procedure for conducting Community Action Planning Workshops:

### Step 1: Creating a vision

Leuci, *et.a.l* (1994:35) note “A vision address the question of what. What are the ideal characteristics? It is a description of what things would be like if they were what we wanted. A vision is not concerned with how to get to where we want to go, just where we want to go”. A vision builds support; participation and an ongoing interest. It also gives access to expansive, innovative and proactive future orientation (Green & Haines, 2002:43).

### Step 2: Assessing the present situation

This is a crucial step that involves identifying what is presently lacking (needs) and what is available (assets) inside and outside the local community (Bender, 2003:9). Community members identify the needs, weaknesses, assets, strengths and opportunities (Bender, 2003:9). The information obtained from the assessment of the current condition is used for developing proper, relevant and meaningful action plans for attaining the future (Leuci, *et.al*.1994: 37).

### Step 3: Setting the goals or vision themes

Community members set goals by way of dividing the vision into its major themes or topics. The setting of goals or vision themes is purposefully meant for making agreements about the themes in order to simplify the journey towards the stated community vision (Leuci, *et.al.*1994: 37; Bender, 2003:9). The goals are the pathways to reach the destination (vision) (Bender, 2003:9).

#### Step 4: Establishing outcomes

According to Bender (2003:10) outcomes are the channels/ways/steps to be followed in order to reach the desired future/destination. Outcomes as such, should be clear, simple, specific, measurable, integrated, and focused in the direction of the stated community vision. Establishment of outcomes/objectives is all about critically, creatively, and collaboratively stating the kind of transformation that should be made to attain what the community expects, loves, and would enjoy to see within the stipulated period in the near future (Leuci,*et.al.*1994: 38).

#### Step 5: Developing a plan of actions

This step is about formulating action plans or designing programmes with the purpose of closing the gap between the now and the future. This includes making descriptions about the kind and purpose of the project to be initiated; people to be involved and responsible for decision making; resources needed; critical steps to be followed; required time frames; the assessment strategies that would indicate the successful completion of the action planning tasks; and the anticipated and unanticipated problems and the strategies to deal with them (Leuci, *et.al.*1994: 8).

Table 2.3: An example of a Community Action Planning Worksheet (Stewart & Wade, 2000:4; Bender, 2004:12)

Vision Theme:		Project:			
Purposes of Project:			Time frame for completion:		
Members of task group:					Date:
Critical Steps	Who will be involved & make decisions	Resources	Information and assistance needed	Time to do task	How we'll know we've successfully accomplished task
What difficulties do we anticipate and how will we deal with them (or put them on the agenda)? How will we deal with anticipated difficulties?					

### Step 6: Implementing action plans

Successful implementation originates from well-structured, co-ordinated and managed action plans. Community members collectively contribute their skills, knowledge and capacities, and norms and values. Issues that should be discussed include: How to build every one's commitment? Who and how to co-ordinate, lead, and manage the project? Who to contact for participation in the project? What is the project's 30-day goal? How will progress and needs be communicated within the community? How is the community going to celebrate success? How is the project to be sustained? How are more projects to be developed? Who will be responsible for sharing the vision and purpose with others in the community? How is more input from others to be gathered? What are the learners, educators, parents, members, principal and members of the School Governing Body going to do? (Leuci, *et.al* .1994:39).

Table 2.4: Example of a Community Action Planning Implementation Worksheet (Bender, 2004:13).

Project Leader:		Phone:		
Next Meeting Date:				
30 day goal:				
Responsibility-who will carry out task	Strategy-how will task be carried out	When must decisions be made	How will decisions be made	Other notes



## Step 7: Reviewing and evaluating

Reviewing and evaluating ensure that action planning process is progressing in line with the stated community goals and vision. Plans are revised and assessed for the purpose of monitoring their effectiveness in terms of the desired vision. The following questions should be addressed in this regard:

- What success did they have?
- What will they do differently next time?
- Who helped make things happen?
- What resources did they use and who provided them? (Leuci, *et.al.*1994: 57).

### 2.5.3.2 Advantages and disadvantages

According to Leuci, *et.al.* (1994:49) the following are the advantages for conducting Community Action Planning Workshops: Community is empowered to manage its efforts; develop communication networks; identify and mobilise resources; take actions; monitor change, evaluate efforts and revise action plans; and reward community members.

The disadvantages of Community Action Planning Workshops are that the process may be time-consuming; long; drawn-out; difficult; and unnecessary (Leuci, *et.al.*1994: 48).

### 2.5.3.3 Methods and techniques

Community Action Planning makes use of workshops as the methodology for data collection. Within the workshops focus groups, observations, semi-structured interviews, and written documents from the community may be utilised as relevant techniques for data collection (Stewart & Wade, 2000:4; Bender: 2003:15). Workshops are recommended for Community Action Planning because they encourage creativity for community action, and commitment and collective participation (Steward & Wade, 2000:3; Bender, 2003:13).

- Focus groups provide access to collaborative thinking and development of the vision, goals and objectives, action plans, implementation and evaluation of programmes.

- Observations during Community Action Planning may be used to collect additional data in the community.
- Semi-structured interviews may be conducted with various stakeholders in the community in order to obtain rich data about the community's perspectives.
- Written documentation is necessary for the consistency of the data (Bender, 2003:15).

#### **2.5.4 Summaries of the asset assessment models**

Every community has assets that remain hidden and unknown for long periods of time (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:13). The Asset Mapping Model of J.P. Kretzmann and J.L. McKnight (1993) is a tool that is used for displaying or unveiling the potentials, skills, talents, and capacities of a particular community in the form of a drawing or a picture. An asset map builds and maximises the capacities of the local people along their journey to the desired vision, through extensive reliance and dependence on internal local resources. Asset mapping is participatory and inclusive in nature, as such it encourages local people to explore how problems may be integrated and responded to in a co-ordinated and collaborative manner (Beaulieu, 2002:4).

The Capacity Inventory Model of J.P. Kretzmann and J.L. McKnight (1993) is a tool for discovering individual assets of a particular community. The Capacity Inventory Model is composed of the following parts: Skills information; community skills; enterprising interests and experience; and personal information. The inventory is essential for assisting community members to contribute fully towards community building (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:14).

Community Action Planning Workshops of M.S.Leuci, J.L. Wade, D. Hackman, J. McCall and D. Littrell (1994) are participatory, action and future-oriented in nature. They are necessary for generating ideas about the needs and assets of a particular community in order to develop appropriate action plans. Community Action Planning Workshops encourage community members to create vision and goals, outcomes and development plan, and implementation and revision of action plans (Leuci, *et.al.* 1994:36; Bender, 2003:8).

## 2.6 SCHOOLS AS LOCAL INSTITUTIONS AND ASSETS OF COMMUNITIES

Decker and Associates (2000:5) note that every community possess a wide spectrum of assets that should be used to meet community needs and improve the quality of life. Schools are community assets because they enhance opportunities for people to work together; and transmit knowledge, skills, and values necessary for community improvement (Van Deventer & Kruger, 2003: 256; Burmaster, 2001:1). Schools are support centres that address community needs by providing equitable and public education to diverse local people as well as uniting communities within which they are located (Olsen, 1994:105; Burmaster, 2001:1). They also provide a broad base of services including facilities and materials, job creation, courses, human services, interagency co-ordination and co-operation, leadership and accountability, needs assessment, and planning and economic development (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:210; Burmaster, 2001:1; Decker & Associates, 2000:9; Totten & Manley, 1990:11).

Figure 2.7 below illustrates the roles of the schools as community centres. It reflects that schools provide a wide range of services within their local communities. It also indicates the linkages that exist between schools and other public and private institutions.

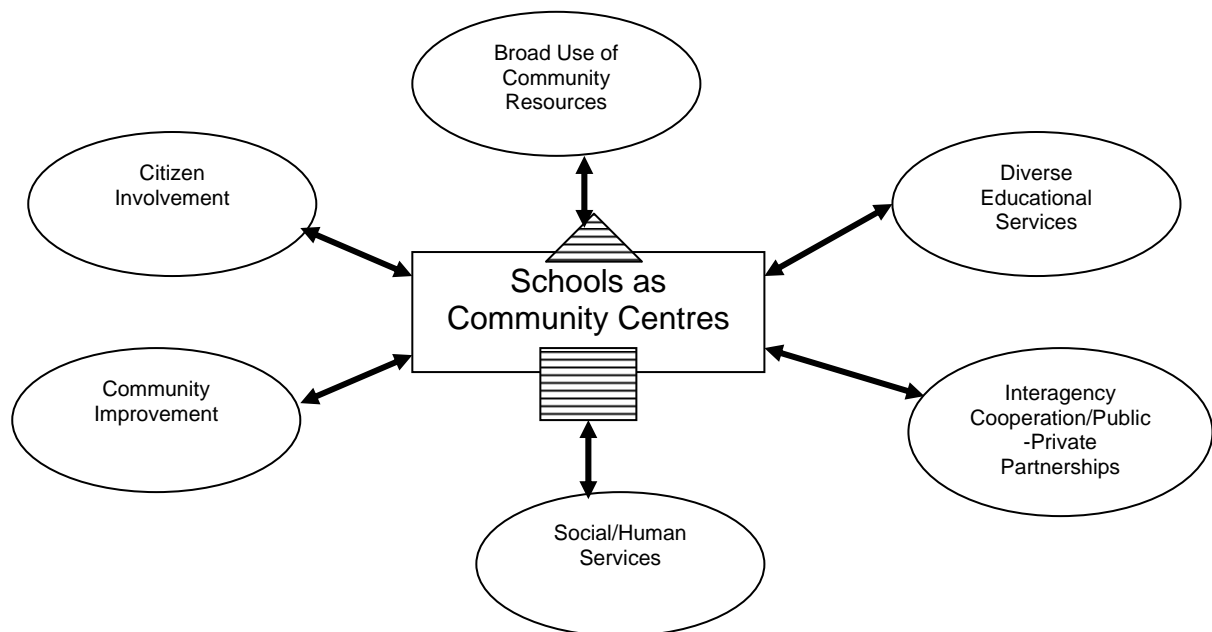


Figure 2.7: Schools as community centres (Decker & Associates, 2000:9)

Schools are learning centres in which learners, educators, parents and other interested parties meet for specific educational desires. As such schools integrate individual efforts and enhance community education, improvement and success. They inspire transformation in other local schools, associations and institutions for community renewal and regeneration (Lane & Dorfman, 1997:12).

Since schools are geographically located within communities, they strongly depend on their local communities because they (schools) cannot be islands or cannot operate independently without the support of their local people (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:209; Kuykendall, 1992:105). For this matter, relationships should be strengthened between the schools and their communities. These could help harness valuable resources useful for effective learner achievements and school improvement (Kuykendall, 1992:105; Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:210). According to Burke and Picus (2001:99) such valuable resources could be used as community mentors to support students; offer community enrichment programmes; provide health and human services, and attract local business support in order to meet technologically expensive needs of the school.

Decker and Associates (2000:7) indicate that schools are multipurpose centers that are used by local communities because they are: easy to reach; owned by the public and represent a large public investment; have good facilities, resources and professional staffs; provide enough time to schedule other uses; second homes to children; focal points for families, and inspiring confidence, loyalty and public support.

## **2.7 RULES OF ENGAGEMENT FOR EDUCATORS AND COMMUNITY BUILDERS**

Educators and community builders are obliged to adhere to certain rules in order to promote co-operative and successful community building initiatives. The following are the basic rules for educators and community builders (Jehl, Blank & McCloud, 2001:18):

- FIND OUT about each other's interests and needs in order to know and understand the problems in the local community and the relevant people to address the needs.
- REACH OUT to potential partners on their own turf with specific offers of assistance for the purpose of establishing and strengthening partnerships with relevant community assets.

- SPELL OUT the purpose and terms of joint efforts including who will do what, by when? This encourages generation of innovative ideas essential for pursuing opportunities for community building.
- WORK OUT the kinks as they arise and change the approach when necessary, so as to promote involvement, flexibility and communication necessary for contribution in the community building.
- BUILD OUT from success by sharing positive results and encouraging expanded efforts. This helps to leverage more external resources closer to the community (Jehl, *et.al.* 2001: 18).

## 2.8 SCHOOL-FAMILY-COMMUNITY PARTNERSHIPS

A school is a formal system, socialising agency and a learning institution with diversity of partners who socially influence one another. Partners in the school are assets of the school because they promote school improvement through interdependent and collaborative efforts (Stoll & Fink, 1999:189). A school is composed of internal and external partners (Stoll & Fink, 1999:186). Internally, the principal, educators, learners, parents, members of the School Management Team, and members of the School Governing Body are partners who should jointly help the school to raise its expectations. Their role is to network, promote team spirit, admire and respect, co-operate and fully participate in the activities of the school in order to enhance the academic achievement and the well being of the school. Their focus is on promoting educative teaching and learning through excellence in school-based activities such as classworks, assignments, tests, homeworks, projects, and extra-mural activities (Epstein, *et.al.* 2002: 31).

External partners of a school include public institutions (hospitals, schools, universities, police stations, libraries, and parks), private sector (businesses and banks), and associations (community development projects, community organisations and churches). External partners are invaluable assets as well because they assist to provide services that are currently deficient or beyond the scope of internal partners (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993: 213; Trickett, 1997:140; Epstein, *et.al.* 2002:31).

Both internal and external partners bear the responsibility to: help the learners become successful in schooling and life; and support one another, bring expectations, contribute, and share roles and responsibilities with the rest of the team (Kretzmann & McKnight,

1993:212). Partners also help to address mutual and crucial matters that affect the learner's educational progress and development and, in turn, bank on the learners by building the kind of world they wish to live in the future (Dodd & Konzal, 2002:4).

Partnerships should be strengthened within the school, family, and surrounding community in order to enhance interpersonal, inclusive, integrated, democratic, and active and full participation for all (Berns, 2001:243). The implication is that there should be "marriage", "connectedness" and "interconnectedness" in the school and with the family and community in order to maximise collaborative efforts for positive change through shared vision (Kuykendall, 1992:96; Dodd & Konzal, 2002:104). Lane and Dorfman (1997:6) refer to this collaborative educational partnership as a "*social capital*". It is in this social capital that community members expect and understand that important community issues are going to be dealt with by all members of the community and that multiple viewpoints will be expressed and valued (Lane & Dorfman, 1997:6). Strong relationships between the school, family and community help to provide knowledge, skills, and experiences that are needed by children in order to function effectively as adults in a complex and rapidly changing world (Dodd & Konzal, 2002:4).

Dodd and Konzal (2002:34) note that communication between the school, home, and community is often very limited and undemocratic. Poor communication contributes to partners not being treated equally and thus end up less involved in the activities of the school. Poor partnerships originate from lack of communication or a one-way communication of sending letters to illiterate parents, requesting parents to sign certain forms, and inviting parents to school events that are open to the public (Dodd & Konzal, 2002:232). Warner and Curry (1997:84) indicate that the following principles of communication should be considered in order to ensure successful school, family, and community partnerships:

- Equality: Everybody has the right to be heard, and contribute fully and equally.
- Collaboration: This implies communicating to and with the all partners. Decisions should be made jointly and co-operatively.
- Stewardship: This is all about protecting what is valuable in helping learners to become contributing citizens.

Successful partnerships are the outcomes of good and continuous communication between the school, family, and community (Dodd & Konzal, 2002:31). Educational partners should enhance communication by engaging in small and large group meetings for purpose of exchanging ideas about certain issues in the school (Dodd & Konzal, 2002:114). A variety of communication strategies should be applied to enhance school, home, and community partnerships. Such strategies include: dial-a-teacher voice mail, parent conferences out of school, Parent-Teacher-Student-Associations, home visits, parent volunteers, parent workshops, communication school policies and procedures in diverse languages of the school community, translators, displaying of policies and procedures of the school in the parents and community handbook, monthly or bimonthly school newspapers and publications, inclusion of school logo, establishing individual contact, use of an easy to read information, published invitations, business reply cards, community surveys, open-door policy debates, pamphlets, and journals and articles (Dietz, 1997:43; Burke & Picus, 2001:8; Dodd & Konzal, 2002:239).

### **2.8.1 The Overlapping Spheres of Influence of J.L. Epstein (2001)**

Epstein (2001:31) suggests a new theoretical model of school, family, and community partnerships, which is known as the Overlapping Spheres of Influence. According to this theory, the school, family and community have special mutual and overlapping interactions, goals, similarities and responsibilities that influence and affect children's education and development. As such the school, family, and community should work alike (Epstein, 2001:32; Epstein, *et.al.* 2002:8). The school should operate like the family and community, and vice versa. Epstein (2001:80) states "*A family-like school recognises each child's individuality and uniqueness, and, like a family, makes each child feel special and included. Through their attitudes and practices, families create school-like families. A school-like family recognises each child as a student, and, like a school, reinforces the importance of school, homework, and activities that build student's skills and feelings of success*".

Externally, the Overlapping Spheres of Influence gives the school, family and community access to work together or separately towards influencing learner's performance. Internally, emphasis is on building strong relations between the school, family, and community. The Overlapping Spheres of Influence is learner-centred and thus regards learners as the primary participants in the school and education (Epstein, *et.al.* 2002:8).



## 2.8.2 The Synergistic Model of Home, School, and Community Partnership of A.W. Dodd and J.L. Konzal (2002)

The Synergistic Model connects the school, home, and community as interdependent, seamless and synergistic, and collaborative partners in education. The synergistic partners influence and affect one another. The synergistic paradigm increases better results in education because educators, learners, parents, and community act together in educating all the children in the community well for the purpose of meeting the educational challenges of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. The ultimate goal of the synergistic paradigm is that *“all children should become successful, competent, and caring adults”* (Dodd & Konzal, 2002:125).

Figure 2.8 illustrates the synergistic paradigm of establishing the school, home, and community partnership. It shows that links should be tightened between the home, school, and community for the purpose of enhancing a common task of educating all children in the community well.

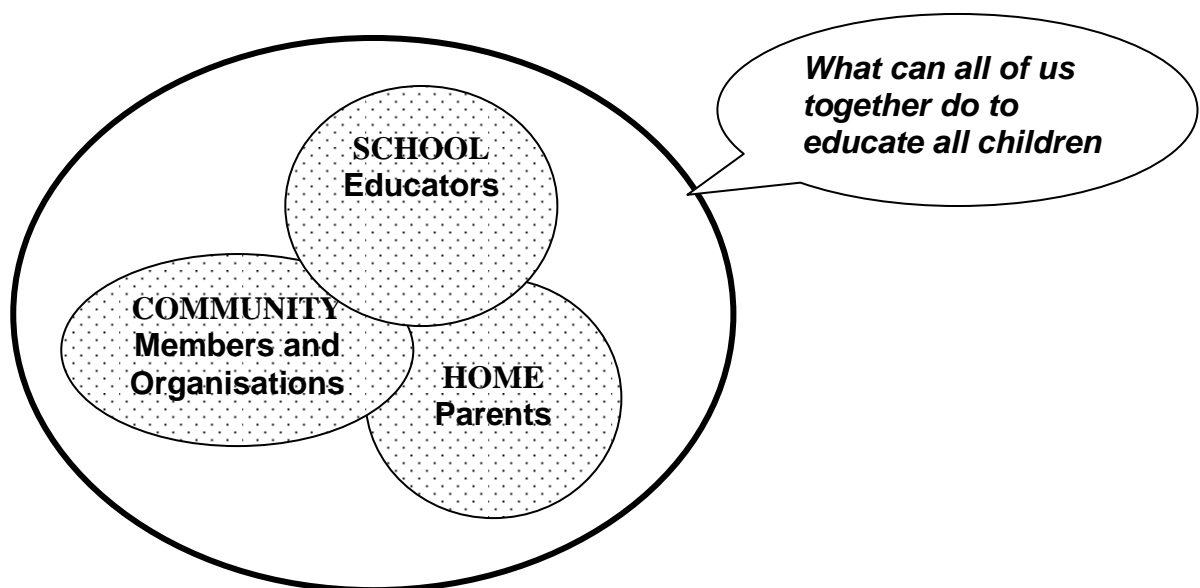


Figure 2.8: Home, school, and community relationship – seamless and synergistic collaborative, interdependent (Dodd & Konzal, 2002:126).

The community culture in the synergistic paradigm is that everyone is a learner (parents, educators, and children), in which focus is on inquiring or finding more effective channels for educating all children well. Learning does not happen only in the school, but everywhere, everyday, and from various sources. Learning is integrated and inclusive in



order to share, support and prepare the children for a better future (Dodd & Konzal, 2002:128). The synergistic paradigm promotes the system of “*community schooling*” in which the school, families, and community together address the problems and improve the quality of life in the community (Dodd & Konzal, 2002:128).

## 2.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter served to clarify the literature review of the assessment of needs and assets in community building. Every community has a wide range of needs and assets that remain hidden and unknown. The needs and the assets are two sides of the same coin that should be identified in partnership with all community stakeholders, hence, the ecosystemic perspective that emphasise the holistic, dynamic, interdependent and interacting relationships in the community building arena (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 1999:34). The collaborative efforts to unveil local needs and assets contribute much towards discovering what is lacking and available, and thus, give community partners direction for community improvement (Heaven, 2003:1).

Included in this chapter are explorations and discussions of the needs-based and asset-based approaches and the different models, methods and techniques for assessing and identifying both needs and assets in the community. The choice of each approach and model depends much on the suitability to a specific context under research, as well as its efficiency and effectiveness in producing valid and reliable research results.

A school is an educational community located within the broader community. In the process of identifying needs and assets at school level, educators and community builders should engage in basic rules that enhance co-operative and successful community building initiatives (Jehl, Blank & McCloud, 2001:18). Relationships between the educators, principal, learners, parents, members of the School Governing Body, and other relevant educational partners should remain tightened in promoting mutual educational improvement. Strengthened relationships in the school are the core for ensuring positive renewal and transformation; and provide knowledge, skills and experiences that provide and support equitable, collaborative, integrated, and inclusive education that empowers children to face the global educational challenges of the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Dodd & Konzal, 2002:4; Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993:213).

## CHAPTER 3

### RESEARCH DESIGN, METHODOLOGY AND FINDINGS

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter contains a discussion of the research design and methodology that are used in this study. The chapter also include the findings of this research study.

Cohen, *et.al.* (2000:137) highlight that for researchers to understand a particular situation, there is a need to understand the context because situations affect behaviour and perspectives and vice versa. Since focus is on identifying the educational needs and assets of a primary school in a rural community, it is important to engage all people with responsibility and accountability, and who take part in the day-to-day activities of the target school, in order to capture the different perspectives.

#### 3.2 RESEARCH QUESTION

The research question to be addressed in this study is already highlighted in Chapter 1, and it is stated to guide the research design and methodology:

**What are the educational needs and assets of a primary school in a rural community in the Greater Sekhukhune District?**

#### 3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit (2004:36) indicate that a research design is “*a reflection of the methodological requirements, the type of data that will be elicited, and how the data will be processed*”. The research design applied in this study is qualitative, using a descriptive case study and action research. Qualitative research is characterised by a concern for context, natural setting, human instrument, participant observation, field study, ethnography, case study, descriptive data, emergent design and inductive analysis (Ary, *et.al.* 2002:424; Creswell, 2002:181; Merriam, 1998:5).

### 3.3.1 Qualitative ethnographic study

This research is a qualitative ethnographic study. Qualitative ethnographic study seeks to describe and analyse the culture of a community by identifying the practices and beliefs of the participants (Hammersly, 2002: 67; Gay & Airasian, 2003:166). The researcher examined behaviours as they occur in the target primary school without any preconceived thoughts or simulation in order to avoid predetermining what was elicited from the participants (Ary, *et.al.*2002: 25). Qualitative ethnographic research also studies sites and context in which the group interacts in real-life setting (Ary, *et.al.*2002: 445; Gay & Airasian, 2003:173). Focus is on the rural primary school community in totality but not on a specific group of stakeholders in the school. This study describes and analyses the educational needs and assets of a primary school in a rural community. Emphasis is on providing knowledge and understanding necessary for assisting the principal, educators, learners, parents, members of the School Management Team, and members of the School Governing Body to become empowered asset builders in identifying a community education programme for community building.

### 3.3.2 Case study

Qualitative research uses a case study design in order to focus on one phenomenon, which the researcher selects to understand in depth regardless of the number of the sites or participants of the study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:398). Case studies examine in-depth behaviours and relationships of a specific social unit as they occur at present that influence change over time. Emphasis is on learning about the individuals in order to gain knowledge and understanding, as well as to help address the problems encountered in that particular social unit (Ary, *et.al.*2002: 440). Merriam (1998:19) notes that a qualitative case study is employed to gain an in-depth understanding of the situation and meaning of those involved, with special emphasis in process, context, and discovery. The case in this study is a primary school in a rural community in the Greater Sekhukhune District. The study is directed at identifying the present educational needs and assets, and later design a community education programme suitable to the educational demands of the rural primary school.

This research is a descriptive case study in which a detailed account about the educational needs and assets of the target rural primary school is presented (Merriam,

1998:38). The researcher critically investigates, induces, and reports the complex, dynamic and unique daily interactions between the principal, educators, learners, parents, members of the School Management Team , and members of the School Governing Body of the target primary school (Cohen, *et.al.* 2000:183). Participants were selected on the basis of a non-probability sampling in which the researcher targeted the primary school knowing that it does not represent the wider South African rural schools, but simply represent its uniqueness (Cohen, *et.al.* 2000:102; Strydom & Venter, 2002:206; McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:175). Participants were also selected on the basis of purposive sampling in which they were to contribute their experiences, knowledge, skills, and values in relation to the target primary school (Gay & Airasian, 2003:115; McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:175).

This case study follows the interpretive tradition of research in which the researcher should see the current educational conditions of the target primary school through the eyes of the participants (Cohen, *et.al.* 2000:183).

### 3.3.3 Action research

McNiff, Lomax and Whitehead (2003:19) state "*Action research is an intervention in personal practice to encourage improvement for oneself and others. The action is not haphazard or routine, but driven by educational values that need to be explored and defended. It is a practical form of research which recognises that the world is not perfect and that professional values have to be negotiated*". Action research is a new form of a democratic scholarship that puts emphasis on knowledge generation through dialogue. Such knowledge exists as much 'in here' as 'out there' (McNiff, Lomax & Whitehead, 2003:17).

For the purpose of this study, action research was selected because it is practitioner-based; focused on learning; embodies good professional practice and goes beyond; leads to personal and social improvement; responds to social situations, demands high order questioning; focuses on change and self is the locus of change; encourage the researcher to accept responsibility for his own situations; and emphasises the value base of practice (McNiff, Lomax & Whitehead, 2003:12).

This study applied Zuber-Skerritt (1996)'s Emancipatory Action Research Model. Zuber-Skerritt (1996:84) notes that the emancipatory action research is aimed at technical and practical improvement and organisational transformation through empowerment of all the stakeholders in the system.

Figure 3.1 illustrates the Emancipatory Action Research Model for organisational change, that is emancipatory and empowering to make changes to the conditions in the system, and that make real change and improvement.

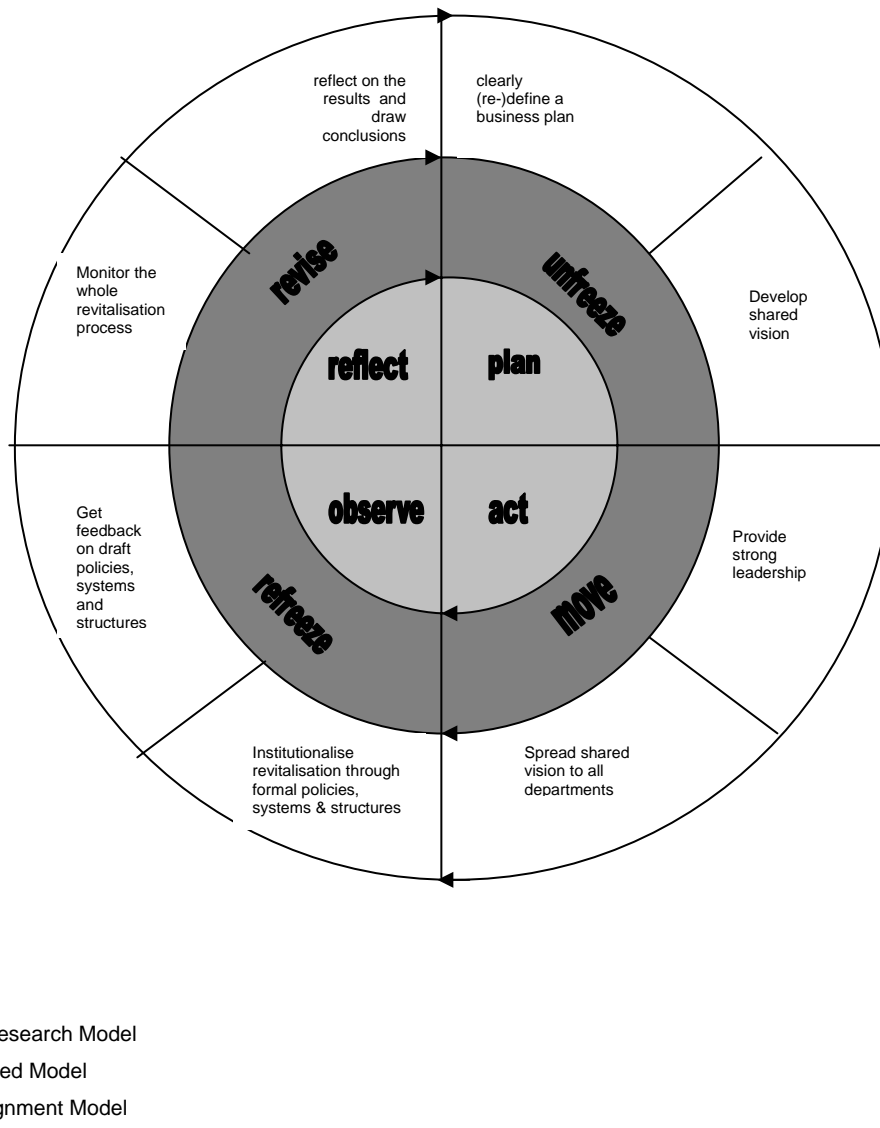


Figure 3.1: A model of Emancipatory Action Research for organisational change (Zuber-Skerritt, 1996:99).

The Emancipatory Action Research Model was theoretically designed from a coherent integration of the classical spiral action research model, Lewin's Force Field Model (1952), and Beer.*et.al.*'s Task Alignment Model (1990) (Zuber-Skerritt,1996:99). The

Emancipatory Action Research Model is cyclical, ongoing, problem-oriented and task-driven (Zuber-Skerritt, 1996:102). Zuber-Skerritt (1996:101) states "*The Emancipatory Action Research Model is the organisational change "best practice" and fosters organisational learning and the learning organisation*". As such, it is a useful approach to action researchers, change agents, educational managers and governors, educators, parents, and learners when undertaking action research processes and developing community education programmes for community building.

Within the Emancipatory Action Research Model, the Community Action Planning Workshops were implemented. The Emancipatory Action Research Model was used as a blueprint for designing and conducting the Community Action Planning Workshops. The following are evidences or indications for the later matter:

- **Planning / Unfreezing**

From the start, a vision was created and shared among the participants. The reasons for formulating the vision were to: gain access into how things should be like in the rural primary school in the next five years, have a blueprint for developing the action plans, assist everyone in the school to keep in track and maintain the focus during the transformation processes, and to ensure that the destination is reached successfully in the year 2010. Furthermore, the educational needs and assets were identified through collaborative efforts of the entire sample.

- **Acting / Moving**

The researcher has played various roles when designing and implementing the Community Action Planning Workshops. Such roles include being the initiator, literature reviewer, facilitator, leader, manager, negotiator of meaning, monitor, co-ordinator, consultant, translator, analyser, critical thinker, interpreter, designer of the three workshops, assessor, and a change agent. Participants were also inspired to strive for the vision, interact and communicate freely, work together, and take active participation during the Community Action Planning Workshops.

- **Observing / Refreezing**

The assistant researcher made silent observations and provided feedback from each workshop. Such feedback was in the form of notes and tape recorder cassettes with the captured data. The silent observer's viewpoints embraced the need to integrate new policies and strengthen existing ones based on the identified educational needs and assets.

- **Reflecting / Revising**

Participants have analysed and reflected about the situation in their school through verbal and written responses. All the activities were monitored and co-ordinated by the researcher. Data were analysed inductively and interpreted within the limits of the rural primary school. Recommendations, major conclusions, and a community education programme are drawn on the basis of the identified educational needs and assets, and reflected as in Chapter 4.

### **3.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

In this study the ethnomethodological approach was used. Through this approach, the qualitative researcher and participants had opportunities to know and understand the real educational needs and assets of their school through collaborative, meaningful observations, and reflection (Cohen, *et.al.* 2000:24).

#### **3.4.1 Data collection**

Cohen *.et.al.* (2000:146) state "*The ethnographer is the methodological omnivore*", meaning that the ethnographer should not rely on one technique for data collection, but rather always apply as many techniques as possible in order to triangulate the research data (Cohen.*et.al.* 2000: 112). As such, different research techniques were used for data collection during the Community Action Planning Workshops. Such techniques include group discussions, semi-structured interviews, silent observations, and note taking. Community Action Planning Workshops were seen as the most suitable methodology for this study. Group discussions, semi-structured interviews, silent observations, note taking. All the workshops were audiotaped in order to ensure that everything that was said was preserved for analysis (Merriam, 1998:87). Three Community Action Planning Workshops were conducted at the premises of the target rural primary school. Each workshop was

conducted once a month (from March to May2005). Each workshop was of duration of approximately four hours. The workshops were presented in Sepedi, which is the mother tongue of the participants. Participants included the principal, two educators, two learners, one parent, one member of the School Management Team, and one member of the School Governing Body. The contents of each workshop are briefly summarised and presented below:

### **Workshop 1(Day 1): Creating a vision and identifying the educational needs**

Workshop 1 was aimed at creating a vision, identifying and analysing the educational needs of the rural primary school. Firstly, the researcher (facilitator) introduced himself and his colleague (silent observer, note-taker, and operator of the tape recorder). Participants were then requested to introduce themselves according to the roles they play at school. The researcher inspired the participants to settle and interact freely during the workshops. The facilitator shared with the participants about the purpose, ethical aspects, and procedures for conducting these workshops and the entire research study.

Secondly, participants were involved in a group discussion. Focus was on creating a vision of the rural primary school. Participants were given the opportunity to dream positively about the future of their school in the next five years. That was how the target school should be like in the year 2010. Each participant completed the following sentence on a piece of paper: *In the year 2010 I wish to see our school-----*  
*-----*.

Participants shared their viewpoints by reading their sentences to the whole group. The assistant researcher wrote each sentence on the chalkboard. The ideas reflected the improvements for the rural primary school. Finally, a vision statement was developed to guide the improvement initiatives of the rural primary school.

Thirdly, the facilitator defined the key concept “*educational needs*” as provided in Chapter 1 of this research study. This served to introduce and clarify the participants into what they were expected to identify. Thereafter, participants discussed and forwarded what were educationally discrepant, lacking, problematic, and deficient in the rural primary school.

Finally, semi-structured interviews were conducted at the end of the workshop with each participant in order to obtain detailed accounts about the educational needs; make



clarifications and final comments; determine whether some educational needs were omitted during the group discussion; and prioritise the educational needs. The semi-structured interview schedule for identifying the educational needs is displayed in Appendix A.

### **Workshop 2 (Day 2): Identifying the educational assets**

Workshop 2 was meant for gathering data pertaining to the educational assets of the rural primary school. The facilitator began by welcoming the participants and building relationships and trust. The facilitator then defined the key concept “*educational assets*” as highlighted in Chapter 1 of this research study. Once more, this activity was performed to clarify the goal and context of this workshop. A group discussion was facilitated in which participants identified the educational assets of the target primary school. Semi-structured interviews were also conducted at the end of the workshop with each participant for final comments and clarifications, identifying omitted educational assets, and prioritising the educational assets. Throughout the entire workshop, the assistant researcher was making silent observations, taking notes, and operating the tape recorder. The semi-structured interview schedule that was used in workshop 2 is also available in Appendix A.

Finally, participants were given the opportunity to map the educational assets of their school. The educational assets of higher priority were mapped in three categories: school, family, and rural community. The educational asset map of the target rural primary school is displayed in Figure 3.2 of this study.

### **Workshop 3 (Day 3): Identifying a community education programme for community building**

Workshop 3 was aimed at identifying a community education programme essential for training and development of the skills in the target rural primary school. Proper training and development of skills can enhance effective teaching and learning. The facilitator welcomed the participants and explained the main goal of the workshop. The identified educational needs of higher priority and the asset map were displayed on the chalkboard. The facilitator read the vision and the educational needs and assets of the target rural primary school. The intention was to update the participants about the findings of

workshops 1 and 2 and also to set the context to identify the appropriate community education programme. That was followed by a group discussion activity in which participants generated data regarding various community education programmes that could be developed. The suggested community education programmes were then prioritised. Each participant selected one community education programme and forwarded it to the facilitator on a piece of paper. The facilitator compared the selected community education programmes in order to identify a programme with more votes. The identified programme was a “*school-family-community partnership*”.

Semi-structured interviews were facilitated for participants to confirm as to whether they agree with the identified programme. Participants responded positively by highlighting the significance of this programme for their own community improvement.

Finally, participants and the assistant researcher were honoured for their participation, commitment and dedication during the three Community Action Planning Workshops.

### 3.4.2 Data analysis

According to Ary, *et.al.* (2002:465) “*Data analysis is a process whereby the researcher systematically search and arrange the data in order to increase an understanding of the data, and later presents what was learned to others*”. In this study, data were analysed inductively (Gay & Airasian, 2003:229; Cohen, *et.al.* 2000:151; McMillan & Schumacher, 2001: 462). That implied that data were transcribed, coded, categorised and analysed. Audiotapes of each workshop were transcribed and translated from Sepedi into English. Major themes and sub-themes that emerged from the transcripts were coded and classified into educational needs and assets. The educational needs and assets were categorised into four categories. The categories included the school, families, rural community, and those of higher priority. Data were interpreted using an empiricist interpretive approach. In terms of this repertoire, qualitative data is interpreted within the frameworks of the research design and conclusions are then drawn from the research findings (Silverman, 2001:180). Data were then interpreted within the frameworks of the research question and aims of this study, Emancipatory Action Research Model, Community Action Planning process, and the needs-based and asset-based approach.

### 3.5 FINDINGS

The findings of this research study reflect the vision, educational needs and assets, and the identified community education programme for community building. The findings are presented according to the procedures that were followed for data collection.

#### 3.5.1 The vision

The formulated vision for the rural primary school is as follows *“Enhancing together excellence in teaching and learning”*. In the year 2010 Tiitšane Primary School is a comprehensive English medium primary school. Teaching and learning are excellent and continuously reinforced for successful academic achievements of all the learners. Partnerships are strengthened between the principal, educators, parents, learners, School Management Team, School Governing Body, and the rural community through mobilisation of community assets for enriching the school curriculum towards a common vision. The curriculum is broadened and new learning areas are integrated.

The principal, School Management Team and School Governing Body are hard working, strong, and provide excellent leadership and management, governance, support, inspiration, networks, mentoring, coaching, and co-ordination. The educational laws and policies are clearly stipulated and all the stakeholders know of their expectations at school.

Educators are didactically skilful, knowledgeable, and well trained in all the learning areas offered at the school. Teaching is learner-centred and educators promote creativity, hard work, flexibility, accountability, excellent achievements, good behaviour, in-depth understanding, skills development, critical and analytical thinking, and challenging learning activities.

The atmosphere is positive to learning. Learning styles are flexible and ranges from group, pair, and individual activities. Learners are prepared to learn; interested in learning; responsible for their own learning; scientifically and technologically competent, able to arrange and keep their work up to date; encouraged to voice their ideas in relation to the learning tasks at hand. Learners with special learning needs are taught more of handwork with special attention given to discovering and maximising their talents, potentials and capabilities.

Parents are prepared to assist in educating their children well, be elected in the School Governing Body, volunteering and teaching certain learning areas in which they are competent, and generally promoting educative teaching and learning.

### 3.5.2 The educational needs of a primary school in a rural community

The following are the identified educational needs of the target rural primary school. The educational needs were identified in four categories: educational needs within the target primary school, family, rural community, and those of higher priority.

#### 3.5.2.1 School

The identified educational needs within the target primary school are as follows:

□ **Principal and educators:**

The principal and educators need:

- Training
  - about partnerships between the school, family, and rural community
  - about Outcomes Based Education and Revised National Curriculum Statement
  - regarding the use of computers in the teaching-learning situation
  - about the teaching of music
  - about co-operative learning and teaching
  - in technology education, remedial education, educational psychology, and specialised education for learners with special learning needs
- Community education programmes
  - about school-family-community partnerships
  - about educational leadership and management
  - about HIV/AIDS , crime prevention, poverty reduction, and child abuse within the school, families, and local rural community
  - about religious and health education within the school, families, and community
  - about learners with special learning needs
  - about fundraising for school improvement
- Parental support and assistance

- to close the gap, reinforce, and link what was learnt from home and community
- to participate actively in the educational matters in the school , home, and community
- to establish and set requirements for the adult educational centre for learners with special learning needs
- to educate their children well
- to assess the performance of their children
- Educational policies
  - to establish new disciplinary measures that oppose corporal punishment in the school
  - to establish disciplinary measures against the use of vulgar words in the school premises
  - to make parents aware of the dangers of corporal punishment to the learners
  - to balance gender among the staff members
  - to actively involve the parents in the School Governing Body
  - for effective classroom management
- Knowledge and skills
  - to establish sound relationships within the school, family, and community
  - regarding Integrated Quality Management System in education
  - to teach new learning areas and extra-curricular activities
  - to keep the records of their lesson preparations
  - to discover and maximise the talents, skills, and potentials of all the learners
  - for monitoring and assessment by educational specialists and circuit manager
  - to register the register the rural primary school with Section 21
  - to be designers of learning programmes, facilitators, researchers, and mediators in learning processes
  - to assist learners with psychological problems
  - to review the language policy and curriculum needs of the school
  - to encourage learners to voice their educational problems emanating from home\_and community.

□ **Learners**

Learners in the mainstream need:

- Teaching
  - about Mathematics, science and technology

- about how to communicate effectively in English
- about music, woodwork, computer studies, needlework, and drum majorettes
- about HIV/AIDS, crime prevention, religious education and health education
- about how to improve their hand writing
- about how to update and organise their school work well
- about stress management
- Educational policies
- that will empower them to voice their educational problems emanating from the conflicts of their parents or family members
- Community education programmes
- extra/Saturday classes for enrichment purposes regarding music and extra-curricular activities.

□ **Learners with special learning needs**

Learners with special learning needs need:

- Teaching
- about how to incorporate and use co-operative learning styles
- about hands-on-activities and entrepreneurship
- about project management and development
- about good behaviour
- Educational policies
- that will not discriminate them within the school , family and community
- that will explore and maximise their talents , skills, and potentials
- that will nurture them for lifelong learning.

□ **School Management Team and School Governing Body**

The School Management Team and School Governing Body need:

- Training and community education programmes
- about school-family-community partnerships
- about how to participate actively in decision making, problem solving , and school management and governance

- about how to execute their duties until the last day of the term of their office
- regarding punctuality, attendance of school meetings, commitment, dedication and active participation in the school activities.

### **3.5.2.2 Family**

From home, parents and other family members need:

- Training and community education programmes
  - About how to provide basic education at home
  - about school-family-community partnerships
  - about their roles in the education of their children
  - about how to motivate their children to take active participation in the extra-curricular activities
  - about how to communicate with the educators regarding their children's behaviour at home
  - about how to provide the educators with guidance for proper care, and the kind of education suitable for their children
  - about how to support their children towards successful schooling achievements, and how to interact with them at home
  - about how to support the educators in the teaching of HIV/AIDS education
  - about how to assist the educators in raising funds for the school
  - about how to participate in the decision making processes of the school
  - about how to give direction in the governance of the school
  - about how to discourage the use of vulgar words by children both at school and home
  - about how to mobilise educational assets needed for school improvement
  - about how to develop love for schooling
  - about how to monitor the educational progress of their children.

### **3.5.2.3 Rural community**

Members of the rural community of Ga-Masemola need:

- Training and community education programmes
  - about school-family-community partnerships

- to address socio-economic problems such as HIV/AIDS, gender equity, poverty, unemployment, crime, and child abuse
- that would empower them to be tutors for activities such as volleyball, cricket, tennis, Pedi traditional dance, and ballet dance.

#### **3.5.2.4 Educational needs of higher priority**

The following educational needs were regarded as of higher priority because participants wished to address them immediately:

- The need to strengthen partnerships between the school, family, and rural community
- The need for advanced and effective teaching in Mathematics, science, and technology; and the use of English as a medium of communication in the school premises
- The need to integrate computer studies, music, woodwork and needlework as part of the curriculum
- The need to broaden extra-curricular activities by including volleyball, cricket, tennis, ballet dances, and various Pedi traditional dances
- The need to engage learners with special learning needs in more of hands-on-activities.

#### **3.5.3 The educational assets of a primary school in a rural community**

The identified educational assets reflect the wealth, strengths, potentials, capabilities, talents, knowledge and skills of the principal, educators, learners, families, and the rural community of Ga-Masemola. These include the following:

##### **3.5.3.1 School**

The following are the educational assets “social or human capital” within the target rural primary school:

###### **□ Principal**

The principal is:



- Knowledgeable and skilful:
  - about solving the problems within the school
  - about interacting with other people in the school, family and community
  - about establishing sound interpersonal relations with other people
  - about leadership, management, supervision, negotiation and organising
  - about singing, cooking, and sewing
  - about promoting co-operation within the school
  - about the teaching of Afrikaans
  - about motivating the educators and learners to speak English fluently
- Capable:
  - of promoting healthy, orderly, and clean environments in the school
  - of organising and conducting staff and parent meetings in the school

□ **Educators**

Educators are:

- Knowledgeable and skilful:
  - about writing poetry and drama's
  - about raising funds for the school
  - about teaching using Breakthrough methods in the classrooms
  - about sewing, dressmaking, needlework, beading and art work
  - about singing choral music and choir conducting
  - about promoting cleanliness in the school premises
  - about creating a positive learning environment
  - about interacting and communicating with other people
  - about developing youth in the choir church
  - about entrepreneurship, coaching, negotiating, and cooking
- Capabilities:
  - to participate in the National Teachers' Award
  - to develop team spirit and promote good behaviour
  - to draw beautiful posters.

□ **Learners**

Learners in the mainstream are:

1. Knowledgeable and skilful:

- about reading and writing in Sepedi, Afrikaans, and English
- about maintaining sound interpersonal relations
- about playing, coaching and being referees in netball, soccer, athletics ,drama, singing, modern dance, “Lebowa” dance, poetry, art and drawing
- about building small mud houses as they play
- about making motor toys using wires
- about making flowers using empty cans and plastics, and hats using cardboard boxes.

□ **Learners with special learning needs**

Learners with special learning needs have:

1. Positive attitudes towards:

- music , singing and dancing
- visitors in the school
- toy-making and hands-on-activities
- playing with learners in the mainstream
- communicating and taking instructions in English
- making drawings.

□ **School Governing Body**

Members of the School Governing Body are:

• Knowledgeable and skilful:

- about motivating, supporting, decision-making and problem-solving within the school
- about liaising with parents during meetings
- about repairing broken doors and furniture
- about accompanying educators and learners during educational excursions at school
- about leadership as some are councillors of the chief
- about sewing and cooking
- about ballroom dancing and computer literacy.

### □ **School Management Team**

Members of the School Management Team are:

- Knowledgeable and skilful:
  - about assisting the principal to manage and lead the school
  - about organising, controlling and solving the problems within the school
  - about how to recruit unemployed teachers to provide services in the school
  - about how to allocate the learning areas and draw the general timetable
  - about how to encourage peace in the school
  - about how to promote hard work in the school
  - about maintaining sound interpersonal relations with other people
  - about negotiating, fundraising, and buying of teaching aids
  - about co-operating with the principal
  - about sharing leadership and team development.

### **3.5.3.2 Family**

Parents and other family members are:

- Knowledgeable and skilful:
  - about how to solve the problems for their children's education
  - as some are students in the tertiary institutions
  - as teachers, police, nursing, clerks, soldiers, security guards, house wives, shopkeepers, entrepreneurs, traditional dancers, traditional healers, shepherds, caterers, farmers, and priests
  - in sewing and dressmaking, singing and traditional dancing
- Capabilities:
  - of keeping their children clean and providing them with writing materials when coming to school
  - of making and selling the Pedi traditional beer and wine from "*marula*" fruits
  - of building and painting Pedi mud huts
  - of making beautiful Pedi traditional garments using cloths and ox-skin
  - of weaving
  - of eradicating the weeds in the schoolyard at the beginning of the year

- of co-operating, helping one another, and working as a team in the local community
- of being helpful and volunteering to clean for the priests.

### 3.5.3.3 Rural community

The following are the social capital, associations and institutions of the rural community of Ga-Masemola in the Greater Sekhukhune District.

Table 3.1: The social capital, associations, and institutions in a rural community

Social / Human capital	Associations	Institutions
-Attorneys, politicians, local government officials, clerks, teachers, educational managers, pensioners, entrepreneurs and shoe repairer -Nurses, dentists, dieticians medical doctors, traditional healers, traditional dancers, ballroom dancers, artists, sculptors, painters, and gardeners -Police, prison warders, traffic officers, ambulance drivers and soldiers -Post master, officers, business leaders, accountants , insurance and financial consultants -Academic doctors, professors, and scientists - chief and councillors, bishop, priests, clinical psychologist and social workers -directors and assistant directors -radio and television presenters, photo and videographers -agriculturalists and shepherds -technicians, builders, and architects, engineers, electricians, plumbers, carpenters, drivers,	-football clubs -youth projects -gardening and water projects -poultry project -bakery project -community choral society -teachers associations -traditional dance clubs -political associations -wedding clubs -women’s leagues -burial societies -agricultural project -tourist club	-tribal offices -Department of Public Works -Department of Education - health clinic -schools ( 8 primary and 5 secondary) -police station

The following physical assets were regarded as invaluable for improvement of education in the target rural primary school, families, and rural community: dam and reservoirs, mountains and forests, public phones, taxi rank and taxis, hair salons, nursery, sand and concrete suppliers, arts and cultural centre, mortuary, filling station, motels, butcheries, emergency towing services, typing and printing shops, internet services at the post office, shops, fruits and vegetable markets.

#### **3.5.3.4 Educational assets of higher priority**

The educational assets were prioritised in terms of the value they can add for improvement of the quality of teaching and learning in the target primary school. The following are the educational assets of higher priority:

- Chief: Is the first person and father figure in the rural community, because the (land) community belongs to him. He has the rights to be informed of any initiative directed towards community development. Many schools in the community were built through his initiatives.
- Schools: primary and secondary schools in the rural community of Ga-Masemola were regarded as the most important assets. These institutions work together by sharing scientific resources, and other learner support materials. They also challenge one another in sports, arts and cultural activities. There is a feeling of benevolence “ubuntu” when death has occurred. In this case all the educators in the local rural community gather for a memorial service in honour of the deceased.
- Educators: from various schools within the rural community interact with one another for the following reasons: solving didactical problems in subject committees, offering Saturday and winter school classes, attending educational workshops, undertaking educational excursions, and participating in the teacher unions together.
- Police: Crime is at its top in the rural community of Ga-Masemola. Police are regarded as the main assets for crime prevention, especially towards stealing the school properties.
- Nurses: HIV/AIDS was reflected as one of the major challenges that needed an immediate intervention. Learners with special learning needs often get ill. Nurses at the local health clinic were regarded as the assets of the rural primary school.

### 3.5.3.5 An asset map of a primary school in a rural community

The “social capital”/ “human assets” of the rural primary school were mapped by the participants during workshop 2. The assets were mapped in order to make a picture that shows the link between the educational assets. Kretzmann & McKnight (1993)’s framework was used to map the identified educational assets. The assets of the rural primary school were mapped according to the following categories: school, family, and rural community.

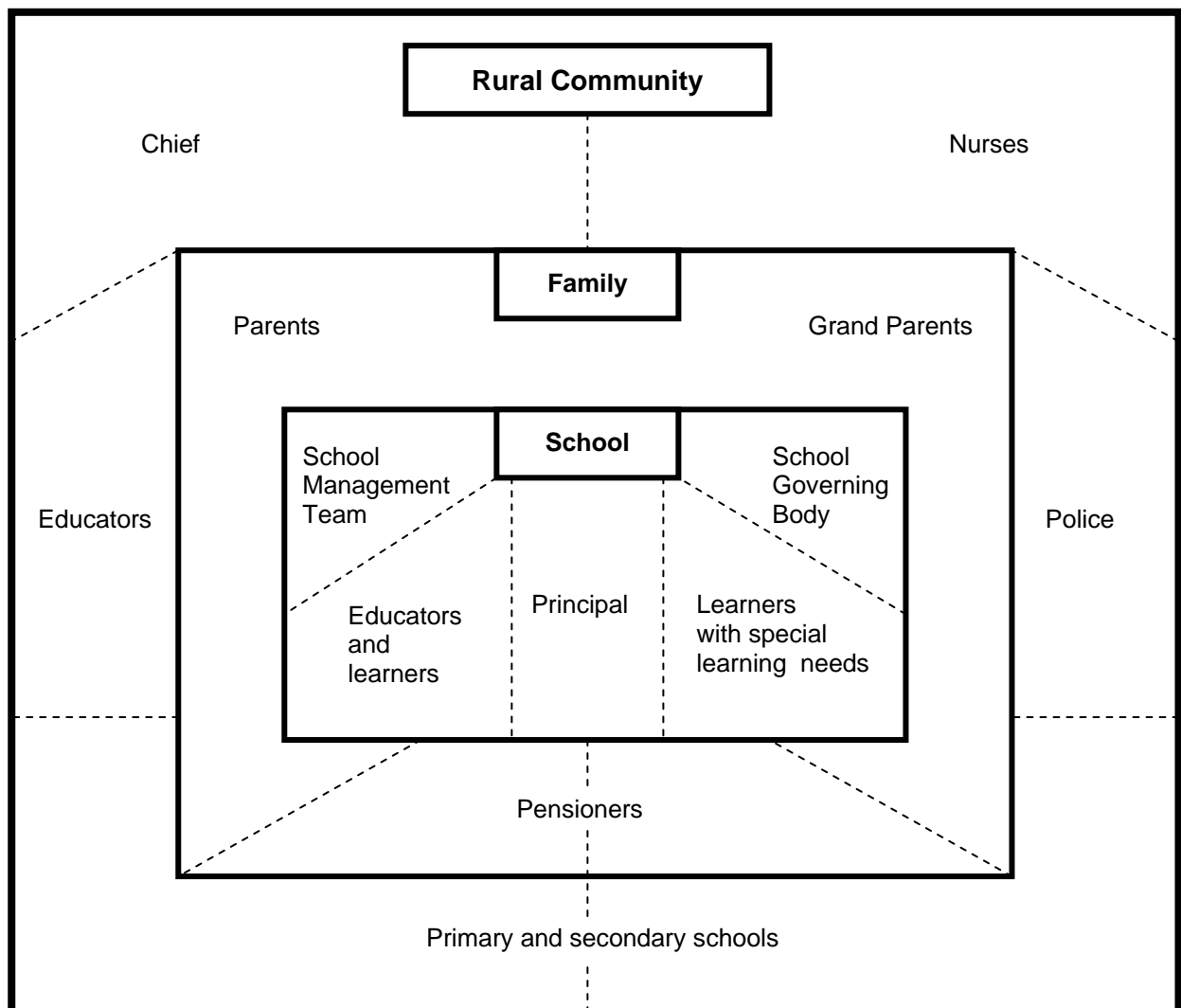


Figure 3.2: An asset map of a primary school in a rural community (Adapted from Kretzmann and McKnight, 1993:7).

### **3.5.4 The identified community education programme**

Various community education programmes were suggested during workshop 3. Such programmes include an adult education programme for learners with special learning needs; school-family-community partnership; HIV/AIDS education programme; crime prevention programme; sports, arts and cultural programme; leadership skills development programme; school beautification programme; entrepreneurialship programme; physical and technology education programme.

Finally, a school-family-community partnership programme was identified to address the current educational needs of the target rural primary school.

### **3.6 CONCLUSION**

A primary school in a rural community is an integrated and dynamic educational and social system with different subsystems that interact internally and externally with other systems. The ecosystemic perspective rejects the isolation of a primary school from the families and community (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 1999:36). As such, it is indispensable to continuously build and strengthen the partnerships in order to excellent achievements in teaching and learning.

The formulated vision was shared so that every roleplayer can strive for it. The needs based and asset based approach in community building were applied to identify the educational needs and assets. The asset mapping model assisted community members to draw a clear picture about their strengths, skills, capabilities, and talents and potentials. The identified school-family-community partnership programme should be developed to address the identified educational needs through proper allocation of the known educational assets. A framework of the proposed community education programme is provided in Chapter 4.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **MAJOR CONCLUSIONS, COMMUNITY EDUCATION PROGRAMME, AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter contains the conclusions drawn from the literature review, major conclusions, recommendations, proposed community education programme, limitations of the research, and implications for future research.

#### **4.2 CONCLUSIONS DRAWN FROM THE LITERATURE REVIEW**

The community building perspective considers a primary school as an asset, social and formal system, and centre for unity and learning for the local rural community. It unites people from the local and broader community in reciprocal, integrated, mutual, interacting, and interdependent relationships. Since a primary school is a community asset, it should be utilised appropriately in order to address the needs of the family and local rural community, and vice versa. The activities of a primary school should be directed at acquiring new knowledge, maximising local talents and potentials, developing new and existing skills, building partnerships for lifelong learning, and ensuring that all children are accessible to quality public education.

Furthermore, a primary school is regarded as a community that is geographically located and functioning within a broader rural community. The roleplayers within the primary school constitute the invaluable internal assets. Without their unity and participation in the school activities, the goals of schooling cannot be reached in totality. It is significant that all the roleplayers should together strive to: share the vision; address the educational needs; share available resources; promote equity, co-operation, and togetherness; acquire new and advanced scientific and technological facilities; inspire and train one another; and enrich the curriculum for the academic success and effective schooling environment (Totten & Manley, 1990:12).



It is totally undemocratic for a primary school to be separated or divorced from its external assets (family and community) it serves because they (school, family, and community) should work alike and share similar goals, norms and values about the education of the local children. Local children are as well community assets because they grow and learn about the rural community, and in turn work, and improve the living conditions in community. The primary school should accept the family and community because they are together partners in education. The family and rural community are entitled to take responsibility and ownership of the school for the holistic benefit from the school.

The ecosystemic perspective puts emphasis on partnerships within the school, family, and rural community because they depend and rely on each other. The three should support and assist one another in whatever endeavour is initiated towards community building in order to multiply community services. It is in that togetherness that various collaborative community education programmes and projects enhanced for community improvement. The school-family-community partnership is necessary for promoting positive learning results, accountability and responsibility for children's education, flexible and democratic communication, inclusive, integrated, active, and full participation of all. Marriage between the primary school, family, and community should enhance opportunities for a broad base of support for change; for developing structured processes, team efforts; for celebrating achievements; and creating a conducive climate for educational renewal and transformation (Miller, 1995: 8).

Creation of a vision provides a guideline for eradicating the barriers to participatory learning, and later develops a brighter future for the school. It is through the vision that transformations could be made for the primary school to become a centre for human development and rural community development.

In Chapter 2 of this research study, the traditional needs-based and alternative asset based approaches were thoroughly explored in order to lay a good foundation for identifying the educational needs and assets of a primary school in a rural community. The needs-based approach was useful for identifying what was problematic, ineffective, lacking, and needy. On the other side, the asset-based approach was applied to reveal the hidden knowledge, skills, capacities, talents, potentials, wealth, and strengths. The knowledge and understanding of the educational needs and assets are sources for constructive and effective development of the school improvement plan. The danger of not

knowing the needs and assets is that irrelevant programmes could be the outcome. The educational needs and assets were identified to “*fit the rural people to a rural future through orienting curricula more closely to community needs*” (Human Sciences Research Council & Education Policy Consortium, 2005:141).

### **4.3 MAJOR CONCLUSIONS**

Major conclusions drawn from this study are discussed in this section. The research question was to identify the educational needs and assets of a primary school in a rural community in the Greater Sekhukhune District. The research question is currently answered because the educational needs and assets of the target primary school in a rural community are identified.

The aims of this research were to identify the educational needs and assets of a primary school in a rural community in the Greater Sekhukhune District in order to have knowledge and understanding of the educational needs and assets of the target rural primary school; and to assist the principal, educators, learners, parents, members of the School Governing Body, and members of the School Management Team to become empowered asset builders in identifying a community education programme for community building. Since the educational needs and assets of the target rural primary school are identified, the aims of this research study are reached.

#### **4.3.1 Educational needs**

The identified educational needs are synthesised and presented as follows:

##### **□ School**

The principal, educators, learners, members of the School Governing Body, and members of the School Management Team of a primary school in a rural community need:

- education programmes and training about school-family-community partnerships
- to integrate new learning areas in the curriculum
- to fundraise

- parental support and assistance in order to link what was learnt from home and the rural community
- to review the language policy
- discover and maximise the talents, skills, and potentials of all the learners,
- empower all the learners to voice the educational problems emanating from their homes and community
- strong and active School Governing Body and School Management Team
- improvement in the teaching of Mathematics, science and technology
- training about effective communication in English
- to engage learners with special learning needs in more of hands-on-experiences.

□ **Family**

From home parents and other family members need:

- to provide their children with basic education
- to strengthen partnerships with the school and community
- to be accountable, responsible, supportive, and motivated to participate actively and fully in the education of their children
- participate in decision making and governance of the school
- to be supportive in the teaching of HIV/AIDS education.

□ **Rural community**

Members of the local rural community need:

- community education programmes and training about school-family-community partnerships
- women empowerment against oppression by the in-laws
- to volunteer as tutors for certain learning areas in the school

#### 4.3.2 Educational assets

A synthesis about the identified educational assets of a primary school in a rural community is as follows:

##### □ **School**

A primary school in a rural community is composed of the following skills, knowledge, capabilities, and strengths:

- sound interpersonal relations, communication, interaction and problem solving skills
- leadership, management, supervision and negotiation skills
- co-operation and motivational skills for successful academic achievements
- knowledge to organise and conduct staff and parents meetings
- knowledge and capabilities to develop team spirit and promote good behaviour
- knowledge and capabilities to create positive learning environments

##### □ **Family**

At home, parents and other family members are knowledgeable, skilful, and capable of:

- solving social problems for their children
- being professionals in various field of careers
- co-operating, working together as a team , and assisting each other in community matters

##### □ **Rural community**

Various associations, institutions, and social capital of the rural community were identified and illustrated in Table 3.1. However, the most educational assets within the rural community include the chief, primary and secondary schools, educators from other local schools, police, and nurses.

## 4.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations of this research study are presented within the framework of the ecosystemic perspective, and needs-based and asset-based approaches in community building.

### 4.4.1 School

□ **The principal, educators, learners, members of the School Governing Body, and members of the School Management Team should together:**

- be aware of the fact that the primary school is part of the rural community, and should link the curriculum of the target primary school to the local community development activities (Miller, 1995:100)
- play major roles of assisting local people to learn to become active and contributing community members (Miller, 1995:2)
- ensure that the primary school offers educational opportunities for adults and out-of-school youth (Human Sciences Research Council & Education Policy Consortium, 2005:139).
- ensure that the primary school and local people work as a bounded system for school-family-community partnerships (Miller, 1995:2)
- ensure that they strengthen bonds in order to share the vision, responsibility, decision making, problem solving, leadership and management for long-term improvement and sustainability of the school (Miller, 1995:3)
- help each other to learn and use the skills they have (Miller, 1995:100)
- participate fully in the activities of the primary school in order to provide a strong foundation for building lasting school-based learning experiences (Miller, 1995:10)
- review and develop policies in the direction of rebuilding the primary school (Miller, 1995:12).

□ **Principal**

The principal of the primary school in a rural community should:

- allow for the sharing of educational resources with other associations and institutions in the rural community (Boethel, 1999:4)
- improve the relationships between the school, family, and community and create opportunities to build each other (Boethel, 1999:4)
- initiate activities that will motivate parents and community to participate in the school (Heystek,2002:10)
- provide the School Governing Body and School Management Team with proper training on an ongoing basis (Heystek, 2002:11)
- manage the relationship between the school, family, and community (Heystek, 2002:11)
- improve communication between all the role players involved in the primary school (Heystek, 2002:11)
- tighten the relationship with the circuit office for the necessary support, coaching, mentoring, and supervision (Human Sciences Research Council & Education Policy Consortium, 2005:129).

#### □ **Educators**

The educators of the target rural primary school should:

- incorporate community-based elements into their classrooms (Miller, 1995:10)
- identify the learning objectives to be addressed through the activities, and should structure the learner's experiences to assure that real learning takes place (Boethel, 1999:3)
- assign tasks in such a way that all learners have active roles (Boethel, 1999:4)
- change from the traditional, textbook-driven classrooms to organisers, and facilitators to promote learning, monitoring, and learners' completion of their hands-on-activities (Boethel, 1999:4)
- be skilled in asking open-ended questions that encourage learners to explore and discuss their own ideas (Boethel, 1999:4).

#### □ **Learners**

Learners should:

- be provided with user-friendly environments that would create more access to the kind of education they need (Human Sciences Research Council & Education Policy Consortium, 2005:123)
- learning activities should be structured to meet the needs of the school curricular and community goals (Boethel, 1999:3)
- be encouraged to help others with difficulties through learner-mentoring and peer tutoring (Boethel,1999:5)
- learners should be provided with activities that emphasise interdisciplinary, problem solving and critical thinking (Boethel,1999:5)
- be encouraged to learn together and to accept the contributions of each other (Boethel, 1999:3)
- learning groups should be structured heterogeneously and should provide training in social skills (Boethel,1999:40)
- be allocated adequate time for hands-on-activities and for group processing (Boethel,1999:4)

□ **School Governing Body and School Management Team**

The School Governing Body and School Management Team should:

- be vehicles for the development of an educational community and should ensure community education practices within the school (Human Sciences Research Council & Education Policy Consortium, 2005:106)
- ensure that there is equality, democracy, and quality in the governance and management of the rural primary school (Human Sciences Research Council & Education Policy Consortium, 2005:119)
- extend control of school education to parents and others concerned in the process (Human Sciences Research Council & Education Policy Consortium, 2005:120)
- offer workshops in which all the stakeholders co-operate and are involved in addressing the educational needs of the school (Human Sciences Research Council & Education Policy Consortium, 2005:123)
- enhance opportunities for partnerships with the principal, educators, learners, and local people in order to share responsibility for quality and excellent teaching and learning, and expose learners to wider and more contemporary educational

experiences (Human Sciences Research Council & Education Policy Consortium, 2005:123)

- assist in addressing the educational needs by promoting partnerships with firms and NGO's (Human Sciences Research Council & Education Policy Consortium, 2005:124).

#### 4.4.2 Family

At home parents and other family members should:

- be involved and supportive of their children's education (Human Sciences Research Council & Education Policy Consortium, 2005:119)
- be informed of their children's progress at school (Human Sciences Research Council & Education Policy Consortium, 2005:119)
- indicate their preferences in terms of cultural and religious basis of their children's education (Human Sciences Research Council & Education Policy Consortium, 2005:120)
- be positive about playing leadership role as school governors because they have been granted with the legal responsibility for educating their children. Parents have the right to be consulted about the form of education they love for their children, and should participate in its governance (Human Sciences Research Council & Education Policy Consortium, 2005: 120)
- assist educators with food gardens, sports, recreation and cultural activities according to their specific talents (Heystek, 2002: 7; Department of Education, Republic of South Africa, 2005:29)
- be informed of oncoming events in the school as early as possible in order to give them more time for good preparation (Heystek, 2002:8)
- contribute towards building the school because it is the centre of their community (Heystek, 2002:8)
- ensure that their skills, interests, and talents are not neglected. They should take active roles in the governance of the school (Heystek, 2002:11)
- be empowered with the necessary skills and knowledge so that they know what is expected of them at school (Heystek,2002:11)
- be treated as equals so that they can contribute to a larger extend in the school (Heystek, 2002:11)



- be encouraged to assist their children to learn at home. This will develop positive attitudes towards the school and contribute to the personal growth and academic success of their children (Maynard & Howley, 1997:1)
- have programmes designed specifically to involve them at school (Maynard & Howley, 1997: 1)
- play multiple roles in the education of their children such as parents as communicators, supporters, learners, teachers, advisors, and advocates (Maynard & Howley, 1997: 3).

#### **4.4.3 Rural community**

Members of the rural community of Ga-Masemola should:

- use the primary school as a vital community resource for further education of adults (Human Sciences Research Council & Education Policy Consortium, 2005:71)
- have significant roles to play in the school management. They should have greater influence towards school improvement by being supportive, and giving direction and advice to the school on matters such as safety of school property, truancy, and helping to organise school activities (Human Sciences Research Council & Education Policy Consortium, 2005:126)
- contribute to the academic and economic development of the school (Heystek, 2002:11)
- accept the school as the centre of the community and must contribute with the available resources to improve the school (Heystek, 2002: 11)
- be considered for policy-making in the school (Miller, 1995: 12)
- help to build strong support for community education; create positive opportunities for emerging local leaders; share responsibility for development within the school and community; and build the local rural 'social capital' (Miller, 1995:15)
- be encouraged to participate in the education of the children through the establishment of a family centre, co-ordinated family services, home visits, parent-teacher action teams, mentoring, and tutoring and assistance to educators (Maynard & Howley, 1997:30).

#### 4.5 COMMUNITY EDUCATION PROGRAMME

A school-family-community partnership programme was identified on the basis of the created vision, and identified educational needs and assets of the target primary school in a rural community.

In Chapter 2, the researcher provided the recent literature review about school-family-community partnerships. According to this literature, both internal and external partners of the target rural primary school are the major assets that should jointly work as a team in order to develop a shared vision, raise the expectations of the school, enhance excellence in teaching and learning, promote democratic schooling environment, encourage active and full participation for all, and provide community services that are scarce or lacking at present (Dodd & Konzal, 2002:128; Berns, 2001:243; Epstein, 2001:80).

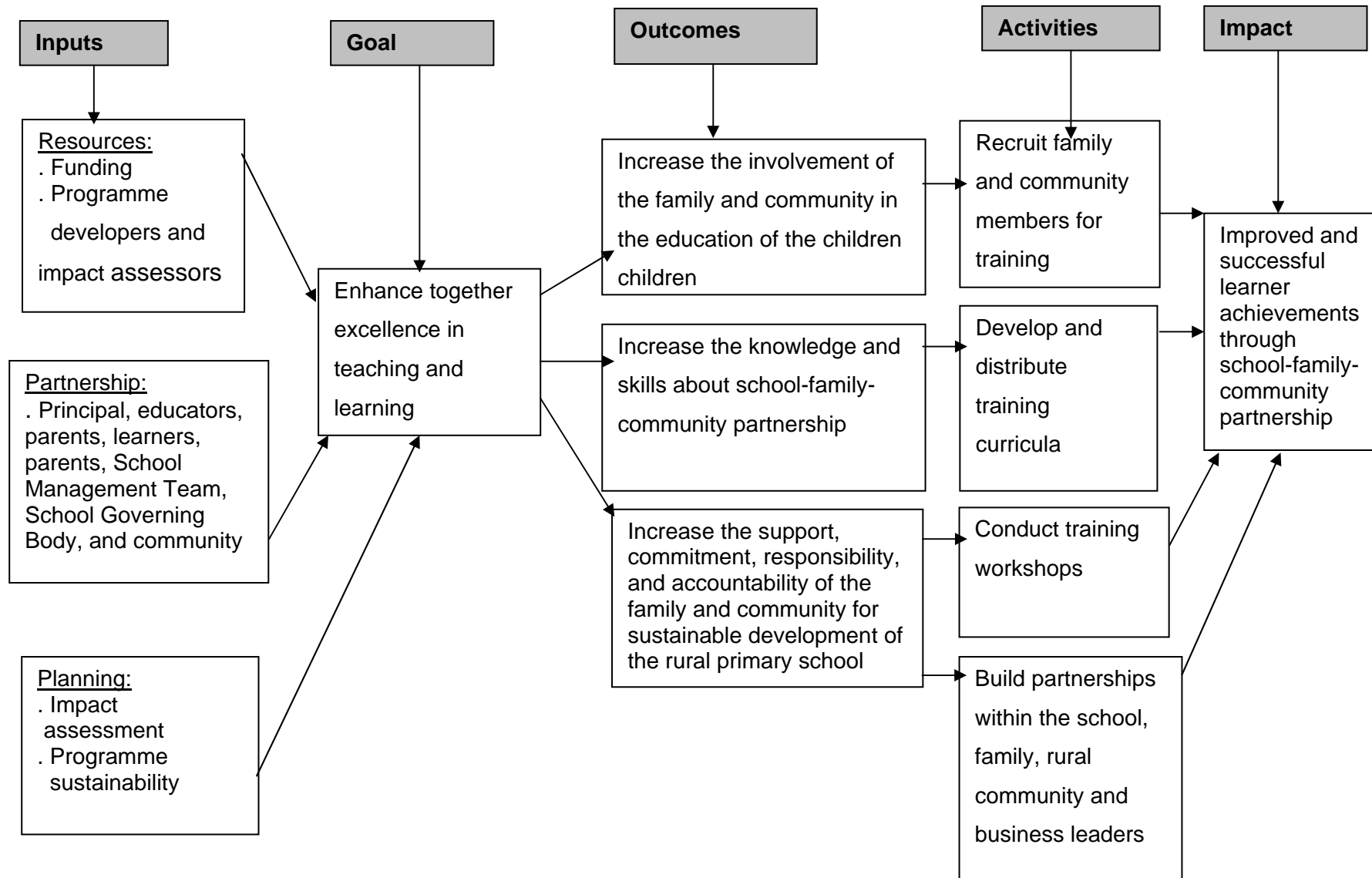
The following 12 indicators of effective school-family-community partnership were identified during the implementation of the three Community Action Planning Workshops. These indicators served as guidelines for developing the identified school-family-community partnership.

- The principal is committed to foster increased integration between the school, family and community.
- The school has an in-depth knowledge of the community and resources available.
- The school seeks opportunities to involve all sectors of the community, including boundary crossers, and those who would not normally have contact with the school.
- The school has a high level of awareness of the value and importance to school-family-community partnerships of good public relations.
- The principal display a transformational leadership style, which empowers others within the school, family, and community and facilitates collective visioning.
- The school, family, and community have access to and utilise extensive internal and external networks.
- The school, family, and community share a vision for the future, centred on the children.
- The school, family, and community are open to new ideas, willing to take risks and willing to mould opportunities to match their vision.
- The school, family, and community together play an active, meaningful and purposeful role in school decision making.

- The school, family, and community value the skills of all in contributing to the learning of all
- Leadership for school-family-community partnerships is seen as the collective responsibility of school and community
- The school, family, and community view the school as a learning centre for the whole community, which brings together physical, human, and social capital resources.

The proposed school-family-community partnership programme was developed within the frameworks of the Coffman's (1999) Logic Model. According to Coffman (1999:1) a Logic Model provides a basic framework for developing and evaluating school-family-community partnership programmes. This model allows any person with the knowledge of programme development and the school under research to develop a school-family-community partnership programme. The Logic Model was applied as a guide to identify and display the components of proposed school-family-community partnership programme in rectangular boxes with arrows connecting the boxes and indicating the link between the components (Coffman, 1999:1). The components of this programme include the inputs, goal, outcomes, activities, and impact. Figure 4.1 shows the proposed school-family-community partnership programme with its components.

Figure 4.1: The proposed school-family-community partnership programme (Adapted from Coffman, 1999:2)



#### 4.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The researcher acknowledges the following limitations in the current study:

- **Limitations of the research sample**

The use of purposive sampling limited the selection of the participants. Participants included the principal, two educators, two learners, one parent, one member of the School Management Team, and one member of the School Governing Body. However, their participation ensured democratic and holistic representation of all the stakeholders with emphasis on their typical characters, prior knowledge, skills, experiences, and practices about the target rural primary school.

The non-probability sampling narrowed the focus of this study and drove the researcher and participants to disregard other primary schools in the rural communities. The non-probability sampling allowed the researcher to generate knowledge and understanding about the real educational needs and assets of the target rural primary school.

- **Limitations of the research aims**

The research aims were focused only on identifying the educational needs and assets of a primary school in a rural community in the Greater Sekhukhune District in order to have knowledge and understanding of the educational needs and assets, as well as to assist the principal, educators, learners, parents, members of the School Governing Body, and members of the School Management Team to become empowered asset builders in identifying a community education programme for community building. It was possible that the study could have embraced the identification of the physical, health, or socio-economic needs and assets of the target rural primary school. The researcher explained the key concepts “educational needs” and “educational assets” at the beginning of workshop 1 and 2 respectively in order to clarify the participants about what they were expected to identify. The researcher realised that the participants were also concerned about the lack and poor infrastructure and facilities in the school and poor living conditions in the local rural community. Guided by the research aims, the researcher and participants unveiled both what was educationally deficient and available.

- **Limitations of the research design and methodology**

Since this study is a qualitative ethnographic research using a descriptive case study, the researcher set aside the quantitative factors that could influence the research findings. The qualitative ethnographic research simplified the process of generating rich data from the participant's analytical and critical thinking regarding the current educational needs and assets.

The use of a case study channelled the researcher to conduct this research specifically for a single research unit. The descriptive case study helped the researcher to communicate verbally with the participants. Participants gave the narrative accounts about the current educational needs and assets of their school (Cohen, *et.al.* 2000:183).

Different action research models were relevant, but were not used in this study. The researcher's selection of the Zuber-Skerritt (1996)'s Emancipatory Action Research Model was on the basis of incorporating and accommodating the designing of the Community Action Planning Workshops.

In Chapter 2, various possible needs and asset assessment models were discussed, but however, the researcher used the Community Action Planning Workshops as the most appropriate methodology for the current study. The Community Action Planning Workshops were implemented because they allowed more time for interaction through group discussions, are vision-oriented, promote active involvement of the participants when assessment the current situation of the target rural primary school.

It was possible that photo and video cameras could have been used to capture the data. However, all the workshops were audiotaped in order to preserve what was discussed for analysis and interpretation. The use of group discussions, semi-structured interviews, silent observations, note-taking, and audio-tapes increased the validity and reliability of the research data from different angles. Data were captured separately using each technique, then coded and analysed, compared, and integrated to form rich findings of this study.

#### **4.7 IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

The current study implies the following highlights for future research:

- The vision of the target rural primary school should be reviewed and evaluated from time to time in order to verify and justify if it still satisfies the principles of good practice in community building. Such principles of good practice include opening participation to all interested persons in public decision-making; broadening representation and increasing breadth of perspective and understanding in creating a conducive atmosphere for community building; using accurate methods to study the community; understanding each other and making general agreements as the basis for community change; ensuring that everyone has the rights to be heard in open discussion whether in agreement or disagreement with the norms of the society; ensuring that all the people are participating in creating and recreating the community of which they are a part; and using a systems perspective or holistic approach as a basis for development that will benefit all in the long term (Littrell, Littrell, Cary, Hardesty, Maze & Timmons, 1992:20)
- A study about identifying the educational needs and assets of the target rural primary school should be on a continuous basis in order to continuously enhance excellence in teaching and learning
- A broader research should be conducted to identify the educational needs and assets of other South African rural schools in order to have a generalised knowledge and understanding about challenges and strengths in rural education countrywide
- A longitudinal study should be conducted for the purpose of implementing and assessing the impact of the proposed school-family-community partnership programme outlined in Chapter 4
- A research study should be conducted countrywide with the aim of investigating the educational challenges of learners with special learning needs in South African rural schools.

#### **4.8 CONCLUSION**

In this chapter, a discussion is made about the conclusions drawn from the literature review, major conclusions, recommendations, community education programme, limitations of the research, and implications for future research.

The ecosystemic perspective, needs-based and asset-based approaches (theoretical framework of this study) were tools for understanding how the various role players within the target rural primary school interact and influence each other, and understanding the educational needs and assets within the context of the target primary school, family and rural community.

A primary school in a rural community has educational needs and assets. Different stakeholders of the target rural primary school should work together to address the educational challenges at hand. Emphasis should be placed on solving the educational needs of higher priority through effective utilisation of the educational assets of higher priority. The proposed school-family-community partnership programme should be implemented in an attempt to solve the identified educational needs

Finally, a primary school in a rural community should be transformed into a community learning centre in which the school manager and educators should initiate community education programmes that would address local rural needs; provide diverse educational services; improve the local rural community; foster lifelong learning and interagency communication; and extended use of public facilities.



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## APPENDIX A

### COMMUNITY ACTION PLANNING WORKSHOPS

#### WORKSHOP 1 (DAY 1): CREATING A VISION AND IDENTIFYING THE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS

Duration: 4hours, 35 minutes

Objective: To create a vision and identify the educational needs

Materials: Chalkboard, chalks, notebook, tape recorder, 3 empty cassettes, pencils and rubber

Human resource: facilitator (researcher) and assistant researcher

Participants: principal, two educators, two learners, two parents, two members of the School Governing Body, and the School Management Team

Welcome and introduction: (30 minutes)

Group discussion: Creating a vision (60 minutes)

The facilitator asks each participant to complete the following sentence "In the year 2010 I wish to see our school -----".

Each participant shares his/her ideas by reading the sentence/s to the group. The assistant researcher writes individual sentences on the chalkboard. Participants discuss and link the sentences, and finally create one vision statement.

Group discussion: Identifying the educational needs (60 minutes).

Facilitator shares with the participants about the concept "educational needs" as defined in Chapter 1. The chalkboard is divided into three sections. Participants are engaged in a group discussion in which they identify the educational needs of their school. The educational needs are grouped according to where and how they originate, for example, within the school, family, and rural community.

Semi-structured interviews (120 minutes)

At the end of the workshop, the facilitator conducts semi-structured interviews with each participant for at least fifteen minutes. The following interview schedule is used:

1. Which educational needs of our school were not mentioned during the group discussion?
2. Which five educational needs, do you value as of higher priority?
3. How do these top five educational needs affect our school?
4. Who should be involved in addressing the educational needs of our school?
5. How should these educational needs be addressed?

Facilitator thanks the group for participating in the workshop: (5 minutes).

## **WORKSHOP 2 (DAY 2): IDENTIFYING THE EDUCATIONAL ASSETS**

Duration: 3 hours, 35 minutes

Objective: To identify the educational assets

Materials: chalkboard, chalks, notebook, tape recorder, 3 empty cassettes, pencils and rubber

Human resource: facilitator (researcher) and assistant researcher

Participants: principal, two educators, two learners, two parents, two members of the School Governing Body, and the School Management Team.

Welcome and setting the context: (30 minutes).

Group discussion: (60 minutes)

The facilitator starts by explaining what the educational assets are in the context of this research. Participants identify the educational assets of their school. The educational assets are mapped according to those within the school, family, and community.

Semi-structured interviews: (120 minutes)

At the end of the workshop, the facilitator conducts semi-structured interviews with each participant for at least fifteen minutes. The following interview schedule is applied:

1. Which educational assets were not mentioned during the group discussion?
2. Which five educational assets do you value as of higher priority?
3. How do these top educational assets affect our school?

4. How can we mobilise these educational assets for our school improvement?

Facilitator thanks the group for participating in the workshop: (5 minutes).

### **WORKSHOP 3 (DAY 3): IDENTIFYING A COMMUNITY EDUCATION PROGRAMME FOR COMMUNITY BUILDING**

Duration: 4 hours

Objective: To identify a community education programme for community building

Materials: chalkboard, chalks, notebook, tape recorder, 3 empty cassettes, pencils and rubber

Human resource: researcher (facilitator) and assistant researcher

Participants: principal, two educators, two learners, one parent, one member of the School Governing Body, and one School Management Team.

Welcome and setting the context: (30 minutes)

Group discussion: (60minutes)

Participants discuss and select major topics or themes they would prefer to work on in the direction of the stated vision of their school.

Voting: (25 minutes)

Participants identify and vote for a community education programme that should be developed at a later stage.

Semi-structured interviews: (120 minutes)

At the end of the workshop, the facilitator conducts semi-structured interviews with each participant. Semi-structured interviews are conducted with each participant for at least fifteen minutes. The following semi-structured interview schedule is used:

1. What is the value of the identified programme to the school?
2. What is the value of the identified programme to the family?
3. What is the value of the identified programme to the community?
4. Why is it necessary to develop the identified programme?

The facilitator thanks the participants for participating in the three workshops and indicates that the identified community education programme should be developed in an attempt to address the identified educational needs (5 minutes).

**APPENDIX B**

P.O Box 164

Masemola

1060

14 February 2005

The Principal  
Tiitšane Primary School  
P.O Box 240  
Masemola  
1060

Dear Madam

**IDENTIFYING THE NEEDS AND ASSETS OF A PRIMARY SCHOOL IN A RURAL COMMUNITY**

This is a pleasure to inform you that I have selected your school for an educational research project. This study is invaluable because it should assist to identify the educational needs and assets of your school in order to empower all the role-players to take active participation in school improvement. Participants should include the principal, two educators, two learners, one parent, one member of the School Governing Body, and one member of the School Management Team. Please assist in selecting the participants for this matter.

Data will be collected once in three months respectively within Community Action Planning Workshops. Workshop 1 will deal with creation of a vision and identifying of the educational needs, workshop 2 will focus on identifying the educational assets, and workshop 3 will be meant for identifying a community education programme for community building. Furthermore, data will be captured through group discussions, semi-structured interviews, silent observations, note taking, and audiotapes.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully  
Maphutha M.M

**APPENDIX C**

Tiitsane Primary School

P.O Box 240

Masemola

1060

18 February 2005

P.O Box 164

Masemola

1060

Dear Mr Maphutha

**ACCEPTANCE OF YOUR RESERCH PROJECT**

Your application, **Identifying the needs and assets of a primary school in a rural community**, has been accepted. Participants are already informed about this project.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully

Makobe M.J (Principal)