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METHODS OF ASSESSING LEARNING NEEDS FOR COMMUNITY EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

by

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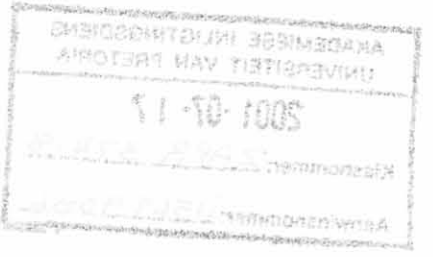

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DEDICATED TO MY DAUGHTERS

Tsakasile, Nozipho and Sihle

With love

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SUMMARY

METHODS OF ASSESSING LEARNING NEEDS FOR COMMUNITY EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

BY

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Degree for which the thesis is presented: PhD

The aim of this study is to explore the concept of community education and to investigate methods and techniques that can be implemented to assess the learning needs of individuals and communities in the community education process, in order to provide relevant community education programmes.

Community education can be defined as the educational process in which the provisions (services, programmes, resources) of all the educational agencies in a community are utilised in a co-operative and co-ordinated manner, to provide for all of the learning needs of all the people of a community, to develop the community and to solve the problems of the community.

Community education is a practical educational strategy in which members of the community are actively involved in education that is relevant to them, and that also addresses their needs and problems.

In any given community the infrastructure for community education will include the following: a community learning centre; a co-ordinator of community education; advisory councils; and community resources.

The community education process is an educational one and is a continuation of formal, non-formal and informal educational programmes in a community. The ten phases in the community education process provide the learners in a community with procedures and resources which enable them to obtain information and skills. During the first three phases of the community education process the focus is on establishing the necessary infrastructure for community education. The next six phases deal with the planning and bringing into operation of educational programmes. The last phase occurs continuously and here the focus is on action research.

The ten phases in the community education process are: the appointment of a co-ordinator of community education; creating an educational milieu; establishment of an organisational structure for participative planning; identifying and analysing the problems, needs, and interests of individuals and institutions in the community; formulating programme objectives; designing educational programmes; identifying and mobilising community resources; operation of educational programmes; evaluation of educational programmes, rediagnosis of learning needs, and adjustment of the educational provisions of the various educational agencies in the community; and continuous research.

A broad spectrum of learning needs that exist for individuals and community members was identified. Examples of learning needs include: functional literacy, numeracy skills, parental and family education, technological skills, health, citizenship, recreation and sport.

The learning needs of individuals and communities must be identified and assessed before a community education programme is designed and put into operation. The assessment of educational and learning needs should not be done in a haphazard manner, instead it should be undertaken in a systematic, formalised and accountable manner. With regard to Phase 4 (identifying and analysing problems and needs) of the community education process, the following methods and techniques were identified: questionnaires, interviews, research reports, group discussion, observation, small group techniques, the key-informant method, the community-forum method, the social indicators method and the combination method.

When the identified methods and techniques have been used to assess learning needs, relevant community education programmes can be designed and put into operation to address the learning needs and problems of a given community.

KEY WORDS

- **Community education**
- **Learning needs**
- **Formal education**
- **Non-formal education**
- **Informal education**
- **Needs assessment (methods and techniques)**
- **Learning society**
- **Community development**
- **Community learning centre**
- **Community school**

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OPSOMMING

METODES OM LEERBEHOEFTES TE IDENTIFISEER VIR GEMEENSKAPSONDERWYS-PROGRAMME

deur

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Departement: Psigo- en Sosiopedagogiek

Graad: PhD

Die doel van hierdie studie is om die konsep gemeenskapsonderwys te verken en ondersoek in te stel na metodes en tegnieke wat geïmplementeer kan word om die leerbehoeftes van individue en gemeenskappe in die gemeenskapsonderwys-proses te identifiseer, ten einde relevante gemeenskapsonderwys-programme te voorsien.

Gemeenskapsonderwys kan gedefinieer word as die onderwysproses waarin die voorsieninge (dienste, programme, hulpbronne) van al die onderwysagente in 'n gemeenskap koöperatief en gekoördineerd benut word, om in al die leerbehoeftes van al die lede van die gemeenskap te voorsien, om die gemeenskap te ontwikkel en om probleme van die gemeenskap op te los.

Gemeenskapsonderwys is 'n praktiese onderwysstrategie waardeur gemeenskapslede aktief betrokke is by onderwys wat relevant is en ook hul behoeftes en probleme aanspreek.

In enige gegewe infrastruktuur vir gemeenskapsonderwys word die volgende ingesluit: 'n gemeenskapsleersentrum; 'n direkteur van gemeenskapsonderwys; adviesrade en gemeenskapshulpbronne.

Die gemeenskapsonderwys-proses is 'n onderwysproses en is 'n voortsetting van formele, nie-formele en informele onderwysprogramme in die gemeenskap. Die tien fases van die gemeenskapsonderwys-proses voorsien die leerders in die gemeenskap van prosedures en hulpbronne waardeur inligting en vaardighede bekom kan word. Tydens die eerste drie fases van die gemeenskapsonderwys-proses is die fokus op die vestiging van die nodige infrastruktuur vir gemeenskapsonderwys. Die daaropvolgende ses fases handel oor die beplanning en operasionalisering van onderwysprogramme. Die laaste fase is 'n deurlopende aktiwiteit en fokus op aksienavorsing.

Die tien fases in die gemeenskapsonderwys-proses is die volgende: aanstelling van 'n direkteur van gemeenskapsonderwys; skep van 'n onderwysmilieu; vestiging van 'n organisatoriese struktuur vir deelnemende onderwys; identifisering en ontleding van die probleme, beleefde behoeftes en belange van individue en instellings in die gemeenskap; formulering van programdoelwitte; ontwerp van onderwysprogramme; identifisering en mobilisering van gemeenskapshulpbronne; operasionalisering van onderwysprogramme; evaluering van onderwysprogramme, herdiagnosering van leerbehoeftes, en aanpassing van die onderwysvoorsieninge van die onderskeie onderwysagente in die gemeenskap; voortdurende navorsing.

'n Breë spektrum van bestaande leerbehoeftes van individue en gemeenskapslede is geïdentifiseer. Voorbeelde van leerbehoeftes sluit die volgende in: funksionele geletterdheid, rekenkundige vaardigheid, ouer- en gesinsopvoeding, tegnologiese vaardighede, gesondheid, burgerskap, rekreasie en sport.

Die leerbehoeftes van individue en gemeenskappe moet eers geïdentifiseer en bepaal word, voordat gemeenskapsonderwys-programme ontwerp en geoperasionaliseer kan word. Die bepaling van onderwys- en leerbehoeftes behoort op 'n sistematiese,

formele en verantwoordbare wyse onderneem te word en nie op 'n lukrake wyse nie. Met verwysing na Fase 4 (identifisering en ontleding van die probleme, beleefde behoeftes en belange van individue en instellings in die gemeenskap) van die gemeenskapsonderwys-proses is die volgende metodes en tegnieke geïdentifiseer: vraelyste, onderhoude, navorsingsverslae, groepbesprekings, waarneming (observasie), kleingroeptegnieke, die sleutelinformant-metode, die gemeenskapsforum, die sosiale indikatore metode en die kombinasie-metode.

Indien die geïdentifiseerde metodes en tegnieke gebruik word vir die bepaling van leerbehoeftes kan relevante gemeenskapsonderwys-programme ontwerp en geoperasionaliseer word om die leerbehoeftes en probleme van 'n bepaalde gemeenskap aan te spreek.

SLEUTELTERME

- Gemeenskapsonderwys
- Leerbehoeftes
- Formele onderwys
- Nie-formele onderwys
- Informele onderwys
- Behoeftebepaling (metodes en tegnieke)
- Die lerende gemeenskap
- Gemeenskapsontwikkeling
- Gemeenskapsleersentrum
- Gemeenskapskool

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CHAPTER 1

THEME ANALYSIS, CONCEPTUALISATION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

1.1 INTRODUCTION

For the past decades attempts have been made to find ways to address the educational and learning needs of millions of South Africans. These attempts were not very successful. It is therefore evident that there is an educational crisis in our country. In fact, there is a mass of people with educational and learning needs outside of the formal education system who were either denied access to education or who might not have used their educational opportunities optimally.

The problem of educational crisis and inadequacies is cited by Pretorius (1990a:512) when he states the following: "The world and also the RSA are at present experiencing a profound educational crisis, due to rapid and radical changes in the ecology of education, educational systems and curriculum being too slow to adapt, disparities in education (e.g between educational provision and learning needs), financial problems, the population explosion, etc."

The above statement by Pretorius therefore suggests that the present systems of education have not been able to provide for the broad spectrum of realistic educational and learning needs of individuals and of communities, and have also not been able to contribute to the real development of communities and to solving the problems of communities.

In recent times, especially in countries such as Britain, the United States of America and Israel, the concept of community education has come to the fore as a concept which can be implemented to provide for the learning needs of individuals and of communities. The practice of community education is not well developed in South Africa. Previous and present education systems have neglected, by design and omission, to address the human resource and learning needs of communities.

With regard to the above-mentioned problem, Pretorius (1990a:513-514) remarks as follows:

"To merely expand formal education provision in an attempt to provide for these basic needs and learning needs and to solve the above-mentioned problems would not be sufficient, because of the following reasons:

- it will lead to the erosion of the quality and relevance of education
- it will merely come to 'more of the same' and 'expanding the wrong systems' (Coombs)
- no single mode of education (e.g. formal education) is able to provide for the full spectrum of the realistic and essential learning needs of all age groups of any learner population
- there is a mass of youths and adults who find themselves outside of the formal education system, and who are not reached by formal education provisions."

From the fore-going arguments it becomes evident that there is a whole range of realistic and essential learning and educational needs among communities which require urgent attention.

As has been previously mentioned, it is possible to provide for the learning needs of individuals and communities by implementing a community education strategy and providing community education programmes.

Before relevant community education programmes can be provided in a given community, the learning needs, basic needs and problems of that community must be identified or assessed. Any community education programme must be provided on the basis of an assessment of learning and educational needs. For this, certain methods and techniques are necessary to assess the learning needs and problems of the community. Assessment or identification of learning needs is an important phase in the community education process.

Therefore, the methods and techniques implemented to assess learning needs require very special attention. Otherwise, the learning needs of a mass of people will remain unfulfilled. The question now arises: What are the methods and techniques that can be implemented in the community education process to assess learning needs, in order to provide relevant community education programmes?

In this study an investigation will be undertaken of the methods and techniques that can be implemented to identify the learning needs and problems of communities, in order to provide relevant community education programmes.

1.2 THEME ANALYSIS

In the following discussion the theme of the present study will be analysed.

1.2.1 LEARNING NEEDS

It is evident that education in the Third World is undergoing a deep crisis. It is unable to respond adequately to the far-reaching attitudinal and value changes that are sweeping these societies. It has neither been able to fulfil the new urges and aspirations of the common man nor has it been able to produce trained capacity that can handle pressing national problems with expertise and commitment (Van der Stoep, 1984:13).

Jarvis (1985:65) defines **learning needs** as follows:
"...where a deficiency can be remedied by the help of some educational process an 'educational need' is established."

With regard to the causes of learning needs, Coombs (1985:57) asserts that the most prolific breeder of new learning needs throughout the world since World War II has been development itself. By development is meant different forms of technological, social, economic and cultural changes and advances.

In this regard Coombs (1985:57) states the following:
"Although the aggregate increase in the number of learners has clearly had a sizeable impact on world educational requirements, it seems evident that the increase in the life-time learning needs of the average learner resulting from these dynamic development factors has been an even greater cause of the explosive growth of overall learning needs".

As communities change, learning needs also change. The changed context of education has presented society with new categories of learners, new learning needs, new subject matter and new educational objectives.

Different authors also present varying comments on the existence of learning needs:
Coombs (1985:33) remarks as follows:
"All human beings, starting at birth, have diverse learning needs whose form, substance, and utility evolve over the course of a lifetime. By extension, whole societies also have evolving learning needs, many of which extend well beyond the lifetime of any one individual."

Regarding this actual problem of the crisis in education and the unfulfilled learning needs of a mass of people, a possible solution could be found in the concept and practice of community education. In this regard Decker et al (1988:xi) remark as follows:
"Since schools alone cannot meet these educational needs, what seems to be called for is a co-operative venture where home, school, and community work together. Increasingly, the framework for such a co-operative venture is community education".

Following the above-mentioned idea, there is a great and urgent need for designing education systems and programmes which will provide for basic needs and learning needs and for solving existing community problems. The drawing of our attention to the possibilities of community education seems to have come at the correct time, when there is rapid and radical scientific, technological and social change which demands for greater educational expansion.

Masses of people outside the education systems have learning needs that have not been provided for and therefore remain unfulfilled, for which the provision of community education programmes can be a solution.

Epstein (1980:40) puts forth the idea that community education can fulfil the learning needs of communities:
"Community education is apparently filling some great needs and providing some obvious benefits for the community. Community educators are enablers or facilitators, they find the need, find a way to meet it, find a place to do it."

Concerning the fulfilment of learning needs, Epstein (1980:40) continues to state the following:
"Because all the people own the school system, and not just those with children in school, the system has an obligation to address the needs of all the people."

In order to address these changing learning needs of communities, community education should be put into practice. However, it is essential to assess the learning needs of individuals and communities, for community education programmes to be relevant.

1.2.2 METHODS FOR ASSESSING LEARNING NEEDS IN COMMUNITY EDUCATION

According to Knowles (1971:86), "Need assessment and need identification are mutual inclusive concepts. Need assessment refers to any systematic process for collecting and analysing information about the education needs of individuals, groups or organisations".

With regard to need assessment, Nkosi (1994:67) writes the following:
".... identifying learning needs thus involves assessing the discrepancies or gaps between the competencies and their present level of development."
On the same note, Knowles (1978:117) asserts that:
"According to Andragogy, the critical element ... is the learner's perception of the

discrepancy between where he is now and where he wants to be. So the assessment is essentially a self assessment, with the human resources developer providing the learner with tools and procedures for obtaining data about his level of development of the competencies".

Coombs (1985:95) writes the following concerning methods of assessing learning needs: "Learning needs, being so diverse and changeable by nature, cannot be measured with mathematical precision as if distinctive groups of people in distinctive contexts were like piles of lumber cut to a specified size in a lumberyard. Still, noting what cannot be done is not saying that it is impossible to make informed judgements on the subject. The basis for such judgements can be established by focusing on those forces that define the learning needs of individuals and societies, create new ones, or outstrip the existing educational arrangements of a given society".

Community education attempts to address learning needs of individuals and communities, therefore, of utmost importance are the methods and techniques which can be applied to determine these learning needs. The present study will investigate the methods and techniques that can be implemented in assessing the learning needs of individuals and communities in the community education process.

1.2.3 COMMUNITY EDUCATION

As has been mentioned above, this study will investigate methods and techniques that can be implemented in assessing learning needs of individuals and communities, in order to provide relevant community education programmes. It is therefore important, as a point of departure, to present a brief exposition of the concept of community education since it forms the core of the present study.

This study basically revolves around community education both as a concept and as a practice. Since each community is unique, different communities experience different learning needs. As a result, different communities will require different community

education programmes in order to address their learning needs. It is therefore through community education programmes that existing educational provision can be expanded and adapted. Furthermore, community education programmes can make important inputs in addressing the broad spectrum of realistic educational and learning needs and assist towards developing communities.

The concept of community education is of utmost importance in this study since community education also attempts to help people to learn how to solve their problems. Therefore, community education empowers individuals and communities to be independent in solving their problems.

In community education the emphasis is on creating and extending educational and learning opportunities which provide for the realistic educational and learning needs of individuals and communities.

1.3 CONCEPTUALISATION

The following major concepts will be used in this study, hence they warrant clarification:

- community
- community education
- the modes of education
- the learning society

The clarification is important for an understanding of the concept of community education as well as the handling of the present study, which in particular focuses on methods and techniques that can be implemented to identify learning needs of communities in order to provide relevant community education programmes.

1.3.1 COMMUNITY

It is imperative to define the concept of **community** because the present study is about educating the community.

According to Brookfield (1983:62) the concept of **community** refers "... to a geographical locale in which people live and work, in which they develop relationships based on common concerns, and in which expressions of mutual assistance reflect the dominant social mores. Underpinning this sense of interrelatedness is the cohesion afforded by all members of the group subscribing to shared norms, moral codes, beliefs and attitudes. This subscription is enforced by the socialization process which ensures that new members to the group are initiated into its moral and behavioural codes".

Teather (1982:27) views the concept of community in relation to the community school or college by stating as follows:

"'**Community**' is a constituency upon which the community school or college depends and to which the community school or college might be reasonably expected to be responsive."

According to Witty (1967:263), "... a '**community**' should be more than a mailing address, a seat of government, a place where the people sleep and carry on family responsibilities ... it should mean a setting in which human beings interact with members of their family, neighbours and close friends, in which all are participating, responding, dynamically active in interaction and thus gaining an education, whether they wish to do so or not".

Bloomer and Shaw (1979:94) view a community in its social context when they write the following:

"A community is part of a wider social context both formally in the sense of a local education authority and informally in the value orientation of the people who live or work there. It is an interest community, geographically defined, and in need of special help

with a maximum physical participation of residents. In such a community, the community schools and colleges can play a major role towards community regeneration".

Roberts (1979:27) points out that there is a factor of commonness in a community when he asserts that: "...the community exists when a group of people perceive common needs and problems, acquire a sense of identity, and have a common sense of objectives. Thus a profession may be a community despite its lack of a physical locus".

Fletcher et al (1980:177) present the following definition: "By **community** one can read either neighbourhood, town, or single class residential area. The term is used as a keep-net of all sorts of activities where there is more than a slight participation between people living close by each other. It may, in fact, be better just to call community education local education and so convey the essential premise that people should be able to control and use public resources".

In expatiating on the concept of 'community' further, Boyle (Kamper 1987:2) writes that: "A **community** is based on the social interdependence that arises from the association of people in some geographical location. Depending on the nature of the problem to be addressed and the extent of inter-dependence, a community may be a small neighbourhood or the entire world".

On the basis of the above-mentioned definitions the concept of **community** can be summarized as follows:

- Geographical definition: Community education involves the coming together of a group of people situated geographically in the same vicinity, for example, a town, village, location, district.
- Community refers to a group of people involved in similar activities.
- A group of people who perceive common needs and problems.
- People interact socially, dynamically active in interaction and thus gaining an education.
- People acquire a sense of identity

- People subscribe to shared norms, moral codes, beliefs and attitudes.
- People develop relationships based on common concerns.
- People have a common sense of objectives.
- A community may be a small neighbourhood or the entire world.

1.3.2 COMMUNITY EDUCATION

Since **community education** is a relatively new concept in our country, it is of utmost importance to present definitions of this concept for purposes of clarification. Of significance is the fact that the present study mainly deals with the concept of **community education**, particularly with the assessment of learning needs for which community education programmes can be designed.

The history of **community education** indicates that various authors and practitioners of community education give differing views when defining **community education**. Therefore, it would be difficult to agree on one specific definition of community education. However, the basis is that community education programmes should serve learning needs, develop the community and solve the problems of a given community. The following two definitions express the idea that community needs must be identified in the community education process:

Fellenz and Coker (1980:319) define **community education** as "....the process of identification of community needs and the marshalling of resources to meet those needs so that the community and all its members can grow through social and educational programmes".

The definition of **community education** by the Massachussetts Department of Education (1979:4) is the following:

(a) Partnerships between educational agencies and the community.
(b) Identifying community needs
(c) Using all available resources
(d) Democratizing educational decision-making

(e) Recognizing learning as a life-long activity

(f) Encouraging full access to all facilities (cultural, recreational, educational) for all members of a community.

According to Clark (1977:6), "**Community education,** simply stated, is an operational philosophy of education and system for community development."

With regard to the concept of **community education** Nisbet et al (1980:1) state the following: "The last twenty years have seen a rapid growth of enthusiasm for the idea of **community education** - an educational structure which serves the educational, social and recreational needs of the whole population, adults as well as children. In the past, community education has often made use of school facilities, for meetings, for adult classes and lectures, for social functions and for recreation."

Minzey and Le Tarte (Seay et al, 1974:126) also view community education as a philosophical concept when they state that: "**Community education** is a philosophical concept which serves the entire community by providing for all of the educational needs of its community members. It uses the local school to serve as the catalyst for bringing community resources to bear on community problems in an effort to develop a positive community, improve community living, and develop the community process toward the end of self-actualization."

Seay et al (1974:3) give the following definition: "**Community education** - the process that achieves a balance and a use of all institutional forces in the education of all the people of a community."

Nisbet et al (1980:111) further explain **community education** in terms of the contrast between formal and informal education. They remark that: "...formal education as exemplified in the conventional school system, informal as exemplified in community education. Immediately one can point to obvious differences. School is compulsory, community education voluntary. School tends to be seen as an institution for children,

community education for all age groups. Schools are staffed by a long-established profession, with a recognized hierarchical authority structure, directed by experienced older persons; community education is a young and still inexperienced service, developing a different authority structure, or even questioning the appropriateness of authority structures."

Pretorius (1990a:515) defines **community education** as an integrated community-based strategy when he remarks that: "Community education comprises a community-based infrastructure and an integrated community based strategy in which learning opportunities are expanded and made relevant; community education is a comprehensive, co-ordinated delivery system for community development and a process of comprehensive ecological intervention."

Decker (Poster, 1982:99) describes community education in terms of community improvement when he writes that: **"...community education** is a concept that stresses an expanded role for public education and provides a dynamic approach to individual and community improvement. Community education encourages the development of a comprehensive and co-ordinated delivery system for providing educational, recreational, social and cultural services for all people in a community".

With regard to **community education,** Decker et al (1988:27) remark as follows: "...the circle that defines **community education** in the learning society: schools using community resources and communities, in turn, using school resources. To put it in the words of community educators: 'The goal is a society where everyone teaches, everyone learns'."

Taylor (1988:41) views community education as a strategy for enhancing community involvement for community change when he comments as follows:

"The process aspects of community education refer to the structure, procedures, and intent of interaction among individuals, organisations, agencies, and institutions in a community. More specifically, this interaction process involves the joint collaboration of community members and professionals - both educators and representatives of other

service agencies - in the identification of local problems and subsequently in the selection of appropriate strategies for tackling them. Although, initially, the focus of this process is restricted to problems of an educational nature, eventually it will address the needs which arise in relation to all dimensions of community life".

Taylor (1988:41) further gives an exposition of the concept of **community education** in terms of community action when he states that:
"... community education constitutes a self-help approach to community development and it offers the added bonus of rekindling our sense of community ... as people proceed, step by step, through co-operative ventures, they are able to recapture the feelings of involvement and a sense of community which tends to motivate them toward further joint efforts with like-minded persons".

Cohen and Brawer (1982:257) give the following definition of **community education:**
"... courses and activities for credit or noncredit, formal classroom of nontraditional programmes, cultural, recreational offerings specifically designed to meet the needs of the surrounding community and using school, college, and other facilities."

Boone et al (1981:229) extend the concept of **community education** into **community education for development,** which they define as follows:
"...community education for development (CED): a process whereby community members come together to identify their problems and needs, seek solutions among themselves, mobilize the necessary resources, and execute a plan of action or learning or both. This educative approach is one in which community is seen as both agent and objective, education is the process, and leaders are the facilitators in inducing change for the better".

Allen et al (1987:142) link their definition to the Third World situation when they define **community education** as follows:
"...community education in the Third World ... is largely concerned with ways in which we may meet the whole range of educational needs of all members of the community,

irrespective of age, sex, ethnic origin or social status. ...community education in its informal variety provides instruction in values, traditions, relationships and technologies sufficient for the needs of relative small-scale, largely self-sufficient, and often insecure, societies in which the emphasis is on continuity and stability. In short, informal education in the emerging nations of the Third World is concerned with learning through everyday living and doing and with providing a basis for socializing new members into the norms, customs and values of traditional societies."

According to Lovett (Bloomer and Shaw, 1979:118) the essence of community education may be viewed in the following manner:
"...community education can be seen as a means of ensuring the widening of (educational) opportunities through a more effective delivery and co-ordination of educational resources. It can provide more effectively than traditional methods for the wide range of individual needs and interests and also provide an educational backup service for groups engaged in the process of community action."

Lovett (Bloomer and Shaw, 1979:124) comments on the concept of **community education** as follows:
"Community education is, without doubt, a workable and relevant educational process even if more limited in scope than the rhetoric implies. The emphasis on working in the community; identifying with local people and their problems; opening up access to resources tied up in institutions; recognising the wide range of educational needs and interests; utilising popular and working class culture; as well as making use of the best of middle class culture; using people's lives, hopes, dreams, problems as the basis for their own education, utilising the skills of local people to run their own community education programme, all this does build up to a distinct 'community' approach".

Lovett et al (1983:31) state the following with regard to **community education:**
"Community education is a means to reach a broad bulk of the working class, assisting individual growth and development and providing support for those engaged in the process of community action".

Epstein (1980:iii) emphasizes the idea that community members must be involved in assessing the needs and problems of communities when he states the following concerning the concept of **community education**:

"Community education is a philosophy holding that education is for everyone, that education goes on at all times, that education happens everywhere. It is a process by which community members, through direct participation in a representative body, identify the needs and problems of the community and determine ways of meeting them with programs and services delivered through co-operative efforts of community groups (agencies, organizations, institutions), using all the resources available in the community".

In accordance with Epstein, Taylor (1988:40) presents the following definition:

"...**community education** is a philosophical concept which serves the entire community by providing for all the educational needs of all its members."

In the same note, Clark (1977:5) defines Community Education as follows:

"...**community education** is an operational philosophy ... it provides for the learning opportunities of a vast majority of the members of the community."

From the fore-going definitions of community education the following deductions can be made, as presented by Poster (1982:2) and Pretorius (1990a:515-516):

- community education is a process
- community education is a philosophical concept
- community education is a system for community development (in the community education process, education and learning are aimed at community development - community education for development)
- the provisions of all the educational agencies in a community are utilised in a co-ordinated manner
- as far as possible, community education provides for all the educational, welfare and recreational needs of all the members of a community (all age groups). "Nor does community education confine itself to any age span. It is often described as education' from the cradle to the grave'" (Poster, 1982:2).

- community resources are utilized to solve the problems of the community (relevance)
- the facilities of the school (college) are used for a variety of activities (the community school concept); the community uses the facilities of the school, and vice versa
- community education includes the provision of formal, non-formal and informal education
- the community members are intensely involved in decision-making with regard to education, in identifying community needs and problems, in the solution of problems, in mobilizing and utilizing resources and in operating action and learning programmes
- community education is a delivery system for providing various services in the community - educational, recreational, social and cultural services.

These definitions can be summarized as follows:
"Community education can be defined as the educational process in which the provisions (services, programmes, resources) of all the educational agencies in a community are utilized in a co-operative and co-ordinated manner, to provide for all of the learning needs of all the people of a community, to develop the community and to solve the problems of the community" (Pretorius, 1990a:515).

1.3.3 THE MODES OF EDUCATION

In the past years education has been equated to learning, irrespective of where, when and how it occurs. Whatever the case may be in dealing with education, even community education, three modes of education are distinguished, namely formal, informal and non-formal education. In the following section, definitions of the three modes of education will be undertaken. All community education programmes that are provided will be in the form of one of the three modes. Some community education programmes will be formal, some will be non-formal and others informal.

FORMAL EDUCATION

According to Fourie (1978:45), "Formal education can be defined as the hierarchically structured, chronologically graded full-time educational system, running from the primary school through the university and including, in addition to general academic studies, also a variety of specialised programmes and institutions for full-time technical and professional training".

The HSRC Report (1981:93) defines **formal education** as education that takes place in a planned way at recognised institutions such as schools, colleges, technikons, universities, et cetera. These institutions are graded chronologically and arranged in a hierarchy from primary school to university.

In his definition Coombs (1985:24) states that: "Formal education involves full time, sequential study extending over a period of years, within the framework of a relatively fixed curriculum."

Formal education, according to Boone et al (1981:284) is ordinary schooling. They assert that formal education can be related to community education in two ways, namely, that through it, the concept of 'community' can be brought into the classroom for study and analysis and that it helps towards developing children's awareness and knowledge of their own community.

Van Rensburg and Landman (1986:382) define formal education as follows:
Formal education is any organized, systematic teaching activity inside a formal education system (school, teachers' training college, technikon, university)".

NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

According to Fourie (1978:45) **non-formal education** refers to "... any organized or semi organized educational activity **outside** the established structure of the formal system and

is 'aimed at serving a great variety of learning needs of different groups in the population, both young and old', relating i.e. to health, nutrition, agriculture, arts and crafts, out-of-school vocational training, family planning etc. and aimed at benefiting particular groups of the local population such as farmers, craftsmen and entrepreneurs, also unemployed out-of school youth".

Paul Fordham (1983:46) writes the following about the concept of **non-formal education**" ... part of a widespread search for alternatives in education which is itself intimately bound up with changing conceptions of development. The term 'non-formal' was given currently by development planners rather than educators. Existing terminology was seen as too narrow, while many of the more important programmes (e.g farmer training) were sometimes not seen as education at all, even by practitioners themselves. What was needed was an all-embracing term for ... educative services. As it gained currency, the term also came to include provision for the school age dropouts and left outs of the formal system."

Lowe (1975:24) differentiates between non-formal and informal learning by stating that informal education means the truly lifelong process whereby every individual acquires knowledge from daily experiences. Non-formal education is any organised educational activity outside the established formal system whether operating separately or as an important feature of some broader activity that is intended to serve identifiable learning clienteles and learning objectives.

Sheffield and Diejomaoh (1972:xi) report that the interest in non-formal education has increased in Africa today, many African governments and aid agencies being desirous of exploring alternative measures for upgrading the productivity and skills of the majority of their populations that enjoyed very little or no formal schooling, and primarily regards those non-formal education programmes either as an alternative to non-formal schooling or an extension of the formal schooling for those who are in need of being upgraded for more productive employment by means of additional (on-the-job) training.

Non-formal education being less expensive per trainee than formal education, there seems to be merit in King's (1976:13) strong plea for innovation in the form of a 'movement from traditional schools ... towards non-formal community training centres' for developing countries with limited resources: that is, a 'movement from schools towards communities' ... 'From academic subjects to development areas, from single-use buildings to shared use', from full time to part-time education, etc.

With regard to **non-formal education**, Djiwandono (1979:45) states the following: "Non-formal education assumes that learning is a lifelong process, starting from infancy and continuing through adulthood. It includes the acquisition of skills as well as the adoption of attitudes, values, and behaviour. It includes receptivity to productivity change."

Van der Stoep (1983:7) states that **non-formal education** embraces all activities in every field of knowledge and action carried out by the community using methods whose worth has been demonstrated.

Coombs (1985:23) defines non-formal education as follows: "... non-formal education, contrary impressions not withstanding, does not constitute a distinct and separate educational system, parallel to the formal education system. Non-formal education is simply a handy generic label covering: any organised, systematic, educational activity, carried on outside the framework of the formal system, to provide selected types of learning to particular sub-groups in the population, adults as well as children. Thus defined non-formal education includes, for example, agricultural extension and farmer training programs, adult literacy programs, occupational skill training given outside the formal system, youth clubs with substantial educational purposes, and various community programs of instruction in health, nutrition, family planning, co-operatives, and the like".

INFORMAL EDUCATION

Van Schalkwyk (1988:108) defines informal education as " .... the life-long process whereby each person is able to acquire insight and understanding spontaneously and incidentally. It is also the way in which attitudes and patterns of behaviour can be learnt from everyday experiences with the environment, for example by reading a book, watching television and talking to people."

According to Coombs (1985:24), informal education is "... the life-long process by which every person acquires and accumulates knowledge, skills, attitudes and insight from daily experiences and exposure to the environment at home, at work, at play, from the example and attitudes of family and friends, from travel, reading newspapers and books, or by listening to radio or viewing films or television. Generally, informal education is unorganized, unsystematic and even unintentional at times, yet it accounts for the great bulk of any person's total life time learning - including that of even a highly 'schooled' person".

In analysing the concept **informal education,** Wain (1987:48) writes that: In general, informal learning is distinguished from other kinds of learning by the fact that it is non-intentional. The usual tendency is therefore to distinguish it from education which is commonly taken to refer to intentional learning activities.

In his concluding remarks on the subject, Wain (1987:51) states the following: By informal education is meant that planned or deliberate instruction a tutor may provide, or a parent may give a child, or a master impart to an apprentice. But more than that, it includes the self-education a person may seek through a planned course of reading in the library, or secure through conversation with friends or obtain by travel or general observation or by use of one or more of several mass media now so freely at hand. Thus informal education may be planned or deliberately imposed on another, or it may result from self-motivation and be self-imposed. Sometimes it may result more from chance than from design. What distinguishes it from schooling is that there is no institution

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especially provided in which it takes place, although informal education may occur in school even during regular class time.

Hargreaves (1981:200) writes the following about **informal education**: "It includes education as leisure and education for leisure."

In summary, it is evident that community education cannot be divorced from the three modes of education, namely, formal, non-formal and informal education. This is true because community education programmes can be presented in any of the three modes of education.

1.3.4 THE LEARNING SOCIETY

The following section will focus attention on defining and explaining the concept of **the learning society.**

Decker et al (1988:v) remark as follows with regard to the **learning society** "... educational reform should focus on the goal of creating a learning society. At the heart of such a society is the commitment to a set of values and to a system of education that affords all members the opportunity to stretch their minds to full capacity, from early childhood through adulthood, learning more as the world changes.

With regard to the learning society, Decker et al (1988:xi-xii) further state that the learning community is a way of looking at public education as a total community enterprise. It provides a framework for local citizens and a community's schools, agencies, and institutions to become active partners in addressing many of the problems and quality-of-life concerns prevalent in the community today. Sometimes this takes the form of a school using the community's resources in some way - from parent volunteers, perhaps, to an 'adoption' by a local business or industry. Sometimes, instead, it is the community that uses the school's resources. Senior citizens may eat in the school cafeteria, a nearby business might use the gymnasium before school hours for gymnastic

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routines, or a local club might borrow the school computer in the evening. The ideal situation is when the sharing of resources is mutual, when those elderly citizens read to children or tutor them for a time following the lunch hour or the gymnasts organize student teams on weekends. However it works, the end result is to get the community involved in the schools and the schools involved with the community for mutual benefits. Therein lies the learning community's strength.

Still in connection with the concept of the **learning community**, Decker et al (1988:24-40) interpret this concept as follows: "Our goal is to make the community one classroom. We want to get as many people involved in learning as we possibly can".

According to Jarvis (1985:52), the **learning society** is learner based, has no barriers of access and provides a flexible but life-long system of education. It is society organized in such a manner as to make all kinds of learning available to everyone on a full-time or part time basis.

Wain (1987:43) argues that learning within a learning society occurs at intervals throughout life, alternating with normal life activities, unifying all stages of education, accepting formal and non-formal patterns of education and embracing education as an integral but not pheripheral or separate part of life. The learning society can be seen as the embodiment of the programme's determination to so conceptualise education that at operational level lifelong education is an organising principle providing a total system for all education. Following this idea, it is apparent that a learning society will eventually achieve lifelong learning.

According to Hussein (1988:136), the following are broad assumptions in relation to the concept of the **learning society**:

The learning society is:

- an educative society
- the individualisation of society
- the consequence of the influx of manpower from rural to urban areas

- the dynamics of industrial society involving the move from one place to another, embarking upon new occupations and changing status.

In addition, Hussein (1988:136) states that in the educative society, climbing up the social ladder depends very much on the opportunity and ability to do so.

Nkosi (1994:22) remarks as follows on the concept of the **learning society:**
"The challenge of a learning community is the development of educational programmes for all, for example, recreation, career retraining, family life, day care, pre-school education, et cetera."

Wain (1987:202-203) argues that the **learning society** or an education-centred society has to do with life-long education. He asserts that the learning society, in short, is a society designed to be supportive of individual lifelong education. ...the **learning society** is therefore one that is exceedingly self-conscious about education in its total sense; that is conscious of the educational relevance and potential of its own institutions and of the general environment that is its own way of life, and is determined to maximize its resources in these respects, to the utmost.

From the fore-going arguments it is clear that the **learning society** should look to all its institutions not merely for their efficiency and productivity but also, and more especially, for their educative potential.

Furthermore, it is not an accidental fact that thinkers who have theorized about and advocated the **learning society**, like those mentioned above, have also thought of it as community, because it cannot be thought of in any other way that is morally acceptable.

According to Wain (1987:229) the concept '**learning society**' features prominently in the lifelong education programme, but equal prominence is given to the idea that education should be one with self-realization and with self-directedness.

The **learning society** should therefore be one that believes in the Deweyian dictum that 'Living together educates'. From a more formal point of view, it is a society that, in Illich's terms, is mobilized for learning (Wain, 1987:203).

It also becomes clear at this stage, that, when providing community education in a given community, one is also establishing a **learning society.**

On the basis of the above-mentioned definitions the concept of **the learning society** can be summarized as follows:

- an educative society
- leadership is the joint responsibility of all members
- supportive of individual life-long education
- active partners in addressing problems and quality of life concerns.
- community involved in the schools and the schools involved with the community for mutual benefits.

1.4 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In the light of the preceeding introduction, theme analysis, conceptualisation and demarcation of the field of investigation, the problem of the present study can be formulated as follows:

What methods and techniques can be implemented in the community education process to assess the learning needs of individuals and communities, in order to provide relevant community education programmes?

1.5 CENTRAL THEORETICAL STATEMENT

The researcher will attempt to verify the following central theoretical statement in this study:

The methods and techniques implemented to assess learning needs of individuals and communities in the community education process can significantly contribute towards

providing relevant community education programmes.

1.6 RESEARCH METHOD

This research project can be regarded as an exploratory-descriptive study.
It is an exploratory study in the sense that the aim of the study is the exploration of a relatively unknown research area. The aims of exploratory studies may vary quite considerably. They may be:

- to gain new insights into a phenomenon: In this study new insights into the phenomenon of community education will be gained, but more in particular methods for assessing learning needs in the community education process will be investigated.
- to explicate the central concepts and constructs: In particular, the concepts of **community education** and **needs assessment** will be dealt with.
- to determine priorities for future research;
- to develop new hypotheses about an existing phenomenon, (Mouton and Marais, 1988:43).

According to Mouton and Marais (1988:43), the best guarantee for the completion of an exploratory study is to be found in the researcher's willingness to examine new ideas and suggestions and to be open to new stimuli. The major pitfall to avoid is allowing preconceived ideas or hypotheses to exercise a determining influence on the direction or nature of the research.
On the other hand this research can also be regarded as a descriptive study.

Mouton and Marais (1988:43) write the following with regard to descriptive studies:
"The spectrum of descriptive studies includes a large variety of types of research. On the one hand, it is possible to emphasize the in-depth description of a specific individual, situation, group, organisation, tribe, sub-culture, interaction, or social object. On the other hand, one may emphasize the frequency with which a specific characteristic or variable occurs in a sample. A distinction may also be drawn between descriptive studies

with contextual interest and descriptive studies with a more general interest. This distinction is also closely related to the distinction which may be drawn between qualitative and quantitative research."

According to Mouton and Marais (1988:44), the term 'description' has developed into an umbrella term used in many different types of research. The single common element in all of these types of research is the researcher's goal, which is to describe that which exists as accurately as possible. Depending upon the researcher's preference for qualitative or quantitative research methodologies, and his or her choice of either ideographic or nomothetic strategies, the meaning of the phrase 'to describe accurately' would vary with the context.

One of the most important considerations in descriptive studies is to collect accurate information or data on the domain phenomena which are under investigation (Mouton and Marais, 1988:44).

This research is also a descriptive study in the sense that it aims at describing and defining community education, the community education process, phases in the community education process and methods and techniques that can be implemented in assessing learning needs in the community education process.
This research is thus a basic, theoretical study based on a review of relevant literature. Any research includes a study of relevant literature, because no research can be undertaken without first gaining a thorough knowledge of research that has already been completed in the specific field of research.

1.7 AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of the present study is to explore the concept of community education and to investigate methods and techniques that can be implemented to assess the learning needs of individuals and communities in the community education process, in order to provide relevant community education programmes.

1.8 PROGRAMME OF STUDY

After the preceeding orientation and statement of the problem in connection with the investigation, the programme of the study is as follows:
In chapter 2 the nature and extent of community education will be outlined, particularly in relation to the aims, components, infrastructure, agencies and provisions thereof. Attention will also be given to the concepts of community development, community learning centre, the community school and the community college.

In Chapter 3 the community education process will be described and analyzed. In particular, the phases in the community education process will receive attention.

Furthermore, an introduction into learning need structures will be done in order to give an indication of the broad spectrum of learning needs that exist among socially disadvantaged individuals and groups in a community.

In Chapter 4 the researcher is going to investigate methods and techniques that can be implemented in assessing the learning needs of individuals and communities in the community education process.

In chapter 5 the findings of the study will be summarized and distinct recommendations resulting from the study will be made.

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CHAPTER 2

THE CONCEPT OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In the preceeding chapter, attention was focused on the theme analysis, conceptualisation and statement of the problem of this study. Furthermore, the aim of the study was presented, as well as the research method and the programme of study. In particular, the concept of community education was defined in detail.

In view of insights obtained up to now, this chapter will focus attention on the concept of community education.

This chapter is essential for this study since it defines, describes and illustrates the concept of community education. As a result the concept of community education will be dealt with in great detail. The concept of community education forms the basis of this study which aims at exploring the concept of community education and investigating methods and techniques that can be implemented in assessing learning needs of individuals and communities, in order to provide relevant community education programmes.

This chapter is further imperative since it attempts to present a broader framework of what community education is all about. It furthermore serves as background and framework for the main task that is going to be undertaken in this study.

The nature of community education as well as a brief history of community education will be discussed. Aims, components, agencies and provisions of community education and implications of the community education concept will be discussed. The community learning centre, the community school concept and the community college will also be dealt with.

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2.2 THE CONCEPT OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION

The concept of community education will be discussed in terms of the different aspects of the concept.

2.2.1 A BRIEF HISTORY OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION

(c f. Fletcher et al, 1980:27,57; Boone et, al 1981:233-234; Nisbet et al, 1980:2; Pretorius, 1990b:21-23).

Community education is an eclectic philosophy that combines several positive characteristics of the education movements of the past and present in a grounded and permanent education concept.

The idea of community education is not new: Plato, Thomas More, Bacon and Luther each developed his own interpretation of the concept. During the 18th, 19th and 20th centuries different forms of community education were developed in countries like: Switzerland, Denmark, the USA and Great Britain.

In 1845 Henry Barnard writes the "Report on Conditions of Improvement of Public Schools in Rhode Island", in which he analyses the role of the school in the improvement of community life. The progressive education movement of John Dewey is regarded as the origin of community education as we know it today.

Community education is based on three principles:

- The determination of objectives and aims according to the interests, needs and problems of people.
- Application of a wide range of community, human, physical and financial resources to the development of programmes and activities.

- Advancement and practice of democracy in all activities of the school and community.

Everett writes in his book of 1938:

"Education is part and parcel of the very fact of living... The social nature of the individual is but testimony to how the learning process is at the same time the process of becoming. We learn what we live, and what we thus learn is through the very process of living built into the structure of one's being, there to form the foundation for behaviour."

Towards the end of the 19th century John Dewey and others fixed the attention on the decline of the rural community. In order to provide for the learning needs of rural and urban communities, the following decades saw the start of several education movements that would play an important role in the history of community education: the Village Colleges (England) of the 1930s, adult education at the beginning of the 20th century, the continuation classes after 1918, the Physical Training and Recreation Act of 1937, the Service of Youth and youth clubs of the 1950s, the UNESCO call for lifelong education (1972), compensatory education from 1969, etc. These events culminate in the community school movement of the 1970s.

The 52nd Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, published in 1953, is in its totality dedicated toward dealing with the community education concept and refers to community education projects in countries like Thailand, Haiti, India, Mexico and the Philippines. After this community projects were also developed in countries like the Republic of Ireland, the Netherlands, France, Kenya, Tanzania, the Republic of China and Israel.

It is especially the USA, with its massive resources and particular problems with regard to milieu impediment ("urban problems"), that took a leading role in the development and

financing of community education projects, in the USA as well as in several poor countries.

In 1975 there were at least eight American Universities that offered PhD programmes in Community Education and more than 20 that offered masters courses to train teachers for community education development.

Boone et al (1981:233-234) describe five phases in the history of community education specifically with regard to the USA:

Phase 1: 1920s - 1940s: Development of community based programmes for the poor, milieu-disadvantaged and socially deviant; leadership training for community councils, local self-help community development work, several universities start training programmes for educational agencies and planners.

Phase 2: 1940s: Focus on the community school as change factor (development agency).

Phase 3: Continuation of the community school movement - the school is the focal point for the inputs of the other educational agencies in the community.

Phase 4: Emphasis on a wider definition of community education: The community school co-operates with other educational agencies to provide education with regard to the development needs of the community.

Phase 5: Community members take part in decision-making and problem solving through the functioning of community education councils, and all agencies and institutions with educational potential are involved in the community education process.

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2.2.2 THE NATURE OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION

In the following discussion the nature of community education will be investigated.

Fletcher et al (1980:55-57) write the following concerning the nature of community education:

- Community education is a systematic way of looking at people and their problems. It is based on the following:

  - that education can be made relevant to the needs of the people
  - that the learner must be involved in decision-making with regard to educational programmes
  - that education must have an impact on the community it serves.

- Community education as a process promotes the maximal use of school facilities, study and the rendering of support in seeking out solutions to community problems, co-operation between the service agencies of the community and the strengthening of family unity through mutual activities. Community education aims at the fulfilment of human needs, the utilisation of community resources, leadership in the community, the involvement of all the members of the community, decision-making, etcetera.

- Two main aspects of community education are thus:

  - process (change and development), and
  - programmes (resulting from this process).

Fletcher et al (1980:57) emphasize the development of a sense of community when stating that: "Through the expansion of community services, the co-ordination of existing agencies, maximizing the use of school facilities, and the involvement of people of all ages at all times, the process of developing a Community Education program

strives toward the development of a 'Sense of Community', people working together to solve their own problems, needs, and wants".

In their work, Fletcher et al (1980:62) developed a general pattern of the concept of community education (as implemented in the USA) by means of a model (see Figure 2.1).

Fletcher et al (1980:59) continue to say that each community expresses the community education concept in a different way. This is partially dependent upon the socio-economic status, cultural/ethnic make-up, and existing services within the community. Generally there seems to be a progression or level of sophistication which occurs. This can be graphically depicted (see Figure 2.2).

Burdin (1977:2) emphasizes that needs assessment must be co-operatively planned and executed in the following explanations:

- There is currently considerable pressure mounting to hold the school accountable for education, within and outside school buildings; the school should be a place where formal and informal learning occurs for all ages, and operational headquarters for those who provide education and human services throughout the community (thus a community school).
- Learning and personal growth are broad-based lifetime experiences and should not be limited by a particular building, time schedule, or age range.
- A co-operatively planned and executed needs assessment can identify curriculum elements responsive to the people.
- Community education offers for more opportunities to meet educational and other human needs than does the traditional concept of schooling.
- If schools were committed to community education, the school personnel would be active in the community in helping all ages and types of citizens, develop the processes and competence to build positive images of the future, regardless of sex, age, socio-economic status, or race ethnicity: they will be involved in

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FIGURE 2.1

COMMUNITY EDUCATION CONTINUUM

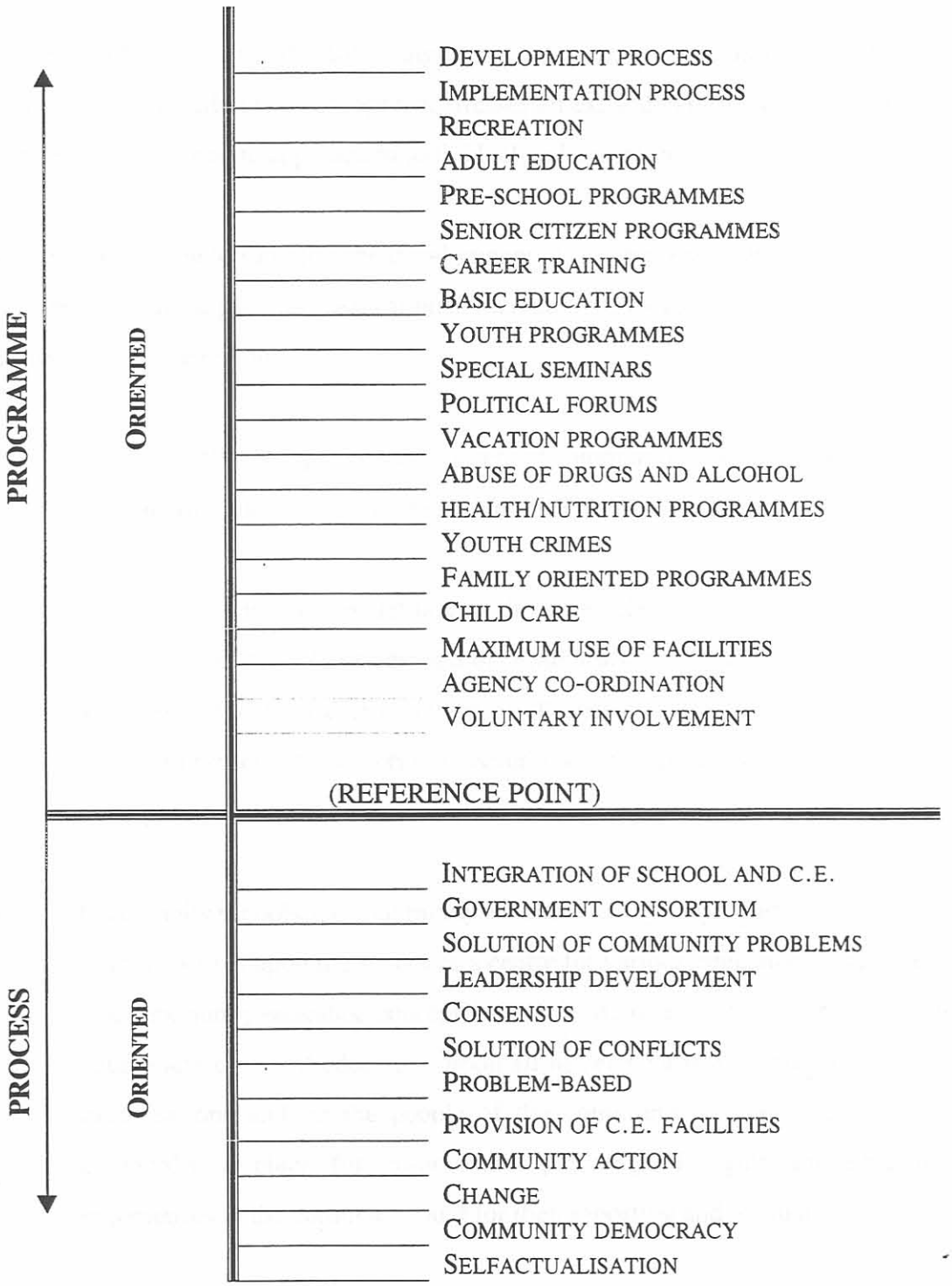

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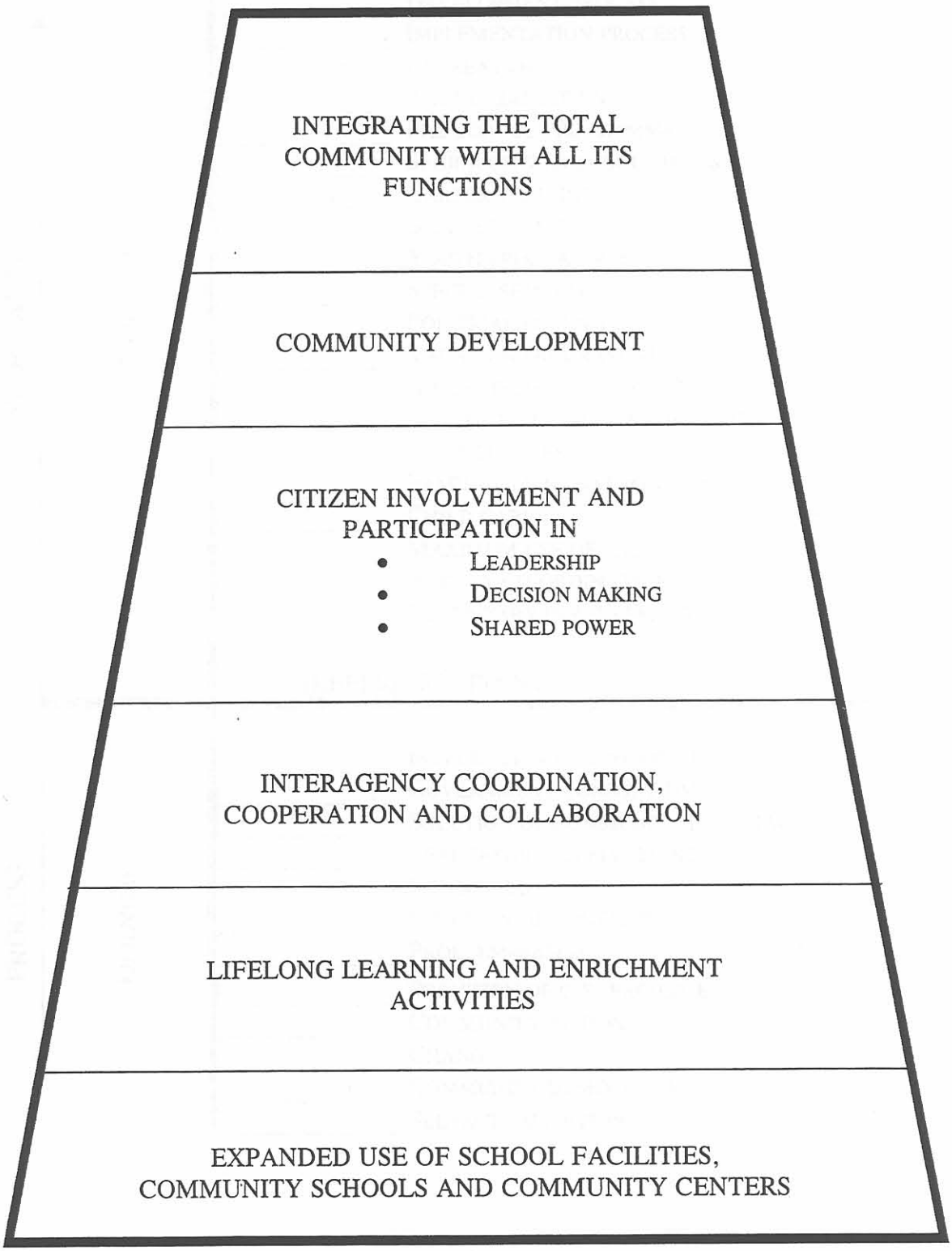
FIGURE 2.2

LEVELS OF PROGRESSION



assuring that learning continues for a lifetime and that adults are actively involved in school and community based learnings - for career retraining, development of leisure skills, aesthetic-cultural interests, and physical development and enjoyment.

Poster (1982:99) writes the following about the concept of community education: Community education is a concept that stresses an expanded role for public education and provides a dynamic approach to individual and community improvement.

Community education implies the development of a comprehensive and co-ordinated delivery system for providing educational, recreational, social and cultural services for all people in a community.

Clark (1977:5-8) delved deeper into the concept of community education, and eventually indicated some misconceptions with regard to this concept:

- Community education is defined as the after school and evening programme endeavours of school systems and/or community colleges: The school is open after hours for the use of members of all ages of the community. This is an important aspect of the concept, however, it forms merely a small part of the total concept.

- Community schools and community education are synonymous: The community school focuses upon the school as a centre for various educational experiences. The community education concept focuses primarily upon the community as the source and centre of education, upon all its relevant institutions, agencies and organisations and on the people of the community. The school becomes essentially a place for co-operative planning of significant educational experiences in the community and for their reporting and evaluation.

  In the education-centered community, contrasted to the community-centered school, teaching is an aspect of many kinds of life activities rather than an

exclusive, specialised occupation carried on primarily in educational facilities.

- Community education is a vehicle to deliver various forms of compensatory education designed to meet the specific needs of community members:

  Community education is not only for milieu-deprived communities but for all the members of the community that can benefit by lifelong educational activities. Community education is par excellence appropriate for milieu-deprived communities.

- Community education is a new concept, recently developed and enunciated: The current American concept of community education has developed out of three centuries of experience with schools and with non-school agencies that have performed various educational functions for the people of communities.

Clark (1977:5-6) further made an analysis of seven of the most popular definitions of **community education** to determine some common denominators:

- Community education is a philosophical concept which can be put into operation.
- Community education is not restricted to elementary and secondary school education.
- The purpose of community education is to serve the entire community, regardless of the age of potential participants or the nature of the learning experiences desired.
- Community member involvement in educational decision-making.
- The importance of interagency co-operation and co-ordination.
- Community education emphasizes community problem-solving by the efficient utilisation of all community resources - human, physical and financial.
- Educational curricula, programmes and services should be life-centered.

Epstein (1980:iii) emphasizes the fact that community education will meet the needs and solve the problems of the community when stating that:
"Community education can be a factor in restoring public confidence in the schools. Community involvement, which is essential to community education, can result in more effective schools for both the traditional users of the schools and the expanded community of participants... by meeting the needs and solving the problems of the community, community education can make the community a better place in which to live."

With regard to the nature of community education Poster (1982:96) comments as follows:

"Community education is a simple concept. Basically it is a return to the 'little red school house'. The little red school house was, first of all, a meeting place for all social, recreational and governmental activities. It was a place identified with by all ages and groups. People had a good feeling about the school. This good feeling can once again become a reality under the Community Education Process. Under this process the community is brought together under one umbrella."

Witty (1967:264) asserts that in essence community education is construed to mean the very essence of living with fellow men, not a classroom operation alone. Rather, it is individuals connected with other individuals by an infinite number of relationships, crossing and recrossing. In this sense, learning does not start and stop when school bells ring, but continues for life.

With regard to the nature of community education Cohen and Brawer (1982:251-52) put forth the idea that community education covers a wide range of forms of activity:
"Community education covers a wide range. It may take the form of classes for credit or not for credit, varying in duration from one hour to a weekend, several days, or an entire school term. Community education may be sponsored by the college, by some other agency using college facilities, or jointly by the college and some outside group.
It may be provided on campus, off campus, or through television, the newspapers, or

radio. It may center on education or recreation, on programs for personal interest or for the good of the entire community.... The college would be a link among all community organizations that provide any sort of learning activities. Among these are radio and television stations, newspapers, libraries, museums, schools, colleges, theatres, parks, orchestras, dance groups, unions and clubs".

Brookfield (1983:8,67,76-77) emphasizes the fact that the identification of community needs is essential in the community education process when stating the following:

- it is school based and centres on the twin notions of using school resources for individual and community improvement and on using the community as a teaching aid or learning resource
- community education can comprise a programme which satisfies the needs of all members of a community at any one time
- the process of identification of community needs so that the community and its members can grow through social and educational programmes.

Allen et al (1987:19) give the following descriptions in connection with the nature of community education:

"1. Community education is about the accessibility of education to everyone so that people can achieve a fuller and more rewarding life. People need to be involved in controlling more of their lives, making decisions through discussion and debate.

2. Community education is about modifying the existing education system to the benefit of those who are considered disadvantaged or deprived. Its aim is to give people who 'miss out' a better deal.

3. Community education is about acting in solidarity with those people in society who have least power, enabling them to analyse their situation and to achieve political change. Power to the people!"

From the foregoing views with regard to the **nature of community education** the following deductions can be made:

- community education is a systematic way of looking at people and their problems
- it is a process that promotes the maximal use of school facilities, study and the rendering of support in seeking out solutions to community problems
- its two main aspects are process and programmes
- in the community education context it is emphasized that needs assessment must be co-operatively planned and executed
- in the community education context the development of a comprehensive and co-ordinated delivery system for providing educational, recreational, social and cultural services for all people in a community is encouraged
- it is a vehicle for the delivery of various forms of compensatory education designed to meet the specific needs of community members
- it is a philosophical concept which can be put into operation
- it serves the entire community regardless of the age of potential participants or the nature of the learning experiences desired
- community education restores public confidence in schools.

Based on the preceeding investigation, it is evident that community education, as a process, consists of a number of programmes resulting from this process, in an educational or social milieu, in which opportunities are created for people to gauge their needs, to identify their problems and to seek out solutions.

2.2.3 THE AIMS OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION

It is interesting to note that the aims of community education differ from those of the existing education system, as will be seen in the following discussion.

Writers on community education give differing views pertaining to the aims, goals or objectives of community education. However, all seem to agree that at the end of the day community education should serve or address learning needs of communities.

Boucouvalas (Brookfield, 1983:67) points out that community education should aim at identifying and satisfying the needs of community members when he states the following:
"...the ultimate goal of community education is the development of self-guiding, self-directed communities which are able to identify and satisfy the needs of all their community members through co-ordination, co-operation, and collaboration of all community resources".

Minzey and Le Tarte (Brookfield, 1983:79) emphasize the fact that in the community education context the needs and problems of individuals and the community must be identified when they write that:
"...the ultimate goal of community education is to develop a process by which members of a community learn to work together to identify problems and to seek out solutions to these problems".

Peacock (1980:97) gives the following view which places emphasis on improving the quality of life:
"... community education is not an end in itself. It has the broad objectives of improving the quality of social life, providing equal life opportunities for all ..."

Nishimoto (1980:70) formulates the following aim of community education:
"The primary aim of community education ... is to help each individual, man, woman and youth make the best of life. By helping individuals, community education activities thus cover all forms of betterment required by the community."

Epstein (1980:9) emphasizes the fact that the identification of the needs of individuals and groups is important in community education when he puts forth the following

essential goals of community education:

- Identification of the needs, wants, and desires of individuals and groups
- Identification of the human and physical resources of the community
- Development of a co-operative relationship among institutions, agencies, organisations, and groups, resulting in the unduplicated expansion of programmes and services toward meeting identified needs of communities.

Epstein (1980:14) further reveals that in the early seventies, the major objectives of community education were seen as two-fold:
"... the development of individuals to the limits of their capacities, and ...the development of the community to improve the quality of living therein".

Seay et al (1974:100-104) present the following objectives of community education:

- **Social objectives**

  Society expects that the various educational agencies will carry out the following functions:

  Transmitting culture, social reform, discovering new knowledge, rehabilitation of deviant individuals, making children into adults, individualisation, child care (whilst parents are working), sex education, controlling the labour supply, relating the individual to society, relating the individual to his physical environment, education of norms and values, etc.

- **Community objectives**

  Utilising resources to help people learn to solve problems that are common to them, for example, unemployment, the provision of recreation and the combating of crime.

- **Agency objectives**

  These objectives include the following:

  Institutional functions of schools and colleges, providing for educational needs (for example career training).

- **Learner objectives**

  This includes: complying with compulsory education (children and youth), becoming more socialised, becoming more individualised, reducing personal uncertainties, and career guidance.

According to Nisbet et al (1980:29-30) the basic philosophy underlying community education is to enable and encourage the community to participate as fully as possible in education in its widest sense. This philosophy includes the following objectives:

"(a) ensuring community buildings are used by a wide cross section of the community and that the community is involved in the operation of buildings, so that buildings are identified as 'theirs'.

(b) helping the community in the self education process by 'teasing out interests, then showing them opportunities'

(c) encouraging the community to participate in and influence the formal school system. 'Getting people to look at education themselves and to make their own decisions about it'

(d) helping people to see education as much more than schooling; to be aware of it as a life-long process".

Based on the Scottish Working Party on Professional Training for Community Education, Poster (1982:213) puts an emphasis on the ascertainment and assessment of community needs when he writes that:

"Community education has the following broad general aims:

(a) to involve people, as private individuals and as members of groups and communities, irrespective of age and circumstances, in the ascertainment and assessment of their needs for opportunities to

  (i) discover and pursue interests;

  (ii) acquire and improve knowledge and skills;

  (iii) recognise their personal identities and aspirations;

  (iv) develop satisfactory inter-personal relationships;

(v) achieve competence in their roles within the family, the community and society as a whole; and

(vi) participate in the shaping of their physical and social environment and in the conduct of local and national affairs;

(b) to seek to meet these ascertained needs in the most appropriate settings with the co-operation of individuals and groups and by identifying and deploying educational resources, wherever they may reside".

Other authors also give the following aim-formulations of community education:

- Decker et al (1988:xiii): "The ultimate goal is to provide a responsive, community based support system for collective action among all educational and community agencies to address educational concerns, current quality-of-life issues of all citizens, and specialised needs".

- Bloomer and Shaw (1979:29): "... the primary aim of community education is to help each individual, man and woman, the youth, to the best of life. By helping the individuals, community education covers all forms of betterment required by the community".

- According to Wedemeyer (1981:55) "...the aim of community education is to promote lifelong learning. This is evident when he states that:
"... the task of community education is to educate nearly all our citizens beyond the high school level to recognize that education is no longer terminal and that, for substantial numbers, education must be continuous throughout life for them to cope with the rapidity of change".

Community education involves outside education agencies in order to assist with community learning and development. In his argument, Peterson (1990:112) writes the following:

"Community education fosters a concern for education among these groups and agencies outside the school by actively involving them in the educational process itself. This would result in the facilitation of development of more realistic vocational goals. It would also help the people in ascertaining what positive role they can play towards the general welfare of the society and the resolution of their problems".

Fletcher et al (1980:177-78) identify the following as 'goals' for community education:

"1. to encourage a pleasant, enjoyable and more meaningful recreation.
2. to broaden the quality of life of the participants.
3. to fit people for jobs and prepare them for better jobs.
4. to facilitate social change, to give the people back what is theirs, to redistribute in favour of the lower paid; to advantage the manifestly disadvantaged."

Pretorius (1990a:516-517) gives a summary of the aims of community education:

- educating the individual (individualization, socialization, self-actualization)
- adapting and expanding formal, non-formal and informal educational opportunities
- fulfilling human needs (basic needs as well as learning needs)
- to provide a community-based system for collective action by educational and community agencies
- to generate the learning society (to facilitate maximal participation of community members in educational activities)
- to develop self-directed individuals and communities that are able to identify their own needs and to fulfil those needs by co-ordinating community resources - this means self-help and self-education by members of the community
- the socio-economic development of the community (Community Development), and the accompanying improvement in quality of life
- the solution of community problems
- job training and job placement

- enjoyable and meaningful recreation
- to improve the situation of Third World individuals and communities.

On the basis of the above-mentioned formulations, the **aims of community education** can be summarized as follows:

- identifying and satisfying the needs of community members
- development of self-guiding, self-directed communities
- community members learn to work together to identify problems and to seek out solutions to these problems
- improving the quality of social life
- providing equal life opportunities for all
- identification of the human and physical resources of the community
- fulfilling human needs (basic needs as well as learning needs)
- adapting and expanding formal, non-formal and informal educational opportunities
- enjoyable and meaningful recreation
- job training and job placement
- educating the individual (individualization, socialization, self-actualization).

From the preceeding discussions on the aims of community education, it is apparent that these aims, objectives or goals are interdependent. As individuals develop they contribute to the improvement of the community, and individuals can develop by being involved in efforts to improve the community.

2.2.4 COMPONENTS OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION

Communities are indeed different. Each community has its own needs and problems, its own resources, and its unique ways of functioning. Community education is therefore different in each community. There are, however, some elements, components or characteristics considered essential to community education, no matter how they may

be modified or adapted to any particular community.

Epstein (1980:9) identifies eight components that should be part of community education:

- Humanization.
- Individualization.
- Community participation in planning and decision making.
- Open school concept.
- Cradle to grave education.
- People serving functions.
- Co-ordinated cultural/educational/recreational/social services.
- Increased options.

Epstein (1980:8-9) further identifies eight minimum elements which should serve as requirements for a community education programme but at the same time emphasizes systematic and effective procedures for identifying community needs:

(i) School involvement - provides for the direct and substantial involvement of a public elementary or secondary school in the administration and operation of the programme.

(ii) Community served - serves an identified community, in most cases co-extensive with the attendance area of the school.

(iii) Public facility as a community center - concentrates services primarily in a specific public facility.

(iv) Scope of activities and services - extends the activities and services offered by, and the uses made of, the public facility. For example, where a school is the community centre, the concept encompasses the regular instructional programme but also provides additional programmes, activities, and services.

(v) Community needs - includes systematic and effective procedures for identifying, documenting, and responding to - on a continuing basis - the needs, interests, and concerns of the community.

(vi) Community resources and inter agency co-operative arrangements - identifies

and uses to the fullest extent the possible educational, cultural, recreational, and other existing and planned resources outside of the school; encourages and uses co-operative arrangements among public and private agencies to make maximum use of talents and resources and avoid duplication of services.

(vii) Programme clients - serves all age groups as well as groups with special needs not adequately served by existing programmes in the community.

(viii) Community participation - provides for the active and continuous involvement, on an advisory basis, of institutions, groups, and individuals in planning and carrying out the programme, including assessment of needs and evaluations.

Pretorius (1990a:517-519) presents the following summary of the components, basic elements or characteristics of community education:

(i) **A community-based system for co-ordinated, collective action by educational and community agencies**

Community education is actualised in a given community in the form of a **system** in which the key events are **co-ordination, co-operation and communication**, for the sake of the maximal and effective utilization of available human, physical and financial resources. This system is based in the community learning centre, where the Director of community education functions as professional educational leader in the community. The system also comprises the establishment of educational partnerships between educational agencies, service agencies and the business and industrial sectors.

(ii) **Life-long education and learning**

Learning experiences are not limited to part of an individual's life. Community education provides for community members of all age groups, sectors, backgrounds and needs - the emphasis is on generating **the learning society**, on learning as a continuous, life-long process for all learners.

(iii) **Community involvement**

Community members are intensely involved in identifying needs, decision-making, planning and management with regard to providing education and solving problems in the community. This is achieved by means of representative bodies (e.g. community advisory councils) that work in close collaboration with professional personnel.

(iv) **Maximal utilization of community resources**

The school and the community share their resources, e.g. an existing school is utilized as community learning centre and community service centre. School and community use each other's sports grounds, libraries, halls, workshops, etc.

(v) **Community-oriented curricula**

The presentation of community-related subject matter or learning material results in

- the development of the community
- improving quality of life
- providing for human needs
- relevant (life-centred) education

(vi) **Community development**

The emphasis is on identifying and solving community problems, and on identifying and utilizing resources in development strategies, community projects, etc.

In view of the insights obtained up to now the **components of community education** can be summarized as follows:

- a community-based system for co-ordinated, collective action by educational and community agencies
- life-long education and learning

- community involvement
- maximal utilization of community resources
- community-oriented curricula
- community development.

2.2.5 INFRASTRUCTURE OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION

The infrastructure that is essential for the implementation of the community education concept in any given community will receive attention in the following discussion.

Pretorius (1990a:519) states that the infrastructure for community education in a given community includes a community learning centre, a Director/Co-ordinator of community education, advisory councils and community resources:

(a) **A community learning centre**

With regard to the community learning centre, Epstein (1980:30) gives the following comments: "It is a generous estimate to say that school buildings... are used about 18 percent of the time. There stand all those structures... expensive to build, expensive to maintain... closed in the afternoon, at night, on weekends, and in the summer. There stands the largest single investment of local funds, used for a few hours a day during ...the year".

Following the above idea it is important to note that buildings existing in communities are not fully utilized for educational purposes. It is therefore imperative that such structures (particularly school buildings) be utilized fruitfully for the education of communities.

(b) **A Director/Co-ordinator of Community Education**

According to Pretorius (1990a:520) community education provides for the appointment of a Director/Co-ordinator of community education. He is the trained expert, educational leader, manager and planner, who in collaboration with one or more advisory councils and his personnel has to implement the community education concept and co-ordinate the community education process. His functions include the following: diagnostic function (assessing needs), organisational function, planning function, training function, and evaluative function.

The Director/Co-ordinator of community education is advised by Community Advisory Councils.

(c) **Advisory Councils**

Pretorius (1990a:520) stresses the importance of identifying community needs and problems when he asserts that community advisory councils create an opportunity for the members of the community to become involved in the following activities:

- advising with regard to programmes, policy, etc.
- identifying needs and problems
- decision-making with regard to educational provision
- planning, operating and evaluating educational programmes
- solving problems
- identifying, mobilizing and utilizing the resources of the community.
- implementing action and learning programmes.

Pretorius (1990a:520-21) adds that:
"In this way community needs, community development, cultural traditions, local conditions, manpower needs, etc. are taken into account - this is relevant education!"

According to Kelly (1982:236) the advisory councils comprise of:

- community organisation specialists of social services;
- community college specialists;
- community school co-ordinators;
- community directors;
- responsible citizens; and
- lay leaders involved in community councils.

In addition, Kelly (1982:236) asserts that:
"It is in the advisory council where a cross-sectional representation of a community's concerned citizenry can be best organised, lend credibility to decisions concerning education and development, assure that these decisions are pertinent to local situations, provide the means for the creative involvement of citizen leaders, help prevent institutions from dictating the scope and direction of community education programmes".

(d) **Community resources**

The success of any community education programme also relies on the proper utilization of the community resources at its disposal.

According to Pretorius (1990a:521)" ...each community has at its disposal unique human, physical and financial resources which must be utilized optimally to enrich and expand learning opportunities, e.g. community members with job skills can train other members, school facilities, sports fields, libraries, workshops, etc".

In line with Pretorius, Taylor (1988:7) expatiates on the human, physical and financial resources in the following manner:

"In every community live many persons with job skills, hobby skills, and other special interests of many kinds. There will also be people from various walks of life, different cultures, varied ethnic and religious backgrounds. Many would enjoy being involved and

acting as resource persons, sharing their talents and experiences with others."

Taylor (1988:7) further states that, maximum utilisation of physical resources is basic to community education. All school facilities, equipment, furniture, chalkboards, gymnasiums, and athletic fields are jointly owned by the community stockholders: taxpayers and community members. The physical resources of schools (public schools, community colleges, universities, etc) have been developed, built, and paid for by community members to meet their identified learning needs. It is time to recognise this fact and to break away from the tradition of utilising them too little for so few, when they could be used so much by many.

In relation to the financial aspect with regard to the infrastructure for community education, Taylor (1988:7) writes that in order to maximise the effective use of limited funds, it is essential for all educationally oriented institutions, agencies, and organisations to work closely together, complement one another, cost-share at times, and work together toward the mutual goal of providing the best services for the total money available. It is essential for community agencies to perceive community members, rather than institutions, as the ultimate source of all revenue for public agencies and as the primary focus.

From the preceeding description of the **infrastructure for community education** the following deductions can be made: An infrastructure for community education must include:

- a community learning centre
- a co-ordinator of community education
- advisory councils
- community resources.

2.2.6 AGENCIES OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION

The agencies of community education are imperative for the implementation of the

community education concept, as will be evident in the following motivation:

According to Seay et al (1974:68) the following can be identified as mutual components of educational agencies:

- Learners
- People helping the learners
- Learning objectives
- Facilities
- Resources
- A structure in which people can communicate
- Communication with the outside-world.

Verduin et al (1984:77) give the following examples of educational agencies:

- Libraries: Serving as centres of programme information, counselling and referral
- Y.M.C.A and Y.W.C.A: Providing for additional facilities and staff
- Museums and art councils: Supporting citizen involvement in community development
- Commercial enterprises: Providing for instructional opportunities for adults
- Public agencies: Providing for education in general

The school is not the only agency of community education. It is the primary educational agency. The total spectrum of agencies of community education includes the following (cf. Seay et al, 1974:70-76):

(i) **Agencies of informal education**

- The self (learning by doing, self-teaching, self-directed learning);
- The family;
- Social groups (for example play-group, club, career group);
- Personal means (conversation, questions and answers, photos, slides, diaries, letters, family documents);

(ii) **Agencies of non-formal education**

- The mass media (books, newspapers, magazines, church services, political and civic meetings, records, tapes, radio, television, billboards) (can also be used for formal and informal education);
- Catechism schools of churches;
- Youth service groups (for example youth movements);
- Armed forces (for example army training);
- Special governmental programmes (for example the training of a workers corps);
- State institutions (training for specific careers, for example police, meteorology);
- Civic and cultural centres: art centres, museums, theatres, libraries, concert halls;
- Social organisations: service and professional organisations, workers unions, prisons, welfare organizations;
- In-service training programmes;
- Special needs "schools", for example chicken farming, flying school, hotel school, bible school, writing school, business school; and
- Correspondence colleges.

(iii) **Agencies of formal education**

- Schools
- Private schools
- Career - and technical institutions (tertiary level), for example technikons, technical colleges, teacher training colleges, agricultural colleges, nursing colleges
- Community colleges (the USA)
- Private colleges
- Universities.

There is a wide variety of educational agencies in every community that can be utilised by learners, and it is the task of the community education leader to co-ordinate the functioning of these educational agencies:

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"...most community education leaders follow the belief that any community should use all of its educational agencies to foster individuality while helping individuals to recognise their commonality; to help all its citizens learn to identify and solve common problems; ... community education particularly, would use every educational agency in a community - recognising the school system as often the largest and most important educational agency of the group. The concept is a comprehensive one... The community education concept is leading the way in the development of a process that promises to help all people of a given community learn more effectively and more efficiently than has been possible with unco-ordinated community educational resources" (Seay et al, 1974:80-81).

2.2.7 EDUCATIONAL PROVISIONS OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION

It is important to note that community education has certain educational provisions. These educational provisions of community education will be dealt with in the following discussion.

Epstein (1980:23) writes the following with regard to the educational provisions of community education: "Community education usually begins with some programs that expand the offerings of schools and other community agencies, perhaps adult education, after-school recreation, health or social services provided on school premises. As it evolves into a process by which the community identifies and meets its own needs, though, it changes the entire structure of communication, decision making and power in the school system and the community as a whole".

According to Boone et al (1981:232) the concept of **community education** extends further to the concept of **community education for development.** They represent the following as needs and interests of socially disadvantaged individuals and population groups, and also suggest the mode of education through which each of the needs can be met (see Figure 2.3).

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FIGURE 2.3

COMMUNITY EDUCATION FOR DEVELOPMENT (CED)

NEEDS AND INTERESTS		MODES OF EDUCATION	
Political subjects	Government Law/Legal matters Crime prevention Community Leadership International affairs	**Formal**	Socialization Citizenship training Career preparation Intellectual development Basic skills Credentialing
Culture	Arts forums Festivals Crafts Community theatre History Human relations Ethos (Philosophical, Spiritual)	**Non-formal**	Continuing education Apprenticeships and On-the-job training Community problem-solving and development Projects regarding needs and interests of special groups
Economics	Home management Industrial development Business and commerce Employment Occupational training Career education Consumer economics	**Informal**	Family life "Neighboring" Community events Social groups
Health	Sanitation Family planning Nutrition Physical fitness First aid Preventive medicine		

2.2.8 IMPLICATIONS OF THE COMMUNITY EDUCATION CONCEPT

The community education concept has certain implications which are meaningful. The following section will elaborate on the implications of the community education concept.

According to Seay et al (1974:3-11) community education is the fastest growing educational concept (for example in the USA):
Community education implies programmes for the whole community and creates a transition from a school-centered concept, to a comprehensive community-centered concept, the operation of which contributes to the solving of social, economic, cultural and educational problems, with co-operation between authorities, educationalists, the public and the business and industrial sectors. This implies further that "education" is not synonymous with "schooling" - education is a lifelong chain of events of which the school only forms a part.

Seay et al (1974:3-11) further emphasize the importance of identifying needs, problems, solutions, positions and principles that apply to community education when they indicate the following implications of the community education concept:

- Urban and rural communities want to better their situations and foster high expectations of education in this respect.

- Community education implies that:
  - **community resources** must be utilised to fulfil
  - **community needs** and to solve
  - **community problems**

- As educational leaders implement and research community programmes, new positions are created, for example:
  - the post of Director of Community Education
  - the post of community education co-ordinator

- staff members of community education development centres
- staff members of education departments
- personnel of universities, etc.

o The quality of life of individuals and communities is threatened by increasingly complex problems such as pollution, depleted sources of energy, misused leisure, unemployment, scarcities of natural resources, welfare needs, racism, international differences, governmental inefficiency, and the problems of food, shelter and clothing for everyone - the three "old timers" among the problems of local communities.

o The following are the principles that apply to community education:

- learning activities must be directed at problem-solving
- education is a continuous process and cannot be confined within fixed administrative divisions
- service to the entire community, not merely to the children of school age
- the identification, development, and utilization of the resources of the community.

According to Kowalski (1987:52) the concept of community education has the following implications:

- It is a process (a method to mobilise a community in connection with its needs, problems, etc)
- It is a product (the actual educational programmes presented)
- It has a philosophical basis (generating of values directed at co-operative efforts of the school and the community)
- The part the school plays as primary educational agency, catalyst and focus point of community education.

2.2.9 IMPLICATIONS WITH REGARD TO THE OPERATING OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION

The importance of continuous identification of community needs is further highlighted by Seay et al (1974:12) when writing that community education is a process that includes the following steps:

* continuous determining of the educational needs of the community
* continuous planning of educational provisions
* continuous adjustment of the offerings of all the various educational agencies in the community
* a programme must be dropped when the need for it no longer exists
* the establishment of specific educational provisions for specific education needs.

Adult education (lifelong education, continuous education), as well as schooling for the young, are part of community education. "Community education must be articulated horizontally to meet the needs of all people at a given time as well as vertically to meet the progressive needs of each individual" (Seay et al, 1974:13).

With regard to the operating of community education the implication is that the school with its buildings forms part of many educational agencies in every community that have legitimate educational aims - and that each agency has a right to serve and be served. The school is important, and because of its great resources of human talent and physical facilities, is most often the catalystic agent which takes the leadership role in establishing the organisational and administrative structure that is necessary for community-wide planning and co-ordination (Seay et al, 1974:13).

Community education implies an organisation that implements a plan for the education of the community in which representatives of the community are involved.

According to Seay et al (1974:14-15) the operation of community education programmes includes the following activities:

- programme-development to provide in the needs of the people
- not only must staff members of the school and educational agencies be involved in the planning and initiation of programmes, but also the "users" of the programme, namely the learners
- programmes must commence with specifically formulated goals
- the responsibilities of individuals, the school and other educational agencies must be laid down specifically
- goals and responsibilities must be communicated to all members of the community
- a record must be kept of the development of each programme
- the status and relationship of the school towards other educational agencies must regularly be evaluated in conjunction with the evaluation of programme goals
- problems, needs and interests differ from community to community; thus a model for a specific community cannot be transferred to another community
- as communities differ with regard to educational agencies, no standard model for the involvement of educational agencies exists
- when new educational needs arise, the established educational agencies in the community accept responsibility, or a special organisational and administrative structure (consisting of one or more educational agencies) must plan and implement the educational programmes
- the community education concept implies making provision for all lifelong educational needs and the use of resources of all educational agencies - with a better quality of life as the end result.

From the preceeding discussion on **implications with regard to the operating of community education** the following synthesis can be made:

- continuous determining of the educational needs of the community.
- meet the needs of individual and group members in a community.
- each agency has a right to serve and be served.
- goals and responsibilities must be communicated to all members of the

community.

- record keeping of programme development is essential.
- each community has unique needs, hence programmes will differ.

2.2.10 COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

It is necessary to investigate the community development aspect of the community education concept, since community development cannot be divorced from community education as will be seen in the following discussion.

Community education implicitly embraces community development. Community development is therefore essential in this study since it forms part of the concept of community education and is basically geared at developing communities.

Nisbet et al (1980:108) define **community development** as "an educational process based on local problem solving by collective action aimed at selfchosen change."

Edwin (1977:10) states the following with regard to the development of the community:

"Community development covers all forms of development activity in the field and has been described as a movement to secure the active co-operation of the people of each community in programmes designed to raise the standard of living and to promote development in all its forms ...community development thus covers all the forms of betterment required by the community in the areas in which its members reside".

Coles (1977:10) further explains that the term **community development** is used to describe adult learning through community involvement and action, and as a movement to secure the active co-operation of the people of each community in programmes designed to raise the standard of living and to promote development in all its forms.

The above writers seem to put an emphasis on improving the standard of living, as part of community development.

In his definition, Compton (1971:384) simplifies community development to, "People participating in the improvement of their lot".

Coles (1969:23) says: "Community development covers all forms of development activity and has been described as ... a movement to secure the active participation and co-operation of all the people of each community in programmes designed to raise the standard of living and to promote development in all forms".

Brookfield (1983:89) puts forth the idea of a well developed community when he writes that:
"Education of the community and community development are equivalent to the extent that they are both based on preferences regarding the form of a good, healthy, fully-developed community".

Community development therefore cannot occur in a vacuum and it is guided by aims. In the same note, Poster (1982:172) writes that: "Community development ... is concerned ... with going forward to defined goals, with purposeful activity aimed at real achievement".

"The curriculum of the school, and in particular that of the community school is clearly an important possible medium for learning the skills and concepts of community development: the identification of local problems, the planning of the purpose and direction of change and of subsequent collective action ... The pattern is first to identify a problem (e.g the existence of elderly or lonely people in the community): second, to decide on the kind of change wanted (gifts, outings, help at home): and third, to plan a strategy for action (fund-raising, visits)" (Nisbet et al, 1980:109).

With regard to community development, Pretorius (1990a:518) remarks as follows: "In community development the emphasis is on identifying and solving community problems, and on identifying and utilising resources in development strategies, community projects, etc".

On the basis of the above-mentioned definitions and descriptions the concept of **community development** can be summarized as follows:

- community development is based on local problem solving by collective action
- community development secures the active co-operation of the people of each community
- with community development, programmes are designed to raise the standard of living
- community development promotes development in all its forms
- community development is concerned with the active participation of all people
- community development has defined goals, with purposeful activity
- community development involves identification of local problems
- in community development the emphasis is on utilising resources.

2.2.11 COMMUNITY LEARNING CENTRE

The need for an infrastructure to ensure effective community education cannot be over-emphasized. This infrastructure for community education in a given community must include a **community learning centre.**

Kamper (1987:2) describes a community learning centre as follows:
An educational institution which (ideally speaking) is under the control of the local community, using its own buildings and/or already existing facilities in the community (especially those of schools) for delivering a highly adaptable education and training service, based on the particular needs of the (members of the) local community.

In the community education context it is possible for a school or college in a community to be transformed into a community learning centre:

"Different schools will come up with new and innovative ways to make it work, but often the school becomes a community center, where activities extend far beyond the traditional school day and calendar year. An added bonus is that such programs go far in convincing the community where the schools exist that the system they represent is worthy of support" (Decker et al, 1988:34).

Pretorius (1990a:519) writes the following with regard to a community learning centre: "A school (or community college - USA) with all its facilities is transformed into a community learning centre, which is controlled by the local community (the community school concept). The rationale is that schools and their facilities are underutilized - they are only used by one age group (children), and only for a part of weekdays during certain periods of the year. The ideal is that such schools should be open more or less full-time; that they will be used by adult learners as well; that the school will become the real centre of the community".

With regard to the functions of the community learning centre, Teather (1982:93) writes that the centre brings the learning programmes to public notice, counsels and enrols students, assists the staff in the presentation of their courses, etc.

Pretorius (1990a:519) further emphasizes the importance of the community learning centre in providing for community education programmes when he states that the community learning centre serves as operational centre for providing educational and social services and for co-ordinating the provisions of educational and service agencies by means of a communication network that is based in the community learning centre.

This becomes the centre for pre-school education, enrichment programmes, adult education programmes (including literacy programmes and job training), community counselling, recreation, etc.

The community learning centre functions in a given community as:

Community - educational centre
counselling centre
service centre
development centre
job training centre
manpower centre
project centre
action centre

The preceeding ideas of different writers indicate clearly that the existing community resources in the form of buildings can be utilised as community learning centres.

From the foregoing discussions with regard to the **community learning centre** the following deductions can be made:

- it is a centre where activities extend far beyond the traditional school day and calendar year
- it is part of an infrastructure used to deliver highly relevant education and training programmes based on the needs of the community members
- in this centre co-ordination, co-operation and communication with regard to the operation of the community education programmes are the key events
- it is an operational centre for providing educational and social services.

2.2.12 THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL CONCEPT

In any given community there are usually one or more school buildings that are readily available as part of the infrastructure. Unfortunately, these schools and facilities are presently under-utilised and this is where the community school concept features. The basic idea is that these schools which are under-utilised could be fully utilised by adult learners, out of school youth and any needy member of the community.

In the history of community education and in the present practice the community school concept assumes a central place. The rationale is that schools and their facilities (e.g sportsgrounds) are acutely underutilized - they are only utilized by one age group (children) and only for some part of weekdays and for certain periods/times of the year. The ideal is that such schools should be more or less accessible for the whole day; that adults should also use them; that the school is the core of the community; that the school complex, theatres, sport and recreational, library, health centres, churches, etc, should comply; that the school should be a real community learning centre (Nisbet et al, 1980:1).

With regard to the community school concept Brookfield (1983:76) presents the following statement: "...the school could function as a major instrument of community development and as an instrument for social change ... community education (is) the concept and the community school (is) the delivery system for that concept".

Decker et al (1988:xi) point out that community schools belong to the community when stating that:
"When community education is used to guide home/school/commuity involvement efforts, the schools are operated with a commitment to the idea that they belong to the community. Professional community educators are trained in enlisting community involvement and often provide inservice for administrators and teachers to increase their community involvement skills. Community school programs, based on a variety of involvement relationships and activities among schools, parents, students, businesses and industry, local organizations, and community members, are the catalyst that can turn traditional schools into lifelong learning centers".

Cowburn (1986:206) emphasizes the relationship between the school and the community when stating the following: "... the aim of the community school is to foster a concern and dynamic relationship between the school and the community through closer

interaction between the two ... to foster a concern for education among groups and agencies outside the school by actively involving them in the education process itself ... this includes facilitating the transition from school to work and the development of more realistic vocational goals".

Community schools are meant for educative purposes. This idea is supported by Seay et al (1974:202) when writing that: "A community school ... involves an educative process by which the resources of a community are related to the needs and interests of the people. A key phrase in this statement is 'an educative process' ... The community school of today secures its impetus from man's new understanding of the power of education. Problems of people and of communities are being solved from day to day by appropriate use of community resources. The educative process is the force which relates the resources to the needs. The result from this unique relationship is the solution of problems".

Griffin (1983:136) points out that schools are capable of building capacity in communities when he writes that: "The community schools, for example, surely constitute the capacity for reflecting the social construction of knowledge in a community and for an instrumental role in its transformation".

According to Witty (1967:325), "**Education as social capital** can do much to compensate for the experientially poor backgrounds of parents, for deprivation that results from early home experiences of under-privileged children, and for the lack of motivation of the educationally retarded and disadvantaged youth. To achieve these objectives, effective school-community relationships are indispensable".

With regard to the operational philosophy of the community school concept, Clark (1977:6) asserts that: "The operational philosophy of community education is based on the concept that learning is a lifelong process and that schools at all levels should help provide various kinds of learning experiences for community members of all ages. Educational institutions should not restrict their goals and programs to one small portion

of a person's life, but instead should recognize the significant roles they can play in providing lifelong learning opportunities".

On the basis of the above descriptions with regard to the **community school concept** it can be deduced that:

- the school with its facilities assumes a central place in the operation of community education
- the school is the delivery system for the community education concept
- the school involves an educative process.

2.2.13 THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

According to the National Institute for Community Education (NICE) conference report, "A community college is an education and training institution or group of institutions which provides education and training of defined and agreed levels (of the NQF) for a defined community with emphasis on meeting the needs of adults, workers and the post-compulsory age students (+-16 yrs), the community and other defined needs" (NICE, 1995:12-13).

In any given community, the community college could serve as a community learning centre which is necessary for the implementation of the community education concept. Community colleges can widen and at the same time supplement the tasks of community schools. Community college buildings will play an important role in the operation of community education programmes.

The community college concept is still at a developing stage in the Republic of South Africa. However, considerable progress is being made currently. In the near future a number of community colleges in the country will play a part in the operation of community education programmes.

According to Benda (1980:89) the nature and character of the community college can be described as follows:

- it is part of a state plan for higher education (the USA);
- has support from state funds;
- admits all students who can benefit from the programmes;
- is located in an area which allows a large community student population easy access;
- offers a wide variety of technical and semi-professional programmes;
- implements a comprehensive programme of service.

Cohen and Brawer (1982:257) view the characteristics of the community college as follows:

- the deliverer, because it provides post-secondary courses for those who want them;
- the convener, because it offers the use of its facilities;
- the planner, because it builds comprehensive plans to serve the community's health and training needs;
- co-ordinator, because it links other agencies; and
- collaborator, because it takes an active role on behalf of community issues.

In a conference report on community education in South Africa, Venter (1995:13-14) writes that:

"The community college concept is important because it is fundamentally democratic and it allows access to education. Its very name suggests that it is the linchpin of community decision-making processes and the people-driven approaches of the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP). Implicit in the concept is the demise of some of the hierarchies and statutes of institutions of the past. The community college concept is rooted in the principle that learners at different stages of the life-long learning process

learn together as a community, whether they take degree courses or literacy classes. The fact that it breaks down some of the entrenched values attached to qualifications for their own sake, and creates a culture of learning in a community itself, is vital".

At the above mentioned conference, Venter (1995:52) mentioned that: "... it is important to note that community colleges stand outside of the ... system as well. This is where people who have left school can re-engage in school and people who are illiterate can develop literacy skills".

It is clear that community colleges can fulfil very significant functions in community education, with regard to the learning needs of the people of the community especially with the development of literacy skills, numeracy skills, health matters, technological skills, etc. which form part of the needs of communities.

Cohen and Brawer (1982:257) compare the tasks and functions of community colleges as follows in relation to community education:

- **Collegiate functions**

  Collegiate education is directed towards preparing people for academic degrees, whereas community education may include regular college courses taken by adults, the awarding of college credit for experience and non-credit courses actually taught at college like conversational foreign language;

- **Career training**

  Career education is organised around programmes that prepare people for the job market, whereas community education includes short courses offered for occupational upgrading; and

- **Compensatory programmes**

  Compensatory education remedies the defects in student learning occasioned by prior school failure whereas community education may include adult basic studies that focus on literacy, high school completion and general educational development.

Harlacher (1971:324-5) writes the following about the community college concept: "It fills the educational gap between high schools and universities. Its primary purpose is to provide service to the people of its community. It thereby serves as a cultural centre and provides both formal and non formal educational services".

The NICE report (1995:13) further states that a community college should reflect the following features:

- open access
- democratic governance
- partnerships and co-operation
- flexible scheduling and delivery
- curriculum comprehensiveness
- network of community learning centres

The NICE report also gives an organogram of community colleges in a model form, which focuses on the access points to the community colleges (see Figure 2.4).

From the preceeding discussion on the **community college** the following synthesis can be made:

- it admits all students who can benefit from the programmes
- it serves as a link for other agencies of community education
- it creates a culture of learning in a community itself
- it is where people who have left school can re-engage in school activities based on their needs.

2.3 SYNTHESIS

In the present chapter the concept of community education was dealt with in detail. Through investigation of the literature, the researcher gained insight into the concept of community education. A review of literature on the concept of community education was done intensively and extensively, particularly with regard to the history, nature, aims,

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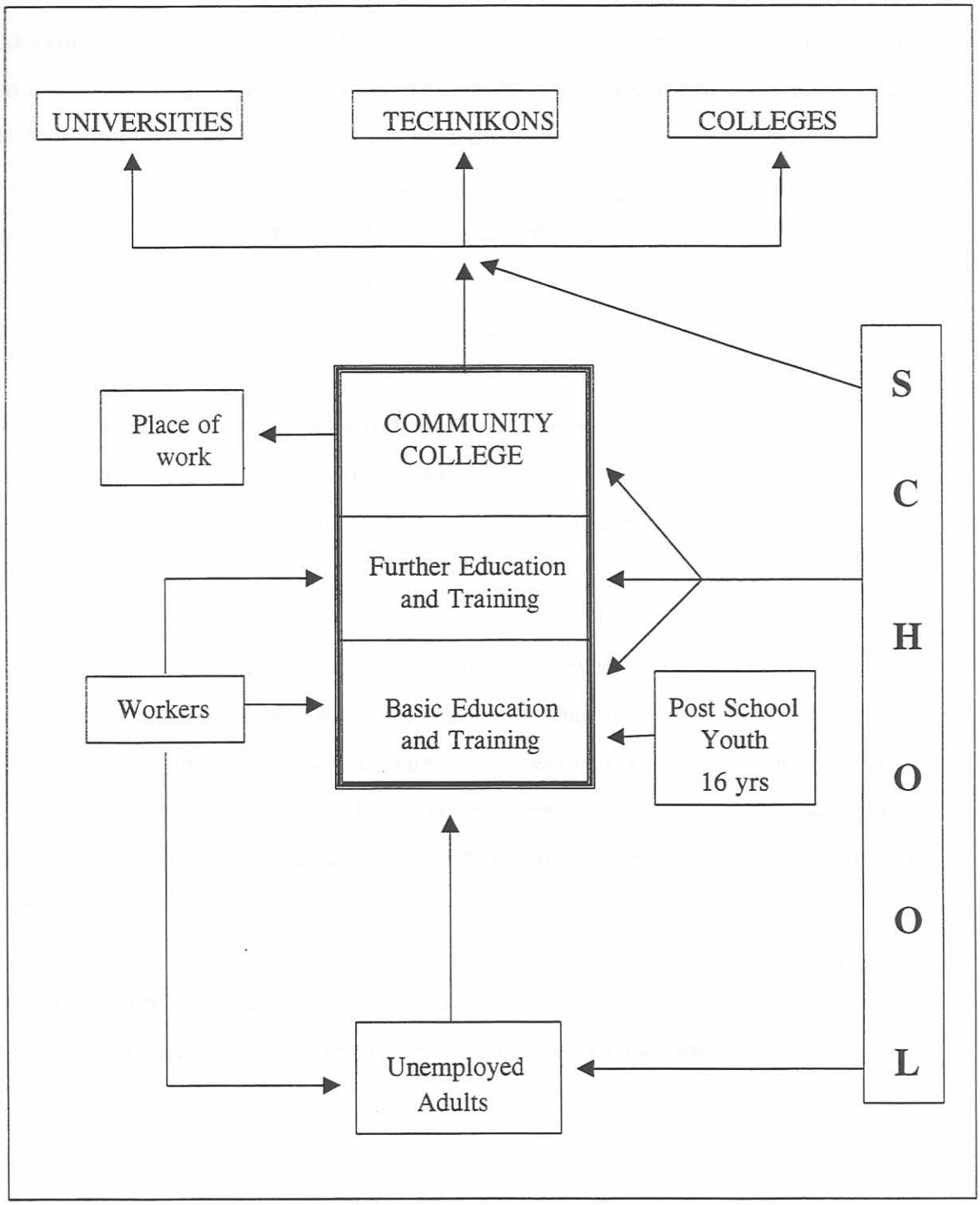
FIGURE 2.4

ORGANOGRAM: COMMUNITY COLLEGES



components, infrastructure, agencies, educational provisions and implications of the community education concept.

It was established that the community learning centre serves as the operational centre for providing educational and social services and for co-ordinating the provisions of educational and service agencies by means of a communication network. In a community education set-up, provision for the learning needs of individuals and communities leads to the improvement of quality of life, and the acquisition of a wide variety of skills, including occupational skills. In the present practice of community education, particularly in the Republic of South Africa, the community school serves as a community learning centre; the school and community are therefore involved with each other in addressing the needs and interests and solving problems of the community.

The community college concept is still developing, but in many communities it will soon play a significant role in the infrastructure for community education. By serving as community learning centres, community colleges can expand and supplement the tasks of community schools.

This chapter further illustrated that community development covers all forms of betterment required by the communities in which their members reside. Community Education for Development assists with the process of involving communities in the decision-making and problem-solving processes and promotes the public's awareness, understanding and appreciation of the Community Education for Development programme.

The understanding of the concept of community education has now paved the way for Chapter 3, which will focus attention on the community education process.

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CHAPTER 3

THE COMMUNITY EDUCATION PROCESS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter an indepth study of the concept of community education was undertaken. The nature of community education and a brief history of community education received attention. Furthermore, the aims, components, agencies, provisions and implications of community education were dealt with in detail. The community learning centre, the community school concept and the community college were also investigated.

The understanding of the concept of community education obtained up to now, has therefore paved the way for this chapter, which will focus attention on the community education process.

In order to obtain the perspective of this study, it is necessary to gain insight into the community education process. This chapter is therefore imperative for this study since it allows for the understanding of this process. Investigating the community education process forms part of this research study since it aims inter alia at describing the ten phases of the process that must be actualised to ensure that relevant community education programmes are designed and provided to communities. This chapter is further essential because during the investigation of the community education process there will also be a brief exposition of phase 4 which deals directly with the central theme of this study, which is to investigate methods and techniques that can be implemented in assessing learning needs of individuals and communities, in order to provide relevant community education programmes.

3.2 THE COMMUNITY EDUCATION PROCESS

The community education process is a continual process of planning and bringing educational programmes into operation in a community. In the community education process, needs of the community are assessed, after which programmes are designed in order to meet the needs identified in the process.

The operation of the community education process must be a continuation of educational programmes in a community set-up. With regard to operational principles, the ideal is that the learners will eventually identify themselves with community education projects, and actively participate in them, so that through expert leadership, the available services in the community can be utilised.

With regard to the community education process, Taylor (1988:41) asserts that: "In the process, lay citizens, school personnel and other professionals discover that they have the collective power to solve problems which are common to all members of the community and thus through the community education process can identify the needs and problems and mobilize the community resources to address them".

The various phases in the community education process provide the learners in a community with procedures and resources which enable them to obtain information and skills. This process includes the following phases:

cf. Knowles 1971 : 54,59-297
Knowles 1978 : 108-129
Decker et al 1988 : 44-61
Boone et al 1981 : 234-239
Seay et al 1974 : 12-15, 149-168
Poster 1982 : 141
Pretorius 1990a : 521-524

Pretorius 1990b : 78-117

Campbell (Witty, 1967:260)

Phase 1	:	Appointment of a co-ordinator of community education
Phase 2	:	Creating an educational milieu
Phase 3	:	Establishment of an organizational structure for participative planning
Phase 4	:	Identifying and analyzing the problems, needs and interests of individuals and institutions in the community
Phase 5	:	Formulating programme objectives
Phase 6	:	Designing educational programmes
Phase 7	:	Identifying and mobilizing community resources
Phase 8	:	Operation of educational programmes
Phase 9	:	Evaluation of educational programmes, rediagnosis of learning needs, and adjustment of educational provisions of the various educational agencies in the community
Phase 10	:	Continuous research.

The following discussion will focus attention on a detailed description of the different phases:

3.2.1 PHASE 1: APPOINTMENT OF A CO-ORDINATOR OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION

In any given community where community education programmes are to be put into place, there is a need for the appointment of a co-ordinator of community education. The co-ordinator of community education supervises the process and ensures the active involvement of all stakeholders concerned with community education.

Kleinen (1991:101) emphasizes the importance of the co-ordinator of community education by stating that: "The Director or Co-ordinator of community education, as specialized educational leader, planner, co-ordinator, initiator, administrator, organizer, communicator, etc, is responsible for the functioning and operation of educational programmes in the community".

Concerning the functions of the co-ordinator of community education, Knox (1980:225) states that an effective administrator develops plans for decision-making, objective setting, forecasting and implementing processes. Implementing processes include policies, procedures, methods, standards and rules.

Knox (1980:226) further writes that: "It is the duty of the executive to administer the programme in term of policies, to understand the degree of latitude which is allowed to him in making exceptions in some cases, to know when policy applies and when it does not and to deal with situations not covered by policy".

Boone et al (1981:249) emphasize co-ordination, communication and citizen involvement as part of the role of the co-ordinator of community education in the following manner: The co-ordinator's functions would be to smooth the co-ordination of the unit-wide Community Education for Development programming. Having no axe to grind, this person would be in a position to improve communication among different agencies and institutions and individuals. Other functions would be to assist with the process of involving citizens in the decision-making and problem-solving related to Community Education for Development, to orchestrate local efforts to obtain outside help, and to promote the public's awareness, understanding and appreciation of the Community Education for Development programme.

Knowles (1978:114) writes that the role of the co-ordinator of community education is synonymous to that of Human Resource Developer:
"... only if he defines his client as the total organization, and his mission as the improvement of its quality as an environment for the growth and development of people, will he be able to affect its climate. This means that he must perceive management to be a prime target in his student body, and all the line supervisors as part of his facility. In this conceptualization, training is not a staff function, it is a line function. The job of the Human Resources Developer is to help everybody be a better educator."

From the preceding discussions it is clear that the appointment of a co-ordinator of community education is very essential in the community education process. This is the person who has to be a good initiator and should possess good leadership skills in order to implement the community education concept. The co-ordinator of community education should also possess collaborative and communicative skills since he works co-operatively with the advisory councils and his personnel to co-ordinate the community education process.

The co-ordinator of community education has a number of functions to perform. But, basically the co-ordinator on overall is responsible for the functioning and operation of educational programmes in the community. Other functions include the following: object setting, assessing needs, forecasting, organizational function, developing plans for decision-making, training function and evaluative function.

In a nutshell the co-ordinator of community education is an overseer of the community education process.

3.2.2 PHASE 2: CREATING AN EDUCATIONAL MILIEU

According to Taylor (1988:41), it is the task of the co-ordinator of community education to establish this phase in the community education process. He must create a favourable, advantageous learning and educational milieu, viz, an educational set-up whereby individuals and communities can satisfy their needs, attain their objectives and realise their potential. Key-concepts such as **respect, participation, freedom, responsibility, involvement and democracy** are important in the creation of a favourable educational milieu. Specific physical, social and organizational characteristics of an educational milieu have an important influence on the learner and the quality of learning.

Boone et al (1981:235) assert that: All citizens may be encouraged through the creation of an open atmosphere and deliberate solicitation of opinion to join in the Community Education for Development patterns. Thus, the community education process enables individuals to initiate and support Community Education for Development as well as stimulate people's interests in Community Education for Development functions which ultimately will help people to assume the responsibilities of co-operative living.

With regard to creating an educational milieu, Knowles (1978:111-115) identifies four learning environments which could establish a climate which is conducive to learning and the following discussion will focus attention on the environments as described by him:

- **The physical environment**

The physical features of a learning environment can make a meaningful impact, namely: ventilation, easy access to refreshments and rest rooms, comfortable chairs and adequate light.

Another aspect of the physical environment which is also crucial to effective learning is the richness and accessibility of resources both material and human. Provision of a basic learning centre with books, pamphlets, manuals, reprints, journals, films, film strips, slides, tapes and other audio-visual aids and devices is a minimal requirement. Other devices necessary include closed circuit television, video-tape, portable video tape machines, cassette audio-tapes, technimation, teaching machines, etc. The importance is not just that these resources are made available, but that learners use them proactively rather than reactively.

- **The human and interpersonal climate**

An institutional climate in which self-improvement is approved, is likely to increase motivation to engage in learning activities. And a climate which approves and rewards new behaviours will encourage the maintenance of these behaviours especially if such behaviours are highly positive.

Such elements as a psychological climate of orderliness, clearly defined goals, careful explanation of expectations and opportunities, openness of the system to inspection and questioning and honest and objective feedback are essential for the creation of a climate conducive to learning.

A climate in which individual and cultural differences are respected, in which anxiety levels are appropriately controlled, in which achievement motivation is encouraged and in which feelings are considered to be as relevant to learning as ideas and skills, is of utmost importance.

It is suggested that a climate be created in which individuals can experience a safe, caring, accepting, trusting and understanding atmosphere. In this regard, the emphasis would be on collaboration rather than competition, encouragement of group loyalties, supportive interpersonal relations and a norm of interactive participation.

- **The organizational climate**

It is argued that in a hierarchically structured organization there is less motivation for self-improvement and more blocks to learning than in organizations more functionally structured such as by inter-linked work groups or by project task forces. Thus, organizations need to be more creatively structured.

The organizational climate is crucial for programming to succeed.

- **The climate of the reward system**

The argument here is that those behaviours that are rewarded are likely to be maintained. Accordingly, in those organizations in which participation in the community education development programme is given obvious weight in wage and salary increases, promotion, and other job emolutions, the climate will certainly be more conducive to learning than in organizations in which the attitude is that learning should be its own reward.

Climate setting is the most crucial element in the community education process. If the climate is not really conducive to learning, all other elements in the process can be jeopardized (Knowles, 1978:111-115).

In summarizing the above discussion it is important to note that creating an educational milieu is imperative in the community education process. This phase simply involves the creation of a favourable climate for learning. This favourable climate for learning will allow community members to satisfy their needs, be involved in decision-making and problem-solving processes, attain their objectives and finally realize their potentialities. The co-ordinator of community education as a planner plays an important role in creating a favourable educational milieu. It is in this educational milieu that community members experience a challenging, motivating, safe, accepting, trusting, caring and understanding atmosphere. In this regard, competition is discouraged and collegiality encouraged.

There are certain key features which are important in creating an educational milieu which is conducive to learning. Amongst others the following could be mentioned: democracy, collegiality, responsibility, accountability, participation, respect, involvement, freedom, loyalty and trust.

In creating a favourable educational milieu there are certain aspects which need attention. The aspects include the following: the physical environment, the human and interpersonal climate, the organizational climate and the climate of the reward system. However, even if the educational milieu is conducive for learning, it is essential that community members use the available resources proactively rather than reactively.

3.2.3 PHASE 3: ESTABLISHMENT OF AN ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE FOR PARTICIPATIVE PLANNING

This third phase in the community education process allows for the involvement of citizens of a community and further allows for the participation of other interested parties and organizations, in establishing an organizational structure which will allow for participative planning of

community education.

In community education, **organizing** as a function can primarily be regarded as a co-ordinating function. In the light of this, Robbins (Knox, 1980:227) defines organizing as follows: "Establishment of relationships between the activities to be performed, the personnel to perform them, and the physical factors needed."

Advisory councils are important components of the organisational structure. The advantage being that they involve citizens in the participative planning for community education. There are three types of advisory councils which may be regarded as important components of the organisational structure. These are:

- advisory councils in which educational agencies are represented
- advisory councils in which community members are represented
- joint councils.

According to Kleinen (1991:102) the principle of the third phase in the community education process is that educational activities must be based on the problems, needs and interests of the members of the community. For each programme, activity or learning experience in the community education process, a planning committee (or board or task group) must be established. Above all things a community representative (learner, lay-citizen) must be involved in the planning and decision-making process with regard to educational programmes. An organizational structure for the participative planning of educational programmes, activities and learning experiences, by authorities (educational agencies) and representatives of the community, that are linked in advisory councils and planning committees, must be established.

For participative planning to be successful, the planners (organizational structure) should work under the guidance of a competent co-ordinator of community education. With regard to an organizational structure for participative planning, Boone et al (1981:236) assert that: "... it is here that a cross-sectional representation of a community's concerned citizenry can be best organized. Such councils lend credibility to decisions concerning education and development;

they work to assure that these decisions are pertinent to local situations, and they provide a means for the creative involvement of citizen leaders. Participation in these functions and the opportunities for rotating membership make the Community Education for Development council an excellent avenue of citizenship development".

In the same note, Boone et al (1981:236) continue by stating that: "... probably most important of all is the council's role in preventing the tail from wagging the dog, of preventing institutions from dictating the scope and direction of a Community Education for Development programme. To function effectively, councils must involve both the providers of programmes and representatives of the public".

It is clear that the task of the co-ordinator of community education can be made easier by the functioning of advisory councils or community councils. These councils include representatives of the community and therefore form the rightful mouthpiece of the community.

With regard to the organizational and administrative structure for community education, Pretorius (1990a:521) remarks as follows:

The organizational and administrative structure for community education is based in the community learning centre. All the persons, groups and institutions that have an interest in the planning and operating of educational programmes are involved in this structure - this includes the adult learner. Community advisory councils are constituted in which members of the community enjoy representation (leaders, parents, learners), to ensure that educational activities are based upon the problems, needs and interests of the community. "Advisory councils put the community into community education."

Taylor (1988:42) writes that the community advisory council offers the greatest potential for achieving the goals of community education. Councils are representative of all the various sub-groups of a community: ethnic, religious, socio-economic, subdivisions, professional. business, industry, government, educational, etc.

Seay et al (1974:149-168) indicate the various elements of an organizational structure for participative planning in the community education process, and the following is a synopsis of the different elements as described by them:

- **Introducing features of community education**

A mere shift in emphasis in a traditional educational programme can be the beginning of a new attitude on the part of the various people involved, one which welcomes co-operative planning, co-ordination and innovation. For example: the local school, a public library, the local units of public health concerned with the problems and needs of the community, are in a state of readiness for supporting a community education programme. Their staff, administrative and instructional, will welcome the opportunity to make their services more relevant to all people of the community (Seay et al, 1974:151).

- **Informal and co-operative action**

The beginning of a real community education programme frequently results from the informal, co-operative efforts of the professional leaders of two or more educational forces providing services to a community, for example a co-operative plan for recreational activities worked out by a community school director and a city or area recreation director. This elementary plan reveals to the public, as well as to professional educators, the advantages of co-operative, co-ordinated programming (Seay et al, 1974:151).

- **Using consultative services**

These services are used to "sell" ideas and plan procedures. Outside experts help to implement the community education concept. For example, a major function of a university centre for community education is the provision of consultative services to boards of local educational forces, administrators, teachers, and PTA's. The aid that is given involves planning, staffing, co-ordinating and evaluating (Seay et al, 1974:152).

o **Infiltration by Financial Assistance**

The government and the private sector finance new, relevant educational activities in the community (Seay et al, 1974:152).

o **Providing a financial base for balance**

The financial administration of community education is undertaken by an established educational agency in the community, normally a school. The school takes the lead in the provision of lifelong education for the community (Seay et al, 1974:152).

o **Official acknowledgment by boards**

Before outside sources will grant financial aid for community education programming, the Board of Education must endorse accounting procedures as well as other policies, rules and regulations (Seay et al,1974:156).

o **Establishment of the position of co-ordinator of community education**

"Leadership is a requisite for dissemination and implementation of any concept" (Seay et al, 1974:156). In every community (urban, suburban, rural) a co-ordinator of community education must be appointed to co-ordinate community education. The position of co-ordinator of community education facilitates leadership in both the initiation of the continuing administration of a community education programme and in assisting a group to use its resources, to teach them to solve community problems. The responsibilities and duties of the community education co-ordinator and his staff include the following:

- administration (also financial administration)
- the programming of community activities that are educationally related
- contact with lay citizens (leaders) in the community
- the programming of socio-economic development in the community

- the establishment of a community advisory council for the purpose of community programme development and evaluation
- initiation and organization of projects for adult education, enrichment programmes, recreation programmes, community service projects, etc.

The co-ordinator is thus responsible for organization, administration, development, reporting, public relations, information (communication), supervision, co-operation and administration of surveys with regard to all community education programmes and activities (Seay et al, 1974:156).

o **Developing advisory councils**

A basic principle of the community education concept is that educational activities are based upon the problems, needs and interests of those for whom they are planned. A clear-cut implication of this principle is that, in the organizational and administrative structure, there will be provision for official involvement of the people of the community in the form of advisory councils made up of lay citizens of the community. The citizens' lay advisory council and the co-ordinating council of agencies constitute vital links in the administration of a community education programme. They give life to the basic principle that education is based on the problems, needs, and interests of the people, and they bring balance to the community-wide programme of educational opportunity for all (Seay et al, 1974:168).

Seay et al (1974:168) further list the functions of advisory councils as follows:

- to give advice in connection with programmes, policy, functions, etc.
- to determine needs, priorities and aims
- to identify available resources
- to plan community education projects and programmes
- to communicate and co-operate in promoting educational activities in the community
- to evaluate the progression of programmes.

The administrative responsibility of a co-ordinator in an organizational structure of community education is with regard to policy and decision-making, assisted by lay and representative councils (Seay et al, 1974:149-168).

With regard to the establishment of an organizational structure for participative planning, Kleinen (1991:103) maintains that:

"This structure is based in a community school or community learning centre. Community education programmes and practices are realized through a community-based system for co-ordinated collective action by educational and service agencies".

Refering to the planning committee as forming part of the organizational structure, Nkosi (1994:65) submits that:

"The planning committees (councils) are generally allocated to various departments. This would ensure the successful completion of the educational programmes. These councils lend credibility to the importance of a collective effort in the organizational activity in the community education process."

Following the above, Knowles (1978:115) writes the following: "... it is for this reason that the most potent Human Resource Developer programmes almost always have planning committees (or councils or task forces) for every level of activity: one for organization-wide programmes, one for each departmental or other functional group programme, and one for each learning experience".

Knowles (1978:115) further emphasizes the importance of the proper selection of planning committees when stating that:
"There are guidelines for selecting and utilizing these planning groups that will help to assure their being helpful and effective rather than the ineffectual nuisances that stereotypic committees so often are".

The activities to be performed by the councils (task forces) can be broken down into aspects of organizational climate. Knowles explains that the notion of an organizational climate involves several sets of ideas. According to Knowles (1978:113):

- One set has to do with the policy framework undergirding the Human Resource Developer programme.
- Another set of ideas regarding the organizational climate has to do with management philosophy.
- A third aspect of organizational climate, closely related to the second and possibly a part of it, is the structure of the organization.
- Organizational climate is also affected by financial policies. At the most primary level, the sheer amount of financial resources made available to the Human Resource Developer influences attitudes toward personnel development all the way down the line.

With regard to the types and functions of the various task forces or subcommittees, Parnell (1986:128) gives the following synopsis:

- Policy boards: The role of the boards is to establish policy, draw and develop guidelines and procedures as well as direct activities towards the success of the given educational programme. The co-ordinator of community education heads this board.

- Steering committee: This committee establishes operational procedures, priorities, appoints the co-ordination committee and reviews the progress of the educational programmes.

- Co-ordinating committee: The role of this committee is to meet with the labour, industry and business councils with a view to operating the programmes.

- Joint labour committee: Included in the joint labour committee are the representatives of labour, business, student services and education advisory councils. It constitutes the advisory council and discusses programme developments.

- Programme specialists: A team of community education specialists comprises of administrators and faculty staff who act as advisors to career and collegiate programmes. Specialists identify and deal with critical issues affecting the programmes, and implement the necessary strategies.

Pretorius (1990a:525) further presents a diagrammatic clarification of the community education concept with particular reference to the elements or components of the organizational and administrative structure. According to the diagramme the school serves as the primary educational agency (the community school or community learning centre). The school also serves as a catalyst for community education. Besides the community school there are other educational agencies that participate in the community education process. The educational agencies in the community are often service agencies that make their practices, programmes and resources available in the community education process. The co-ordinator of community education plans and co-ordinates the organizational and administrative functions but works hand in hand with advisory councils. There are three distinguishable types of advisory councils:

- advisory councils that consist of educational agencies
- advisory councils that consist of community representatives
- joint councils in which educational agencies as well as the members of the community are represented.

Human, physical and financial resources need to be identified and mobilized in order for the objectives of community education to be realized. Community education objectives include the following:

- to generate the learning society
- community development
- to solve problems
- to improve quality of life
- self-actualisation of the individual
- to fulfil human needs (including learning needs)
- provisions with regard to life-long learning.

There are certain basic functions which need to be performed at the community education centre for the successful operation of community education programmes. These functions include co-operation, co-ordination, communication and evaluation with regard to the provisions of educational agencies in the community (see Figure 3.1).

From the preceding discussion it becomes evident that the establishment of an organizational structure for participative planning of community education programmes is essential in the community education process, however, these community education programmes can only succeed when clear and distinct problems and needs of individuals and institutions in the community have been identified and analysed.

The organizational structure of community education is based in a community school or community learning centre. In this organizational structure, members of the community with inter alia, an interest in participative planning enjoy representation in the advisory councils to ensure that educational activities are based upon the community's problems, needs and interests. Advisory councils further assist in identifying problems, needs and interests of the community. The community representatives may include leaders, parents, learners, various ethnic groups, religious groups, socio-economic groups, professional groups, business sector, government sector, etc. It is important that for each programme, activity or learning experience in the community education process, a planning committee or board or task group be established for planning purposes. However, of great importance is that the organizational and administrative structure for community education should establish relationships between the activities to be performed, the personnel to perform them, and physical factors needed.

As a summary an overview of the elements of the organizational structure for participative planning of community education programmes is presented in Figure 3.2

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FIGURE 3.1

THE COMMUNITY EDUCATION CONCEPT

(c.f. Pretorius, 1990a:525)

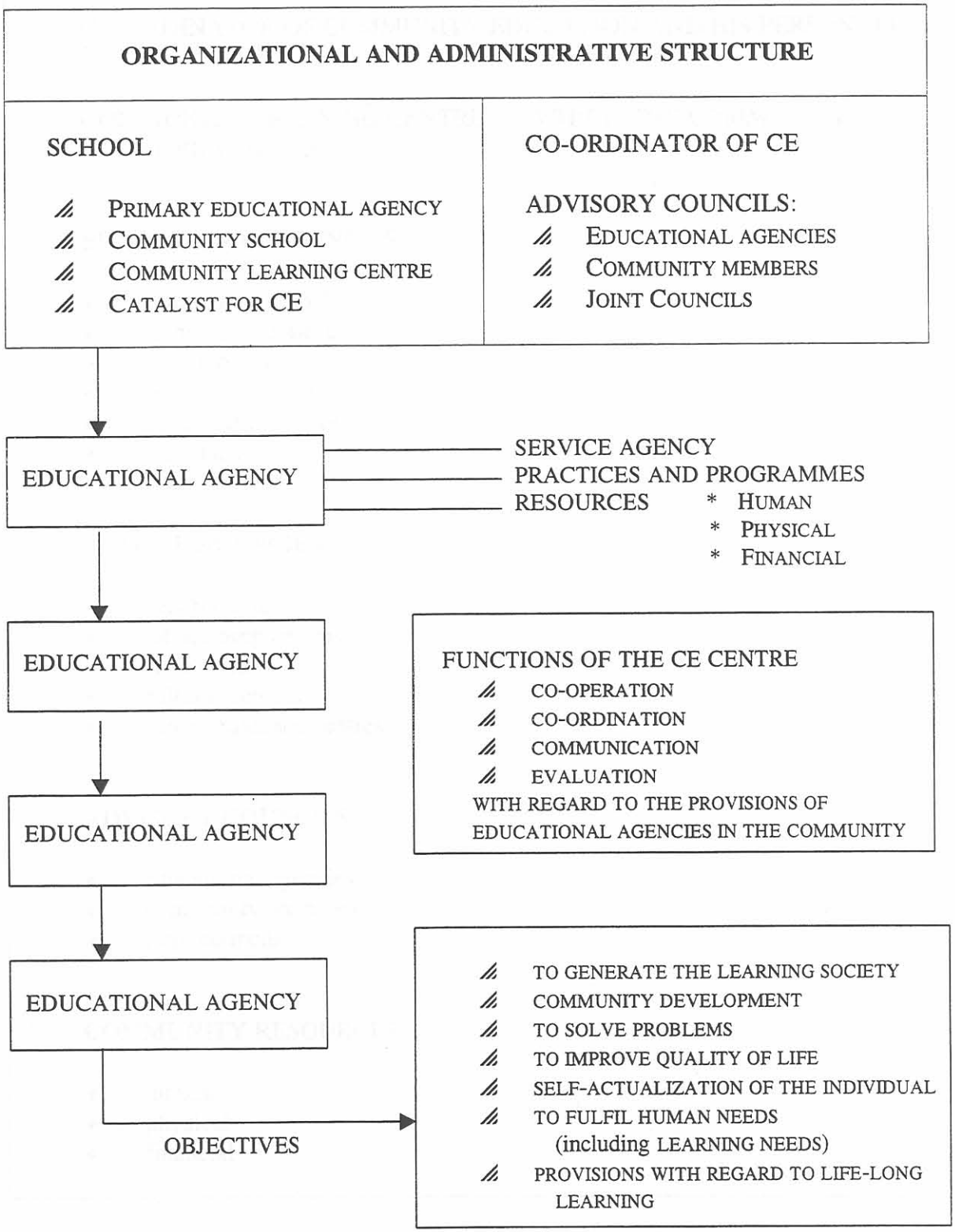

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FIGURE 3.2

ELEMENTS OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

CO-ORDINATOR OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION AND HIS PERSONNEL

COMMUNITY LEARNING CENTRE AT WHICH THE COMMUNITY NETWORK IS BASED

EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES

- community school
- community college
- technikons
- technical college
- agricultural college
- university

SERVICE AGENCIES

- health clinics
- job training centres
- civic centres
- cultural centres
- career guidance centres

ADVISORY COUNCILS

- educational agencies
- community members
- joint councils

COMMUNITY RESOURCES

- human
- physical
- financial

3.2.4 PHASE 4: IDENTIFYING AND ANALYSING THE PROBLEMS, NEEDS AND INTERESTS OF INDIVIDUALS AND INSTITUTIONS IN THE COMMUNITY

The present study aims at identifying methods and techniques of assessing learning needs for community education programmes. In other words this study mainly deals with this phase of the community education process viz. identifying and analysing the problems, needs and interests of individuals and institutions in the community. This, therefore, qualifies the present phase to be of utmost importance in the present study. This phase will further receive attention in greater detail in Chapter 4.

Following the above statements, it becomes evident that this phase is essential in order to allow for relevant educational programmes to be put in place.

With regard to this phase, Knowles (1971:85-86) asserts that:

"The phase includes the identifying and analyzing of educational needs and learning needs. One must distiguish between two types of needs in the community education process - basic needs and educational needs. An educational need is something a person ought to learn for his own good, for the good of an organization, or for the good of society. An educational need, therefore, is the discrepancy between what an individual (or organization or society) wants himself to be and what he is; the distance between an aspiration and a reality".

Based on the idea of an educational need, it is certain that communities have a wide array of educational needs which have to be fulfilled. Kaye and Harry (1982:9-10) give an indication of the spectrum of learning needs that can be experienced in a community:

- Functional literacy and numeracy skills
- Social coping skills
- Parental and family education
- Consumer education and domestic economy
- Community education

- The raising of levels of awareness about existing opportunities
- Preparation of vocational and professional training
- Provision of elementary and secondary education equivalent facilities.

Groenewald (1986:71-72) reports on a research study on learning needs and lists social learning needs of black adolescents which were identified in South Africa. These learning needs are grouped together in order of priority:

- Communication between parents and children
- Technological skills
- School-based programmes
- Personal development
- Financial matters
- Prevention of crime
- Individual care
- Vocational guidance
- Informal educational programmes
- Domestic affairs
- Health matters
- Professional help
- Music
- Recreation and leisure time
- Political programmes
- Sport
- Religious programmes
- Improvement of community facilities.

According to Calver and Farnes (Kaye and Harry, 1982:89) the following is a description of learning needs of individuals at various stages in their lives that are accommodated by the Open University Education Programme (see Figure 3.3).

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FIGURE 3.3

LEARNING NEEDS IN THE COMMUNITY EDUCATION PROGRAMME

(cf. Kaye & Harry, 1982:89)

LEARNING NEEDS IN THE ILLUSTRATIVE STAGE OF ADULT LIFE	LEARNING NEEDS IN THE ILLUSTRATIVE CONCERNS FOR EACH ROLE
Being single Getting married Planning families Pregnancy and birth Babies Preschool child Childhood (5-10 years) Adolescence Marriage problems Middle age Planning retirement Retirement Old age	**Parent role:** Child development Happy families Adoption and fostering Schools **Employee role:** Starting work Women returning to work Job change Unemployment Retirement **Consumer role:** Consumer decisions Energy in the home Health choices Food Money Housing Transport **Citizen/Community role:** Governing schools Magistrates Community advisers Local councillors Race relations

With regard to learning needs, Kleinen (1991:103-104) writes that the needs and interests of individuals, organisations and the community must be identified and analysed before an educational programme is designed and operated. The following wide spectrum of possible educational and learning needs was identified by her:

- **Career related subjects and skills**: Technical, professional, business management, office management, mechanics, typing, sales techniques, etc.
- **Hobbies and recreation**: Sport, art, dancing, music
- **Religious instruction**
- **General subject tutoring**: Foreign languages, mathematics, history, science, psychology
- **Family life**: Home management, child care, gardening
- **Personal development**: Fitness, speed reading, ideology, public appearance
- **Citizenship**: Affairs of the day, politics, ideology, home guards
- **Agriculture:** Farming, gardening.

With regard to learning needs, the following incentives with regard to motivational learning can be applied (Knowles, 1971:89):

"People Want to Gain

1.	Health	8.	Comfort
2.	Time	9.	Leisure
3.	Money	10.	Pride of accomplishment
4.	Popularity	11.	Advancement: business, social
5.	Improved appearance	12.	Increased enjoyment
6.	Security in old age	13.	Self-confidence
7.	Praise from others	14.	Personal prestige

They Want to Be

1. Good parents
2. Social, hospitable
3. Up to date
4. Creative
5. Proud of their possessions
6. Influential over others
7. Gregarious
8. Efficient
9. "First" in things
10. Recognized as authorities

They Want to Do

1. Express their personalities
2. Resist domination by others
3. Satisfy their curiosity
4. Emulate the admirable
5. Appreciate beauty
6. Acquire or collect things
7. Win others' affection
8. Improve themselves generally

They Want to Save

1. Time
2. Money
3. Work
4. Discomfort
5. Worry
6. Doubts
7. Risks
8. Personal embarrassment"

Concerning the assessment of learning needs, Pretorius (1990a:522) states that learning needs are assessed by means of the following techniques or methods: interviews, group discussions, research reports, questionnaires, the mass media, need surveys, etc. These methods and techniques will be dealt with in detail in the following chapter.

With regard to the above-mentioned phase, Boone et al (1981:234) emphasize the fact that: "Community Education for Development starts with a study of the community's problems, felt needs and interests and then lays out plans in a co-operative fashion to meet them. This studying and planning is accomplished through encouraging enlightened citizen participation, fact finding, developing problem-solving support, co-ordinating community activities and services, and co-operative action."

From the foregoing discussions it has become evident that this phase is imperative in the community education process and at the same time forms the gist of the present study.

In order to put relevant educational programmes in place, it is imperative as a point of departure to collect data on the existing basic and learning needs of communities. This should be followed by the analysis of these problems, needs and interests which will guide the designing and operation of educational programmes. The assessment of community needs also assists in planning how to accomplish intended outcomes. Planning involves a wide range of activities such as problem-solving, co-ordination, involvement, need assessment and co-operative action.

There is a variety of methods or techniques that can be implemented in order to ascertain the educational and learning needs of individuals and groups in a community. These methods or techniques, namely: need surveys, questionnaires, interviews, research reports, the mass media, group discussions, etc. will not be investigated in detail in this chapter. These methods will be dealt with in detail in the following chapter, the purpose of which is to investigate methods and techniques that can be implemented in assessing the learning needs of individuals and communities in the community education process.

3.2.5 PHASE 5: FORMULATING PROGRAMME OBJECTIVES

Knox (1986:54) emphasizes the importance of having explicit aims for any given community education programme by stating that:

"When you are planning an educational program, where do you start? The starting point could be intended outcomes, educational needs...".

With regard to formulating programme objectives, Pretorius (1990a:522) remarks as follows:

"The identified needs of the community must be interpreted in terms of programme objectives. The formulation of programme objectives gives direction and focus with regard to the operating of a specific educational programme, in terms of decision-making, activities, target groups,

learning objectives, evaluation, etc. Programme objectives are the guidelines for developing a specific educational programme".

According to Kleinen (1991:106) there are three steps in the process of converting identified educational needs into educational programme objectives:

- arrangement of needs according to a priority system
- (sifting) placing of the needs
- conversion of the remaining needs into programme objectives.

The formulation of programme objectives or converting identified educational needs into educational programme objectives can take place in various ways. In line with this statement, Knox (1980:53) gives the following examples:

o **The process of elimination**: In terms of the process of elimination, it is necessary to select a limited number of programme objectives from the preliminary list. The first screen applied to the preliminary list, is one of high desirability. Objectives that have the highest value and are most relevant for planners and learners should be emphasized. A second screen that should be applied, is the degree of harmony among the statement of philosophy, programme purposes, long-term goals and selected programme objectives. Objectives should reflect to a high degree the values implied or stated in the sponsoring agency's philosophy. The third screen for selecting objectives is known as a feasibility screen. It helps programme planners to recognize realistic changes expected from a given learning process and to identify the objectives that are attainable in terms of relevant learner characteristics such as ability, time available and recency of previous learning, and handicaps. The fourth screen for selecting objectives is the degree of application the attainment of an objective has for potential participants.

- **Unanticipated outcomes**: Programmes may produce unanticipated outcomes, along with specified objectives. These unanticipated outcomes may be more valuable than the formally stated objectives, and resource people should develop procedures to identify them.

- **Goal-free programme objectives**: Within the goal-free programme, a general purpose but no specific programme objective is set in advance. At the end of the programme, participants and planners attempt to develop a set of programme objectives for future participants as a result of outcomes experienced by initial participants (Knox, 1980:53).

The process of translating identified needs into educational programme objectives is further presented in the following diagram (see Figure 3.4)

According to Knowles (1978:119-120) educational programme objectives consist of the following attributes:

- objectives are hierarchical
- objectives are discriminative
- educational objectives may be stated in terms of the deserved accomplishments of the learner
- educational objectives may also be stated in terms of the principles of action that are likely to achieve desired changes in the learner
- the understanding and acceptance of educational objectives will usually be advanced if they are developed co-operatively
- an objective should be stated clearly enough to indicate to all rational minds exactly what is intended
- an objective is essentially rational, being an attempt to impose a logical pattern on some of the activities of life
- an objective is practical
- objectives lie at the end of actions designed to lead to them
- objectives are usually pluralistic and require the use of judgement to provide a proper balance in their accomplishment.

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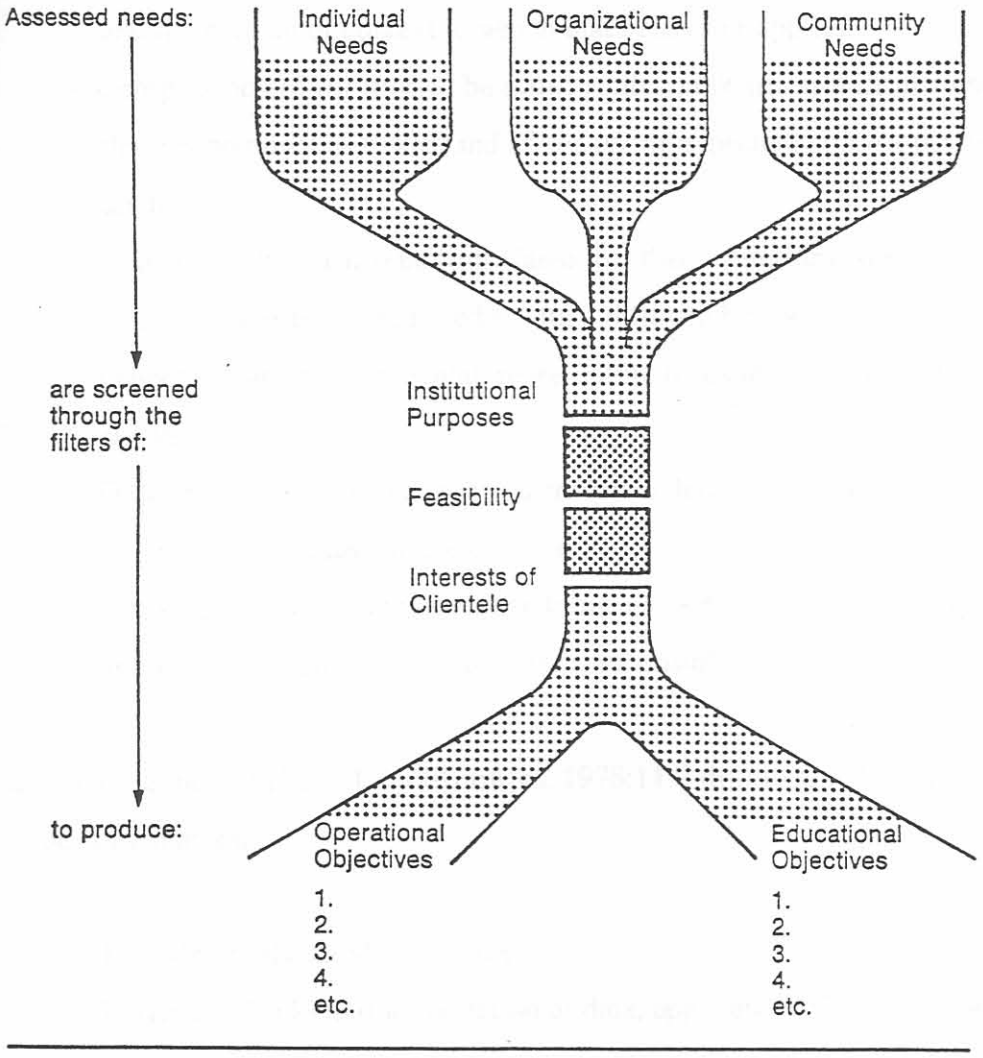
FIGURE 3.4: THE PROCESS OF TRANSLATING NEEDS INTO OBJECTIVES
(cf. Knowles,1971:125)



Taba (Knowles, 1978:119) with a more cognitive orientation presents principles which guide the formulation of educational programme objectives as follows:

- A statement of objectives should describe both the kind of behaviour expected and the content or context to which that behaviour applies.
- Complex objectives need to be stated analytically and specifically enough so that there is no doubt as to the kind of behaviour expected, or what the behaviour applies to.
- Objectives should also be formulated that there are clear distinctions among learning experiences required to attain different behaviours.
- Objectives are developmental, representing roads to travel rather than terminal points.
- Objectives should be realistic and should include only what can be translated into curriculum and classroom experiences.
- The scope of objectives should be broad enough to encompass all types of outcomes for which the school (programme) is responsible.

In elaborating the last point, Taba (Knowles, 1978:119) develops a classification of objectives by types of behaviour:

- Knowledge (facts, ideas, concepts)
- Reflective thinking (interpretation of data, application of facts and principles, logical reasoning)
- Values and attitudes
- Sensitivities and feelings
- Skills

It is imperative to properly define the objectives of community education programmes since they provide guidance for the operation of educational programmes. Against this background, Mager (Knowles, 1978:118) gives some practical guidelines for defining objectives:

- o A statement of instructional objectives is a collection of words or symbols describing one of your educational intents.
- o An objective will communicate your intent to the degree you have described what the learner will be DOING when demonstrating his achievement and how you will know when he is doing it.
- o To describe terminal behaviour (what the learner will be DOING)

  - Identify and name the over-all behaviour act
  - Define the important conditions under which the behaviour is to occur (givens and/or restrictions and limitations)
  - Define the criterion of acceptable performance.

- o Write a separate statement for each objective; the more statements you have, the better chance you have of making clear your intent.
- o If you give each learner a copy of your objectives, you may not have to do much else.

From the preceding argument it is clear that for any community education programme to be successful, unambiguous educational programme objectives must be set. For these educational programme objectives to be relevant, they must be derived from the identified needs and interests of the community.

Formulating programme objectives is essential since it provides guidelines for designing a specific educational programme. Formulation of programme objectives assists in spelling out the kind of behaviour expected from learners and also in outlining the learning experiences needed to attain different behaviours. These programme objectives also assist in giving direction and focus with regard to the operation of a given educational programme, in relation to knowledge, decision-making, skills, activities, values and attitudes, learning objectives, evaluation, target groups, etc. It is also important to note that educational programme objectives consist of a number of attributes. The following are some of the attributes: objectives are discriminative, hierarchical, practical, rational, unambiguous, pluralistic, developmental, etc.

3.2.6 PHASE 6: DESIGNING EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMES

The designing of educational programmes forms an essential phase in the community education process and great care needs to be taken in order to ensure that the designed programmes are in line with the formulated educational programme objectives.

With regard to this phase, Minzey and Le Tarte (Seay et al, 1974:201) remark as follows: "Community Education is the over-arching conceptual base, while programmes are the activities related to the solution of specific community needs. Thus, enrichment opportunities, recreation programmes, cultural activities, vocational offerings, and political and civic programmes are partial ways of resolving certain community problems."

Seay et al (1974:195-201) further cite examples of needs with regard to lifelong education for which educational programmes can be designed:

- Adult education provides a large variety of classes for individuals interested in gaining a high school diploma.
- Basic adult education (reading, writing and arithmetic).
- English taught as a spoken language.
- Enrichment and recreation for adults (for example accounting, chess, dressmaking, typing, repair work, sport, art, hobbies, speed reading, first aid, self defence, welding, etc).
- Recreation, clubs and centres for senior citizens.
- Enrichment and recreation for youth (art, sport, theatre, physical exercises, etc).
- Recreation for children (5 to 14 years).

In relation to designing educational programmes, Kleinen (1991:106) emphasizes the importance of taking into cognisance the different categories for which programmes are designed:

"Here the main concern is the selection of a suitable learning format or learning formats for a specific educational programme, in terms of the following categories of educational designing situations, such as individual activities, group activities, institutional activities, and mass activities."

With regard to the above explanation, Houle (Knowles, 1978:123) presents a table of major categories of educational design situations including: individual, group, institutional and mass categories (see Figure 3.5)

In her work, Kleinen (1991:107-108) writes that, as far as the content of educational programmes is concerned, the designing of programmes occurs with reference to a wide variety of possible formal, non-formal and informal educational programmes for lifelong learning, for example:

- **Programmes directed at the development of the community and the individual,** e.g. citizenship, environmental aspects, daily events in the community, international relationships, etc.
- **Cultural development programmes:** music and art appreciation, religion, folk dancing, cultural organizations, etc.
- **Literacy programmes:** the learning of home languages, foreign languages, basic knowledge of science and mathematics, computer literacy, etc.
- **Economic programmes:** household budgeting, the start of a small business undertaking, income tax, etc.
- **Career directed programmes:** career choice, career guidance, interviews, training, etc.
- **Educational programmes:** child education, school readiness, parent involvement, remedial teaching, etc.
- **Legal programmes:** family law, court procedures, contract law, etc.
- **Health programmes:** fitness, balanced diet, preparation of food, knowledge of the human body, etc.
- **Leisure time programmes:** hobbies, sport, vacations, tours, arts and crafts, do-it-yourself projects, etc.

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FIGURE 3.5

MAJOR CATEGORIES OF EDUCATION DESIGN SITUATIONS

(cf. Knowles, 1978:123)

INDIVIDUAL
An individual designs an activity for himself
An individual or a group designs an activity for another individual
GROUP
A group (with or without a continuing leader) designs an activity for itself
A teacher or group of teachers design an activity for, and often with, a group of students
A committee designs an activity for a larger group
Two or more groups design an activity which will enhance their combined programmes of service
INSTITUTION
A new institution is designed
An institution designs an activity in a new format
An institution designs a new activity in an established format
Two or more institutions design an activity which will enhance their combined programmes of service
MASS
An individual, group or institution designs an activity for a mass audience.

With regard to designing educational programmes, Pretorius (1990a:522) gives the following examples of **contents** to be found in educational programmes "Literacy programmes, job training programmes, health education programmes, recreational programmes, etc. Educational programmes must take the learner characteristics and learning needs of the target group into account".

In reference to designing educational programmes, Lowe (1975:55) presents the following classification of educational programmes according to personal needs:

Remedial education

o fundamental and literacy education - a prerequisite for all other kinds of adult education.

Education for vocational, technical and professional competence

o this may be to prepare an adult for a first job or a new job, or to keep him up to date on new developments in his occupation or profession.

Education for health, welfare and family living

o including all kinds of health, family, consumer, planned-parenthood, hygiene, family relations, child-care, etc.

Education for civic, political and community competence

o including all kinds of educational programmes about government, community development, public and international affairs, voting and political education, etc.

Education for self-fulfillment

o including all kinds of liberal education programmes, education in music, the arts, dance, theatre, literature, and arts and crafts whether brief or long term.

Knowles (1978:124) further illustrates the steps commonly found in the designing of educational programmes with special reference to the adult learner by presenting the following sketch (see Figure 3.6).

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FIGURE 3.6

THE ADULT LEARNER

(cf. Knowles, 1978:124)

1. A possible educational activity is identified
2. A decision is made to proceed
3. Objectives are identified and refined
4. A suitable format is designed
   - Resources
   - Leaders
   - Methods
   - Schedule
   - Sequence
   - Social reinforcement
   - Individualization
   - Roles and relationships
   - Criteria for evaluation
   - Clarity of design
5. The format is fitted into larger patterns of life
   - Guidance
   - Lifestyle
   - Finance
   - Interpretation
6. The plan is put into effect
7. The results are measured and appraised

From the foregoing explanation on the designing of educational programmes, it has come out clear that of importance is that a suitable learning format or pattern of learning experiences is selected with reference to an identified learning need or problem area. When designing educational programmes there are major categories of educational design situations which need to be taken into consideration, for example, individual activities, group activities, institutional activities and mass activities. With regard to the content of educational programmes, designing educational programmes takes place with a view to achieve lifelong learning. The following are examples of the contents of such educational programmes: health programmes, job training programmes, recreational programmes, literacy programmes, legal programmes, leisure time programmes, etc.

Once the designing of educational programmes has been properly completed it is then that the identification and mobilisation of community resources that must be utilized to operate community education programmes can be undertaken. The available resources include human, physical and financial resources.

3.2.7 PHASE 7: IDENTIFYING AND MOBILIZING COMMUNITY RESOURCES

This phase is about the identification and mobilization of those community resources and community services that are necessary to operate a specific educational programme. This phase is actualised in that the aim here is to achieve the maximal utilization of community resources. These resources and services are usually based in the educational and service agencies of a community, e.g. schools, colleges, job training centres, health clinics, etc. Many educationally relevant public, health and social welfare services are at the disposal of the members of the community (Pretorius, 1990a:523; Kleinen, 1991:109).

It is important to note that there are a number of community resources which are to be found in any given community, whether urban, suburban or rural. It is at this stage that the co-ordinator of community education together with the community advisory council should identify and mobilise these available resources. Experts and other interested organizations can be brought in for assistance.

According to Pretorius (1990b:105) the following facts with regard to the community education concept are relevant to this phase:

- the effective (maximum) utilization of the available resources of the community is an important component of community education
- community education is the delivery system and co-ordinating system for the provision of services for all the community
- in community education the utilization of community resources is directed upon dealing with the needs and problems of the community
- the school and the community put their resources at each other's disposal.

With regard to this phase, Kleinen (1991:109) distinguishes between the following resources:

- human resources: teachers, trainers, educators, experts, members of the community, etc.
- physical resources: buildings, halls, classrooms, sports fields, books, libraries, audio-visual equipment, computers, etc.
- financial resources: financial resources involve provision of some form of money directly for programme support, and constitutes an important aspect in the operation of educational programmes.

With regard to financial resources utilised for educational programmes, Knox (1980:156) divides them into categories as follows:

- Participant fees and tuition: Community education programmes generally obtain a much larger share of programme expenses from student fees and tuition.
- Parent organization subsidy: The form of subsidy depends upon the nature of parent organization. Local tax support may comprise the base. The parent organization subsidy can also be seen as employer support, conducted by employers for employees.

- Employers may provide programmes at the place of business for their employees or they may pay tuition to cover the costs of instruction for courses taken by their employees at some other institution.
- Private foundation grants: Broadly based national interest in innovative community education programmes has encouraged aggressive preparation grant proposals to private foundations.
- Auxiliary enterprise income: It refers to a programme's income from the sale of educationally related materials such as syllabi, conference proceedings or other printed materials.

According to the comprehensive community counselling and development model of Amos and Williams (1972:50) services can be offered to the community in the following five areas:

(i) Evaluation and diagnostic services (by means of observation and interviews, with regard to community needs and problems).
(ii) Formal training, education and career experience.
(iii) Career development (e.g employability skill development).
(iv) Counselling (information).
(v) Support services, with regard to housing, recreation, child care, family planning, legal matters, medical services, etc.

The following discussion will focus on examples of typical basic services for community development. These basic services are:

- health care
- family planning
- nutrition
- consumer economics
- housing.

Health care is an important service which can contribute to improving the quality of life in Third World communities. In planning community education programmes, the health resources need to be identified and mobilized. According to Groenewald (1986:73) "... family hygiene and the prevention of diseases seems to be an important priority. They have many troubles with health in their communities ranging from belief in traditional folk-medicine and a distrust of modern medical practices".

Thus the goal for health services is to ensure good mental and physical health for the individual and for his or her family.

On the other hand Di Perna (1982:10) views the objectives of health services as follows:

- To develop a working vocabulary about health, especially for the accurate reporting of symptoms and following a doctor's directions in applying treatment.
- To understand how basic safety measures can prevent accidents and injuries and to recognise potential hazards, especially hazards that are related to home and occupational safety.
- To understand federal control of various drugs and items for health protection and to understand how public reaction influences this control.

Almost in line with health care services, family planning also forms an important service and therefore needs consideration in the planning of community education programmes. Family planning programmes are usually channelled through the health care system.

According to the "Human Option conference" (1985:193), the quality of the health care infrastructure and its staff, particularly in the rural areas and the poor section of the cities, will determine the effectiveness of these programmes. Family planning is an intimate and sensitive part of people's lives.

The objectives of family planning can be seen as follows:

- To encourage normal, legal and other incentives to delay the age of marriage
- To deal with the question of illegitimate children
- To encourage prolonged breast feeding
- To understand and encourage the voluntary and responsible spectrum of contraceptive measures
- To deal with the educational and economic advancement of women, as this is the single most important factor that is able to reduce overall fertility
- To involve men more deeply in all matters relating to family planning and responsible parenthood
- To take steps to obviate the need for many children as a form of social security for old age (Recommendations from speakers and delegates at the conference "Developing the total population of South Africa", 1985:193-195).

Nutrition is closely associated with the health care service. However, because of the significance it plays in people's lives a need arises for nutrition to be discussed separately.

This service should transmit knowledge of a balanced diet, sources of the different nutritional values, and the symptoms of nutritional deficiencies.

The objectives of this service are the following:

- To choose and prepare foodstuffs with due regard for their nutritional value;
- To understand the meaning of a balanced diet;
- To know the symptoms of food deficiencies (Peers, 1972:285).

Consumer economics forms part of the daily lives of people in a community. It is therefore essential to identify and mobilize resources which would see to the success of this service.

The goal of this service is to manage a family economy and to create an awareness of sound purchasing principles:

- to be able to count and convert coins and currency, and to convert weights and measures by using measurement tables and mathematical operations;
- to be aware of the principles of comparative shopping, the relationships between price and quality among different brands, and "first" and "second" quality, and to be able to substitute economy for quality (and vice versa) according to personal need;
- to collect information about types of insurance and to be able to select the best insurance for the individual and his or her family;
- to know the resources available to the consumer in the face of misleading or fraudulent product or service claims or tactics (Di Perna, 1982:9).

Housing represents one of the basic needs for any given community. This service is surely one of the most pressing challenges for all community developers. The rapidly urbanising landscapes of Third World countries are enormous, with a shortage of houses, housing backlogs and increasing numbers of homeless people.

According to the Urban Foundation (1987:7):

...the population of urban areas is growing rapidly, both as a result of natural increase, and in consequence of the general drift to the cities. The faster the population grows, the greater the demand for an increased supply of land for housing development.

The goal of the above service is to develop a "structural environment" which makes possible the ongoing supply of enough appropriately serviced land to meet the housing needs of all communities. This means that, at the national level, provision should be made for the release of enough land to satisfy the demand.

The objectives of this service can be seen as the following:

- **Self-help housing**: This offers the would-be home owner an opportunity to take part in the process of providing his own housing; he is able to choose the type of house that best suits his current needs; he learns how to save money by doing some of the work himself or by managing the construction stages at an affordable place.

- **Upgrading shack settlement**: The first objective is to provide minimum health standards. In practical terms, it would begin with draining the area to prevent flooding; providing a tap every 150 meters through the settlement; clearing a road within 150 meters of every shack to create access for ambulances, fire-engines and the like; providing a rubbish dump, and laying on a means of hygienically dealing with sewerage.

- **Participation**: The members of the community must understand the process. They must determine their own priorities, and perceive that what they are doing is for the benefit of the community. Skinner (1983:76,77) believes that participation has distinct components: "...one is that it permits the free flow of information between the actors, and thereby ensures a product that better meets the needs of the user. The second component is the psychological one: the person who has been involved in a decision finds it psychologically necessary to support it, even when things go wrong. The third component is that participation can act as a training experience, helping people to work together in ways they did not before."

In the provision of the above-mentioned basic services to the community, education and training in the community should include literacy education, on the job training, training for cottage and small industries, and management and civic training (Di Perna, 1982:9-11; Christie, 1985:202-206; Berstecher, 1985:60; Peers, 1972:285):

(i) Literacy education

The University of Texas study on adult competency listed basic goals and skills that are important for functional literacy (Di Perna, 1982:9-11). The competencies are organised by five major general knowledge areas:

- Occupational Knowledge

To develop a level of occupational knowledge enabling adults to secure employment appropriate to their individual needs and interests.

- Government and Law

To promote an understanding of society through government and law and to be aware of governmental functions, agencies and regulations defining individual rights and obligations.

- Community Resources

To understand that community resources, including transportation systems, are used by individuals in society in order to obtain a satisfactory mode of living.

- Consumer Economist

To manage a family economy and to demonstrate an awareness of sound purchasing principles.

- Health

To ensure good mental and physical health for the individual and his or her family.

(ii) On-the-job training

These training programmes offer an opportunity to get the training and education that workers would not have received otherwise. On-the-job training meets the needs of the economy for skilled workers and for the upgrading of black workers.

The objectives of on-the-job training are the following:

- To meet needs in the shortage of skilled workers, such as training in technical, supervisory and operational fields
- To meet changes in the production process, as well as changes in worker consciousness
- To make sure that workers have appropriate attitudes towards their work - it is a form of work discipline
- To teach people skills and knowledge for different kinds of work
- To install attitudes and values (Christie, 1985:202-206).

Other on-the-job training programmes could include the following:
Skills training - courses in mechanical, electrical, building, commercial and other vocational skills.

(iii) Training for cottage and small industries

The goals of this type of training are to teach skills that can be applied both in the house, and commercially, in particular related to old and new rural crafts which provide self-employment to small-scale agro-based industries, and to enable workers to do their own maintenance and repair of agricultural and infrastructural equipment (Berstecher, 1985:60).

(iv) Management, civic training and public affairs

This must include forums, discussion groups, informal classes, institutes and other groups' activities which are aimed at the understanding of local, state, national and

international problems, with such subjects as intercultural relations, civil rights, legislation, leadership training, school-community relations, et cetera (Peers, 1972:285).

From the foregoing explanation on the identification and mobilisation of community resources it is evident that in any given community one will find certain resources and services that are needed to provide community education and community services. These resources may differ from one community to another. Furthermore, there are many sources of support and assistance which can be identified in communities - people that are prepared to assist with community education. The leadership that can be exerted in identifying, selecting, co-ordinating and evaluating such resource assistance can be a major influence on the success of community education programmes.

The above-mentioned practices, projects, programmes and developmental tasks must be actualised through involvement and participation by individuals and groups in the community, through the provision of the mentioned basic services, as well as through education and training. All these programmes should be community based and the provision of these basic services should be related and relevant to the developmental goals of the community.

It is clear that for any educational programme to be operational the available community resources should be identified and mobilized. These available resources and services are normally based in the educational and service agencies of a community, such as health clinics, schools, colleges, etc. Examples of services which are at the disposal of members of the community include: educational, public, health and social services. With regard to community resources, the following are usually identified and mobilized: human, physical and financial resources.

3.2.8 PHASE 8: OPERATION OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMES

The operation of educational programmes forms the focal point in the community education process. This phase is about transforming the programme objectives into workable activities. The operation of educational programmes simply implies putting programme objectives into action, using a particular method or a combination of methods.

With regard to the operation of educational programmes, Knowles (1971:161) writes that this phase is about "... the process of translating a program design into a flow of people and materials through a system of activities..."

With respect to this phase, Knox (1986:78) states that it is helpful to have a rationale for considering learner characteristics, programme objectives and your perspective when choosing and sequencing learning activities. The implication is that once the important and realistic objectives have been clearly stated, it is relatively straightforward to design the educational programme to achieve those objectives and draft the learning activities or methods for conducting the sessions. Educational activities are both the ways that the participants learn and the way they are being assisted.

With regard to the methods, learning formats or activity patterns that must be realized to reach the programme objectives, Knowles (1971:131-149) presents the following detailed exposition:

(i) **Methods for individual learning:** (Knowles, 1971:131-135)

- o Apprenticeship and internship: The trainee is guided through practical experiences under the supervision of well trained personnel (formal education).

- o Correspondence study: For example, at a correspondence school or university. It embraces studying with the assistance of study guides, written work, evaluation of projects or assignments.
- o Guidance: With regard to choice of education opportunities, career choice,

guidance in clinical psychology, interviews to enable the individual to grow and learn - at schools, universities and industries.

- Study guidance (direction): The individual is guided to self-study.

- Programmed instruction: In the form of programmed textbooks or teaching machines. Content is planned in chronological steps and transmitted to the learner, and immediate feedback (evaluation) is expected with regard to his response to instructions and with subsequent follow-ups.

- Accompanishment of the learner to continual self development.

(ii) **Methods for group learning** (Knowles, 1971:135-149)

- Action projects: Forming of interest groups, selecting a project, collecting facts, designing a strategy and proceeding to actual action.

- Clinics, institutions and workshops: Clinics emphasise the diagnosis, analysis and solving of problems; institutions emphasise the development of specialised knowledge and skills; workshops emphasise the development of individual competence in a specific area.

- Clubs and organised groups: Clubs lend themselves to: the acquisition of knowledge, broadening of interests, promotion of the appreciation of culture, insight into social problems, and the refinement of skills.

- Conferences: These are an important informal educational medium, whereby thousands of members of organizations assemble, and obtain contact with each other.

- Courses: The traditional learning format of educational institutions is a course

or class group (usually 20 or more learners studying a specific subject under the guidance of a tutor).

- Demonstrations: The learning format is "show them how to do it, let them practise, and measure the results".

- Exhibitions, festivals and fairs: The essential characteristic of this learning format is the introduction of ideas, products and processes. This is an effective format to reach individuals that usually do not read publications, listen to broadcasts, or attend meetings.

- Large meetings: This learning format reaches potential learners in the form of lesson and lecture sessions at schools, universities, church services, regular meetings, etc. Annually, each individual attends a number of large meetings.

- Excursions and tours: Although trips and tours are a technique that can be used in several learning formats, they can be organised as a distinct format by serving as the basis of organization of participants for learning.

(iii) **Community development as learning format:** (Knowles, 1971:149)

The total community is the "classroom" or "learning laboratory", with the educational objective of teaching the individual and the community to handle their problems more effectively, e.g. improving health and recreational facilities as a project, whereby opportunities are created for learning more of health and recreational problems, thus community development stimulates learning.

Further aspects that must be considered for the operation of educational programmes as identified by Knowles (1971:156-176) are:

1 **The recruiting and training of leaders and teachers:**

The role of the teacher must be re-defined to that of facilitator and helper, with regard to the process of self-directed learning by the learner. Teachers must be recruited from educational institutions and practices. After being selected for a specific educational programme, the teacher must be oriented to the programme he is going to offer, e.g. with regard to the learners, resources, needs, objectives, methods, learning format, etc.

2. **The management of facilities and procedures:**

The provision and management of the physical facilities, equipment, such as halls, classrooms, offices, tables and chairs, etc.

Further aspects in the administrative procedures that are relevant to a specific educational programme are registration, records, size of class groups, attendance, certificates, etc.

3. **Guidance in education:**

This means support to individual learners for planning of programmes (individual needs assessment, with regard to education and training, formulation of learning objectives, identification of resources, planning of learning experiences, and evaluating).

4. **Promotion and liaison:**

Each community education programme must be "advertised" and "sold". It entails the following:

Determining the target group of potential learners; planning a promotion campaign (extent, cost, media); distribution of promotion material by means of the promotion media (newspapers, radio, TV, post, posters, letters, brochures, booklets, handbills, catalogues, exhibitions, etc.)(Knowles, 1971: 156-176).

Kamper (1987:56-57) indicates four steps in the implementation strategy for a community education programme viz. "check"; "start"; "run"; "stop":

"Check"

i) The education programme: Is it ready? Has it been promoted? Has it been tested on a smaller scale?

ii) The learner: Has he been oriented with regard to the community learning centre in general and the programme content in particular? Are his expectations known? Is he motivated?

iii) The programme leader: Is he suitable? Are his expectations known? Does he know what the learners and the management of the community learning centre expect?

iv) The facilities: Is everything needed for operating the programme in terms of space and equipment ready/available?

"Start"

Has the following been properly introduced

(i) the programme content, and

(ii) the involvement of learners therein?

"Run"

Is everything progressing according to wishes/expectations?

- as seen from the point of view of

(i) programme objectives.

(ii) learner expectations.

(iii) programme leader expectations.

(iv) facilities and equipment?

"Stop"

Is the educational programme interrupted at certain times for evaluation with regard to:

(i) progress in the direction of programme objectives

(ii) meeting the expectations of learners and programme leaders? Has the programme, at completion, been meaningfully analysed and thereafter evaluated?

From the preceding description on the operation of educational programmes it can be deduced that this phase encompasses the culmination and focal point of the community education process. In this phase, programme objectives are put into operation for the purposes of achieving them. It is therefore essential to select learning activities likely to be most effective and that must be realized to reach programme objectives. However, it is also imperative to decide on a rationale for considering learner characteristics, the objectives of the programme and also consider your perspective when selecting and sequencing the learning activities.

The operation of educational programmes can only be realized through a certain teaching method (learning format) or combination of methods. The programme leader may make a selection from the variety of available methods. Depending on the situation, one can select methods suitable for individual learning, methods suitable for group learning or select community development as learning format. In addition there are certain aspects that must be considered for the operation of educational programmes. These aspects are: the recruiting and training of leaders and teachers, the management of facilities and procedures, guidance in education, promotion and liaison.

3.2.9 PHASE 9: EVALUATION OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMES, REDIAGNOSIS OF LEARNING NEEDS, AND ADJUSTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PROVISIONS OF THE VARIOUS EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES IN THE COMMUNITY

It is imperative that the evaluation of educational programmes occurs continuously in order to ascertain the extent to which programme objectives have been achieved. Evaluation also occurs in order to improve the manner in which an educational programme operates and thereby improving the quality of the learning results of educational programmes.

Different authors present the following descriptions of the evaluation process:

- Knox (1980:77) writes that evaluation is determining value or merit; thus it is more than mere data gathering.

- Boone (1981:179) describes evaluation as a coordinated process carried on by the total system and its individual subsystems. It consists of making judgements about planned programmes based on established criteria and known observable evidence.

- Brookfield (1988:264) asserts that evaluation is the act of examining and judging, concerning the worth, quality, significance, amount, degree or condition of something. In short, evaluation is the ascertainment of merit.

According to Pretorius (1990b:113-114) the evaluation of educational programmes has two main aims:

- Improvement of organizational operation, with regard to planning, structure, decision-making procedures, personnel, physical facilities, finances, recruiting, training, liaison, administrative management, etc.

- Improvement of programmes, with regard to aims, learners, methods, techniques, material and quality of learning results.

The regular, systematic and organised evaluation of educational programmes must thus have improved practices as its outcome and the aims of a programme are the only valid base for evaluation; evaluation begins and ends with the aims of a programme. Each educational programme must thus be evaluated on the basis of its operational aims **and** its educational aims (Pretorius, 1990b:114).

With repect to the evaluation of educational programmes, Knox (1980:76) remarks that it is a process of:

- documenting the congruence of learner outcomes and programme objectives
- comparing performance data with a commonly accepted standard
- specifying, obtaining and providing relevant information for judging decision alternatives
- comparing actual effects of a programme with a variety of demonstrated needs
- judging programme merit against the value positions of relevant audiences
- judging a programme critically, using expert knowledge
- describing and interpreting the wider context in which a programme functions.

According to Knox (1986:164-172), the evaluation process includes the following four steps:

- **Establishing criteria:** This process consists of making judgements about discrepancies between desired and current use of questions and the suggesting of ways to reduce the discrepancies. Using the resulting criteria, the current use of questions can be described. As judgements about discrepancies are being made, assumptions, values and additional information included in the rationale, along with the major discrepancies identified, must also be made. From the resulting conclusion, implifications that suggest ways in which the improvement of questions should be made, must be prepared.

- **Collecting data**: Quantitative and qualitative data are collected from representative samples of participants, instructors, administrators and records in ways that minimize disruption of the ongoing programme and encourage use of findings. Typical sources of data include standardized and local tests, observation checklists, questionnaires, interview guides, organizational records, and sometimes evaluation committees.

- **Analyzing data**: Once evidence has been gathered, it must be analyzed to ascertain what it says about the programme. There are many ways to analyze evaluation data. In some cases, particular quantitative statistical techniques may be appropriate; percentages, averages or correlations might well suit the purposes of analysis. In other cases, qualitative analytic techniques such as content analysis, critical reviews, narrative portrayals, or expert opinion should be chosen. Data analysis, therefore, is directly linked to the concerns of audiences.

- **Modification of programmes**: The purpose of programme evaluation is to make judgements for planning, improvement or justification. Participants usually want to use what they learn from the programme in their life roles. Thus, it is important to know what the participants learn as a result of the programme, the importance and achievement of programme goals and objectives, impact of the programme in the form of application and benefits and feedback about any of these aspects to enable others to make adjustments for programme improvement (Knox, 1986:164-172).

In another development, Knowles (1978:126) distinguishes between four aspects of evaluation, which follow one another in steps, all of which are required for the effective assessment of a programme:

- The first step is **reaction evaluation**, obtaining or acquiring data about how the participants are responding to a programme as it takes place - what they like most and least, what positive and negative feelings they have.

- The second step is **learning evaluation,** which involves obtaining or acquiring data about the principles, facts and techniques which were acquired by the participants.

- The third step is **behaviour evaluation**, obtaining or acquiring data such as observers' reports about actual changes in what the learner does after the training, as compared with what he did before.

- The fourth step is **results evaluation**, data for which are usually contained in the routine records of an organization - including effects on turnover, costs, efficiency, frequency of accidents or grievances or tardiness or absences, quality control, rejections, etc.

From the foregoing explanation it is evident that the evaluation of educational programmes, rediagnosis of learning needs, and adjustment of educational provisions of the various educational agencies in the community forms an important phase in the community education process. Evaluation of educational programmes should be continuous and should be more than mere data collecting. Evaluation should consist of making decisions and judgements about planned programmes based on attainable criteria and known outcomes. Briefly speaking, evaluation involves the ascertainment of the merits of educational programmes. Evaluation of educational programmes is a process consisting of the following steps: establishing criteria, collecting data, analyzing data and modification of programmes.

It is further evident that evaluation as a process concerns the comparison between the intended inputs and intended outputs. Evaluation also provides for timely feedback and involvement in decisions. It is clear that, for community education programmes to succeed, continuous evaluation of the extent to which the desired objectives have been attained, must be maintained.

3.2.10 PHASE 10: CONTINUOUS RESEARCH

Continuous research as a "phase" in the community education process usually takes the form of action research. Action research is a problem solving method with regard to community education and community development (Pretorius, 1990a:524).

With regard to action research, Knowles (1978:128) asserts that: "Action research is not just aimed at training or in-service education or management development or even for manpower development but it includes the conception of modern economic theorists that the input of human capital is an even more critical determinant of organizational output than material capital. It also includes the nuclear physicists' conception of an energy system that is infinitely amplifiable through the releasing of energy rather than the control of energy. It envisions the role of the Human Resources Developer as being perhaps more crucial than any other role in determining which organizations will be alive twenty years from now and which will be extinct."

In the community education setting action research is employed as a problem-solving method. It will therefore be directed at the solution of a particular, given, practical problem in a specified community, by making use of scientific methods, to then apply and use the results of the research only with respect to the specified community. A specific action research project can, for example, be planned, conducted and evaluated in a specific community to establish whether it works. In action research, the researcher is immediately involved in community change, and the research event works as an influencing factor in the community situation, in the sense that it immediately intervenes in the current situation and changes the practice. It is therefore a renewal research. Action research is also an event by which everybody in the community that takes part therein has learning experiences (researchers, teachers, trainers, learners, etc) (Pretorius, 1990b:116).

In the light of the fact that community education is linked to community development, the issue here is that of relevant available education, and the actualization of community education as a practical educational strategy. The obvious course of action in connection with the various aspects, practices, components and phases of community education seems to be action research

and action research projects. The appropriate method seems to be action research as a problem-solving method in a community (Kleinen, 1991:115).

Continuous research as part of the community education process is also linked to community development since it seeks to improve what is in existence. Boone et al (1981:247) emphasize the importance of research by stating that: "Community Education for Development carries the notion that change and growth should bring about improvement. Persons trying to stimulate growth should consider what has gone before, the available resources and their current allocation, and the interrelatedness of various forces at work in a given area at a given time. Congruent with these basic notions is the principle that facilitators should take into account what happens as it happens, to reorganize and redirect all community forces to achieve a desired end".

From the preceding discussion on continuous research it has become evident that community education cannot be divorced from action research; the two are closely linked. Continuous research as the name suggests occurs continuously during the community education process. Action research is the vehicle through which continuous research may be done. Action research therefore aims at solving specific problems which may arise during the community development and community education process. It is evident that community education is usually connected to community development, and that it is about relevant, accessible education and the realization of community education as the most appropriate educational tool to address community needs.

The success of the community education process will also depend on continuous research, since the community education process is indeed a diagnostic and problem-solving process. The final phase of the community education process implies follow-ups on planning and also follow-ups into the operation of educational programmes in a community.

Continuous research as the final phase of the community education process should occur continuously as far as the total process is concerned.

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3.3 SYNTHESIS

From the present chapter it is evident that community education is a process of planning and bringing into operation of educational programmes in a community. Through the community education process, the community's interests, needs and problems are identified and analyzed, after which programmes are designed in order to accommodate these interests, needs and problems.

In a nutshell, phase 1 of the community education process is about the appointment of a co-ordinator of community education. This person is the trained expert, initiator, educational manager who assists in the planning of community education. The co-ordinator of community education collaborates with advisory councils and his personnel in order to implement the community education concept and co-ordinate the community education process. The co-ordinator of community education performs a variety of functions which include the following: object setting, assessing needs, developing plans for decision making, training function, evaluative function, organizational function and diagnostic function.

The second phase of the community education process is about creating an educational milieu. It is the task of the co-ordinator of community education to create an educational climate whereby individuals and communities can satisfy their needs, solve their problems, attain their objectives and realize their potential. A climate conducive to the process of community education should be guided by certain key features. These key features are responsibility, accountability, participation, involvement, freedom, democracy, respect and collegiality. Furthermore, four learning environments are essential with regard to creating an educational milieu. They include the physical environment; the human and interpersonal climate; the organizational climate and the climate of the reward system.

The establishment of an organizational structure for participative planning forms phase 3 of the community education process. This is where individuals and communities are involved in the establishment of an organizational structure which will in turn allow for participative planning of their community education. It is here that the community advisory council offers its greatest

potential for achieving the objectives of community education. In the community advisory council, community members enjoy representation in order to ensure full participation in educational activities with a direct influence in their lives. This wide representation of community members, institutions and groups with an interest in community education covers a variety of sectors which might include: professionals, parents, learners, leaders, business, government, religious groups, ethnic groups, etc. The organizational structure for participative planning is based in the community learning centre and through this structure good working relationships between activities to be done, the personnel involved and the physical factors needed to perform the activities are established.

Phase 4 is about identifying and analyzing the problems, needs and interests of individuals and institutions in the community. This phase is imperative in the community education process to allow for the designing and implementing of relevant educational programmes. Various methods are used in assessing educational and learning needs in the community. These include: questionnaires, interviews, need surveys, group discussions, research reports, the mass media, etc. In using these methods to assess educational and learning needs, one will discover a wide range of needs which exist in a given community. Some of these needs are for skills, citizenship, parental and family education, health matters, recreation, leisure, time and sport.

Phase 5 is about formulating programme objectives. The emphasis here is that when planning a community education programme it is imperative to start by pointing out the intended outcomes and/or educational objectives of the programme. Programme objectives give direction and focus with regard to the designing and operating of a given community education programme. In order to provide direction and focus, programme objectives should therefore be unambiguous, attainable and realistic.

The designing of educational programmes is the sixth phase in the community education process. In this phase activities of an educational programme which are needed in order to meet the educational and learning needs of the community are identified. Furthermore, the main concern is about the choice of a suitable learning format or pattern of learning experiences for a given community education programme. In designing educational programmes, the co-ordinator

should consider the activities suitable for individual learning; activities suitable for group learning; activities suitable for institutional or mass learning.

In phase 7 of the community education process, community resources are identified and mobilized. The community resources and services are necessary for the operation of a given community education programme. It is important that the available community resources be utilized maximally. The bottom line here is that the success of any community education programme relies on the proper utilization of the community resources at its disposal. Resources at the disposal of communities include human, physical and financial resources which should be utilized interactively in addressing the educational and learning needs of communities.

The operation of educational programmes (phase 8) forms the culmination and focal point of the community education process. This is the stage whereby the formulated programme objectives are put into action for the purpose of attaining them. The programme leader therefore selects learning activities from a variety of methods, learning formats or activity patterns, which are used to operate an educational programme.

Phase 9 is about the evaluation of educational programmes, rediagnosis of learning needs, and adjustment of educational provisions of the various educational agencies in the community. This phase deals with the improvement of the organisational operation, with regard to the operation of educational programmes. It further deals with the improvement of programmes, with regard to objectives, planning, structure, methods, management, etc. The evaluation of educational programmes should be organised, systematic and must be influenced by the objectives of the educational programmes. This phase requires a well co-ordinated process by the co-ordinator of community education with regard to making decisions and judgements about existing and future programmes based on attainable criteria and observable outcomes.

The last "phase" of the community education process is continuous research (phase 10). The implication is that this phase occurs continuously throughout the whole process. In community education continuous research is directed at solving specific problems in a given community by making use of scientific methods and then using the results of the research to assist that given

community. Action research has an advantage in that it allows everybody with an interest in community education to take part and thereby utilizing a wide array of learning experiences.

These people could include professionals, educators, instructors, to name a few. Continuous research through action research allows community members to plough back their experiences to the community.

In the next chapter, methods and techniques of assessing learning needs for community education programmes will be investigated.

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CHAPTER 4

METHODS AND TECHNIQUES FOR ASSESSING LEARNING NEEDS FOR COMMUNITY EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The theoretical exposition presented in the previous chapter provides a clarification of the community education process and in particular of the ten phases of this process. This exposition has therefore paved the way for achieving the main purpose of this research, namely to investigate methods and techniques that can be implemented to assess the learning needs of individuals and communities in the community education process, in order to provide relevant community education programmes.

This chapter is essential for this study since it allows for the investigation of methods and techniques for assessing learning needs upon which community education programmes can be based,which is the main task of the present study. In order for any community education programme to be implemented, the educational and learning needs of the community must be identified and assessed. The assessment of educational and learning needs should not be done in a haphazard manner, instead it should be undertaken in a systematic, formalised and accountable manner. This chapter therefore seeks to investigate those methods and techniques which can be used in assessing learning or educational needs of individuals and communities.

4.2 METHODS AND TECHNIQUES FOR ASSESSING LEARNING NEEDS FOR COMMUNITY EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

The two concepts, namely **methods** and **techniques**, need to be explained briefly in the context of this discussion. The Concise Oxford Dictionary (1990: S.V **method**) defines **method** as a special form of procedure in any branch of mental activity, or a scheme of classification. The Concise Oxford Dictionary (1990:S.V **technique**) further explains a **technique** as a means of achieving one's purpose, especially skillfully. It is evident that these concepts are not synonymous but one encompasses the other. **Method** is used in a broader context while **technique** is used to specify.

4.2.1 NEEDS ASSESSMENT

4.2.1.1 **General background**

The identification and analysis of learning needs of individuals and institutions form the fourth phase of the community education process. This study and in particular this chapter focusses on needs assessment for community education programmes.

According to Suarez (1994:4057) it is the intent of needs assessment to identify areas in which deficits exist, desired performance has not been attained, or problems may be expected in the future. The results of needs assessment are then used for further action such as planning or remediation to improve the situation.

Suarez(1994:4057) further writes that educational needs have been assessed and analyzed for centuries. However, formalized assessments of educational needs were not conducted on a widespread basis until the middle of the twentieth century. At that time, public and professional demands for more systematic and accountable processes of providing education led to the emergence of information-based models for educational planning and evaluation. ... this process was called "needs assessment".

The determination of needs is such a broad concept, applicable in so many situations, that a common conceptual model and set of needs assessment procedures have not emerged. Instead, the literature describes a number of conceptual and procedural approaches. Some are drawn from definitional and philosophic differences while others seem based on the task at hand. Major variations in needs assessment appear in:

- the definition used for the term "need"
- the purposes for which needs assessments are conducted
- the standards by which needs are identified, and
- the strategies and procedures used in the process (Suarez, 1994:4057).

4.2.1.2 **Conceptualisation**

In the discussions and practices of needs assessment there are different meanings linked to the concept of **need.** In order to avoid the controversy regarding definition of the concept of **need** for needs assessment, there has to be a development of a universally accepted conceptual meaning of needs assessment.

The concept of **needs assessment** refers to any systematic process for collecting and analysing information about the educational needs of individuals, groups or organisations (Knowles, 1971:86)

Suarez (1994:4056) defines the concept of **needs assessment** as an information gathering and analysis process which results in the identification of the needs of individuals, groups, institutions, communities or societies.

Suarez(1994:4057) further points out that the majority of needs assessment studies, however, have been based on a variation of one of three definitions of the term "need":

- The most widely used definition of "need" for needs assessment is that of a discrepancy. This definition, introduced by Kaufman(1972), suggests that needs are areas in which actual status is less than targeted status.
  Another commonly used definition of "need" is that of a want or preference. Stufflebeam et al (1985) refer to this definition as the "democratic view" of needs (i.e. a need is a change desired by a majority of some reference group).
- A more stringent and less used concept of need with regard to needs assessment studies is that of a deficit. A need is said to exist if an absence or a deficiency in the area of interest is harmful.

4.2.1.3 The Purposes of Needs Assessment

The main objective of needs assessment in the community education process, is the assessment of learning needs for community education programmes. In line with the above idea Suarez (1994:5058) outlines the following purposes of needs assessment:

- Providing information for planning is the most common reason given for conducting need assessments.
- The diagnosis or identification of problems or weaknesses is another common purpose of needs assessment.
- Needs assessments are components of several evaluation models. These assessments are part of the evaluation process and may have as their purpose determining areas of weakness prior to the implementation of a given form of instruction or treatment, determining gaps in implementation, or determining the status of performance at intervals during the development or implementation of a treatment.
- Needs assessments are also conducted to hold educational institutions accountable for their efforts.

With regard to the objective of needs assessment in relation to community education Delaney and Nuttall (1978:3) write that: Needs assessment studies have both an immediate and an ultimate purpose. The immediate one is to identify unmet needs. The ultimate goal is to provide

information for planning services that will meet these needs. Needs assessments are conducted to identify, organize, and document information about unmet needs.

4.2.1.4 **Why a needs assessment?**

A condition for the success of a community education programme is that it must address real community needs. These community needs must be assessed.

According to A Guide To Needs Assessment In Community Education Report (1976:4) a formal assessment of needs takes much of the 'guesswork' out of the programme development process, and provides a basis for setting objectives and measuring results. The services and activities offered in community education programmes are not limited to those that are strictly 'educational'. Programmes can cover a broad range of other human service areas, such as recreation, culture, health, environment, social development, vocational training, and protection of the individual. The wide ranging scope of possibilities must be related to other institutions in the community who have similar objectives.

4.2.1.5 **Needs Assessment Strategies and Procedures**

It has been established that needs assessments are conducted for a variety of reasons in many different situations and to identify many types of needs (i.e. learning needs). Therefore the strategies and procedures used to conduct such assessments also differ a great deal. The following discussion will look into the various procedures or stages which are common to many needs assessment research projects:

- **Preparing to Conduct a Needs Assessment**: Like other forms of inquiry, preparing to conduct a needs assessment requires decision to conduct such a study, determining the purposes the assessment is to serve, and delimiting the areas in which the study is to

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concentrate. In addition, because educational needs are based to a large extent on the values of the institution or society in which they are to be determined, procedures must be incorporated into the process to ensure that these values are represented (Suarez, 1994:4058).

- **Designing the Needs Assessment**: Good designs for needs assessment begin with a clear specification of the focus of the study. This includes a delineation of the specific purposes of the study, the areas in which needs are to be assessed, and the type of needs to be identified. Complete designs would include procedures for analyzing data and reporting results (Suarez,1994:4059).

- **Assigning Priorities to Needs**: Needs assessment studies may result in the identification of many needs. To be of maximum use, identified needs should be placed in order from most to least crucial. The process of setting priorities can be seen as a complex analytical process.

Lund and Mc Gechan (1981) for example, suggest specific criteria for analyzing needs that include:

- How many people are affected?
- What would be the consequences if the needs were not met?
- Is this a need that can be met by an educational activity?
- Is this a critical need that should be met before other educational needs are addressed?
- Will resources (funds, staff) be adequate to meet those needs? (Suarez, 1994:4059)

- **Reporting and Using the Results**: A particular characteristic of needs assessment studies is the intended utility of results. Whether for planning, problem-solving, setting criteria for evaluation results, or praising or censuring education efforts, the final stage in the process is intended to be one of active use of the findings (Suarez, 1994:4059).

4.2.1.6 **Needs Assessment in the Planning and Evaluation Cycle**

It is imperative that community education programmes are evaluated regularly to determine whether they in fact are contributing to the satisfaction of community needs. Furthermore, those activities which are currently under way in the community can be used as building blocks for future programmes. Changes and new events in the community may be producing new needs to which community education programmes should respond.

According to A Guide To Needs Assessment In Community Education Report (1976:4) there is a series of processes which must be repeated during the life of a community education programme. Together they form the cycle of planning and evaluation which functions continuously throughout the duration of a programme. Figure 4.1 indicates what the processes are and the order in which they take place.

4.2.1.7 **Precautions in Needs Assessment**

One has to take certain precautions when assessing the learning needs of communities.

The following is a list of factors which can cause problems in assessing needs (A Guide To Needs Assessment In Community Education Report, 1976:6):

- **Rapid shifts in citizen perceptions of need:** In some instances, programmes have been installed based on considerable evidence of a need in one year, only to have a complete change in attitude the following year. The community education programme must have the built-in flexibility to handle such rapid changes, to make adjustments in citizen need perceptions to account for these shifts in attitude.

- **Media influence:** Television and newspapers play a large role in influencing citizens' perceptions of community needs. A TV series referring to a target group, such as migrant

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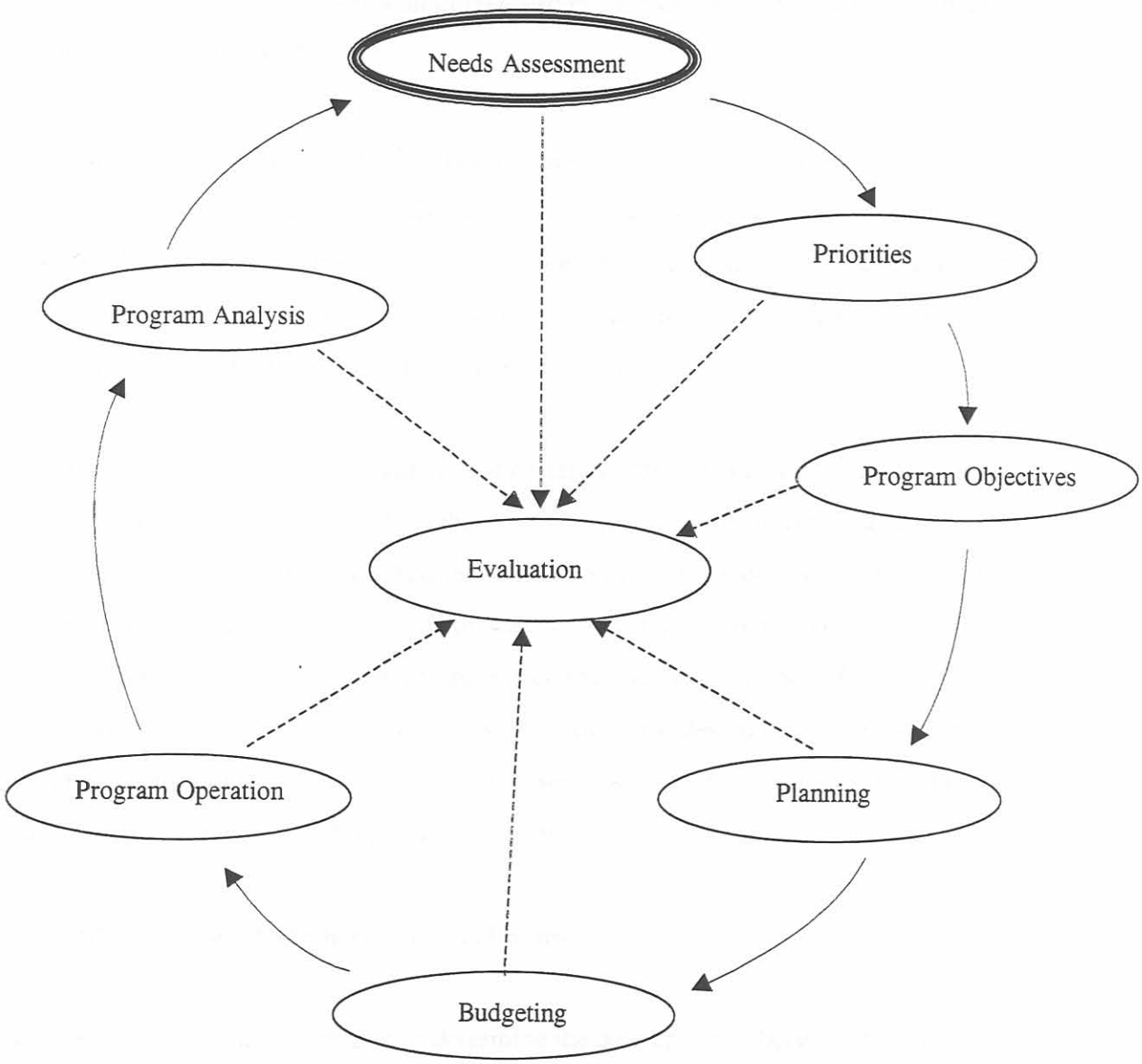
FIGURE 4.1

NEEDS ASSESSMENT IN THE PLANNING AND EVALUATION CYCLE

(cf. A Guide to Needs Assessment in Community Education Report, 1976:5)



workers, or current problems such as drug abuse, can cause an instant demand for services that may not be sustained over time.

- **Citizen disillusionment:** Most formalized needs assessments involve citizen surveys. One should however be conscious of the problems involved in relying too heavily on such surveys. One problem with citizen surveys is that they tend to raise expectations that cannot be fulfilled.

- **Lack of data on future needs:** The methodology of needs assessment is aimed at gathering information about individual and community needs in the community at the time. Projecting what may happen next week, next month, or next year is at best an unproved process. To minimize the amount of "guessing" involved, assessment should be a continuous process, receptive to constant change.

From the preceding discussion it is evident that needs assessment is a method meant for collecting data which eventually result in the identification of needs of individuals, groups, institutions or communities. It should further be mentioned that needs assessment is a process. As a result, there are certain strategies and procedures which need to be taken into cognisance when conducting needs assessment. It also emanated that the most common objective given for conducting needs assessment is that it provides information for designing community education programmes. In the context of this study needs assessment therefore provides information for designing relevant community education programmes.

4.2.1.8 **Needs Assessment Methods and Techniques**

The objective of a needs assessment is to determine the discrepancies between the needs of the community and the services and programmes available to meet those needs.

In the community education process a number of methods and techniques can be applied to assess educational and learning needs, for example:

- Questionnaires
- Interviews
- Survey research methods or needs surveys
- Research reports
- Group discussion
- Observation
- Small group techniques
- The key-informant method
- The community-forum method
- The social indicators method
- The combination method.

The following discussion will focus on a detailed description of the different methods and techniques:

4.2.2 QUESTIONNAIRES

4.2.2.1 **General background**

Wolf (1994:4882) defines a questionnaire as : " A self-report instrument used for gathering information about variables of interest to an investigator. It consists of a number of questions or items on paper that a respondent reads and answers". Nowadays the questionnaire is one of the commonly used instruments to gather data, however, Du Toit (1992:100) states that the questionnaire as such dates back to 1847, when it was used as a research instrument for the first time by Horace Mann.

According to Wolf (1994:4882) a questionnaire, as a self-report instrument, is based on three assumptions. These are:

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- the respondent can read and understand the questions or items;
- the respondent possesses the information to answer the questions or items;
- the respondent is willing to answer the questions or items honestly.

These assumptions may or may not be warranted for a particular questionnaire in a particular study. Accordingly, the assumptions often have to be tested through adequate developmental work before a questionnaire can be used with confidence. Such developmental work often includes interviewing, piloting, and pretesting.

Du Toit (1992: 101) is of the opinion that there are many theories about the exact nature of a questionnaire. It could be a series of written questions on a specific subject which require answers from a person. It could also be a systematic collection of questions sent to a universe of respondents to obtain data. It is therefore a method of collecting data that cannot be obtained personally. According to Mulder (1986:4) researchers generally use questionnaires when a large group of people are involved and they wish to deduce laws or generally valid rules from the responses of the subjects. Lien(1980:162) adds that questionnaires are used for the collection of basic and supplementary information for specific purposes, such as securing responses for use in validating information collected through other techniques as well as sampling pupil opinions and attitudes.

The variables of interest for which information is sought in a questionnaire can be quite varied. This is also the case with a questionnaire designed to assess learning needs of individuals and communities for a relevant community education programme. The questionnaire can include factual questions about the respondent, such as age, sex, ethnic group, and occupation; attitudes, opinions, interests, beliefs, aspirations, and expectations; past, present and planned activities in the community; memberships in various groups/organisations; and perceptions of various matters. The list of what can be included in a questionnaire designed to assess learning needs of communities is almost without limit. Wolf (1994:4882) adds that what is included in a questionnaire will obviously be limited by the purposes of a study, by what can reasonably be asked in a questionnaire, and by time constraints.

With regard to constraints Wolf (1994:4882-4883) continues to state that :

- An investigator should limit the questions or items in a questionnaire to variables of primary interest. Each question or item should be explicitly or implicitly related to a particular research question or hypothesis.

- The second constraint on what will be included in a questionnaire involves the sensitivity or delicacy of the content of particular questions or items. Matters of a personal nature such as sexual behaviour and attitudes are a case in point. Many individuals do not wish to reveal their attitudes and behaviour in an area that they consider to be a matter of privacy.

- The third constraint as to what will be included in a questionnaire is time. Respondents cannot be expected to spend a great deal of time answering a questionnaire. Experience with adults suggests that 30 minutes is about the upper limit that can be expected in the way of answering time when questionnaires are administered in a group setting. When questionnaires are mailed to respondents, about 15 minutes appears to be the limit of respondent time.

  In his study on the assessment of the educational needs of Hmong adults, Walter (1994:41) also stresses the importance of questionnaires as a method in the assessment of educational and learning needs.

4.2.2.2 **Questionnaire development**

As the community educator will probably use the questionnaire more than any other research tool in conducting his programme of community-based research, it is vital that he develops a thorough understanding of all aspects of its use. It is important to learn when the questionnaire should and should not be used, and this calls for an understanding of its relative strengths and weaknesses as a research instrument (Burbach and Decker, 1977:117).

In developing a questionnaire for assessing learning needs of individuals and communities the researcher has to consider certain steps, criteria and guidelines for an effective questionnaire.

With regard to developing a questionnaire, Wolf (1994:4883) remarks as follows:
A well-made questionnaire is highly deceptive. It appears to be well-organized, the questions are clear, response options are well-drawn and exhaustive, and there is a natural ordering or flow to the questions that keeps the respondent moving toward completion of the questionnaire. These desirable attributes and the deceptive simplicity of a well- made questionnaire do not spring naturally out of the process of questionnaire construction but are the result of a great deal of painstaking developmental work.

Wolf (1994:4883-4885) further describes the steps that are needed to achieve such a result as follows:

- The identification of variables
- Translation of variables into questions
- The pilot stage
- Refining the questionnaire
- Field testing the questionnaire.

Du Toit (1992:103-106) puts forward a number of guidelines for developing an effective questionnaire:

- Neatness and conciseness
- Each item should be clear and unambiguous
- The questionnaire should be as comprehensive as possible
- Clear instructions should be given
- Each item should deal with only one idea
- Questions should be objective
- Questions should move from the general to the specific
- Questions can be categorised

- Avoid descriptive qualifiers
- Responses should be easy to tabulate, summarise and interpret
- Make provision for adequate code numbers.

4.2.2.3 **Types of questionnaires**

Questionnaires that are developed in order to assess learning needs of individuals and communities for community education programmes are subdivided according to the way they are administered to respondents. Generally, there are mail questionnaires, self- administered questionnaires and group-administered questionnaires.

Oppenheim (1976:32) states that the chief advantage of the mail questionnaire is cheapness. Since it does not require a trained staff of field workers (who may also incur considerable travel and maintenance expenditure), virtually all that it requires is the cost of the planning and pilot work, printing or duplicating expenses, sampling, addressing, mailing, and providing stamped, self-addressed envelopes for the returns. Oppenheim (1976:33) also adds that the processing and analysis are usually simpler and cheaper, and are made possible by use of computers.

According to Oppenheim (1992:103) the self-administered questionnaire is usually presented to the respondents by an interviewer or by someone in an official position. The purpose of the inquiry is explained, and then the respondent is left alone to complete the questionnaire, which may be sent in or collected later. This method of data collection ensures a high response rate, accurate sampling, and a minimum of interviewer bias, while permitting interviewer assessments, providing necessary explanations (but **not** the interpretation of questions), and giving the benefit of a degree of personal contact.

Oppenheim (1992:103) points out that the group-administered questionnaire is also largely self-explanatory and is given to groups of respondents assembled together, such as invited audiences. Depending on the size of the group and its level of literacy, two or more persons will see to the administration of the questionnaires, give help where needed (in a non-directive way),

check finished questionnaires for completeness, and so on. Sometimes, variations in procedure may be introduced. Groups of forty can readily be controlled in this way, but contamination (through copying, talking, or asking questions) is a constant danger.

4.2.2.4 **Types of questions**

Basically speaking, there are two types of questions which can be used when compiling a questionnaire for assessing learning needs of individuals and communities. They are open or unstructured questions and closed or structured questions.

According to Du Toit (1992:102) in open questions people are expected to answer in their own words. Open questions leave everything to the discretion of the respondent. They are free to answer in their own words. No alternatives are given. Oppenheim (1976:41) concurs by saying that open or free-answer types of questions are not followed by any kind of choice, and the answers have to be recorded in full. The chief advantage of an open question is the freedom that it gives to the respondent. Free-response questions are often easy to ask, difficult to answer, and still more difficult to analyse.

On the other hand Du Toit (1992:102) writes that closed or structured questions are worded in such a way that short, concise answers can be given. These questions require a simple "Yes" or "No", or the person can choose from a number of alternatives. This type of questionnaire is easy to fill in, less time consuming, confines people to the questions, is relatively objective and acceptable. It is also easy to tabulate and analyse and is less open to misinterpretation. In line with Du Toit, Oppenheim (1976:40) gives the following definition: "A closed question is one in which the respondent is offered a choice of alternative replies. He may be asked to check or underline his chosen answer(s) in a written questionnaire, or the alternatives may be read aloud or shown to him on a prompt card or a slide."

There is a variety of learning needs that exist in communities and can be identified through the use of questionnaires. Some of the examples include the following:

- functional literacy
- numeracy skills
- personal development
- consumer education
- parental and family education
- health matters
- community resources, etc.

4.2.2.5 **Advantages of questionnaires**

Questionnaires developed for assessing learning needs for community education programmes, including questionnaires for any field of research, have some advantages.

Du Toit (1992:124-125) lists the following advantages of questionnaires:

- It is an economical way of collecting information for both researcher and subject, since it saves time, inputs and costs.
- If subjects are scattered over a wide area, the questionnaire is a better method of collecting data.
- Where a large group of people are covered, the questionnaire method also makes batch administration possible. The larger the group, the greater data reliability will be.
- Questionnaires are easy to plan, compile and administer.
- If carefully and correctly compiled, the researcher can ask anyone to administer questionnaires on his or her behalf.
- It is generally regarded as a reliable instrument for collecting data.
- Information of a personal nature is often readily given, particularly if subjects remain anonymous, or even if the assurance is given that the information will be treated confidentially.
- A questionnaire places less pressure on subjects because they can complete it in their own time.
- A questionnaire can help subjects by focusing their attention on significant items.

Because it is in writing and is accompanied by clear instructions, greater uniformity is achieved in the answers given. Questionnaires do not allow too much variation in answers.

- It can serve as a preliminary instrument to collect data which can subsequently be followed by an indepth study.
- This method allows subjects to use their own language to state their case. Written data are more reliable than oral responses.

4.2.2.6 **Disadvantages of questionnaires**

Even a well-made questionnaire with all the desirable attributes has certain disadvantages. This statement also applies to a well-made questionnaire for assessing learning needs of individuals and communities.

On this note Du Toit (1992:125-126) identifies the following disadvantages of questionnaires:

- The reliability and validity of a questionnaire is usually low, for it is difficult to control.
- The subjects who react may not be a representative section of the population. They are possibly more responsible people and may also be in favour of the research. The opinions of the subjects who failed to react to the questionnaire will always remain a mystery.
- If a question is incorrectly understood or the answer is incomplete, nothing can be done about it, whereas any misunderstanding can be cleared up immediately in the case of an interview.
- Because many questionnaires are fairly rigidly structured, they should not be used to determine such things as emotions or sentiments. Emotions and sentiments are also difficult to express in writing.
- Many subjects prefer not to put controversial issues in writing.
- Some fields of research are so sensitive, delicate, confidential or complex, that it is difficult to formulate questions about these matters.
- Many subjects fail to answer questions completely honestly. Instead, they give the researcher the answer they think he or she wants to hear.

- Questionnaires cannot be used for illiterate people or young children.
- Some subjects regard questionnaires as unimportant and answer the questions haphazardly and without the necessary enthusiasm and seriousness.
- Researchers cannot determine whether subjects are unwilling or evasive; an interview will reveal such attitudes almost immediately.

In spite of disadvantages, the questionnaire remains an invaluable instrument in any research, including that in the community education process. There is no doubt that it plays a vital role in research methodology and overcomes the problem of contact between researcher and subject. Researchers who intend using questionnaires should ensure that they satisfy the criteria laid down and follow the correct guidelines; researchers must also understand the mechanics and the possibilities of their questionnaires.

4.2.3 INTERVIEWS

4.2.3.1 **General background**

One of the research techniques that can be used in assessing learning needs for community education programmes is the interview. According to Behr (1983:144) the interview is a direct method of collecting information in a one-to-one situation. In line with Behr, it becomes evident that an interview is where a person interviews another person and notes responses, using structured or unstructured questions. Du Toit (1992:80) writes that most people are able to acquire the skill of interviewing, although to become adept at it requires practice, devotion and hard work. In idiographic research researchers often have to deal with sensitive issues, where the purpose of the interview is to collect information that the interviewee will not impart to just anyone. It is necessary, therefore, to build up a relationship in which the interviewee will be prepared to talk about him- or herself and discuss matters that the interviewee would normally not raise in an ordinary conversation. It is this very divulgence or uncovering that distinguishes an interview from a normal conversation.

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Interviews are a simple, straightforward, but rather subjective means of data collection. Interviewing simply involves deciding what information you want and from whom, designing a set of questions, and asking them of those people (Burbach and Decker, 1977:66).

4.2.3.2 **Kinds of interviews**

With regard to interviews, Oppenheim (1976:30) presents the following comments:
There are many kinds of interviews, such as the journalistic interview, the employment interview, and the therapeutic interview. Here we are concerned only with the data-gathering or research type of interview. It consists of three interacting variables: the respondent, the interviewer, and the interview schedule or questionnaire. Each of these, as well as the interview situation, can have an important influence on the results.

Two kinds of interviews can be used particularly for the identification of learning needs for community education programmes, viz the person-to-person interview and the telephone interview (A Guide To Needs Assessment In Community Education Report, 1976:18):

- **Person-to-person Interview**: The person-to-person interview is the type preferred by many experts in the field. It is usually conducted "door-to-door," although the "man-on-the-street" approach has also been used successfully. The "door-to-door" method must include the design of a questionnaire in advance and the selection of a sample group of residences and businesses to be surveyed. The "man-on-the-street" method also requires a questionnaire in advance and includes selection of a proper location and proper timing for conducting the survey.

  Advantages of the "person-to-person" approach are: (1) more insight into problems and needs can be obtained by asking questions, (2) it yields the highest percentage of respones per individual surveyed. Disadvantages of the "person-to-person" approach are: (1) it is the most expensive approach, (2) interviewers must be trained, (3) results can be subjective because of interviewers' biases, and (4) personality clashes can

develop, resulting in skewed data or no data at all.

- **Telephone Interviews:** The telephone survey has enjoyed increased popularity in recent needs surveys. It involves the development of a questionnaire and selection of representative numbers to be dialed by the interviewer.

  Advantages of telephone interviews are: (1) less threatening than "door-to- door", (2) the chance for more detailed insight into the nature of citizens' problems and needs, and (3) the ability to reach a relatively large section of the population. Disadvantages of the telephone interview are: (1) their expense, (2) that many people, particularly low-income people, do not have phones, (3) unlisted telephone numbers, and (4) the need for extensive training of volunteers.

4.2.3.3 Types of interviews

Research interviews that may be used in assessing learning needs of individuals and communities are usually divided into two broad categories, namely structured and unstructured interviews.

In the structured interview, the interviewer usually takes the lead and definite guidelines are followed because the interviewer requires specific information. This type of interview is invaluable for collecting information from groups of interviewees. It is therefore ideal for nomothetic research (Du Toit, 1992:82).

Keats (in Keeves, 1997:307) has the following to say about structured interviews:

Although it is not always apparent to the interviewer or the respondent, all interviews have a structure of some kind. An effectively structured interview has three main phases. The interview begins with an introductory phase in which the credentials of the interviewer are established and accepted, rapport between interviewer and respondent is developed, and an

appropriate language style adopted. This phase is often used to obtain background information. In the second phase the main content of the interview is developed. In general, less threatening content will be addressed first, followed by the more detailed exploration of the topic, characterized by probing and elaboration of the interview structure. The third and final phase is the denouement, in which the interviewer concludes the interview and releases the respondent.

With regard to the unstructured interview the interviewer usually does not take the lead. The interviewer conducts the interview without any preconceived ideas. In this way he or she endeavours to reach the person (Du Toit, 1992:92). The art of unstructured interviewing is that the questions should appear to arise **spontaneously** from the conversation. Under no circumstances may the interview deteriorate into an inquisition. If interviewers ask questions too directly, the interviewee may become defensive and hostile and will be unwilling to divulge information. Interviewees should be encouraged to talk freely and voluntarily offer information that they deem to be significant (Du Toit, 1992:92).

Du Toit (1992:92) further cites the following aspects which are important in unstructured interviews:

- active listening
- open questions
- keeping records of data.

The community educator can either use the structured or unstructured interview to assess a variety of learning needs in order to design a relevant community education programme. The learning needs may include the following:

- social coping skills
- domestic economy
- the raising of levels of awareness about existing opportunities
- parental education, etc

4.2.3.4 **Components of interviews**

Like any other type of interview, even the interviews which may be used for assessing learning needs of individuals and communities also need to consist of certain components of interviewing.

In line with the above statement Miller and Cannel (in Keeves, 1997:366) express the following: The four main components of the interviewer's job are: (a) to introduce the interview to the person and convince him/her to accept it and to apply him/herself diligently to the responding role, (b) to administer the questions using standardized procedures, (c) to follow up those responses which are inadequate - those which fail to fulfill the objectives of the question - using acceptable, nonbiasing techniques, and (d) to record the response accurately and completely.

Miller and Cannel (in Keeves, 1997:366-368) further mention that these components of interviewing will require the following techniques:

- **Introductions**: The purposes of the introductions are to encourage the prospective respondent to agree to be interviewed and to accept the respondent role wholeheartedly.
- **Administering the questionnaire**: Questions often are accompanied by instructions providing cues on the exact kind of information desired and how to be efficient in responding.
- **Follow-up of inadequate responses**: If the respondent has performed his or her role properly, the interviewer's task is simply to record the response.
- **Recording responses**: Accurate recording of the response is the last component of the interviewing task.

4.2.3.5 **Techniques of interviewing**

Interviewing is a research technique. It is therefore imperative for the researcher who uses interviews for collecting data for use in assessing learning needs for community education programmes to have certain techniques of interviewing.

Keats (in Keeves, 1997:308) points out that whether for selection or for data-gathering in research, good interviewing requires the development of an integrated repertoire of techniques, which includes speaking skills, listening skills, skills of concept acquisition, and skill in the interpretation of verbal and nonverbal messages. One of the most important attributes of the good interviewer is the ability to show empathy with the respondent.

Keats (in Keeves, 1997: 308-309) further presents other techniques of interviewing as follows:

- As verbal interaction is the principal mode of communication in interviewing, it is necessary for the interviewer to cultivate a mode of speech that is clear, delivered at an appropriate pace, and moderate in pitch and volume.
- Listening skills are perhaps even more important than speaking skills.
- Non-verbal behaviour can enhance or detract from demonstrating active listening. There are many cultural differences in the nuances of interpreting non-verbal cues.
- Cultural norms govern the distance between interviewer and respondent that is acceptable. Within the context of the cultural norm, the acceptable distance also varies according to the topic, the genders of interviewer and respondent, the place in which the interview takes place, and the attitudes of the respondent.
- Another important function of non-verbal cues is the expression of feelings. There is cross-cultural evidence of the universality of the meaning of facial expressions of the primary emotions of anger, sorrow, fear, and joy, but cultural differences are found in the more complex emotions, and, even more importantly for the interviewing situation, in the degree of openness or inhibition acceptable for their expression.

4.2.3.6 **Requirements for good interviewing**

Du Toit (1992:81) writes that the success of a research interview depends largely on the extent to which the researcher succeeds in establishing rapport with the subject. Rapport indicates a comfortable relationship between two or more people - a relationship of trust.

Even interviews meant for assessing learning needs of individuals and communities for community education programmes need to have certain requirements, particularly the relationship of trust between the interviewer and the interviewee.

Du Toit (1992:81) further mentions three important requirements for good interviewing:

- Orienting the interviewee
- The conduct of the interviewer
- The influence of the environment.

The following is a discussion of these requirements for good interviewing:

o **Orienting the interviewee:** According to Du Toit (1992:81) every interviewee should be oriented towards the research interview so that the interviewee has some idea of what is expected of him or her. In this case interviewees should be made aware of the intention to identify learning needs in their community. This is done by way of a brief introduction prior to the start of the interview. Concerning the orientation Branigan (1985:201) provides the following guidelines for an effective introduction:

  - Keep the introduction short
  - Word the introduction realistically
  - Make the introduction nonthreatening
  - Keep the introduction serious
  - The introduction should be neutral
  - The interviewer (researcher) should present the introduction in a pleasantly firm, decisive manner, but should not appear to be bullying the subject.

o **The conduct of the interviewer**: Because an interview is not an ordinary conversation, the interviewer should tone down his or her own personality to ensure that the presence of the interviewer does not overwhelm or threaten the interviewee (Du Toit, 1992:82). Du Toit (1992:82) further adds that the interviewer should avoid talking too much, being too direct or trying to impress the other person with personal opinions. It is important

that the interviewee becomes the one who talks too much about the existing learning needs.

Mackay (1973:8) and also Behr (1983:146) suggest the following guidelines which apply to prospective interviewers:

- They should have an easy-going and relaxed attitude.
- They should be good listeners.
- They should avoid interjections, except when it is necessary to explain something.
- They should not allow the interviewee to deviate from the subject.
- They should under no circumstances become involved in a debate or argue with the subject.
- Questions that may embarrass the interviewee should be avoided.
- They should be flexible and be able to see the interviewee's point of view.
- They should not be biased and have preconceived ideas about the interviewee.

o **The influence of the environment:** The interview should be held in private, and possible interruptions should be avoided. If possible, the interviewee should be familiar with the environment. The arrangement of furniture in the room influences the atmosphere. For instance, if the interviewer sits behind a desk, this could create an impression of authority and distance. There are no hard and fast rules here: interviewers should use their discretion depending on the individual in question and his or her circumstances (Du Toit, 1992: 82-83).

Of importance here, is the main aim of the interview, which is to identify learning needs for community education programmes.

4.2.3.7 **Advantages of interviews**

The fact that interviews are commonly used to gather data proves that they have certain advantages as a technique of research. Because of its advantages, the interview is a suitable technique which can be used in collecting information used to assess learning needs for community education programmes.

According to Lien (1980:148), apart from obtaining information, interviews can also be used to interpret data or information such as test results or a profile of results. The greatest advantage of the interview in the hands of a skilled interviewer is its flexibility (Oppenheim, 1976:31). This enables the interviewer to make adjustments as the situation requires (Du Toit, 1992:80).

Kerlinger (1986:440) and also Behr (1983:145) cite the following practical examples of the advantages of flexibility:

- The interviewer can explain to the interviewee the purpose of the study.
- The researcher can make sure that the interviewee knows what is expected of him or her. If, for example, the interviewee misinterprets a question, the researcher can make an explanatory remark.
- If, in the course of the interview, the interviewee appears to be unmotivated or loses interest, the interviewer can encourage him or her to continue.
- The flexibility inherent in interviewing is especially useful in dealing with children or uneducated people.
- Questions concerning interviewees' expectations, aspirations and fears can be formulated in such a way that accurate information is gathered.
- Interviewing makes it possible to explore answers further: thus the interviewer can determine the reasons for a particular answer given by the interviewee.

4.2.3.8 **Disadvantages of interviews**

Unfortunately, even though the same interview questionnaire can be used by many interviewers in a standard interviewing procedure, there will always remain differences in the way in which questions are put to each respondent and these may have an important influence on the results. It may also happen that what is understood by the respondent and what is recorded or noted down from the respondent's answer will be selective and possibly biased (Oppenheim,1992:97).

Interviews cost money. There are travelling and subsistence expenses to be met, as well as payment to the interviewers - even when the interview is unsuccessful (Oppenheim, 1976:32).

Interviewing is one of the most useful methods of collecting data which can be used in assessing learning needs of individuals and communities for community education programmes. It is a skill, however, that demands careful preparation and much practice. As a method of inquiry, interviewing is most consistent with people's ability to make meaning through language. It affirms the importance of the individual without denigrating the possiblity of communication and collaboration. Finally, it is deeply satisfying to researchers who are interested in others' views or needs.

4.2.4 SURVEY RESEARCH METHODS

4.2.4.1 **General background**

In the community education process survey research methods can be used to gather data which may assist in assessing learning needs for community education programmes. A survey is a form of planned collection of data for the purpose of description or prediction, as a guide to action, or for the purpose of analyzing the relationships between certain variables. Surveys are usually conducted on a large scale. To gather data, surveys use questionnaires and interviews, attitude scales, projective techniques, and various related methods (Oppenheim, 1976:1).

According to Rosier (in Keeves, 1997:154) survey research methods in education describe procedures for the collection of information associated with education. This information is used to extend understanding of educational issues and to assist in the development of educational policy.

The survey approach provides for the collection of information from a sample of the entire population of the community. The survey approach provides results that are the most scientifically valid; it is the approach most capable of eliciting specific information from individuals. Its weaknesses are that it tends to be relatively expensive and requires a knowledge of research procedures and statistical analysis (Decker et al, 1988:53).

With regard to the assessment of learning needs using the survey approach, Decker et al (1988:53) state that assessment of community needs is the responsibility of everyone. The survey helps to identify the needs of the community as seen by the people.

It is evident that in the context of this study surveys can be used to assess learning needs of communities afterwhich community education programmes can be designed and operated.

Three developments have influenced the methodology of survey research. First, the technology of sampling has reached a high level. Second, many techniques have been developed for collecting valid and reliable information from survey respondents. Third, the availability of computers and survey research software has facilitated the analysis of this information (Rosier in Keeves, 1997:154).

4.2.4.2 **Purpose and types of surveys**

Researchers even in community education conduct surveys for various reasons or purposes. Rosier (in Keeves, 1997:154) points out that surveys are conducted to accomplish two main purposes. First, descriptive or enumerative surveys are used to obtain information. Second, analytic, explanatory or comparative surveys are designed to examine relationships

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between variables (e.g. learning needs) in the survey.

Oppenheim (1976:8) refers to the descriptive survey as the census type and to the analytic as the relational type of survey. The purpose of the descriptive survey is to count. When it cannot count everyone, it counts a representative sample and then makes inferences about the population as a whole. The job of such surveys is essentially fact-finding and actuarial - although it should be added that the data thus collected are often used to make predictions.

It is this kind of analytic, relational survey, set up specifically to explore the relationships between particular variables, that is sometimes referred to as "the poor man's experiment", since its design is quite similar to that of laboratory experiments (Oppenheim, 1976:9).

There are other types of surveys which can be useful at the hands of the community educator with regard to the identification of learning needs. The following discussion will focus on a description of these surveys:

- **Agency surveys:** Interviews with agency representatives should be constructed by use of a questionnaire in line with the "common language" categories. Questions should be directed at finding "gaps" in community programmes that the people have noted from their experiences and in validating available statistical data and the common language categories.

  If there is a public or private information and referral agency in the community, a key person there should be interviewed and an analysis made of information collected from citizen inquiries to find out the nature of the most frequent requests for services. This will indicate citizens' self-perceived needs while the data from agency questionnaires indicate agency-perceived needs (A Guide To Needs Assessment In Community Education Report, 1976:14-17).

- **Citizen Survey:** A direct survey of citizens relative to their perceived needs, interests, and wants should be conducted. Past needs assessments, both for community education programmes and for other community service programmes, have utilized citizen surveys as the basic ingredient in the assessment process. As a result, a great deal of material is available, ranging from extremely simple to highly complex, about how to gather information from the local citizenry (A Guide To Needs Assessment In Community Education Report, 1976:18).

- **Mail-Out Survey:** The mail-out survey involves developing a questionnaire and finding the addresses of a representative number of individuals in the community.

  Advantages of the mail-out survey are: (1) low cost, (2) the chance of more honest answers, and (3) its practicality in rural areas. Disadvantages of the mail-out survey are: (1) the usually poor response rate (less than 25 percent), (2) the difficulty in selecting representative addresses, (3) it eliminates responses from illiterates or those not familiar or conversant in questionnaire language, and (4) responses to questions are less "open-ended" than with person-to-person interviews (A Guide To Needs Assessment In Community Education Report, 1976:18).

  With regard to the purpose of surveys, Rosier (in Keeves, 1997:154) adds that the purposes of a survey influence the formulation of the research questions to be examined, the way it is conducted, and the presentation and dissemination of the findings.

4.2.4.3 **Survey research cycle**

The time frame of surveys differs considerable depending on the nature, type, purpose of the survey and other relevant variables. There is also no exception to surveys undertaken with regard to community education.

According to Oppenheim (1976:1-2) a social-research study may last from a few months to many years, but most surveys go through the same stages or cycles of stages. We may distinguish the following:

- Deciding the aims of the study and the hypotheses to be investigated.
- Reviewing the relevant literature, discussions with informants and interested bodies.
- Designing the study and making the hypotheses specific to a situation (making the hypotheses operational).
- Designing or adapting the necessary research methods and techniques, pilot work and revision of the research instruments.
- The sampling process: selection of the people to be approached.
- The field-work stage: data collection and returns.
- Processing the data, coding the responses, and preparing punch cards.
- The statistical analysis (simple at first, but becoming more complex, testing for statistical significance).
- Assembling the results and testing the hypotheses.
- Writing up the results, relating the findings to other research, drawing conclusions and interpretations.

In line with Oppenheim, Rosier (in Keeves, 1997:156) states that one helpful way to understand the range of components of a typical survey is in terms of a "survey research cycle". He emphasizes that both in its planning and execution a survey may be conducted more effectively by reference to the logical demands of the cycle, as summarized in Figure 4.2.

Rosier (in Keeves, 1997:156-161) further describes the stages of the cycle, which are also applicable in community education, as follows:

- **Research questions:** The starting point for a survey is a clear statement of the research questions it is designed to answer. The finishing point is a set of results which addresses these research questions.

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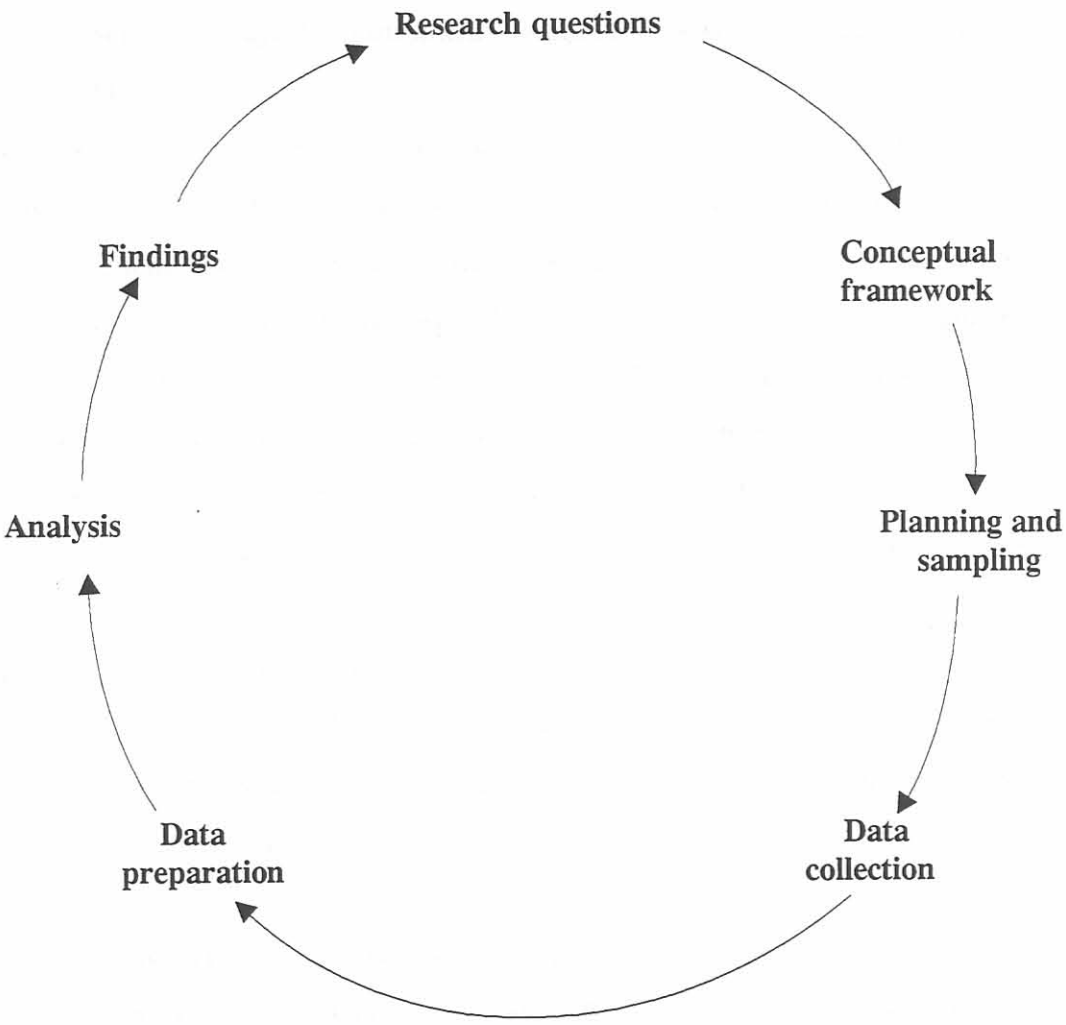
FIGURE 4.2

SURVEY RESEARCH CYCLE

(cf. Rosier in Keeves, 1997:156)



- **Conceptual framework**: At the second stage of the cycle, the ideas or components included in the research questions should be specified more precisely in conceptual terms.
- **Planning and sampling (survey instruments)**: The term "instruments" refers to the range of questionnaires, interviews, tests, and attitude scales used for the collection of data in a survey. The instruments should be linked to the concepts included in the conceptual framework.
- **Data collection**: The data collection stage of the survey research cycle involves identifying the survey respondents and collecting the desired information from them.
- **Data preparation and management**: The data preparation stage of the cycle starts with the raw information collected from the respondents (e.g. learning needs), and concludes with the data carefully organized as computer files ready for analysis. This stage is concerned with checking and coding data, and building the data files.
- **Analysis**: Analysis can commence once the data file has been adequately prepared. In terms of the logic of the survey research cycle, the earlier stages of the cycle should anticipate the analysis stage.
- **Findings:** The last stage of the survey research cycle involves the presentation of the findings, which should link to the original questions. This final stage should also include a discussion of the strength of the findings, and of the extent to which they may be generalized.

From the preceding discussion it is evident that a survey is an operation of some complexity and, therefore, a first requirement is the development of a good plan. It follows that the conduct of survey research should follow a logical process, which in this study is referred to as a 'survey research cycle'. Normally, the success of the research study is not guaranteed by following the cycle, but it may enhance confidence in the management of the survey. No single study can ever identify all the learning needs in a given community or find all the answers, so that one cycle may lead to another as findings from one survey lead to new questions for future surveys in community education.

4.2.5 RESEARCH REPORTS

4.2.5.1 General background

Research reports also form one of the widely used techniques for collecting data needed for the assessment of learning needs for community education programmes. Van Niekerk (1982:94) refers to reports as hetero-historicity data whereas Hitchcock and Hughes (1989:108) refer to documentary sources, while Taylor and Bogdan (1984:91) refer to personal documents. For a report to exist, there must be an incident or a situation being reported. This is possible in the community education situation where the co-ordinator of community education reports about the learners, their attitudes, progress, programmes, implementing processes, etc.

According to Hitchcock and Hughes (1989:108-109), documentary sources or reports have been used extensively in all the human sciences over a considerable period of time. These sources constitute a largely neglected source of data on the social world of schools and classrooms, especially when compared to the extensive use of the survey technique, structured interviewing or systematic observation. Used with care and in conjuction with other kinds of data, personal documentary sources offer the reseacher a number of possibilities. This is because ethnographic accounts of school and classroom processes tend to pinpoint the immediate, here and now, contemporary quality of the situation, thus possibly lacking historical depth.

Connelly and Clandinin (in Keeves, 1997:82) refer to reports as autobiography and further mention that autobiography was one of the first methodologies for educational study, though it essentially disappeared until recently. Autobiography is related to narrative. The focus here is on an individual's psychology considered over a span of time.

Narrative inquiry may also be sociologically concerned with groups and the formation of community. To date in the 1990's in education, personal rather than social narrative inquiries have been more in evidence. The educational importance of narrative inquiry is that it brings theoretical ideas about the nature of human life as lived to bear on educational experience as

lived. Because of its focus on experience and the qualities of life and education, narrative is situated in a matrix of qualitative research (Connelly and Clandinin in Keeves, 1997:82).

4.2.5.2 **Types of research reports**

Seeing that research reports deal with the experience and the qualities of life they seem to be better placed as a tool (technique) for assessing learning needs for community education programmes. However, it is imperative for the researcher to carefully select the research report(s) he or she desires.

Connely and Clandinin (in Keeves, 1997: 83-84) present a number of types of research reports which may also be used in community education. The following is a brief summary:

- **From field to field texts**: What are normally called data (e.g. field notes) are, in narrative research, better thought of as field texts. These are texts created by participants and researchers to represent aspects of field experience.
- **Oral History:** One method for creating field texts is oral history. There are several strategies for obtaining an oral history, ranging from the use of a structured set of questions in which the researcher's intentions are uppermost, to asking a person to tell his or her own story in his or her own way in which the participant's intentions are uppermost.
  For instance community members could be asked to relate their learning and educational needs and further prioritize them.
- **Stories:** A closely connected method is the telling or writing of stories. Individuals have stories of their own experience, of school, and of their profession.
  In this case participants could tell stories about what they perceive as learning needs depending on their experiences.
- **Annals and Chronicles:** Annals are a simple dated history of significant moments or events for an individual or institution. Annals permit researchers to gain a historical context for the events under study. Chronicles are more thematic representations of the

annals. Chronicles represent a thematic aspect of the field of interest.

- **Photographs, Memory Boxes, Other Personal/Institutional Artifacts:** Physical artifacts are repositories of experience. The items that a person collects and a school's trophies and mementos can, through discussion with knowledgeable participants, reveal important depths of experience. These items, furthermore, are important triggers for memory.
- **Research Interviews**: Interviews can be made into field texts by verbatim transcription, notetaking, and the use of interview segments.

  In order to ascertain learning needs the community education researcher could conduct interviews with selected participants who are knowledgeable about the community members.
- **Journals**: Journals have been increasingly used for teaching purposes.

  It is sometimes overlooked that the same qualities that make them an influencial teaching tool also make them a valid research tool. Journals provide both a descriptive and reflective record of events, and of personal responses to them.
- **Autobiographical and Biographical Writing:** Autographical or biographical field texts are interpretative retellings of a story already lived.
- **Letters**: Letters, unlike journals, are written to another person with the expectation of a response. Both letters and journals are used in autobiographical and biographical methods.

  In this instance the community education researcher could write letters to the community leaders requesting them to identify and list the learning needs of that community.
- **Conversations**

  Conversations cover many kinds of activities, including letter writing. Usually conversation refers to nonhierarchical oral exchanges among researchers and participants in collaborative inquiries.
- **Field Notes and Other Stories from the Field**: Field notes are the standard ethnographic method of data collection. Commonly thought to be drafted by researchers, field notes may, in collaborative studies, be written by participants.

- **Document Analysis:** Documents are an easily overlooked source of field texts,particularly in the narrative study of groups and institutions. Documents have a special status because they are public records and often represent an official position.

These documents could be obtained from the libraries, community resource centres and also from educated persons within the community.

From the above discussion it is evident that research reports are straightforward documents that set forth to report an incident or a situation. In this study the incidents or situations being reported by the researcher will be the existing learning needs of community members in order to design relevant community education programmes.

4.2.6 GROUP DISCUSSION

4.2.6.1 **General background**

Group discussion is a research method for gathering information which may be useful for assessing educational and learning needs of community members.

According to Rademeyer (1985:1), the group discussion method has been used extensively in all branches of the behavioural sciences since the beginning of the century. Shortly after the Second World War the principles of group dynamics entered the marketing research scene in attempts to probe more deeply into the preferences, opinions and attitudes of the user, but the method was soon labelled unscientific and unreliable by conservative research institutions. Yet it withstood these attacks, and is now internationally regarded as an important instrument for gathering information.

Group discussion is a qualitative research method. However, in community education studies, group discussions are not concerned with gathering expert information. They are concerned with actual information from actual groups, thus attempting to utilise the advantages of group

interaction. Group discussions therefore counteract the disadvantages of group interaction.

4.2.6.2 **Definition of Group Discussion**

Group discussion as a method of research is applied extensively and for different objectives in various research studies. The use of group discussion is not confined to community education research but serves even other research studies. The use of group discussion originated with Kurt Lewin, a social psychologist, who did research on group dynamics in the 1930s. In the group dynamics literature a distinction is made between encounter, social, instructional and task-oriented groups (Seaman, 1981: 7). Encounter groups are variously termed T-groups and sensitivity groups and are formed to enhance the interpersonal effectiveness of their members in such fields as communication effectiveness and sensitivity to the feelings, ideas and attitudes of others. Social groups consist of people sharing the same interests, who gather in an informal atmosphere for recreational purposes. A learning process does occur in such groups, but their primary aim, like those of sports and bridge clubs, is a social one. Groups are also formed with the object of studying a particular subject which is of common interest to the members. Such groups are termed instructional groups. Their members share in the insight and experience of all the other members of the group, thus increasing their own enthusiasm, motivation and knowledge.

Seaman (1981:14) gives the following definition of task-oriented groups: "The vast majority of groups which meet from day to day are not designed for self-introspection nor for aiding their members to grow and better understand themselves ... Rather, they are normally formed for the purpose of accomplishing some task, be it to formulate policy, action, to plan for action, or for purposeful learning." As a community education research method, group discussion also fits this description since the primary aim is the purposeful collection of information in order to assess learning needs for planning community education programmes.

4.2.6.3 **Types of Group Discussion**

In community education different types of group discussion may be used. However, the type of group discussion the researcher will select depends on the nature of information required (i.e. learning needs) and the population targeted.

In the literature authors distinguish between: (De Almeida, 1980: 114; Leonhard, 1975:6).

- group discussions
- group interviews
- focussed group interviews
- group dynamics technique

4.2.6.4 **Guidelines for Effective Group Discussion**

Group discussion as a method for gathering information needs to adhere to certain guidelines for it to be successful. These guidelines remain important even when group discussion is used as a research method in assessing learning needs of groups in communities.

With regard to the guidelines for group discussion, Rademeyer (1985:13-14) states that:
One group session usually does not supply sufficient information to explore the problem and so several group sessions are held to make up a survey. In South Africa a group discussion survey comprises on average 3 to 4 separate group sessions. Each session has to be fairly homogeneous if different life-style patterns are to be observed, so groups are formed on the basis of such variables as population group, language group and service or institution being researched. The usual number of participants per group varies between 6 and 10, and sessions vary between 1 and 2 hours in length.

The moderator, who is responsible for conducting the group session, should be well-trained. His role in the group is to make participants feel at ease and explore various facets of the problem

in an informal, relaxed atmosphere. Unlike the interviewer using a structured questionnaire, the moderator makes no attempt to ask standard, formulated questions. Participants are left to raise the various facets of the subject and discuss them at their own initiative. In this way the moderator gleans information about opinions, feelings and attitudes that other methods may not reveal (Rademeyer, 1985:14).

4.2.6.5 **Methodology of Group Discussion**

If not properly administered, group discussion may turn into a chaotic situation. It is imperative that certain procedures be followed in order for group discussions to achieve the purpose they are meant for. This is also true even in community education research when group discussions are used in assessing learning needs of community members.

Rademeyer (1985:5-7) suggests the following methodology of group discussion:

1. **Discussion procedure**

- **Group separation:** Several group sessions are held to make up a survey. Members of separate group sessions generally are fairly homogeneous and a number of variables have to be taken into account in the separation of groups.
- **Number of group sessions per survey:** In South Africa a group discussion survey comprises an average of 3 to 4 separate group sessions. However, 3 to 4 sessions per survey will not be sufficient in all circumstances.
- **When the discussion takes place:** A fairly large percentage of total group sessions is conducted after hours. Refined recruiting procedures may make it possible to get together more groups during office hours.
- **Duration of a single, typical group session:** A single group session typically lasts one to two hours. This seems to be adequate in the phenomenological approach, but the clinical approach may require a more extended discussion, while panels may be justified under circumstances in the exploratory approach.

- **Group size**: Like the length of the group session, the size of the group is a dynamic force influencing the discussion. Whereas in practice it varies between about six to ten members, the literature indicates that five-member groups are optimal in the clinical and phenomenological approaches and seven-member groups in the exploratory approach.
- **Discussion style**: It is essential that the moderator's style should be non-directive during the discussion since this is the only way of observing the group culture or the lifestyle pattern. Very often individual opinions are not valid due to mutual influencing and dishonest remarks.
- **Discussion techniques**: Researchers tend to apply a whole range of basic techniques during the discussion and should avoid the danger of developing a directive style as a result of applying such techniques.
- **Venue**: The discussion is usually held at the researcher's offices, whereas a member's home would be the ideal venue. However, the difficulties presented by the absence of the necessary facilities makes this arrangement impracticable. The best alternative is to create a homely atmosphere in a business environment.
- **Use of mechanical equipment**: Facilities refer to recording equipment used during the discussion. Tape recorders and one-way mirrors are fairly widely used in South Africa. Their use is recommended, but group members must be informed of the use of such equipment.
- **Serving of refreshments**: Very often refreshments are served during the discussion to aid interaction, but wine and beer should be limited and strong drinks avoided altogether.

2. **Recruiting**

- **Organising the recruiting function**: Black members are recruited to a larger extent by recruiting agencies than are other population groups who are recruited mostly by the establishment's own staff. Recruiting is a specialised task, but the researcher has little control over the required characteristics of members when recruiting agencies do the job.

- **Matters on which recruiters are briefed:** Whoever does the recruiting should be told to look out for certain important characteristics when selecting members. Apart from panel discussions in the exploratory approach, such members should not have taken part in group discussions of any kind in the past three months to a year, they should not be attached to research institutions or competitors, and they should not know one another.
- **Sampling method:** Recruiters should also be briefed on the sample method. Most of the establishments usually draw judgement samples. This means they apply a non-probability method which is ideally suited to group discussions since probability methods do not confirm the validity of the results.
- **Member drop-out rate:** The drop-out rate is fairly high for members who undertake to attend the discussions. Inadequate transport arrangements seem to be the main problem, while black groups have the added difficulty of finding suitable venues in black areas.

3. Data analysis

Although group discussions are not suitable for quantitative projections, there are many establishments who believe that data should be expressed quantitatively, either in numbers or in quantitative expressions. Sample size is however determined by the number of groups and not the number of group members. This is the reason why various lifestyle patterns are discovered in factors like the facets initiated by members, the intensity of the discussion of such facets, the order of discussion of the facets, and the relation between facets in different group sessions.

From the above discussion it is clear that the group discussion method is widely used to collect data for various reasons. This method is also advantageous for the community education researcher because it allows for face-to-face interaction when assessing learning needs of the group members.

4.2.7 OBSERVATION

4.2.7.1 General background

In our daily lives, many of us are expected to evaluate others, pass judgement and even make decisions. Many of these decisions are based on information gleaned from our environment by means of observation. We therefore observe different people in different situations which enables us to make deductions. Boehm and Weinberg (1987:2) add that the degree of precision with which a person observes is determined by that person's interests, needs and previous experience.

Therefore it follows that a coach and a spectator will observe a soccer match differently. Observation as a research technique will therefore be suitable in community education particularly when assessing learning needs of individuals and groups for community education programmes.

Observation is often the first indication that a problem area exists. All professional educators typically use informal observation as one means of evaluation and assessment. Systematic observation is simply a more refined means of data collection which serves to clarify or confirm a suspected problem area (Burbach and Decker, 1977:66).

According to Ary et al (1990:246) in many cases, systematic direct observation is the most desirable measurement method. An investigator identifies the behaviour of interest and devises a systematic procedure for identifying, categorizing, and recording the behaviour in either a natural or a contrived situation. Systematic observation has been used extensively in research on infants and preschool children.

Systematic observation can also be used extensively in community education research, especially to identify learning needs for community education programmes.

4.2.7.2 **The nature and use of observation**

Everyday observations are usually informal, without a specific objective in mind. Scientific observation, on the other hand, is systematic and requires purposeful observation (Du Toit, 1992:45).

Brown (1987:15) gives a description of how research information can be collected through observation: In using this technique, targeted community members are watched carefully, and their behaviours are noted and analysed. The data collector (the observer) can be the community education researcher or a specially trained person.

Direct observation provides some unique data about an individual and is particularly useful when assessing behaviour problems, breaches of discipline, acting out behaviour, or social maladjustment. Of all the assessment techniques available, this one permits the evaluation of individuals while they are in a natural environment (i.e. when they are functioning in an everyday setting). The technique is also useful in assessing the nature of interactions.

According to Du Toit (1992:45-46) the manner in which observations are noted varies widely along a nonstructured to highly structured continuum. At one end, the observer might merely watch the individual engaged in everyday play or activity and thereby secure an overall picture of the situation. At the other end of the continuum, each of the individual's behaviours might be classified and frequencies of occurrence tallied over a specified period of time.

In the community education process, situations may differ, but the underlying principle is almost the same since people's interactions with their environment are being observed and recorded.

4.2.7.3 **Preliminary steps for observation**

In order for observation as a scientific research technique to be a success, certain guidelines need to be thoroughly considered. In the same way the researcher who uses observation to assess

learning needs of community members needs to observe certain preliminary steps.

According to Ary et al (1990:247) there are five important preliminary steps to be taken when using observation:

- **The aspect of behaviour to be observed must be selected:** Because it is not possible to observe everything that happens, the investigator must decide beforehand which behaviour to record and which to ignore.
- **The behaviour falling within the chosen category must be clearly defined:** The observers must understand what actions will be classified as, for instance, co-operative behaviour or selfish behaviour.
- **The people who will carry out the observations must be trained:** Training and opportunity for practice are necessary in order that the investigator can rely on the observers to follow an established procedure in observing, interpreting and reporting observations.
- **A system for quantifying observations must be developed**: The investigator must decide on a standard method for "counting" or recording the observed learning needs. For instance, it must be established beforehand whether an action and the reaction to it are to be counted as a single incident of the behaviour observed or as two incidents.
- **Detailed procedures for recording needs must be developed:** The memory of most observers is usually not reliable enough for meaningful research. The best solution is a coding system that allows the immediate recording of what is observed using a single letter or digit, rather than a narrative system, which takes too much of the observers' time and attention.

4.2.7.4 Types of observation techniques

There are various types of observation techniques which may be used in community education research studies. The researcher who is gathering information about learning needs of communities in order to design relevant community education programmes will have to carefully select the most appropriate type of observation technique he wishes to use.

The following discussion will look at the different types of observation techniques:

1. **Checklist**: When looking at a situation, the researcher needs to look purposefully, to have an agenda of objectives or behavioural goals (e.g. learning and educational needs) toward which to direct one's attention. In its simplest form, such a list of observational goals (learning needs) is perhaps the ordinary **checklist**. A **checklist** is simply a list of items after each of which a check mark is made in one of two columns: either in the column "observed" or in the column "not observed" (Leedy, 1980:108).

   The community education researcher can compile a list of expected learning needs for a given community. He can then visit the community to make a check whether a listed learning need is 'observed' or 'not observed'. The list of learning needs could include aspects such as:

   - parental involvement in education
   - school readiness
   - learning problems
   - hobbies
   - sport
   - drugs, etc.

2. **Rating scales**: Mehrens and Lehman (1984:219-221) write as follows: Rating scales provide systematic procedures for obtaining, recording and reporting the observer's judgements. Rating scales resemble checklists in that both can be completed either on the spot or after the event, but are used when finer discrimination is needed. Instead of merely indicating the presence or absence of a trait, a rating scale enables the user to indicate the status or quality of what is being rated.

Using the learning needs observed in a checklist, the community education researcher could further refine the learning needs by using a rating scale. It all depends on what the researcher wants to achieve, with regard to the learning needs of the community.

There are three types of rating scales, namely:

- Numerical rating scale
- Graphic rating scale
- Descriptive rating scale.

3. **Tape recording of the data:** One of the observation methods that can be used in assessing learning needs of communities is through the use of a tape recorder.

   In a one-to-one conversation the tape recorder is very useful because it records information on every learning need mentioned in the process. As a result the community education researcher will get ample time to concentrate on the participant's actions, gestures, facial expression and any signs which give a clear indication of the learning need(s) under discussion.

   With regard to tape recording of data, Leedy(1980:107) writes that observation need not always be a visual experience. We "observe" through the ear as well as through the eye.

4.2.7.5 **The advantages of observation**

Because of its advantages the observation method of research is widely used. This also makes it suitable to be used in community education studies.

For example, the community education researcher could commence by using observation to identify a common learning need for a specific group or sector of the community. The researcher could monitor progress through regular observations of the identified learning

need to find out if the need still exists. This will assist the researcher to design an appropriate community education programme for this group of people.

Mehrens and Lehman (1984:212-213) cite the following advantages of observation:

- The progress that a person makes can be monitored by means of regular observation.
- When errors or problems arise they can be spotted immediately and attended to.
- Unlike achievement tests, observation is less time-consuming.
- People experience observation as less threatening than tests.
- Observation provides the researcher with a valuable source of supplementary information that he or she is often unable to acquire in any other way.

4.2.7.6 **General guidelines for valid observations**

When observations are used to assess the learning needs of individuals and groups for community education programmes it is important for the researcher to ensure that certain guidelines are adhered to. These observations must therefore be accurate, reliable and systematic.

Mehrens and Lehman (1984:213-215) describe various guidelines for researchers to ensure that they make valid observations:

- Plan in advance what is to be observed and prepare an observational list, guide or form to make the observations objective and systematic.
- The researcher should concentrate on information on only one or two learning needs.
- Use clear, unambiguous terminology.
- Traits (items) should be mutually exclusive.
- The observer must be alert to sampling errors.
- Extensive observations should be selective.
- Carefully record and summarise the observation immediately after it has been made.
- Do not interpret information on the learning needs until later on.

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- Have categories and coding schemes that are simple to use, that call for easily observed information on learning needs, and that deal with information on learning needs that can be conveniently recorded.
- Wherever possible, observers and observations should be unobstructive.

From the foregoing discussion it has become evident that observation as a research technique should be characterised by being objective, that is, the phenomenon observed should relate to the research problem. In this case the purpose of observation as a technique will be to assess the learning needs of individuals and groups in their communities in order to design relevant community education programmes.

4.2.8 SMALL GROUP TECHNIQUES

Small group techniques represent more informal methods for assessing learning needs of communities. Learning needs, priorities, and goals are identified and accepted after a series of discussions. These discussion group techniques are particularly helpful in identifying priorities of needs. The following discussion will focus attention on some examples of the small group approach to learning needs assessment:

The Delphi Method: The Delphi method involves the following sequence of events: a) Expert judges are selected and placed in an environment free of influence from other judges. b) Expert judges generate estimates about future events. c) Judges estimate the probability of these events occuring by a specific date. d) When this is completed, forecasts are collected. The results are fed back to the group and judges then revise their earlier forecasts; they are still free of influence from other judges. Phases b,c, and d are repeated and deviants are informed of their differences and asked to justify their estimates. After a number of rounds, the coordinator of the process then makes the final forecasts based on the consensus of judges' opinions (Delaney and Nuttall, 1978:39).

By following the Delphi method, the community educator could request participants to first

identify learning needs by simply listing them. The different learning needs will then be grouped together and compiled into one list. Thereafter participants will be requested to prioritize the learning needs commencing with those which need urgent attention to those which need least attention.

The Nominal Group Technique: This technique was developed by Delbecq (1975) and essentially involves a structured way of having informed people identify what the needs are. A typical needs assessment involving this procedure would be to have a group of people come together to identify the needs. This group of people should be knowledgeable, and somewhat various. For example, some may be service providers, others may be employers, others may be clients. Small groups of no fewer than six and no more than ten are formed. Each group has a recorder, a flip chart, marking pens, and many 5 x 8 cards (Delaney and Nuttall, 1978:39).

When using the nominal group technique in identifying learning needs of community members, the community educator can select amongsts others teachers, principals, priests, youth leaders, doctors from the community, to name but a few.

Group Sampling: Pocoff's group sampling technique is a system designed to allow those most involved in a problem to have a say about the nature of the problem and possible solutions to it. It involves getting a small number of the members of various groups together who are affected by the problem and then having them rank order causes (i.e. most important listed first) of the problem (Burbach and Decker, 1977:68).

With regard to community education, group sampling could be used to identify learning needs of the community members using a selection procedure. Thereafter, a relevant community education programme can be designed to address the learning needs.

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4.2.9 THE KEY-INFORMANT METHOD

Delaney and Nutall (1978:28) write that: "Key-informants refer to knowledgeable persons in the field." The key-informant method is one of the methods which can be used in order to assess the learning needs of individuals and communities for community education programmes. As the name suggests, the key members in a community will be approached by the researcher with the aim that they give particular information with regard to the community where they belong.

With regard to the key-informant method Decker et al (1988:55) write as follows:
"In this approach, assessment is based on information secured from those persons in the community who are in a position to best know the community, its people, their needs, and the patterns of services being received. The strengths of this approach are that it is simple and inexpensive and the data collection instruments are relatively easy to construct. It also encourages a broad-based discussion of community conditions and can be used to establish or strengthen communications and goodwill among community agencies. Its weaknesses are that the data are statistically unreliable and may contain built-in biases resulting from individual or organizational perspectives."

It therefore follows that the key-informant method focusses attention on selected, informative people in a society. In the context of this study, the term **key informant** includes community leaders, professionals, educationists, artisans, lawyers and many others. These individuals have different experiences and, therefore, potentially different perspectives regarding the learning needs of their communities.

Other authors emphasize the use of key-informant interviews as a technique commonly applied during the key-informant method of research. According to Mc Millan and Schumacher (1993:427) key-informant interviews are in-depth interviews with individuals who have special knowledge, status, or communication skills who are willing to share that knowledge and skill with the researcher. They are usually chosen because they have access to observations unavailable to the ethnographer. They are often atypical individuals and must be selected

carefully from among possible key informants.

According to the Manual of Food Economy Assessment Report(1997:27) usually most of the information required by the community educator, especially that relating to learning needs, will be sketchy or unavailable from documentary sources. It will be necessary to go to the field and ask questions; but you are unlikely often to be in a position to mount your own surveys. You will use **key informants,** and if you approach them properly and systematically, you will get good quality information otherwise unavailable.

In any given community, especially where community learning needs are to be identified for the purpose of designing community education programmes, key informants have to be used.

The Manual of Food Economy Assessment Report (1997:27) further gives a clarification of the term **key informant** as follows:
The term 'key informant' is used to describe someone who you have reason to believe can tell you what you need to know. For instance, a trader will be able to tell you about trade routes and seasonal prices, amongst other things; an agricultural extension officer could tell you about landholding sizes, crops grown, and on-farm production levels in the area; members of poor households are probably the best informants on how poor households get food and income. In the same note a teacher in a given community will be able to tell you about the educational and learning needs that exist in a community. It is a matter of determining what you want to know, and then deciding who might be able to tell you.

In concurrence with the above idea with regard to community education, members of the community are probably the best informants on what the learning needs of the community are. Their views are thus regarded as essential to this comprehensive assessment of learning needs.

From the foregoing discussion it is evident that the key-informant method can be suitably used when assessing learning needs of communities. This is because in every community there are certain key people with essential information about the community. These are the people who

will give indepth information particularly with regard to the learning needs of their communities.

4.2.10 THE COMMUNITY-FORUM METHOD

Among the many different methods used to collect information from individuals and communities, one also finds the community-forum method. In this case the researcher meets personally with the concerned members of the community. This meeting occurs in a public place and this is where the researcher collects the necessary information.

According to Kleinen (1991:105) the community-forum method refers to where persons concerned meet face-to-face at meetings, collect information, and make decisions. The needs survey is based on information obtained at public hearings or by attending a series of public meetings.

It is at public meetings that community members can speak collectively about perceived learning needs such as:

- quality of life
- current problems and affairs
- political programmes
- recreation
- improvement of community facilities, etc.

"The strengths of this approach are that it is relatively easy to arrange, inexpensive to conduct, and provides an opportunity for input from many sources. It also may be used to identify community-minded citizens and to bring new areas or undefined needs to attention. Its weaknesses are that it presents possible logistical problems for large communities in terms of the number and convenience of sites, and there is no assurance of representative attendance. There is also the potential for a meeting to be dominated by one or more outspoken participants and to create heightened expectations for quick solutions" (Decker et al, 1988:57).

The community-forum method is useful for research work involving the assessment of learning needs in communities. This is because it allows the community members to speak out about their needs in conjuction with other community members. In this case there is more likelihood that the most common learning needs of the community will emerge.

4.2.11 THE SOCIAL INDICATORS METHOD

In most cases the need survey research methods used to gather data for a research purpose such as the assessment of learning needs in a community, normally involve some form of statistical analysis as the end result.

Decker et al (1988:57) write the following with regard to the social indicators method: "Assessment in the social indicators approach is based on inferences drawn from statistics found in public records and reports. This approach uses secondary, non-attitudinal data instead of eliciting direct community participation in the assessment process. Its strengths are that assessment can be accomplished in a short period of time and can provide non-attitudinal data. It is a good use of existing statistical data. It also is a good way to compare different geographic or political units, such as city versus country. Its weaknesses are that it is not a direct assessment of community conditions and opinions, and it may use data that is invalid or out-of-date".

Needless to say, there are numerous ways of organizing vast amounts of information derived from these sources. The essential steps in the social indicators approach are: 1) the articulation of the objectives of the project; 2) the determination of what indicators or categories of information would be most useful in assessing the needs of a specific client population; and 3) the identification of what specific factors lend themselves to the development of categories or indicators (Delaney and Nuttall, 1978:36).

Moriyama (Delaney and Nuttall, 1978:36-37) offers a number of guidelines for the creation of social indicators. He states that the criteria for the selection of a social indicator should be as follows:

- It should be meaningful and understandable
- It should be sensitive to variations in the phenomenon being measured
- The assumptions underlying the index should be theoretically justifiable and intuitively reasonable
- It should consist of clearly defined component parts
- Each component part should make an independent contribution to variations in the phenomenon being measured, and
- The index should be derivable from data that are available or quite feasible to obtain.

Leedy (1980:135) describes descriptive statistics as used in the social indicators method in this way: Namely, statistics whose function is to **describe the data**. This branch of statistics describes what the data look like, where their center is, how broadly they spread, and how they are related in terms of one aspect to another aspect of the same data.

With regard to the social indicators method Mc Millan and Schumacher (1993:192) also add that descriptive statistics transform a set of numbers or observations into indices that describe or characterize the data. Descriptive statistics (sometimes referred to as summary statistics) are thus used to summarize, organize, and reduce large numbers of observations.

From the foregoing discussion it is evident that the social indicators method is also useful in community education studies. It is also evident that a study which aims at assessing the learning needs of community members will in most cases involve a large number of people. This is where the use of descriptive statistics is imperative since it is the most fundamental way to summarize data, and it is indispensable in interpreting the results of quantitative research.

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4.2.12 THE COMBINATION METHOD

In certain research studies it becomes imperative to use a combination of methods and techniques for assessing learning needs of individuals and communities, in order to design community education programmes. In such cases we refer to the **combination method**.

With regard to the combination method, Kleinen (1991:105) states that:
"The above-mentioned methods can be used independently or in combination with each other, depending on the type of information, and on the extent of direct community involvement in the needs survey."

Decker et al (1988:57) also add that the assessment approaches are not mutually exclusive. They can be used in combination or independently, depending on the extent of direct citizen involvement desired, and the constraints of time and resources.

It is evident that the combination method can be very useful in the hands of the community education researcher. This is because the combination method has the advantage of combining and utilising the advantages of the other methods and techniques for assessing learning needs. In this way the one method covers for the other method which has certain loopholes.

The combination method is a useful tool for the community educator in identifying a wide spectrum of possible educational and learning needs in order to design relevant community education programmes.

4.3 SYNTHESIS

The main objective of this chapter was to identify and describe methods and techniques for assessing learning needs for community education programmes. Indeed, a variety of methods and techniques which are suitable for the assessment of the learning needs of individuals and groups in a community were identified and investigated, and a description thereof was given.

Of importance is the requirement that the assessment of learning needs for community education programmes be done in a formalised, systematic, accountable manner and not in a haphazard manner.

One of the appropriate methods for assessing learning needs for community education programmes is through the use of the questionnaire. The questionnaire serves as a self-report instrument used for collecting data about learning needs of individuals and groups in a community. The questionnaire allows the respondent to read, understand and then answer the questions or items honestly. In addition to the identification of learning needs the questionnaire can include factual questions about the respondent, such as age, sex, ethnic group and occupation.

The interview is another research technique that can be used in assessing learning needs for community education programmes. The interview is a direct technique of collecting information in a one-to-one situation. One of its greatest advantages is its flexibility. For example, interviewing is particularly useful in dealing even with children or uneducated people. It virtually can be used to identify learning needs of any member of the community. However, it is a skill that demands careful preparation and much practice. Interviewing is deeply satisfying to the community education researcher who is interested in others' views or learning needs.

A survey is a form of planned collection of data for the purpose of describing the existing learning needs. Surveys are normally conducted on a large scale. The survey approach provides results that are the most scientifically valid and reliable. It also assists in extracting specific information from individuals and groups. However, in order to identify learning needs using the survey research approach it is imperative to follow a logical process referred to as the 'survey research cycle'. This cycle is not a tailor-made solution for the identification of learning needs, but it is flexible and user friendly at the hands of the community education researcher.

Research reports are straightforward documents that set forth clearly and precisely what the researcher has done to resolve the research problem. It is imperative that research reports be

factual and logical in structure. It has been noted that there is a variety of research methods which the researcher may use when assessing the learning needs of individuals and groups in a given community. Of importance is that the nature of the research study will determine the type of research method which a researcher may select.

Group discussion is a method of research which is applied extensively and for different purposes in various research studies. In this study it has become evident that group discussion is advantageous for assessing learning needs in communities because it allows for face-to-face interaction between the community education researcher and the group members, and also among the group members themselves. In this way the researcher attains both individual and group accountability. It has also emerged that group discussion can tend to be chaotic at the hands of the inexperienced researcher or interviewer. Therefore, if done with caution, group discussion can be a great asset for the community education researcher.

Observation as a research technique should be characterised by purposiveness, that is, the phenomenon observed should relate to the research problem. In this case the purpose of observation as a technique will be to assess the learning needs of individuals and groups in their natural environment in order to design relevant community education programmes. The researcher should always carefully study the nature of the problem that he or she wishes to investigate (i.e. identification of learning needs), or the question to which he or she seeks an answer. It is also imperative that researchers clearly define the problem and the behaviour manifestations that relate to it before they can actually start observing.

Small group techniques play a major role in identifying priorities of educational and learning needs for community education programmes. They basically seek to focus on learning needs of small groups or representatives of the larger community. Some of the small group approaches used to assess learning needs include, the Delphi method, the nominal group technique and group sampling.

The identification of learning needs is also based on information which is obtained from people in the community who are in the position to know the societal needs and its people better. Such people are the so-called 'key communicators' in the community. This method is simple and cheap, referred to as the key-informant method. It also encourages indepth discussion of community circumstances and it can be employed to establish and strengthen communication between community members.

In the community-forum method persons concerned meet face-to-face at meetings, collect information and make decisions. It is the community-forum method where the identification of learning needs is based on information obtained at public hearings or by attending a series of public meetings. This method is easy to organise and easier to execute, and it offers an opportunity for numerous stakeholders of the community to participate. It also serves to identify law-abiding citizens and to bring new problematic areas and unidentified learning needs to the attention of the community.

According to the social indicators method the identification of learning needs is based on conclusions which derive from descriptive statistics which are obtainable from records and reports. Here the data used are not obtainable through community participation, and good use is made of existing statistical data. However, the community education researcher should always look out for invalid and outdated data.

The combination method emphasizes the fact that the different methods and techniques for assessing learning needs can be used independently or in combination with each other. Therefore needs assessment methods and techniques are not mutually exclusive but at times can be combined, depending on the type of information and on the extent of direct community involvement in the needs survey.

In Chapter 5 the findings of the study will be summarised and distinct recommendations resulting from the study made.

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CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

- The aim of this study was to explore the concept of community education and to investigate methods and techniques that can be implemented to assess the learning needs of individuals and communities in the community education process, in order to provide relevant community education programmes.

- It came out that for the past decades attempts have been made to find ways to address the educational and learning needs of millions of South Africans. These attempts were not very successful hence an educational crisis still exists in our country. In fact, there is a mass of people with educational and learning needs outside of the formal education system who were either denied access to education or who might not have used their educational opportunities optimally.

  It is evident that there is a need for investigation into new educational strategies and educational concepts.

- Community education was defined as the educational process in which the provisions (services, programmes, resources) of all the educational agencies in a community are utilised in a co-operative and co-ordinated manner, to provide for all of the learning needs of all the people of a community, to develop the community and to solve the problems of the community.

- Community education is a practical educational strategy in which members of the community are actively involved in education that is relevant to them and that addresses their needs and problems.

- It was established that the idea of community education is not new - during the past centuries different forms of community education were developed in other countries. However, community education is based on three principles:

  - the determination of objectives and aims according to the interests, needs and problems of people
  - application of a wide range of community, human, physical and financial resources to the development of programmes and activities
  - advancement and practice of democracy in all activities of the school and community.

- Community education can comprise a programme which satisfies the needs of all members of a community at any one time. Furthermore it involves the process of identification of community needs so that the community and its members can grow through social and educational programmes.

- The aims of community education are summarized as follows: to identify and fulfil the needs of community members (basic needs as well as learning needs); adapting and expanding formal, non-formal and informal educational opportunities; development of self-guiding, self-directed communities; community members learn to work together to identify problems and to seek out solutions to these problems; to improve the situation and quality of life of individuals and communities; and to provide equal life opportunities for all.

- The following components of community education were identified: a community-based system for co-ordinated collective action by educational and community agencies; life-long education and learning; community involvement; maximal utilization of community resources; community oriented curricula; and community development.

- In any given community the infrastructure for community education will include the following: a community learning centre; a co-ordinator of community education; advisory councils; and community resources.

- It was found that agencies of community education are imperative for the implementation of the community education concept. There is a wide variety of educational agencies in every community that can be utilised by learners such as: schools, community colleges, technikons, agricultural colleges, career group, museums, mass media, etc. It is therefore the task of the community education co-ordinator to co-ordinate the proper functioning of these educational agencies.

- With regard to the educational provisions of community education it became clear that community education usually begins with some programmes that expand the offerings of schools and other community agencies, e.g. adult basic education and training, after-school recreation, health or social services provided on school premises. It then evolves into a process by which the community identifies and meets its own needs.

- Community education implies that:
  - **community resources** must be utilised to fulfil
  - **community needs** and to solve
  - **community problems**

- It was found that community education implicitly embraces community development. Community development: promotes development in all its forms; is based on local problem solving by collective action; it secures the active co-operation of the people of each community; is concerned with the active participation of all people; involves identification of local problems; and in community development the emphasis is on utilising resources.

- The infrastructure for community education in a given community must include a community learning centre. The community learning centre is a centre where activities extend far beyond the traditional school day and calendar year. It is part of an infrastructure used to deliver highly relevant education and training programmes based on the needs of the community members, and in this centre co-ordination, co-operation and communication with regard to the operation of community education programmes are the key events.

- It was established that in any given community there are usually one or more school buildings that are readily available as part of the infrastructure. The community school concept therefore implies that the school with its facilities assumes a central place in the operation of community education and the school is the centre for the delivery system of community education.

- It is clear that community colleges can widen and at the same time supplement the tasks of community schools. Community college buildings play an important role in the operation of community education programmes. The community college admits all students who can benefit from the programmes and serves as a link for other agencies of community education. It is where people who have left school can re-engage in school activities based on their needs.

- It was discovered that community education is a continual process which includes ten phases. The ten phases of the process must be actualised to ensure that relevant community education programmes are designed and provided to communities.

The community education process is an educational one and is a continuation of formal, non-formal and informal educational programmes in a community. The various phases in the community education process provide the learners in a community with procedures and resources which enable them to obtain information and skills. During the first three phases of the community education

process the focus is on establishing the necessary infrastructure for community education:

Phase 1: Appointment of a co-ordinator of community education
Phase 2: Creating an educational milieu
Phase 3: Establishment of an organisational structure for participative planning

During the next six phases the emphasis is on the planning and bringing into operation of educational programmes:

Phase 4: Identifying and analysing the problems, needs and interests of individuals and institutions in the community
Phase 5: Formulating programme objectives
Phase 6: Designing educational programmes
Phase 7: Identifying and mobilising community resources
Phase 8: Operation of educational programmes
Phase 9: Evaluation of educational programmes, rediagnosis of learning needs, and adjustment of the educational provisions of the various educational agencies in the community

The last phase of the process occurs continuously throughout the whole process, and here the focus is on action research:

Phase 10: Continuous research.

- It was discovered that there is a broad spectrum of learning needs experienced by individual community members. It became evident that all individuals in a community have specific learning needs regardless of their ages, locality and stages of their adult lives. Furthermore, learning needs of individuals also vary depending on the role played by an individual, for example, parent role, employee role, consumer role, citizen or community role.

The following is an indication of learning needs which were identified:

- functional literacy and numeracy skills
- parental and family education
- consumer education
- domestic education
- social coping skills
- raising levels of awareness about existing opportunities
- preparation for vocational, technical and professional competence
- citizenship training
- health matters
- recreation, leisure time and sport
- community resources
- technological skills
- problem-solving skills
- agriculture
- school-based programmes
- environmental education issues.

- In this study the emphasis was on the requirement that first and foremost the learning needs of individuals and communities must be identified and assessed before any community education programme is designed and put into operation.

- It was also established that the assessment of educational and learning needs should not be done in a haphazard manner, instead it should be undertaken in a systematic, formalised and accountable manner.

- The concept of needs assessment refers to any systematic process for collecting and analysing information about the educational needs of individuals, groups, institutions, communities or societies. As an information gathering and analysis process, needs assessment will result in the identification of the needs of individuals and communities.

- It further became clear that for the assessment of educational and learning needs of individuals and communities to be successful, certain methods and techniques are necessary and available for use.

The following methods and techniques were identified and can be applied to assess educational and learning needs for community education programmes:

- **Questionnaires**: The questionnaire is a self-report instrument used for gathering information about learning needs of individuals and groups in a community. The questionnaire can also include factual questions about the respondent, such as age, sex, ethnic group, and occupation; attitudes, opinions, interests, beliefs, aspirations, and expectations; past, present and planned activities in the community; and perceptions of various matters. The questionnaire is generally regarded as a reliable instrument for collecting data on learning needs, it is also suitable where a large group of respondents are involved and if the people are scattered over a wide area.

- **Interviews**: The interview is a direct technique of collecting information on learning needs in a one-to-one situation. Interviewing involves deciding what information you want and from whom, designing a set of questions, and asking them of those people. It is a skill, however, that demands careful preparation and much practice. As a method of inquiry, interviewing is most consistent with people's ability to make meaning through language. It affirms the importance of the individual without denigrating the possibility of communication and collaboration.

- **Survey research methods**: A survey is a form of planned collection of data for the purpose of describing existing learning needs. It is evident that a survey is an operation of some complexity and, therefore, a first requirement is the development of a good plan. It follows that the conduct of survey research should follow a logical process, which in this study is referred to as a 'survey research cycle'. Normally, the success of the research study for the

assessment of learning needs is not guaranteed by following the cycle, but it may enhance confidence in the management of the survey.

- **Research reports**: Research reports also form one of the techniques for collecting data needed for the assessment of learning needs for community education programmes. They are straightforward documents that set forth clearly and precisely what the researcher has done to assess the learning needs of individuals and communities. Of importance is that research reports should be factual and logical by nature.

- **Group discussion**: This is a qualitative research method suitable for assessing learning needs of community members. Group discussion is concerned with actual information (i.e. learning needs) from actual groups, thus attempting to utilise the advantages of group interaction. Group discussion has an added advantage in that the community education researcher attains both individual and group accountability.

- **Observation**: Observation is often the first indication that a problem area or area of interest exists. The degree of precision with which a person observes is determined by that person's interests, needs and previous experience. Observation is simply a more refined means of data collection which serves to clarify or confirm a suspected problem area, hence it is suitably placed for the community education researcher to use when assessing learning needs for community education programmes.

- **Small group techniques**: They represent more informal methods for assessing learning needs of communities. Learning needs are identified, assessed and accepted after a series of discussions. Small group techniques also play a major role in identifying priorities of educational and learning needs for community education programmes.

- **The key-informant method**: This is one of the methods which can be used for the assessment of learning needs of individuals and communities for community education programmes. In this approach, assessment is based on information secured from those persons in the community who are in a position to best know the community, its people, their needs, and the patterns of services being received. In this approach the community education researcher works hand in hand with key-informants. The concept of **Key-informants** refers to knowledgeable persons in the community. In the context of this study, key-informants could include teachers, lawyers, politicians, traditional leaders, youth leaders, business people and many others. These are the people who have different experiences and, therefore, potentially different perspectives regarding the learning needs of their communities.

- **The community-forum method**: It is a method where the identification and assessment of learning needs is based on information obtained at public hearings or by attending a series of public meetings. In this method the first step is for the community education researcher to organise a public meeting where he/she will meet face-to-face with the people, so that he/she can collect information on learning needs, and then make informed decisions. This method usually brings to the fore some of the hidden needs of the community members.

- **The social indicators method**: In this method the identification and assessment of learning needs is based on inferences drawn from statistics found in public records and reports. The essential steps for the community education researcher are the articulation of intended objectives and the determination of what indicators or categories of information would be most useful in assessing the learning needs of a given community. The social indicators method is not a direct assessment of community needs, conditions and opinions.

- **The combination method**: In certain community education studies it becomes necessary to use a combination of methods and techniques for assessing learning needs of individuals and communities. This is where the combination method becomes relevant. In this approach the methods and techniques can be used independently or in combination with each other, depending on the type of information, and on the extent of direct community involvement in the needs survey.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS

Based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions can be made:

- As a point of departure learning needs of individuals and communities must be assessed before any community education programme is designed and put into operation.

- The assessment of educational and learning needs should not be done in a haphazard manner, instead it should be undertaken in a systematic, formalised and accountable manner

- For the assessment of educational and learning needs of individuals and communities to be successful, certain methods and techniques are necessary and available for use by the community education researcher.

- Community development secures the active co-operation of the people of each community and is concerned with the active participation of all people in programmes designed to raise the standard of living. Against this background, it can be concluded that community members must be involved in the identification and assessment of learning needs.

- The identification and assessment of learning needs is a pre-requisite for any community education programme to be put into place. It therefore follows that, for any community education programme to address the needs of community members, it must be relevant to the identified needs.

- From the findings it has emerged that community education is a process of planning and bringing into operation of educational programmes in a community. Programmes serve as the most common approach to meeting a learning need identified in the process. The implication is that through the community education process learning needs are identified and community resources are mobilised to address the needs. Learning needs can only be identified and assessed by using certain methods and techniques. These methods and techniques are scientific, systematic and logical by nature. Thus, the central theoretical statement of this study has been verified, namely: **The methods and techniques implemented to assess learning needs of individuals and communities in the community education process can significantly contribute towards providing relevant community education programmes.**

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS RESULTING FROM THIS STUDY

- First and foremost, as a practical educational strategy in which members of the community are actively involved it is recommended that the community education strategy be implemented to address learning needs particularly in the rural and disadvantaged areas of the RSA.

- The main recommendation resulting from this study, is that before delivering any community education programme certain methods and techniques must be used for the assessment of learning needs of individuals and communities.

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- It is further recommended that the assessment of learning needs of individuals and communities in order to provide relevant community education programmes, must not be done in a haphazard manner but should be done in a logical, systematical and accountable manner.

- Members of the community must be involved in the assessment of their learning needs. This community participation will promote optimal involvement in the community education process and hence ownership of community education programmes.

- It is recommended that various government departments (i.e. Education and Training, Labour, Environmental Affairs and Tourism, etc) ensure that community education reaches all sectors of a community – children, youth, adults, and the elderly.

- Community education programmes must be relevant to the learning needs of community members. This will be made possible through determining the immediate needs, interests, and problems of the community members.

- It is also recommended that each rural and township community of the RSA appoint a co-ordinator of community education. This person must be trained so that he/she is well-equipped and prepared to take initiatives with regard to community development projects and community education at large.

- The educational agencies available in every community must be properly utilised to assist all its citizens to identify, assess and solve their problems and satisfy their learning needs. It is the task of the community education co-ordinator to co-ordinate the functioning of these educational agencies. The list of agencies would include schools, teacher training colleges, creches, churches, prisons, etc.

- Institutions of higher learning like colleges, technikons and universities must play a significant role with regard to the training of experts for community education, research in community education, guidance, advice, consultation and dissemmination of information on community education.

- It is recommended that since community education involves the identification and mobilisation of financial resources, there is a need for the business sector (businessmen, industry, etc) to be drawn into the picture and to become involved in financial support. Financial resources could include the provision of funds for programme support, and constitutes an important aspect in the operation of educational programmes.

5.4 SYNTHESIS

The writer has, through this study, attempted to investigate and identify methods and techniques of assessing learning needs for community education programmes. When the identified scientific methods and techniques have been used to assess learning needs of community members, relevant community education programmes can be designed and put into operation in order to address the needs of communities and the citizens of the RSA at large.

This research can further be regarded as only the beginning of an extensive situational analysis whereby methods and techniques of assessing learning needs are implemented with a view to the purposeful planning of future community education programmes.

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