

**AN EDUCATIONAL INTERVENTION PROGRAM FOR FEMALE FARM
DWELLERS FOCUSING ON RESOURCE MANAGEMENT**

LETTA SHALE MASETLOA

University Diploma in Education for Secondary.

B. Consumer Science

**Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the
requirement for the degree Magister in Consumer Science at the
North-West University**

SUPERVISORS

Ms M.D. Venter

Ms. M. Larney

POTCHEFSTROOM

2004



ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wish to thank the following people for their support, motivation and their continued interest that enabled me to complete this study successfully:

- The Almighty God and Heavenly father, who granted me the strength and enthusiasm, and my Ancestors who always looked upon me.
- My mother, Grace, for the years of support and encouragement and who always had something positive to say in difficult times and always believed in me.
- My brothers, Benedict and Thabang and my sister, Nthabiseng, who always encouraged me to continue with my studies.
- My supervisors, Mrs M.D. Venter and Mrs M. Larney, who always provided constructive criticism.
- Dr E. Kempen and Dr S Ellis for statistical analysis and interpretation.
- Dr Annemarie Kruger, Potchefstroom University and other members of the Focus Area 9.1, Preventive and Therapeutic interventions for their co-operation and assistance.
- Ferdinand Postma Library for assistance in literature search.
- Prof. L.A. Greyvenstein for the language editing for this mini-dissertation.

OPSOMMING

In hierdie studie word die bemagtiging van vroulike plaasbewoners deur middel van opvoeding en opleiding, spesifiek met die doel om hul kennis en vaardighede ten opsigte van hulpbronbestuur te verbeter, ondersoek. Die studie was deel van die FLAGH-projek (Farm Labour, Agriculture and General Health). Opvoeding en opleiding kan vroue bemagtig om hulle kennis en vaardighede te verhoog, wat hulle sowel as hulle gesin se welstand kan verbeter. Die situasie-analise, gedoen op vroue van die plaasbewonergemeenskap, het aangedui dat vroue 'n gebrek aan kennis rakende die optimale tyd-, finansiële- en enegiebestuur het. Die doel van die studie was om 'n opvoedkundige intervensieprogram, wat die vroulike plaasbewoners kan help om hul hulpbronne te bestuur, te ontwerp, implementeer en evalueer. 'n Beskikbaarheidsteekproef van 27 Tswana vroue, 16–40 jaar oud wat op aangrensende plase in die Noordwes provinsie, Potchefstroomdistrik woon, het aan die program deelgeneem. 'n Opvoedkundige intervensieprogram is ontwikkel en geïmplementeer. Die WOF 10 program is aangepas vir hulle spesifieke behoeftes en in Tswana vertaal. Die evaluering van hulle hulpbronvaardighede het kwantitatiewe en kwalitatiewe voor en na-toetse ingesluit. Die resultate is statisties ontleed, t-toetse toegepas en effekgroottes is bereken. Die resultate het 'n statistiese en praktiese betekenisvolle toename in hulle hulpbronbestuurs kennis aangedui. Die vroulike plaasbewoners se kennis en vaardighede ten opsigte van hulpbronbestuur het verbeter, wat moontlik kan lei tot 'n verbetering van hulle lewensgehalte. Dit word aanbeveel dat hulpbronbestuurskursusse deel vorm van enige ontwikkelingsprojek as deel van die bemagtigingsproses. Die optimum gebruik van hulpmiddels kan hul lewensgehalte verbeter sonder enige finansiële kostes.

Sleutelwoorde: Plaasbewoners, volwasse opvoeding en opleiding, gesinshulpbronbestuur, intervensienavorsing.

SUMMARY

In this study, the empowering of the female farm dwellers by education and training in order to increase their knowledge and skills in family resource management, is investigated. It forms part of the FLAGH Study (Farm Labour, Agriculture and General Health). Education and training can empower women to increase their knowledge and skills, which will improve their well being as well as that of their families. According to the situation analysis, which was conducted on the women of a farming community, it is indicated that the female farm dwellers lacked knowledge about the optimum use of their resources such as time, budgeting and energy. The objective of the research was to design, implement and evaluate an education and training program, which could help them to manage their resources. An available sample of 27 Tswana speaking female farm dwellers, 16 to 40 years of age, residing on adjacent farms in the Potchefstroom district of the North-West Province of South Africa participated. An intervention program was planned and implemented. The presentation of the components of the program, which was adapted from the WOF 10 Program for their specific needs was translated into Tswana. The method used for evaluation included qualitative and quantitative pre- and post-tests on their family resource management skills. The results, which were statistically analysed by using a t-test and calculating the effect size, indicated a statistically and practically significant increase in their resource management knowledge. The female farm dwellers' knowledge and skills regarding resource management increased, which could result in improvement of quality of life. It is recommended that resource management courses form part of any developmental project to contribute to the empowerment of participants' maximising the use of resources thereby improving their livelihood without any extra financial costs.

Keywords: Farm dwellers; adult education; quality of life; family resource management; intervention research

CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	II
OPSOMMING	III
SUMMARY	IV
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	V
LISTS OF TABLES	XI
LIST OF FIGURES	XII

CHAPTER 1.....INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND	2
1.2 MOTIVATION	3
1.3 RESEARCH FRAMEWORK	5
1.4 RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVES	6
1.4.1 Aims	6
1.4.2 Objectives	6
1.5 METHODOLOGY	7
1.6 TRIANGULATION	7
1.7 TERMS AND DEFINITIONS	9

1.7.1 Farm workers	9
1.7.2 Farm dwellers	9
1.7.3 Community development	9
1.7.4 Capacity building.....	9
1.7.5 Adult education	9
1.7.6 Family resource management	10
1.8 STRUCTURE OF DISSERTATION	10
1.9 AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTION	11
1.10 REFERENCES	12

CHAPTER 2LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION	16
2.2 BACKGROUND ON FARM DWELLERS	17
2.3 COMMUNITY DEVELOPEMENT	18
2.3.1 Community	18
2.3.2 Development	19
2.3.3.Community development	19
2.4 CAPACITY BUILDING	22
2.5 EDUCATION	24

2.5.1 Terms and definitions	24
2.5.1.1 Learning	25
2.5.1.2 Education and training	25
2.5.2 Types of education	26
2.5.2.1 <i>Formal education</i>	26
2.5.2.2 <i>Non-formal education</i>	26
2.5.2.3 <i>Informal education</i>	26
2.6 ADULT EDUCATION	27
2.6.1 Aims of adult education	27
2.6.2 Theories about adult education	28
2.6.2.1 Freire's theory	28
2.6.2.2 Knowle's theory	28
2.6.2.3 Mezirow's theory	29
2.6.3 Myths and realities about adult education	29
2.6.3.1 Adult and children as learners	30
2.6.3.2 Learner centred or teacher centred	30
2.7 THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE ADULT LEARNERS AND CHILD LEARNERS	31
2.8 HOW ADULTS LEARN	32
2.9 THEORIES ABOUT ADULT LEARNING.....	34

2.9.1 The adult learner	34
2.9.2 The learning situation	36
2.10 THE LEARNING PROCESS	36
2.11 PRINCIPLES OF ADULT LEARNING.....	36
2.12 ADULT LEARNING PROBLEMS	41
2.13 ADULT TEACHING METHODS.....	42
2.13.1 The teacher-centred method	42
2.13.2 The student-centred method	42
2.13.3 The individual student-centred method	42
2.14 WOMEN AND EDUCATION	43
2.14.1 Traditional role of women	43
2.14.2 Changing roles of women	43
2.15 FAMILY RESOURCE MANAGEMENT	45
2.15.1 Terms and definitions	45
2.16 QUALITY OF LIFE	47
2.17 EVALUATION	48
2.17.1 Program evaluator	49
2.17.2 Outcomes	50
2.17.3 Types of evaluation	50
2.17.4 Evaluation phases	51

2.18 INTERVENTION RESEARCH	54
2.18.1 Program analysis and project planning	54
2.18.2 Information gathering	54
2.18.3 Design	55
2.18.4 Early development and pilot testing	55
2.18.5 Evaluation and advanced development	56
2.18.6 Dissemination	56
2.19 CONCLUSION	56
2.20 REFERENCES	58

CHAPTER 3.ARTICLE

SUMMARY	68
INTRODUCTION	69
METHODOLOGY	77
RESULTS	81
CONCLUSION	92
RECOMMENDATIONS	93
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	94
REFERENCES	95

**CHAPTER 4 GENERAL SUMMARY,
CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

4.1 INTRODUCTION102

4.2 GENERAL SUMMARY102

4.3 CONCLUSION103

4.4 RECOMMENNDATIONS103

ADDENDUM

ADDENDUM A107

ADDENDUM B108

ADDENDUM C109

ADDENDUM D110

ADDENDUM E111

ADDENDUM F112

ADDENDUM G113

ADDENDUM H114

LISTS OF TABLES

TABLE 2.1

THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE CHILD AND ADULT LEARNER32

TABLE 2.2

PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING – THE ADULT LEARNER38

TABLE 2.3

PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING –THE LEARNING SITUATION39

TABLE 2.4

PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING - THE LEARNING PROCESS40

TABLE 3.1

**RESULTS OF THE T-TESTS FOR THE BEFORE (B) AND AFTER (A) TESTS
ACCORDING TO THE CHAPTERS82**

TABLE 3.2

**THE MEAN OF THE INCREASE IN KNOWLEDGE FOR DIFFERENT
CHAPTERS AND THE EFFECT SIZE (d)83**

TABLE 3.3

**EFFECT SIZE FOR 2 X 2 CONTINGENCY TABLE AND THE EFFECT SIZE
OF THE BEFORE AND AFTER TESTS ACCORDING TO THE QUESTION
ASKED84**

TABLE: 3.4.1

THE 2 X 2 CONTINGENCY TABLE OF THE LARGE EFFECT86

TABLE: 3.4.2

THE 2 X 2 CONTINGENCY TABLE OF THE LARGE EFFECT87

TABLE 3.5	
GENERAL PROGRAM EVALUATION	90

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE 1.1	
RESEARCH FRAMEWORK	5
FIGURE 1.2	
INTERVENTION RESEARCH	8
FIGURE 2.1	
COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT FRAMEWORK	21

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION



CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act No. 108 of 1996) states in section 29 (1) that 'everyone has the right to a basic education, including adult education'. According to Jarvis (1995:23), education is one of the major foundations of a rich life, but it is a foundation that need not be laid at the beginning of life or in childhood, it is one that may be laid at any stage of life and then built upon. Human learning is a lifetime process, one that has acquired greater significance as the rate of change in society has increased, such that it's members are compelled to keep on learning in order to remain knowledgeable citizens. This is not a new phenomenon; human beings have always had the capacity to learn throughout their lives (Jarvis, 1995:1). Education should be regarded both as a human right and as a fundamental necessity in any civilized society in order for all people to have an opportunity to realize their potential and discover a place in a wider society.

One of the main reasons for providing basic education is to improve literacy and, therefore, reduce the rate of unemployment resulting in poverty alleviation (Jarvis, 1995:4). According to the Western Regional Centre for the application for prevention technique (2000), nearly all the developed countries (for example Europe, U.S.A) accepted the social goal of reducing or eliminating 'poverty' among their citizens which is a present goal of the government of South Africa. According to Global Insight (2003), the poverty index rating rose from 41% in 1996 to 49% in 2001 because poverty alleviation projects reached only three million of the 20 million people living below the poverty line.

According to Kotzé (1994:22), rural poverty is a principle feature of the South African way of life and is an escalating problem that should be addressed as a matter of urgency. Kotzé (1994:23) further sees poverty as a reality in most of the

underprivileged communities in rural and urban areas in South Africa. In the rural areas more than a quarter of the households are living under the breadline.

In the first democratic election of South Africa in 1994, farm workers, who make up a substantial part of the poor in South Africa, voted hoping for significant changes in their poor working and living conditions (Telela, 1996:56). Despite the democratisation of South Africa, which brought the agricultural sector within legal protection, farm workers remain vulnerable to an undue burden of social and health problems (London, 2003:2). According to Kotzé (1994:22), the average farm worker, who is mostly rural-based, is caught in a 'deprivation trap' or 'deprivation cluster' which is a factor related to being disadvantaged, comprising of poverty, powerlessness, vulnerability, physical weakness and isolation.

Three years after the elections, Naidoo (1997:27) reports that very little in this condition has changed. They continue to live in poverty and are subjected to labour relation rules; change is often slow to reach rural and semi-rural areas. London (2003:1) further states that 'most of the South African farm workers live in circumstances of absolute and relative poverty'. The Employment Equity Act (55 of 1998) issued in terms of Section 25 (1) states that everyone has the right to fair labour practices and the purpose of the Act is to achieve equity in the work place by promoting equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment through the elimination of unfair discrimination (South Africa, 1998:8).

1.2 MOTIVATION

The farm dwellers in the North-West Province were identified as an extremely vulnerable group in the THUSA Study (Vorster *et al.*, 2000:505). The study was carried out between 1996 and 1999 to document the effect of urbanization on the health status and dietary intakes of the African population of the North-West Province of South Africa.

THUSA Study: Transition, Health and Urbanization of South Africans.

'Thusa' is the Setswana word for 'help'.

According to Hall (2001:98), about one million people depend on farm labour for at least a portion of their income. The average annual income of the South African farm worker is less than R6000 a year, representing about a third of the average national wages (London, 2003:2). Salaries for full time workers range from R500-R1200 per month with added benefits such as free housing, water and subsidized electricity. The THUSA Study (Vorster *et al.*, 2000:505) shows that about 94% of farm dwellers in the North-West Province earn as little as R500 per month. The THUSA Study (Vorster *et al.*, 2000:506) also shows that the primary education of the farm dwellers is very low, which contributes to a poor socio-economic environment and to their poverty. According to London (2003:2), one third of the people employed in the South African agricultural section in 1996 had no schooling and the median level of schooling on the farms was less than six years.

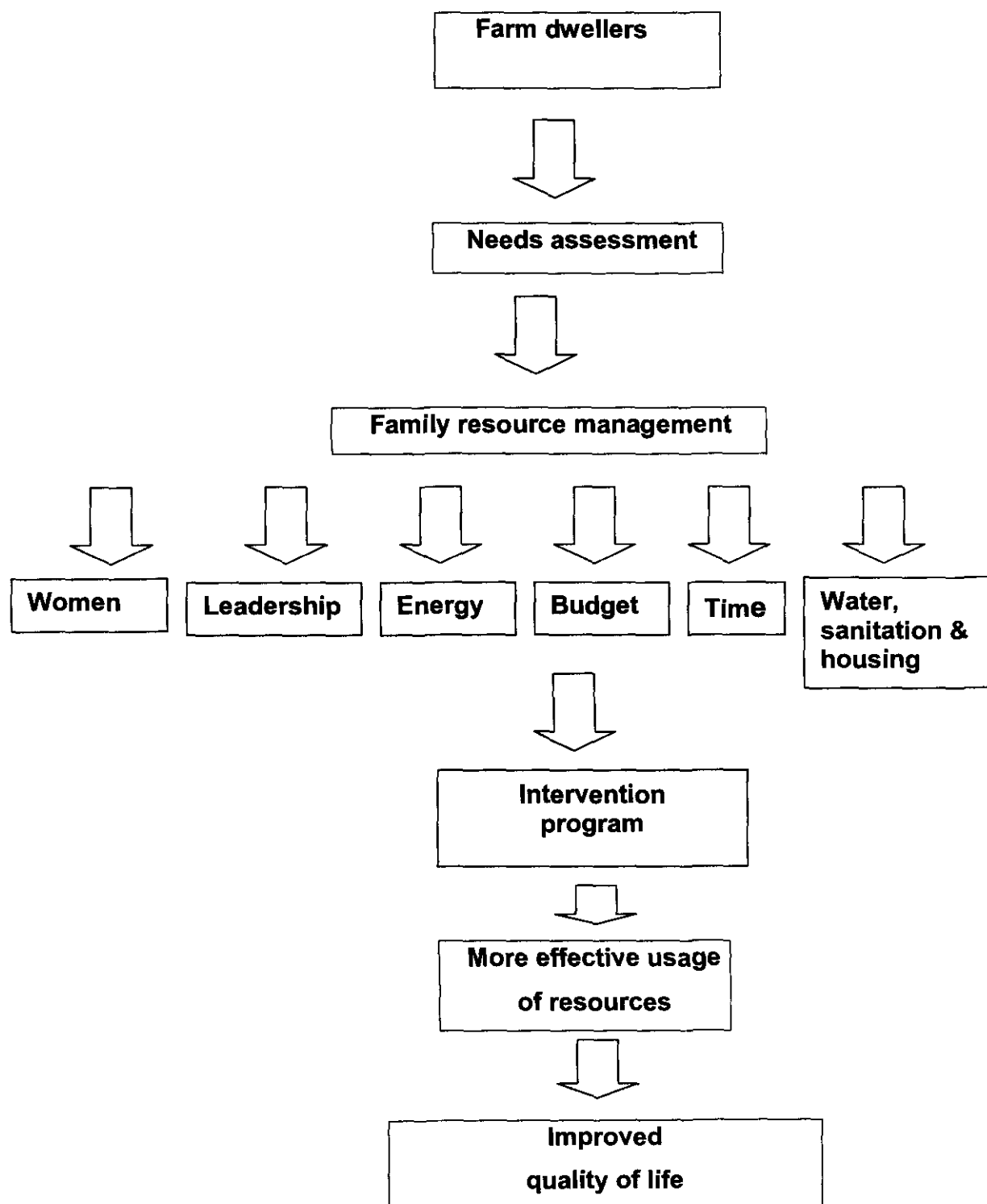
According to Telela (1996:58), one basic problem that female farm dwellers encounter is lack of skills for efficient money usage, which includes planning, budgeting and economical skills (Venter & Larney, 2002:6). One of the objectives of the FLAGH program (Kruger, 2000) is to improve female farm dwellers' family resource management skills and life skills so that they will be able to manage their resources efficiently in order to improve their standard of living.

One of the main concerns regarding female farm dwellers in the North-West Province of South Africa is that they have plenty of spare time on their hands, which they do not know how to use fruitfully to their advantage (Venter & Larney, 2002:2). Compounding this problem is the fact that farmers cannot pay them more money than they are currently offering. One way of solving the situation is to implement an educational intervention program regarding family resource management. This is done with the following framework as a starting point.

FLAGH Study: Farm Labour, And General Health

1.3 RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

FIGURE 1.1: RESEARCH FRAMEWORK



1.4 RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

1.4.1 Aims

Based on the needs assessment done by the Thusa Study and FLAGH program (Kruger, 2001), the main aim of the research is to provide an education and training program of basic, but specific knowledge and life skills to female farm dwellers. It will include skills such as family resource management budgeting, decision-making and better household practices, which will contribute to a sustainable higher quality of life and psychological well-being.

1.4.2 Objectives

The primary aim of this research is to improve the female farm dweller's resource management knowledge and skills. In order to do this the following objectives will be set:

1. Adapt and translated into Tswana sections of the 'Women's Outreach Foundation 10 Program* (Greyvenstein *et al.*, 1993) and use it to design a program addressing the specific community needs, namely: women; leadership; time management; energy; budgeting; water, sanitation and housing.
2. Present the Ntataise* program to unemployed female farm dwellers.
3. Evaluate the program.
4. Make recommendations about the program for future implementation.

****The Women's Outreach Foundation (WOF) is a non-governmental organization devoted to the empowerment of women in Southern Africa through outreach and care by providing special development, welfare and educational programs in order to improve and enrich their quality of life. The Women's Outreach Foundation 10 Program was designed specifically for women as an educational community development program. The WOF program should be presented by women to groups of women of various communities in a wide spectrum of socio-economic and literacy levels.***

NTATAISE*, Is a Tswana name, meaning to enlighten someone with knowledge.

1.5 METHODOLOGY

According to the aims and objectives of the research it is obvious that intervention research will have to be used. De Vos (1998:370), identified six phases of an intervention research program namely:

1. Problem analysis and project planning
2. Information gathering and synthesis
3. Design
4. Early development and pilot testing
5. Evaluation and advanced development
6. Dissemination

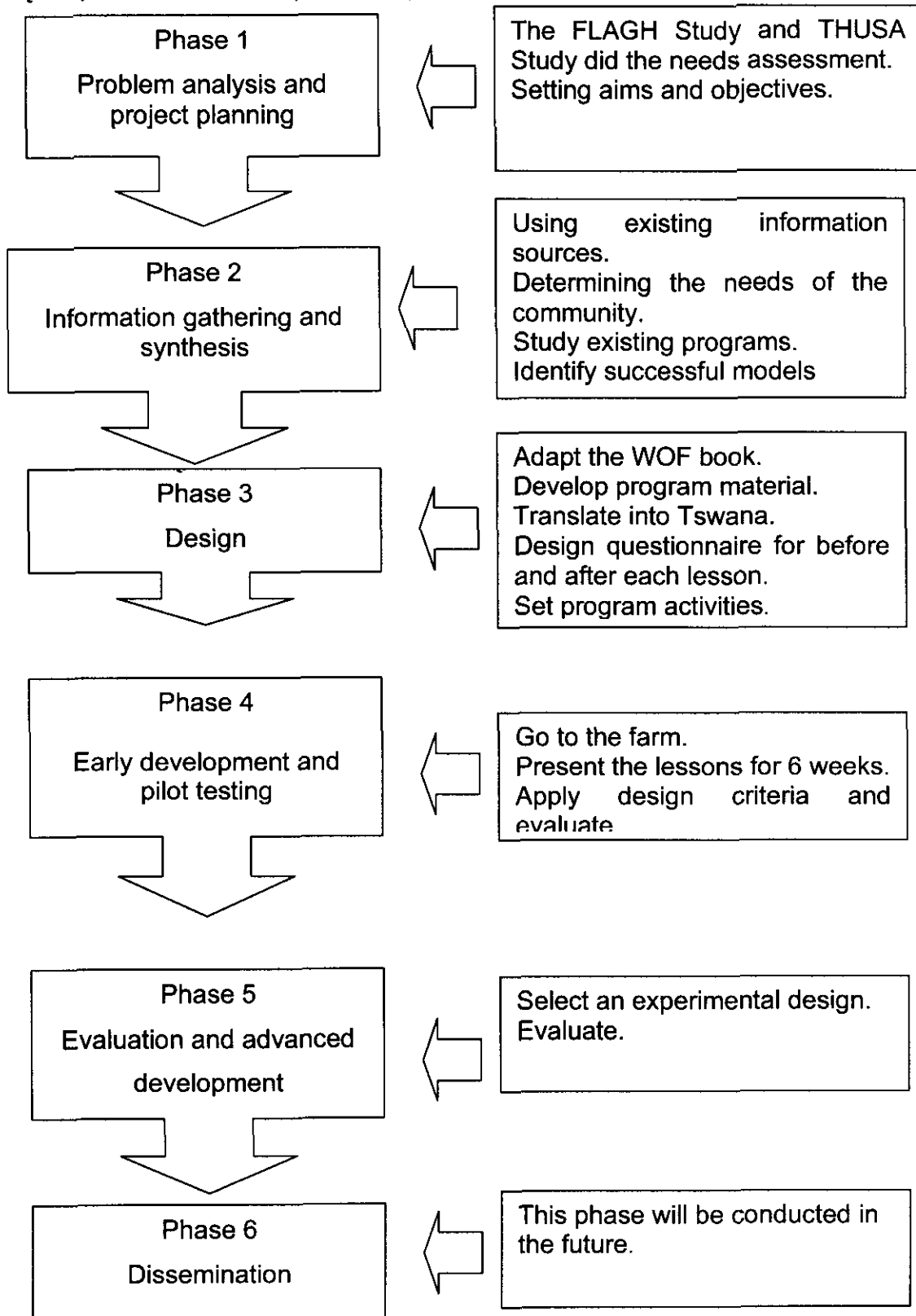
For the developmental implementation of this program, the above method of intervention research will be used. The method of **intervention research** according to De Vos (1998:370) was adapted as illustrated in Figure 1.2 and implemented.

1.6 TRIANGULATION

Triangulation (De Vos, 1998:359) is a combination of qualitative and quantitative results with multiple methods of data collection that are used to increase the trustworthiness of the data. The methods of data collection for the program are: before and after knowledge tests that are statistically analysed, observation of skills and activities as well as individual evaluation questionnaires. By using three methods of data collection, methodological triangulation can be obtained. All questionnaires were tested before use and translated into Tswana to ensure validity and trustworthy.

FIGURE 1.2 INTERVENTION RESEARCH

[Adapted from De Vos (1998:370)]



1.7 TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

No satisfactory description or definition of the term 'farm dwellers' could be found. For the sake of this study, meaning will be assigned to these terms as follows:

1.7.1 Farm workers:

People, employed by a farmer who are engaged in the process of food production and animal production.

1.7.2 Farm dwellers:

People who are living on a farm and not working on it. An example is that most women live on a farm where their husbands are employed and are farm dwellers not farm workers.

1.7.3 Community development

According to Weyers (2000:1), community development is a process by which the efforts of the people themselves are united with those of government authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities, to integrate these communities into the life of the nation and to enable them to contribute fully to national progress.

1.7.4 Capacity building

Capacity building refers to the capacity of the people and the process of assisting people to become the master of their own development (Swanepoel, 1997:21; September, 1995:10).

1.7.5 Adult education

Adult education is a process whereby a person who no longer attends school on a regular or on a full time basis undertakes sequential and organized activities with the conscious intention of bringing about changes in information, knowledge,

understanding or skills, appreciation and activities, or for the purpose of identifying and solving personal and community problems (Lowe, 1970:15; Jarvis: 1995:23; Green, 2002:12).

1.7.6 Family resource management

Family resource management is defined as planning for and implementing the use of resources to meet the demands of the family (Deacon & Firebaugh, 1981:7; Swanson, 1981:2).

1.8 STRUCTURE OF DISSERTATION

This mini-dissertation is presented in an article format. The research work consists of an educational intervention program in family resource management. Following this introduction chapter which motivates the necessity of such interdisciplinary research efforts, Chapter Two gives an overview of the literature considered important for the interpretation of data in this mini-dissertation. Chapter Three consists of a submitted manuscript of a scientific article on an educational intervention program for female farm dwellers, focusing on resource management. The questionnaires used in this study are presented in the Addendum at the end of the mini-dissertation. In Chapter Four, a general discussion and summary of all the results are provided, conclusions are drawn and recommendations are made. The relevant reference of Chapter Three is provided at the end of the article according to the authors' instructions of the Journal of Family Ecology and Consumer Sciences to which the article was submitted. The author's instruction of the Journal of Family Ecology and Consumer Science is included in the Addendum (Addendum H). The reference used in the Chapters One and Two are provided according to the mandatory style stipulated by the North-West University.

The following chapter consists of a literature review of the most salient points in this research.

1.9 AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTION

I solemnly declare that I have written an article independently with the help of my two supervisor's Mrs. M.D Venter and Mrs. M. Larney. My role were as follows:


1. designing an intervention program
2. adapting the WOF10 manual
3. implementing the program
4. adaptation and designing of questionnaires
5. evaluating of program
6. compilation of data, as well as literature searches
7. statistical analysis and interpretation
8. preparation of the manuscript.

.....

L.S MASETLOA
(AUTHOR)

.....

M. D. VENTER
SUPERVISOR

.....

M. LARNEY
SUPERVISOR

1.11 REFERENCES

CONSTITUTION see..... South Africa

DEACON, R.E. & FIREBAUGH, F. M. 1981. Family resource management: principles and application. 2nd ed. Massachusetts : Allyn & Bacon.

DE VOS, A.S. 1998. Research at grass roots: a primer for the caring professions. South Africa, Pretoria : Van Schaik.

GLOBAL INSIGHT. 2003. Poverty is getting worse. http://www.SABCnews.com/south_Africa/social [Date of access: 25 November 2003].

GOLDSMITH, E.B. 2000. Resource management for individual and families. 2nd ed. London : Minneapolis / St.Paul.

GREEN, C. 2002. Adult education: an approach for use in consumer education programmes. *Journal of family ecology and consumer sciences*, 30:10-20.

GREYVENSTEIN, L.A., VENTER, M.D. & REITSMA, GM. 1993. Women's Outreach Foundation 10 Program. Johannesburg : Perskor.

HALL, R. 2001. Farm workers versus the world market. *Agenda*, 48:98-101.

JARVIS, P. 1995. Adult and continuing education. 2nd ed. London : Biddles.

KRUGER, A. 2000. Protocol of the FLAGH program. PU for CHE. Potchefstroom (Unpublished).

KOTZE, D.A. 1994. The need for adult education. *Africanus: Journal of development alternatives*, 24(2):20-30.

LONDON, L. 2003. Human rights, environmental justice, and the health of farm workers in South Africa. http://www.ijoehe.com/pfds/0901_London_South_Africa.pdf [Date of access: 25 November 2003].

LOWE, T. 1970. Adult education and nation building. Edinburgh : Edinburgh University.

NAIDOO, D.A. 1997. Paper rights: organizing farm workers. *South Africa labour bulletin*, 21(4):27-30.

SOUTH AFRICA. 1996. Constitution of the Republic of South Africa as adopted by the Constitutional Assembly on 08 May 1996 and as amended on 11 October 1996. (B34B-96) (ISBN: 0-260-20716-7).

SOUTH AFRICA. 1998. Department of Labour. Employment equity act. Government Printer. (A government publications).

SEPTEMBER, C. 1995. Capacity building in RDP not just an afterthought. *Human resource management*, 11(1):8-12, Feb.

SWANEPOEL, H.J. 1989. Community development: putting plans into actions. South Africa : Kenwyn. Juta.

SWANSON, B.B. 1981. Introduction to home management. New York : Macmillan.

TELELA, R. 1996. Women on farms: challenging servitude in their name. *Agenda*, (31):56-60.

VENTER, M.D & LARNEY, M. 2002. Summary research findings: FLAGH project, family resource management. PU for CHE. Potchefstroom. (Unpublished).

VORSTER, H.H., WISSING, M.P., VENTER, C.S., KRUGER, H.S., KRUGER, A., MALAN, N.T., D.E. RIDDER, J.H., VELDMAN, F.J., STEYN, H.S., MARGETTS, B.M., & MACINTYRE, U. 2000. The impact of urbanization on physical and mental health of Africans in the North-West Province of South Africa: the THUSA Study. *South African journal of science*. 96(9/10):505-514.

Western Regional Centre for the application for prevention technique. 2000. Evaluation. [Web] <http://www.open.org/~westcapt/evl/htm> [Date of access 22 January 2003].

WEYERS, M.L. 2001. The theory and practice of community work: a South African perspective. Potchefstroom, South Africa : Keurkopie.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter an outline for this study is given. In this chapter, the following salient points pertinent to this research will be discussed: an introduction to the study, the background on farm dwellers, community development, capacity building, education, adult education, how adults learn, theories about adult learning, the learning process, principles of adult learning, adult learning problems, adult teaching methods, women and education, family resource management, quality of life, evaluation and intervention research.

During the 1993 census in South Africa, about 50% of the population were considered poor. This high level of poverty is influenced by the standard of living, economic growth, level of crime and social stability (Pillay, 2000:ix). According to Lombard *et.al.* (1991:16), South Africa is a primary developed world, which is characterised by a multicultural group with different cultures, values and norms that are affected by a low economic growth, unemployment and poverty. Most of the poor families live in rural areas, which consist of about 72% of the total population. Poverty is spread in all nine provinces in South Africa. The provinces with the highest poverty rate are the Eastern Cape (71%), Free State (63%), North West (62%), Limpopo (59%) and Mpumalanga (57%), and the two provinces with the lowest rate of poverty are Gauteng (17%) and the Western Cape (28%) (South Africa, 1998).

There is a relationship between poverty and unemployment, about 55% of people in poor families are unemployed compared to about 14% of people in rich households. There are six basic categories for unemployment namely:

- non-educated rural unemployment (28%)
- non-educated urban unemployment (13%)
- young unemployed without work experience (36%)

- long-term unemployed without work experience (6%)
- experienced workers without qualifications (15%)
- unemployed graduates (1%).

Every year about 700 000 people migrate to South Africa looking for a better standard of living (South Africa, 1998). According to Tosterud (1996:35), it is important to improve the economical opportunities in rural areas and to help communities for economic growth in South Africa.

2.2 BACKGROUND ON FARM DWELLERS

There were approximately 1,2 million workers and families residing on commercial farms in South Africa in 1992 (Central Statistic Service, 1992). Presently there are about 0,3 million of agricultural workers (Census, 2001). Despite an overall decline in this figure, it is probably still the largest single sector of employment and one of the major occupations. According to Hall (2001:98), about one million people depend on farm labour for at least a portion of their income.

Historically farm workers' environments were characterized by pitiable living conditions, which included low wages, insufficient housing, poor sanitation, and disempowering labour practices (Van Der Westhuizen, 2002:8). Although some of these problems have been addressed and have improved, the historical imbalances remain substantial (London *et al.*, 1998). The low quality of life of farm workers can probably be ascribed to the fact that their needs, goals, and wishes are not realized (Best *et al.*, 2000:23; Venter, 1992:2)

The Transition, Health and Urbanization in South Africa Study (THUSA Study), (Vorster *et al.*, 2000:505) shows that the primary education of farm dwellers is very low, which contributes to a weak socio-economic environment and to their poverty. Living conditions of families are affected by the economic, social,

political transformation, the result of rapid industrialization, urbanization and the triumph of materialism.

Nawawi (1996:1) sees families in both rural and urban areas faced with poverty, poor education and lack of resources. One of the effects of poverty is that individuals live without adequate food, housing, or clothing and experience constant stress as they try to obtain basic goods and services. This struggle in turn affects their children, jobs and communities (Blasset & McKenna, 2001:51). Therefore, the consequences tend to be far-reaching.

The Program of Reconstruction and Development (RDP) of all the country's people has followed the struggle against apartheid and the introduction of a democratic dispensation. According to September (1995:8), the Reconstruction and Development Program has been formulated and adapted by the government of national unity to address the injustices and imbalances created by the previous government. One way of addressing the injustices and imbalances of the previous government is by introducing community development and capacity building projects in the country. According to Weyers (2001:26), community development projects help community members to be employed, have skills and knowledge about ways to improve their quality of life and their standard of living.

2.3 COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

For a better understanding of the concept community development, the following concepts: community, development and community development are clearly defined and discussed.

2.3.1 Community

Jeppe (1985:33) states that a community can be defined as people of a community that occupy a specific, limited geographic area or locality or a social

system contacting differentiated interlinking subsystems in a psychological aspect.

2.3.2 Development

Ferrihno (1985:21) defines development as a social adaptation aimed at producing the necessary energy for promoting the social organisation corresponding to the life and defined by the people as a better one. Also, development can be the appropriate attitudes of the people towards the means by which the way of life can be changed. Jeppe (1985:35) views development as a major societal change that is complex of mutually related economic, social and political improvements.

Ferreira (1997:91) regards development as a process by which individuals in a community take control of their own behaviour and also as a process of change directed towards the development of self-reliance and self-determination. In conclusion, Weyers (2000:3) defines development as a result of a process by which government (with or without international assistance) and its citizens combine their efforts to improve the general socio-economic position of the country purposefully.

2.3.3 Community development

From the concepts community and development, it is clear that there is a link, which can be defined as follows:

2.3.3.1 Community development is an approach aimed at helping people to obtain skills and knowledge that will enable them to meet their needs and obtain their own goals, by so doing, improve their own lives, standard of living or quality of life. Within this context, community development could be regarded as one of the most important practice theories for human potential (Swanepoel, 1989:9).

2.3.3.2 Ferreira (1997:130) sees community development as:

- a learning process and a problem solving approach which is a prerequisite for learning to take place
- a collective action, which is needs orientated
- objective orientated which requires action at grass root level
- creating awareness, which leads to community building and further development.

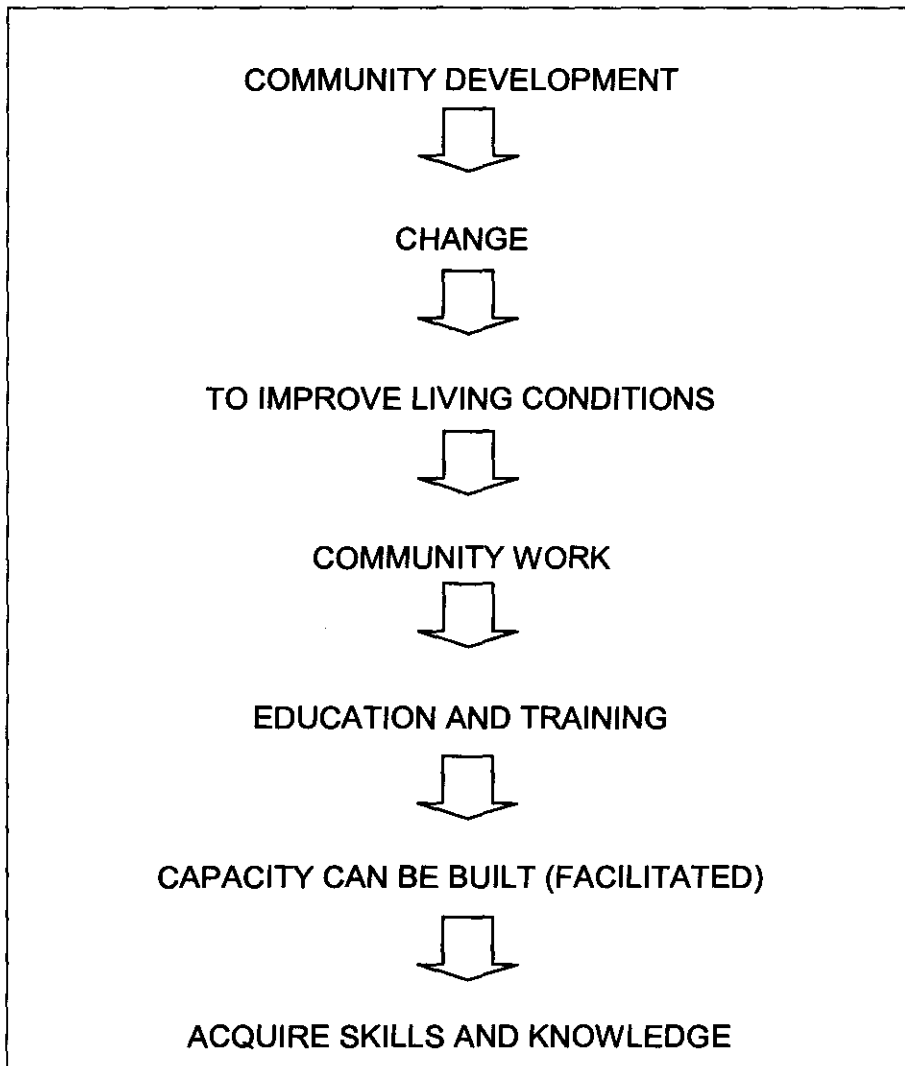
Since community development is seen as a process, it is clear that it is achieved through goals and objectives. The goals of community development should be informed by the principles of community development. The term goal refers to that which a community wants and strives to achieve. An objective should be distinguished from a goal, because it refers to specific actions and activities and is directly related to the needs or problems identified by the community and are usually determined by a specific situation (Ferreira, 1997:131).

The purpose of community development is to bring about substantive and sustainable change in all spheres of community life in order to improve its members standard of living and quality of life (Weyers, 2001:31).

From the framework illustrated in Figure 2.1, community development is a source of all developments (develop people's skills on how to participate in a community). Through community development, participants will be able to learn community work while educating themselves, thus enabling community members to participate in capacity building.

FIGURE 2.1: COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT FRAMEWORK

[Adapted from Weyers (2000)]



According to Weyers (2000:4), community development, community education and social education plan to place emphasis on equipping community members with the knowledge, insight and skills which are necessary to function effectively as community members. Community development is emphasized through the characteristics and principles as the key tools for enabling and facilitating the community development process (Weyers, 2000: 6). The community needs to be changed through community development interventions that will aim at addressing anything and everything that impedes the community's ability to attain

higher standards of living (material terms) and a higher quality of life (in psychosocial terms).

Community work implies that a professional should bring about the change in people's social functioning while focussing on enabling people to fulfil their roles more effectively, on reforming the environment in which people live in and on changing the transaction between the two. Community development and capacity building should be viewed as either a mechanism to improve a country's standard of living and quality of life or as an instrument to fight poverty and other social skills.

Community development goes hand in hand with capacity building. For a capacity building project to take place there must be community members' participation to enable the community to function effectively. For more understanding of what capacity building is and how it differs from community development, it will be discussed in the following section.

2.4 CAPACITY BUILDING

Education, training and overall capacity building should be centrally positioned in any development effort, as they are powerful tools that can work for the positive efforts of underdevelopment and poverty (Venter & Crofton, 2000:404). Capacity building has many connotations referring to both human and financial capacity (Weyers, 2000:4). The beneficiaries for potential clients of capacity building should be part of a learning process characterized by a flexible sustainable experimental action-based capacity building approach.

De Beer and Swanepoel (1997:21) define capacity building as the capacity of the people and the process of assisting people to become the master of their own development. From the definition, it is clear that capacity building consists of

several components. September (1995:8) identified the components of capacity building as:

- the capacity to participate in decision-making
- the capacity to deliver
- education and training
- institutional development
- resources.

September (1995:10) also states that the capacity building program for organizations and local institution development focuses on:

- facilitation and researching of institution development
- participatory needs assessment and planning
- project facilitating
- training of members and leaders
- provision of development information.

Through capacity building, the community members will be able to sustain themselves by acquiring skills in sustainable development, which will contribute to the improvement of quality of life. Barnard (2000:3) defines sustainable development as development that meets the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Sustainable development is best understood as a process of change in which the use of resources, the direction of investment, the orientation of technological development and institutional change all enhance the potential to meet human needs both today and tomorrow (Barnard, 2000:4).

The emphasis for developers should be to assist in the building of capacity and this is where education and training as learning tools come into play (September, 1995:12).

Kotze (1994:1) states that apartheid forced exclusion and group isolation. Language, culture and race provide natural barriers to physical or emotional equality that requires efforts to overcome. The political policy of apartheid had a direct influence on the educational qualifications and adult education level of the South African labour force, especially in black and coloured communities, with a large backlog in training, education and development of human potential and labour.

2.5 EDUCATION

Before the particular domain of adult education can be discussed it should be defined. Within the context of adult education, an adult can be viewed from a psychological perspective, defining it as when a person arrives at a self-concept of being responsible for his own life (Green, 2000:10). Adult education, learning and education will be discussed and defined briefly in the next section.

2.5.1 Terms and definitions

According to Cross (1981:1), the learning society is growing and it would be difficult to think of some way to live in a society changing as rapidly as ours without constantly learning new things. When life was simpler, one generation could pass along information to the next generation and provide what was needed to be known to progress in the world, tomorrow could be simply a repeated yesterday. Now, however, the world changes faster than the generation and individuals have to acquire more learning skills in order to fit in.

The following concepts will be defined and discussed for better understanding of the literature:

learning

education and training.

2.5.1.1 Learning

Draper (1998:19) defines learning as a process of interaction; with adapting to, shaping and understanding, the environment or a process of understanding one's self. Learning occurs through all stages of life, which is from childhood to adulthood. Learning in adulthood is called adult education.

Hamilton (1992:37) defines learning as a change in behaviour, which is directly related to the fulfilment of needs and can be characterised as:

- ◆ action–orientated
- ◆ individual learning not group learning
- ◆ learning encouraged by others
- ◆ reaction to stimulus
- ◆ something, which cannot be forced.

According to Lategan (1991:74), learning is seen as complex and cannot be simply defined but can be seen as a process or an act, which is more or less durable. Knowles (1973:42; 1990:33) sees learning as a process of discovery by the learner. In conclusion, Green (2002:11) states that learning can be thought of as a process by which behaviour changes as a result of experience.

There are many explanations of learning, which are often called theories. Education occurs through learning. To explain the concept of education, all types of education should be defined and discussed.

2.5.1.2 Education and training

According to Erasmus and Van Dyk (1999:2), education can be seen as a broad term aimed at creating the circumstances and opportunities for individuals to develop and understand the broader society in which they live, thereby enabling them to contribute to that society. Van Wyk (1996:46) sees training, on the other hand, as more focused than education and it is utilized to acquire new skills in

order to keep up with changing events and situations, which are directed towards the satisfaction of needs.

Venter and Crofton (2000:405) define education as a process of managing international, planned and systematic learning or a process of organizing learning towards a predetermined goal or direction. Education is a lifelong process within a system, which is both integrated and flexible and to forge a unity between traditional concepts of education and training.

Education and training should be viewed on a continuum: starting from narrowly defined objectives and progressing towards more freedom in terms of broader defined objectives. All types of education should be practiced in order to cater for all community members, namely formal education, non-formal education and informal education (Venter & Crofton, 2000:405).

2.5.2 Types of education

2.5.2.1 *Formal education*

Formal education is defined as education, which is intentional and purposeful learning, for which one receives formal recognition for academic and skills achievement (Draper, 1998:19).

2.5.2.2 *Non-formal education*

Non-formal education is education, which do not lead to the awarding of a degree, or professional or occupational certificate or diploma (Draper, 1998:20).

2.5.2.3 *Informal education*

Informal education is the education one receives from the environment one grows in, for example when a child is taught norms and values of his community (OED, 1998) and one can conclude that informal education is an education where one learns to conform and comply to the norms and values of the society.

2.6 ADULT EDUCATION

Draper (1998:19) defines adult education as a process of facilitating and managing the intentional, formal and non-formal learning of adults or learning the essence of adult education.

Lowe (1970:1) sees adult education as a process whereby a person who no longer attends school on a regular or on a full-time basis undertakes sequential and organized activities with the conscious intention of bringing about changes in information, knowledge, understanding or skills, appreciation and activities, or for the purpose of identifying, solving personal and community problems.

Kahler *et.al.*, (1985:15) describes adult education as all activities with an educational purpose carried out by people in the ordinary business of life that use only part of their time and energy to acquire intellectual equipment. Kahler (1985:15) further defines adult education as a purposeful effort toward self-development carried on by an individual without direct legal compulsion and without such effort becoming a major field of activity. One can conclude by saying that adult education is education for older people (people who are above 18 years of age). In addition, it is not structured, but it can be formal, informal and non-formal education.

2.6.1 Aims of adult education

Burrough (1994:4) states the aims of adult education as follows:

1. to provide adult education and training programs which are equivalent to the existing level in the formal system, with an emphasis on literacy and numeric skills
2. adult education must conform to the standards set out within the National Qualifications Framework
3. adult education must be included in all reconstruction projects (job creation projects) and particular programs for the unemployed

4. to see education as a lifelong process within a system which is both integrated and flexible
5. to forge a unity between traditional concepts of education and training.

2.6.2 Theories about adult education

This discussion presents theory, which builds support to explain learning in adulthood. Adult learning can be described from a cognitive perspective, which specifically deals with the mental construct of meaning. The learning process, however, is not only an individual activity but also involves social interaction. The social aspect of learning is therefore, included within this category. The best-known theories in this field are those of Mezirow and Freire. Jarvis (1995:83-102) highlights the work of three major writers, each of whom, in their various ways, has examined different aspects of adult learning.

2.6.2.1 Freire's theory

Freire's theory (Jarvis, 1995:84) sees educational ideas as a humanistic conception of people as learners, but also an expectation that once adult learners have actually learned, they may not remain passive but become active participants in the wider world. Hence, education cannot be a neutral process, it is either designed to facilitate freedom or it is education for domestication. The process of literacy education was designed for an experiential situation in which learners were able to reflect upon their own understanding of themselves with their socio-cultural setting.

2.6.2.1 Knowle's theory

Knowles in particular, based his theory of andragogy on six assumptions, which can all be seen as characteristics of adult learners. He defined his theory as the 'art of science of helping adults' learn and claimed that these assumptions are a 'set of well-grounded principles of good practice' (Knowles, 1990:58-63). Jarvis (1995:86) confirms Knowles view that children and adults are existentially different and that men and women are existentially different, but no one has yet

suggested that the art and science of teaching women differs from the art and science of teaching men. The difference between men and women are neither significant when related to their readiness to learn nor important in relation to their perspective in time. Adult learners are other-directed, so when an adult come to a learning situation he or she may seek to become dependant upon a teacher.

2.6.2.3 Mezirow's theory

In adult education, Mezirow suggests that learning is the process of making meaning from experience because of the learners' previous knowledge, so that learning is a new interpretation of an experience (Jarvis, 1995:90). Making meaning is an important element in learning, although it restricts the cognitive domain, which is pity, since skills emotions and even the senses are also learned from experiences.

In conclusion, both Freire and Mezirow consider the socio-cultural milieu as a significant factor in the learning process. Freire has a two-culture model of society whereas Mezirow is content to regard it as rather static and homogenous. These authors have placed considerable emphasis on the self mostly in the work of Knowles which reflects the humanistic concerns of adult education.

Learning and education is perceived as something that is done at a specific age by specific people because of the myth and realities labelled by people.

2.6.3 Myths and realities about adult education

According to Kerka (2002:1), there are myths and realities associated with teaching adults concerning adult and children as learners and learner centred or teacher centred education. The OED (1987:689) defines a myth as a widely believed, but false story or idea.

2.6.3.1 Adults and children as learners

The realities about adult learners (Kerka, 2002:2) are that adult learners are autonomous, independent and self-directed; their readiness to learn is associated with a transition point or a need to perform a task; their orientation is centered on problems not content. They are intrinsically motivated and their participation in learning is voluntary.

Regardless of the above-mentioned realities some aspects are myths as adults do not always automatically become self-directed upon achieving adulthood. Some are not psychologically equipped and need a great deal of help to direct their own learning effectively. Adults may also be self-directed in some situations but others prefer or need direction from others.

2.6.3.2 Learner centred or teacher centred

Kerka (2002:3) states that the moral practice for adult educators is to involve learners in identifying their needs. In traditional teacher-directed education, passive learners receive knowledge transmitted by teachers and, in contrast, learner centred education, is characterized by flexibility and individualization for self-directed, empowered adults.

According to Knapper and Cropley (1991:52), it is clear that there is a real difference in performance on learning tasks between adults and children and older and younger adults. However, the difference should not be seen as a matter of presence of a single generalised learning ability before and after the conventional age for leaving school. Rather, it should be seen as an embracing difference in most readily learned circumstances and mostly favourable for promoting learners, at a speed or efficiency with which certain kinds of learning are carried out. It is clear that there is a difference between an adult and child learner. Knapper and Cropley discuss the differences below.

2.7 THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN ADULT LEARNERS AND CHILD LEARNERS

According to Knapper and Cropley (1991:52), adults have the following characteristics as learners:

- they have better developed personal goals, better-formulated ideas about what is useful subject matter
- they have a desire to learn things that they themselves define as worthwhile
- they are seldomly interested in learning answers which they know
- they are affected by an unwillingness to be treated in ways that they regard as more appropriate for children, while they are more sensitive to social factors such as a fear of looking foolish in front of others
- they do not consider abstract information to be relevant
- they underestimate their own ability to learn in a relatively formal setting.

These characteristics suggest that adult learning is strongly affected by factors other than simply the ability to learn (Knapper & Cropley 1991:53).

From the characteristics above one can conclude that there is a difference between adult learners and child learners. Van Dyk *et al.*, (1993:139) further tabulate the difference between the two.

TABLE 2.1: THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE CHILD AND ADULT LEARNER

[Adapted From Van Dyk *et al.*, (1993:139)]

Characteristics	Child	Adult
1. Must know	The teacher determines the learning content.	The reason why some things must be learned is determined before hand.
2. Learner's experience	Little or no experience.	A great deal of experience of high quality.
3. Content of learner	Dependent on the teacher.	Provides direction.
4. Orientation to learning	Activities are subjected to orientation.	Activities are task or life based.
5. Motivation to learn	Largely extrinsic.	Largely intrinsic.
6. Authority relationship	Dependent on the teacher.	Independent and responsible.
7. Responsibility	Little or no responsibility.	Co-responsibility.

2.8 HOW ADULTS LEARN

From Table 2.1 one can see that there is a difference between the learner and the adult learner. Therefore, there must be different teaching methods for the two groups. Rogers (1977:59-78; 2002:44-60) investigates how adults learn and summarised as follows:

- **Learning by activity**

Rogers (1977:59) states that adults experience a short-term memory due to ageing because the scanning stage is easily disrupted by other activities. The teacher should try to cut down to an absolute minimum the amount of conscious memorizing that has to be done by the learner or student

- **The pace of learning**

Adult learners should be allowed to work at their own pace and they prefer to take longer, making sure that they have something just right

- **Learning through realistic and relevant materials**

Adult learners view learning as something that should be useful and relevant. They view learning as difficult if they have to translate instructions or processes from one medium to another

- **Learning using experience**

Problem solving tasks in adults decline with age and greater rigidity to both physical and mental skills. Adult learners can accommodate complex new information much more easily than a child can, because they always use their experiences in problem solving

- **Learning by preventing and recognizing mistakes**

Adult learners find it difficult to recognize their mistakes and they normally do not accept corrections by the facilitator because they always question the action of the facilitator

- **Giving knowledge of results**

Finding out straight away whether or not an answer is correct is one of the most important features of learning. Adult learners do not believe that 'practice makes perfect' but rather 'practice is the result of what is known, which makes perfect'. The teacher should bring the learner to appreciate what the correct performance looks, sounds and feels like, so that the learner will be able to know what is right or wrong

- **Learning through practice**

Timing of breaks is important as the learners must always be allowed to pause for a while during lessons because they cannot concentrate for a longer time. Supplying learners with tea breaks normally assist

- **Learning through eye and ear**

Hearing and vision both decline in efficiency early. The classroom in which all the lessons will be presented should be well lit, free from glare, the board should be visible and the manual should be well written in the mother tongue of the group

- **Learning to learn**

Continued lessons ensure that all the participants gain more knowledge through repetition.

For a facilitator to know how an adult learns, one must know how to characterise each learner and by so doing, learning will be more effective. An adult can learn in many ways. The following will explain the ways in which an adult can learn more easily.

2.9 THEORIES ABOUT ADULT LEARNING

Adult learning can be described from a cognitive perspective, which specifically deals with the mental construct of meaning. The learning process, however, is not only an individual activity but also involves social interaction. Merriam and Caffarella (1991) organized the theories of adult learning according to those that focus on adult characteristics, those that emphasize an adult's life situation and those that cause change in consciousness. The adult learner, the learning situation and learning process categories are broadly linked to the adult learning theories.

2.9.1 The adult learner

The physical and psychological dimensions of adult learners are discussed here. The theories of Knowles, and Knapper & Cropley focus on the characteristics of

adult learners. Knowles based this theory of andragogy on six assumptions, which can all be seen as characteristics of the adult learner. He defined his theory as the 'art of science of helping adults learn' and he claimed that these assumptions are a 'set of well-grounded principles of good practice' (Knowles, 1980:23; Knowles, 1990:43). Refer to Table 2.2.

The first assumption states that adults have 'the need to know'. Adults need to know why do they have to learn before learning occurs, 'the benefits of learning' as well as the negative consequences of not learning (Knowles, 1990). The learners 'self-concept' is the second assumption of Knowles. It states that once a matured adult derives a self-concept, he or she will develop a need to be seen and treated as being capable of self-direction. Knowles' third assumption pays attention to 'the role of learners experience that differ in quality as well as quantity'. 'Readiness to learn', the fourth assumption, states that developmental tasks associated with moving from one developmental stage to the next, is a way of indicating readiness to learn. The fifth assumption is 'orientation to learning' where adults are life centered in their orientation to learning. Adults are motivated to learning if they perceive that it will help them perform certain tasks or deal with problems that they are confronted with in real life situations. The last assumption is 'motivation', it states that if an adult is responsive to some external motivators, the most potent motivation to participate in learning activities seems to be internal pressure such as a desire for job-satisfaction, self-esteem and to improve quality of life (Knowles, 1999).

Cross (1981:1) offers an attempt of theory based on adult learners characteristics. This theory is referred to characteristics of adult learners which consists of two classes of variables, namely: personal and situational characteristics. A personal characteristic includes physical, psychological and socio-cultural dimensions whereas the situational characteristics refers to aspects of part-time versus fulltime learning as well as voluntary and compulsory learning (Cross, 1981:2; Merriam & Caraffela, 1991).

2.9.2 The learning situation (Refer to Table2.3)

The learning situation theory is set in an adult life situation concerning the learner's roles and responsibilities. The focus is on Jarvis and McClusky's theory. McClusky (Merriam & Caffarella, 1991:34) named his theory the 'margin of life', which refers to a reserve of energy to deal with a particular learning situation. The theory explains the dynamics of adult learning.

Jarvis' (1995:89) theory states that all learning begins with an experience and which occurs within a social context (when a person enters into a social context). Although Jarvis' theory mention the experience of the learners (fits into the category of the adult learner), while focusing specifically on the response of the learner, making it appropriate to the learning process. This theory explains the aspects of humanistic as well a social learning orientation to learning.

2.10 THE LEARNING PROCESS

Refer to Table2.4

Adult learning can be described from a cognitive perspective, which specifically deals with the mental construct of meaning. Mezirow's notion of perspective transformation is defined as the 'process of becoming critically aware of how and why our presuppositions have come to control the way we perceive, understand and feel our world' Green (2002:23). Freire's theory (in Jarvis, 1995:98) of social change distinguishes between 'knowledge-banks' and problem posing education.

2.11 PRINCIPLES OF ADULT LEARNING

Most of the theorists and authors on adult education seems to try to identify principles that can be applied to practicing adult education, summarizing what has been learned from research or observed in practice. Green (2002:22) summarized principles in the following way:

- adults learn throughout their lives, with the negotiations of the transitional stage in the life span being the immediate and motive for learning

- ❑ adults exhibit diverse learning style-strategies for coding information, cognitive procedures and mental sets and learn in different ways, for different purposes
- ❑ adults like learning activities that are problem-centred
- ❑ adults want the learning outcomes to have some immediacy of application
- ❑ current learning is affected by experience, serving as an enhancement
- ❑ self-concept is linked to effective learning
- ❑ adults exhibit a tendency toward self-directedness in their learning.

The compiled set of principles in Green (2002:23), as represented in Table 2.2-2.4, was derived from the different theoretical foundations in the literature. This list is intended to be a synopsis of the principles of adult learning. The list is categorized, for continuation purposes, according to the adult learner, the learning situation, and the learning process.

Table 2.2: PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING - THE ADULT LEARNER

Principle	Description	Theory
Experience	All learning begins with experience Linked to adult learning Resources for learning Can become an obstacle to new learning Enter for learning activities with different experiences	Jarvis, 1987
Needs	Informed about the benefits gained from learning as well as the negative consequences of learning Problem focused	Knowles, 1990
Motivation	Linked with life experiences and developmental issues	Knowles, 1980
	Readiness to learn Task orientation Internal pressure like desire, self-esteem	Cognitivism
Proficiency	Adults have the ability to perform satisfactorily if given the opportunity Combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes Helps to explain adult motivation and achievement in learning situations	Knox, 1980
Concern	Ageing process affecting mental structures Decreasing in certain functions, incl. hearing, eyesight and response to time.	Cognitivism

Table 2.3: PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING - THE LEARNING SITUATION

Principle	Description	Theory
Social roles	Life events and transitions of results in learning and in motivation for learning	Knowles, 1980
	Seen in the light of developmental issues	Knox, 1986
Learning styles	Manifest in cognitive, affective and physiological dimensions	Reiff, 1992
	Four ways to approach and perceive situations, sensing, intuition thinking or feeling	Knox, 1986
Learning climate	Cooperative Assisting adults to trust their own input.	Knowles, 1980

Table 2.4: PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING – THE LEARNING PROCESS

Principles	Description	Theory
Cognitive ability	Existing knowledge serves as an interpretive framework	Constructivism
	Cognitive development	Piaget, 1972
	Dialectic thinking	Kramer, 1989
Interactive	Socialization, social roles, model new roles, observation of others Adding or changing the general pool of knowledge through exchanging relevant and viable meaning All experience occurs through social context	Social learning Social constructivism Jarvis, 1987
Participation	Adults are acting and thinking about what they are doing Use life experience as a source of learning Learner-centered approach	Vella, 1994
	Voluntarily	Brookfield, 1988
Liberation	Sharing of information through dialogue Praxis Critical reflection	Social changes, Freire, 1970
Self-directedness	Fulfil potential; develop the whole person to become self-actualised	Knowles, 1980
Responses	When entering a learning situation learners respond in different ways	Jarvis, 1987

Effective learning depends on learners' response in the program, not to adults in general (Green, 2002:24). One cannot consider all these principles when practicing adult education. Facilitating adult learning process relies on the

perspective, the flexibility in asking questions, listening to the answers and being prepared to change plans.

2.12 ADULT LEARNING PROBLEMS

Adult learners are psychologically labelled as old learners. Therefore, they have trouble in learning, they need special learning skills. The following describes adult learning problems.

Hamilton (1992:39) identified areas in which adults experience special difficulties as the following:

- cognitive domain (thinking, learning and memory)
- memory becomes less effective
- strategies for strong information may become less effective
- search and recall tactics become less effective
- attitudes and values
- motives
- self-image
- non-cognitive factors (Older adults are incapable of learning):
 - anxiety has no effect on cognition (selection, attention, narrowing of interpretation of events, repetition to 'old solution', inability to break out the stereotype of a situation)
 - emotions (feeling of humiliation, self-doubt, anger, projection of own negative feeling on the teacher and the subject matter).

From the problems identified in adult learning, one can deduce that adults need special teaching methods. This teaching method should be appropriate to adult learners' special educational needs.

2.13 ADULT TEACHING METHODS

According to Jarvis, (1995:114), there are three types of teaching methods that can be employed in adult education, namely, the teacher-centred method, student-centred method and the student-individual centred method. These methods of teaching will be discussed below.

2.13.1 The teacher-centred method

This teaching method is when the facilitator leads a session and adopts two different approaches:

- **Didactic** (the facilitator teaches the subject in the traditional method of providing information)
- **Socratic** (the facilitator seeks to elicit the information from the students by careful questioning).

The teacher-centred method can be done in the following ways namely: demonstration lessons, guided discussions, controlled discussions and lecture discussions, lectures, mentoring and tutorial lessons.

2.13.2 The student-centred method

In the student-centred teaching method, there is a demonstration throughout the discussion. Since they are adult students, each brings to the teaching and learning situation life experiences. Adult learners have knowledge, reflect upon their experiences as well as interpret meaning and purpose of life. There are different methods of teaching, which are incorporated in this method namely: brainstorming, buzz-groups, debate, interview, role-playing, panel discussions, projects and case studies (Jarvis, 1995:122).

2.13.3 The individual student-centred method

The individual student-centred method focuses on facilitating learning. The individual works alone with the teacher's guidance which ranges from self-selected learning to tutor-set projects. The following are the examples of

individuals student-centred methods: assignments; computer assigned learning; contract learning; experiential work; the practical; the personal tutor and self-directed learning.

These teaching methods will help individual adult learners and tutors to facilitate learning easily.

2.14 WOMEN AND EDUCATION

2.14.1 Traditional role of women

Discrimination prevents women from participating in the political, social, economic and cultural life of their country (CEDAW, 1995:3). It harms the growth and development of the family and society and it makes it difficult for women to reach full potential of life.

Women were traditionally seen as homemakers, not as learners and they were not given opportunities and access to learning institutions. The resolution taken on the 4th World Conference on Women at Beijing (1995:47), Section B no. 69 states that education is recognized as a human right for both man and woman and an essential tool for achieving goals of equality, development, and peace. Non-discriminatory education benefits both girls and boys and, therefore ultimately contributes to the relationship between men and women to be more equal.

In conclusion, women have a unique contribution to make to the application of technology, emphasizing the human domain and focusing on the improvement of quality of life. However, there is sufficient evidence that indicates that the technologies are developed and controlled exclusively for men (CEDAW, 1995:3).

2.14.2 Changing roles of women

CEDAW (1995:3) states that South Africa's new constitution declares that 'all people are equal' and that 'discrimination against a person because of sex or gender is not allowed'. This means that women cannot be denied certain jobs because they are physically different from men or because of any fixed ideas that they should not work outside of the house. The Women Charter of South Africa calls for equity between women and men and girls and boys to start in all areas, in the family life, the work place and school.

According to Imel (1996:1), delegates of the United Nations 4th World Conference on women concluded that if women are to advance their social, economic and political status, they must have access to high quality education. Although women have steadily increased their educational status, millions still have a problem obtaining appropriate education and training because of race, class and gender assumptions, organised by the society in ways that place all women, but especially low-income women at a disadvantage.

According to CEDAW (1995:17), rural women and men must have equal opportunities for education, career, and vocational guidance of all levels. Many gaps in levels of education must be removed immediately through access to continuity education, literacy and other programs of adult education.

Madichie and Nnubia (2000:24) state that rural women have been encouraged to attend adult literacy classes where they are taught basic health, food and nutrition, home management, clothing and textile related subjects. Verma (1996:11) further states that in order to shift the balance of power it is crucial to develop technological skills of women who will be involved in decision making positions and will play a vital role in influencing the design and construction of technologies in favour of women.

It is important to know that if the basic needs of individuals are fulfilled it would add real value to their quality of life. Often there are unemployed members in a

household, who are a financial burden for a family and yet they have plenty of spare time (Venter & Larney: 2002:4). If these individuals possess skills of any type, they could contribute to the upkeep of the household and help in taking care of other household members. According to the Thusa Study (Voster *et al.*, 2002:23), farm dwellers have time to spare, which is not utilized fruitfully and they could put it to use for their own benefit.

2.15 FAMILY RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

The potential leadership within the poor segments of society needs to be developed to ensure their empowerment and to improve their quality of life. Individuals and families use home management or family resource management principles throughout their daily lives. How these are used determines their success in attaining their desired quality of life (Goldsmith, 2000:84). If family resource management skills are introduced, the family will be able to function effectively resulting in proper household management. The term family resource management is made of many concepts, therefore it is important to define and discuss this term.

2.15.1 Terms and definitions

The following terms will be defined for more clarification and easy understanding of the concepts:

- **Family**

The family or household is considered part of an ecosystem from a household resource management perspective. Donaldson and Boshoff (2001:21) define family as a subsystem that is constantly interacting with its various environments in its endeavours to satisfy the basic needs of members of the families.

- **Management**

Management is the basic tool for achieving desired goals and purposes by using resources to advantage and helps people to control the events of life and

influences the quality of life of individuals and the family through the way resources are directed towards goals (Goldsmith, 2000; 80).

- Family resource management

According to Deacon and Firebaugh (1998:7), family resource management is defined as planning for and implementing the use of resources to meet the demands of the family. It helps families and individuals to cope with pressure of changing conditions and serves as the avenue, which anticipates reality of the future become reality. According to Swanson (1981:2), family resource management is the time used for the management of quality and quantity of resources.

- Sustainable livelihood

Closely linked to resource management is the concept of 'sustainable livelihoods', which refers to the capacity of people to make a living and improve their quality of life (Deacon & Firebaugh, 1981:7). Every household has human and material resources, such as human cognitive ability, health, energy, time and material (for example money, housing, furniture, appliances and clothing). The manner in which these resources are managed can make a difference to a household's quality of life, even if the resources do not increase (Goldsmith, 2000:82).

- Home management

Home management means anything that needs to be accomplished within a household including ironing, cleaning, cooking, planning a party, social behaviour and so forth (Swanson, 1981:3). Through home management, people will be able to function effectively by managing time. If family resource management is practiced well, then the people will be able to do their community development projects effectively.

Family resource management lets families identify and remove impendents to individuals and families and also to enables families to have enough income to maintain an acceptable standard of living and quality of life (Deacon & Firebaugh, 1981:7).

2.16 QUALITY OF LIFE

Quality of life is a concept, which is normally associated in improvement of living standards. Quality of life is defined as follows:

- **Quality of life as a concept** or by definition ranges from one-dimensional to multidimensional approaches. Westaway (2001:28) further defines quality of life as a dimensional concept comprising objective and subjective dimensions.

- ❖ **Objective dimensions** such as gross national product, infant mortality rate, homicide rate, suicide rate, and gross human rights violation, which give little or no information about the quality of life of the individual or specific group within population.

- It focuses on **subjective dimensions** of quality of life e.g. health of a person and the state of housing in which she or he lives in.

- **Quality of life is seen as synonymous** with life satisfaction; happiness, needs satisfaction or social well-being (Boshoff, 2001). An individual's quality of life will be influenced by the manner in which society caters to the norms to fulfil basic needs of the individual. The experiencing of the general domain of quality of life is influenced by various variables.

- **Quality of life is relative** and differs between individuals, but it can be perceived as the level of satisfaction or confidence with one's conditions, relationships, and surroundings relative to the available alternatives (McGregor & Goldsmith, 1998:14). According to Steenkamp (2002:2), quality of life is the extent to which a person enjoys the important possibilities of his life. Possibilities refer to the balance between opportunities and limitations. For this study, quality of life can be defined, as a way of achieving life satisfaction, happiness, needs satisfaction or social well-being according to a community's needs.

In order to improve community member's standard of living and quality of life, it could work on the economic, bio-physiological, spiritual, culture, technological, environmental, educational, political and psychosocial spheres. This makes

community development a much more comprehensive form of community intervention.

For one to know whether a community has improved his or her quality of life an assessment should be done in a form of an evaluation. The following section explains, defines a concept of evaluation, describes the phases and types of evaluation.

2.17 EVALUATION

After every research project, there should be an evaluation, to check whether all the aims and objectives were met. Pahad (1997:2) defines evaluation as interpreting of assessment to credit learners for the standards they have reached; coming to justified conclusions about the success of learning programs, methods or material. Assessment can be the way of finding out what someone knows, what they understand, and what they can do (Pahad, 1997:3). For the purpose of this study, assessment is defined as the process of identifying, gathering and interpreting information about a learners' achievements as measured against nationally agreed outcomes for a particular phase of learning (South Africa, 1998:9).

According to Gosling and Edwards (1995:102) and Feuerstein (1990:2) evaluation should be done for the following reasons:

- to clarify the objectives and assess their relevance
- to assess the effectiveness and progress towards achieving objectives
- to find out it's impact
- to look at the long-term implications
- for achievements (to see what has been evaluated)
- to measuring progress (the objectives of the program)
- to improving monitoring (better management)
- to identifying strength and weaknesses

- to see if the efforts were effective
- to improving effectiveness.

Before one can evaluate, there are concepts which should be clearly defined, namely: evaluation, assessment, evaluator and outcomes. According to the Western Regional Centre for the application for prevention technique (2003:1), evaluation can be defined as systematic effort to collect and use program information for many purposes. Evaluation also refers to the systematic investigation of the worth of an object (Kalamazoo, 2002:3).

Donley and Napper (1998:117) define evaluation from an educational view, as the process of gathering opinions of learners and their stakeholders experiences of a course or program, which is useful in determining whether the course met it's aims and objectives, how well it was delivered and whether it satisfied participants needs.

2.17.1 Program evaluators

Program evaluators are people who carefully collect information about the program or some aspects of the program in order to make the necessary decision about the program. For an evaluator to function effectively, there must be some criteria used to evaluate a program's progress.

Harris and Bell (1994:51) identified the following as the criteria for evaluation of a program:

- does the program match the values of the stakeholders
- does the program match the needs of the people it serves
- does the program as implemented, fulfil the plans
- do the outcomes achieved match the goals
- is the support of the program theoretically orientated
- is the program accepted
- have the resources devoted to the program been used appropriately?

McNamara (1999:6) and Donley & Napper (1998:118) view outcomes as benefits to clients for participation in the program, and are usually expressed in terms of knowledge and skill, behaviour or value conditions and status.

2.17.2 Outcomes

Outcome is defined by Pahad (1997:3) as skills, knowledge, attitudes, and values which a learner can demonstrate. Olivier (1998:28) states that there are two types of outcomes, namely: critical outcomes and specific outcomes. These outcomes are discussed below:

- Critical outcomes

Olivier (1998:22) describes critical outcomes as broad, generic and cross-curricular outcomes, which are the base of learning after which the learners will be able to move on to specific outcomes.

- Specific outcomes

Olivier (1998:23) defines specific outcomes as achievements within a specific context, which can be demonstrated following a range of learning experiences, including supportive elements like the acquiring of knowledge and skills as well as ways of executing performances. Pahad (1997:4) sees specific outcomes at a specific level in a specific area of learning, and shows what learners are capable of knowing and doing at the end of a learning experience.

2.17.3 Types of evaluation

According to Gottschalk (2002:2), there are three types of evaluation namely: formative evaluation, summative evaluation and a combination of both.

- Formative evaluation

Formative evaluation is an ongoing process to be considered at all stages of evaluation. It facilitates courses and content adaptation, and will identify major gaps in the instructional plan or the need for major adjustments. According to the Western Regional Centre for the application for prevention technique (2003:1),

formative evaluation focuses on providing ongoing, timely feedback to the program about both implementation and outcomes. It is more appropriate for new programs because the information can help identify barriers to implementation and fine-tune program activities to meet the needs of the participants.

- **Summative evaluation**

Summative evaluation assesses overall effectiveness of the finished products or course and can be a springboard in developing a revision of the plan. According to the Western Regional Centre for the application for prevention technique (2003:1), summative evaluation is more appropriate for testing the effectiveness of a program that has been fully operational for some period so that any problems with implementation can be addressed.

Evaluation can be done in the following phases namely: needs assessment, availability assessment, program monitoring, impact assessment, and cost-effectiveness and utilization evaluation.

2.17.4 Evaluation phases

Phase 1: Needs assessment

There are many ways in which assessment can be executed; one group of methods requires that the existing sources be tapped, while the other group requires the gathering of new information. The first method utilizes the annual report of a welfare organization and the assessment of the existing client's group and intervention programs. Needs assessment done by gathering new materials can be executed through the community forum, the use of key informants and social surveys.

Phase 2: Evaluability assessment

An evaluability assessment determines whether a program can in fact be evaluated. The main thrust is to determine whether a social program is conceived and operated in such a manner as to permit a systematic evaluation. Often

evaluability assessment will indicate certain areas that interfere both with the delivery of services and with a possible future program evaluation. According to De Vos (1998:370), evaluability assessment or pre-evaluation is designed to provide a climate favourable to future evaluation work and to acquire intimate acquaintance with a welfare organization or program in order to aid in the later, real evaluation.

Phase 3: Program monitoring

The monitoring of a program is directed at the three key questions, namely:

- The extent to which a program is reaching the appropriate target population
- Whether or not delivery of services is consistent with the program design specifications
- What resources are being used or have been spent in the conduction of the program?

Phase 4: Impact assessment

The main question for this phase is 'Did the problem get solved or did the client improve in some ways'. Effectiveness is defined in terms of change, which is radical, eminently reasonable and difficult to grasp. Impact assessment gauges the extent to which a program causes change in the desired direction. The concept, impact assessment implies a set of specific, operational defined objectives and criteria of success.

Phase 5: Cost-effectiveness evaluation

Utility implies a combination of effectiveness and efficiency. Effectiveness is measured by means of impact or outcome evaluation. Cost-effective and cost-efficiency, deals with how program outcomes compare to their costs. Effectiveness assessment (cost-benefit and cost-effectiveness analysis) provides a frame of reference for relating costs to program results. In cost-benefit analysis, program inputs and outcomes are measured in monetary terms and outcomes in

terms of actual impact.

Phase 6: Utilisation evaluation

The worth of evaluation must be judged by their utility i.e. are they effective and cost effective. There is a conventional three way classification of the ways in which evaluation are used namely:

- Evaluators prize the direct or instrumental use of their evaluation. By direct it is meant the documented and specific use of evaluation findings by decision-makers and other stakeholders
- Utilizing can be conceptual. Conceptual utilization refers to the use of evaluation to influence thinking about issues in a general way
- Persuasive utilization refers to enlisting evaluation results in efforts either to defend or attack political positions.

In conclusion, there are many ways to conduct evaluation, but there is no best way to do any evaluation. Good evaluation requires carefully thinking through the question that need to be answered, the type of program being evaluated and the ways in which information generated will be used.

This is an intervention program for farm dwellers that are disadvantaged and poor. They need an education program focusing on adult education. Adult education will be taken into consideration. This program will result in a better usage of resources and improve their quality of life. This program will then be evaluated. For this program, the model of Rothman and Thomas in De Vos (1998:370) will be used as an intervention program.

2.18 INTERVENTION RESEARCH

De Vos (1998:370) identified six phases of intervention research. These phases of intervention research are based on the model of Rothman and Thomas in De Vos (1998:370), which consists of six phases namely:

- Problem analysis and project planning
- Information gathering and synthesis
- Design
- Early development and pilot testing
- Evaluation and advanced development
- Dissemination.

Each phase consists of sub-phases and will be discussed, namely:

2.18.1 Problem analysis and project planning

- Identifying and involving clients

An intervention researcher chooses a population with whom to collaborate. In collaboration with the projects clients, the researcher identifies the specific targets and goals of the intervention

- Gaining entry and co-operation from setting

Gaining entry to the community with the help of a community leader.

- Identifying concerns of the population

This phase is when one attempts to understand the issues of importance to the population, using personal contact methods, surveys, and community forum

- Analysing identified concerns

The researcher analyses conditions identified by the community as problems

- Setting aims and objectives

Setting aims and objective for the specific community based on the community needs and problems.

2.18.2 Information gathering and synthesis

- Using existing information sources

The researcher discovers what other researchers have done to understand and address the problem of the community. Then the researcher conducts a literature review about the problems identified by the community and needs of the community and ways of solving the problems

- Studying natural examples

A particular source of information is observing how community members face problems. Interviewing people with knowledge about the concept and studying unsuccessful programs and practices can be valuable, since non-examples help to understand methods and contextual features that might be critical to success

- Identifying functional elements of successful models

Once the information is gathered, researchers analyse the critical features of the program and practice that have previously addressed the problem of interest.

2.18.3 Design

- Designing an observational system

This phase is when program material is designed in order to meet the demands of the community. Designing means the planned and systematic application of relevant scientific, technical, and practical information to the creation and assembly of innovation (De Vos, 1998:392)

- Specifying procedural elements of the intervention

The researcher identifies procedural elements to use in the intervention.

2.18.4 Early development and pilot testing

- Developing a prototype or preliminary intervention

Designing methods of presenting the program

- Conducting a pilot test

Evaluating the courses by writing a questionnaire before the lecture

Presenting the program (lecture)

- Applying design criteria to the preliminary intervention concept

Writing program evaluation

2.18.5 Evaluation and advanced development

- Selecting an experimental design

Choosing a sample of people to conduct the research that is based on the problems experienced by the community. Then try to find a method of evaluating the community

- Collecting and analysing data

This phase is when data is collected and results have been statistically analysed and interpreted then discussed

- Replicating the intervention under field conditions

The program is adapted to meet the needs of the (participants) female farm dwellers

- Refining the intervention.

2.18.6 Dissemination

- Preparing the product for dissemination
- Identifying potential markets for the intervention
- Creating a demand for the intervention
- Encouraging appropriate adaptation
- Providing technical support for adopters.

During this educational intervention program the last step, namely dissemination was not included in the research. The program is ready to be used by other communities if it suits their needs.

2.19 CONCLUSION

About a third of the people residing in South Africa live in rural areas. Most of them are agricultural workers, which are referred to as farm dwellers, which means that they only stay on the farm without working. They are always faced with problems related to their living situation. In a situation, whereby a community is in distress and has community problems, there must be changes to change the state of the community. Community development and capacity building can be introduced through education and training by doing life skill programs. Through

education and training, community members can be able to sustain themselves. Women have a big role in the community. If women can take the initiative to develop themselves through education and training, they will be able to use their resources while meeting the demands of the family members. By so doing they will be able to improve their quality of life and their standard of living. One way of knowing whether the community has met their standard of living and quality of life is by conducting an evaluation. Evaluations can be conducted through an intervention research.

2.20 REFERENCES

BARNARD, D. 2000. Effective sustainable development, the importance of partnership. (*In* Sustainable social development critical challenges in the new millennium'. Conference held on 10-11 Feb 2000, Potchefstroom. 1-12p.)

BEST, C.J., CUMMINS, R.A. & LO, S.K. 2000. The quality of rural and metropolitan life. *Australian journal of psychology*, 52(2):69-74.

BLASSET, C. & MCKENNA, J. 2001. Assets: an opportunity for the poor. *Journal of family and consumer science*, 93(1):50-53.

BOSHOFF, E. 2001. Quality of life: what does it mean? PU for CHE. Potchefstroom.

BORROUGHS, E. 1994. Meeting adult learning needs. *Journal of Education: Education updates*. 1(4): 1-7

CEDAW See South Africa

CENSUS SeeSouth Africa

Central Statistics Service. 1992. *South African statistic*. Pretoria : CSS.

CONSTITUTION See... South Africa.

CROSS, K. 1981. Adult learners. San Francisco. Jossey : Bass Publishers.

DARKEN G.G & MERRIAM, S.B. 1982. Adult education: foundation of practices. New York : Row.

DEACON, R.E & FIREBAUGH, F.M. 1981. Family resource management: principles and application. 2nd ed. Massachusetts : Allyn & Bacon.

DEAN, G.J. 1994. Designing instructions for adult learners. Florida : Krieger.

DE VOS, A.S. 1998. Research at grass roots: a primer for the caring professions. South Africa. Pretoria : Van Schaik.

DONLEY, J & NAPPER, R. 1993. Assessment matters in adult learning. Oxford : Oxfordshire.

DRAPER, A. 1998. African-adult education chronologies. Sandton: Heinemann.

ERASMUS, B.J & VAN DYK, P.S. 1999. Training manual in South Africa. 2nd ed. South Africa. Johannesburg : Thomson.

FERREIRA, F.M. 1997. The role of home economics in community development. [Dissertation M.HE. PU for CHE]. Potchefstroom.

FERRIHNO, H. 1980. Towards a theory of community development. Cape Town : Juta.

FEUERSTEIN, M. 1990. Partner in evaluation. London : Macmillan education.

GOLDSMITH, E.B. 2000. Resource management for individual and families. 2nd ed. Minneapolis : Wadsworth.

GOSSLING, L & EDWARDS, M. 1995. Toolkits: a practical guide to assessment, monitoring review and evaluation. London : Save the children.

GOTTSCHALK, T.H. 2002. Distance education at a glance. [Web]

[[Http/ www.uidaho.edu/dist4.html](http://www.uidaho.edu/dist4.html).] [Date of access 22 January 2003].

GREEN, C. 2002. Adult education: an approach for use in consumer education programmes. *Journal of family ecology and consumer sciences*. 30(1):10-20.

GREYVENSTEIN, L.A., VENTER, M.D. & REITSMA, G.M. 1993. Women's outreach foundation 10 Programs. Johannesburg : Perskor.

HALL, R. 2001. Farm workers versus the world market. *Agenda*, 48:98-101.

HAMILTON, E. 1992. Adult education for community development. Greenwood : London.

HARRIS, D & BELL, C. 1994. Evaluating and assessing learning. London : Kogan Page.

IMEL, S. 2002. Accelerated learning in adult education and training development. Trends and issues alert no 33. <http://ericacore.org/textonly/docgen.asp?tbl=tia&ID=159>. [Date of access 09 September 2002].

JARVIS, P. 1995. Adult and continuity education. 2nd ed. London : British Library.

JEPPE, W.J.O. 1985. Community development: an African rural approach. Pretoria : African institute of South African.

KAHLER, A.A., MORGAN, B., HOLMES, G.E. & BUNDY, C.E. 1985. Methods in adult education. 4th Ed. Danville : The Interstate.

KALAMAZO, M.I. 2002. Glossary of evaluation terms. [Web] <http://www.ec.wmich.edu/glossary> [Date of access: 28 October 2003].

KALLMAN, K. 1996. An introduction to social indicators and social reporting quality of life unit, center for social and developmental studies. University of Natal. Durban.

KERKA, S. 2002. Teaching adults: is it different? [Available on the Internet] <http://ericacve.org/textonly/docgen.asp?tbl=mr&ID=111> [Date of access 09 September 2002].

KNAPPER, C.K. & CROPLEY, A.J. 1991. Lifelong learning and higher education. 2nd ed. London : Kogan.

KNOWLES, M.S. 1980. The modern practice of adult education, from pedagogy to andagogy. New York : The adult education.

KNOWLES, M.S. 1990. The modern practice of adult education, from pedagogy to andagogy. 2nd ed. New York : The adult education com.

KRUGER, A. 2001. Protocol of the FLAGH Study. PU for CHE. Potchefstroom. (Unpublished).

KOTZE, D.A. 1994. The need for adult education. *Africanus: journal of development alternatives*, 24(2):20-30.

LATEGAN, F.E. 1991. Leergemotiveerheid by die volwasse as leerder. *Lycra academica*, 6(2):72-88.

LOMBARD, A., WEYERS, M.L. & SCHOEMAN, J.H. 1991. Gemeenskapwerk an gemeenskapontwikkeling. Durban : Colographic.

LONDON, L., NELL, V., THOMPSON, M.L. & MYERS, J.E. (1998). Health status among farm workers in the Western Cape-collorate evidence from a study of occupational hazards. South African medical journal, 88(9):1096-1101.

LOWE, T. 1970. Adult education and national building. Edinburgh : Edinburgh University.

MADICHIE, W.N & NNUBIA, U.E. 2000. Home economics extension programme: a means of improving the quality of life in dwindling economy. Journal of home economics, 1(1):1-10.

MARAIS, H.S., MUTHIEN, Y., JANSEN VAN RENSBURG, N.S., MAAGA, M.P., DE WET, G.F & COETZEE, C.J. 2001. Sustainable social development. Menlo Park. South Africa.

MARSDEN, D & OAKLEY, P. 1991. Future issues and perspective in the evaluation of social development. Community development journal, 26(4).

MERRIAM, S.B. & CAFFARELLA, R.S. 1991. Learning in adulthood. a comprehensive guide. 2nd Ed. San Francisco : Jossey-Bass.

McNamara, C. 1999. Basic guide to program evaluation. [Web] <http://www.mapnp.org/library/evaluatn/fnl.htm> [Date of access: 28 September 2002].

McGREGOR, S.L.T. & GOLDSMITH, E.B. 1998. Expanding our understanding of quality of lie, standard of living, and well-being. Journal of family and consumer science, 90:2.

NAWAWI, H. 1996. Living conditions: a global responsibility regional interpretation. (In Asia. International federation of home economics (IFHE) XVIIIth Congress, Plenary 3, Bangkok, Thailand).

OED (Oxford English Dictionary). 1987. Adorn. Oxford : At the Clarendon.

OLIVIER, C. 1998. How to educate and train outcome-based. Pretoria : Van Schaik.

PAHAD, M. 1997. Assessment of the national qualification framework. Sandton: Heinemann higher and further education.

PILLAY, P. 2000. Foreword. (*In* May, J., *ed.* Poverty and inequality in South Africa: meeting the Challenge. Cape Town : ABC Press. p. Viii-ix).

ROGERS, J. 1977. Adult learning. London : The Open University presses.

ROGERS, J. 2000. Adult learning. 3rd ed. London : The Open University presses.

RICHARDS, V. 2000. The post-modern perspective on home economics history. *Journal of family and consumer sciences*, 92(1).

ROTHMAN, J & THOMAS, E. 1994. Intervention research: design and development for human service. Binghamton : The Haworth Press.

SOUTH AFRICA. Department of Statistics. 1996. South African statistic, Census. Web : <http://www.statsa.gov.za/census> [Date of access 10 November 2003].

SOUTH AFRICA. Department of Statistics. 2001. South African statistic, Census. Web : <http://www.statsa.gov.za/census> [Date of access 10 November 2003].

SOUTH AFRICA. 1996. Constitution of the Republic of South Africa as adopted by the Constitutional Assembly on 08 May 1996 and as amended on 11 October 1996. (B34B-96) (ISBN: 0-260-20716-7).

SOUTH AFRICA. 1998. Assessment policy in the general education and training band. Grade R-9 and Abet. (Proclamation No R1718.1998) Government Gazette 19640:402. Dec 23. (Reg. Gaz. No 6397).

SOUTH AFRICA (Rep). Department of Welfare. 1997. White paper for social welfare: principle, guidelines, recommendation, proposed policies and programs for developmental social welfare in South Africa. Pretoria. Department of Welfare [WP D-1996].

SOUTH AFRICA. CEDAW. 1995. The United Nations convention on the discrimination against women. 3rd ed. Pretoria.

SEPTEMBER, C. 1995. Capacity building in RDP not just an afterthought. Human Resource Management, 11(1): 8-12, Feb.

STEENKAMP, I. 2002. Violence and quality of life in a farm worker in the North-West Province. [Dissertation M.A. PU for CHE] Potchefstroom.

SWANEPOEL, H. 1997. Evaluation of community development projects: a human development approach. Journal of community development, 26(1):53-64.

SWANEPOEL, H.J. 1989. Community development: putting plans into actions. South Africa : Kenwyn. Juta.

SWANEPOEL, H.J. & DE BEER, F. 1996. Community capacity building. Johannesburg : International Thomson.

SWANSON, B.B. 1981. Introduction to home management. New York : Macmillan.

TOSTERUD, R.J. 1996. Rural entrepreneurship: measuring the magnitude of the challenge. *Indicator South Africa*, 13(2):35-39.

UNITED NATIONS. Department of Public Information. 1996. (*In* the 4th world Conference on women. 1995. Platform for action and the Beijing declaration. China. 4-15 September). New York : United Nations Reproduction Section.

VAN DER WESTHUIZEN, T. 2002. Perception of the biopsysocial health of the group of farm workers in the North-West Province [Dissertation M.A. PU for CHE]. Potchefstroom.

VAN WYK, A. 1989. Quality of life. *Journal of dietetics and home economics*, 21(1):32-37.

VAN WYK, H.F. 1995. Die noodsaaklikheid vir versnelde opleiding. *Munisipale en openbare dienste*, 14(13): 23.

VENTER, J.F. (1992). Lewenshalte van die werker op die plaas. *Tydskrif vir rasse-aangeleenthede*, 43(1):59-65.

VENTER, M.D & LARNEY, M. 2002. Summary findings. PU for CHE. Potchefstroom (Unpublished).

VENTER, M.D & CROFTON, O. 2001 (*In* MARAIS, H.S., MUTHIEN, Y., JANSEN VAN RENSBERG, N.S., MAAGA, M.P., DE WET, G.F & COETZEE, C.J. 2001. Sustainable social development. Menlo Park, South Africa).

Western Regional Center for the application for prevention technique. 2000. Evaluation. [Web: <http://www.open.org/~westcapt/evl/htm> [Date of access 22 January 2003].

VERMA, A. 1996. Advancement of technology into private sphere and the impact on families and households. (IFHE) XVIIIth, Plenary 3, Bangkok, Thailand.

VORSTER, H.H., WISSING, M.P., VENTER, C.S., KRUGER, H.S., KRUGER, S. MALAN, N.T., D.E. RIDDER, J.H., VELDMAN, F.J., STEYN, H.S., MARGETTS, B.M. & MACINTYRE, U. 2000. The impact of urbanization on physical and mental health of Africans in the North-West Province of South Africa: the THUSA study. *South African journal of science*, 96(9/10):505-514.

WESTAWAY. M.S. 2001. Satisfaction with personal and environmental quality of life: a black Southern African informal settlement perspective. *Curation*, 1:28-33.

WHITE PAPER...See South Africa

WEYERS, M.L. 2001. The theory and practice of community work: a South African perspective. . South Africa, Potchefstroom : Keurkopie.

WEYERS, M.L. 2000. The multi-method approach to community development: dispelling single solution myth. (*In* Critical challenges in the new millennium: sustainable social development: Paper read at the conference held in Potchefstroom on 10 to 11 February 2000. Potchefstroom).

CHAPTER 3

AN EDUCATIONAL INTERVENTION PROGRAM FOR FEMALE FARM DWELLERS FOCUSING ON FAMILY RESOURCE MANAGEMENT



SUMMARY

In this study, the empowering of the female farm dwellers by education and training in order to increase their knowledge and skills in family resource management is investigated. It forms part of the FLAGH Study (Farm Labour, Agriculture and General Health). Education and training can empower women to increase their knowledge and skills, which will improve their well-being as well as that of their families. According to the situation analysis, which was conducted on the women of a farming community, it is indicated that the female farm dwellers lacked knowledge about the optimum use of their resources such as time management, budgeting and energy. The objective of the research was to design, implement and evaluate an education and training program, which could help them to manage their resources. An available sample of 27 Tswana speaking female farm dwellers, 16 to 40 years of age, residing on adjacent farms in the Potchefstroom district of the North-West Province of South Africa participated. An intervention program was planned and implemented. The presentation of the components of the program, which was adapted from the WOF 10 Program for their specific needs, was translated into Tswana. The method used for evaluation included qualitative and quantitative pre- and post-tests on their family resource management skills. The results, which were statistically analysed by using t-tests and calculating the effect size, indicated a statistically and practically significant increase in their resource management knowledge. The female farm dwellers' knowledge and skills regarding resource management increased, which could result in improvement of quality of life. It is recommended that resource management courses form part of any developmental project to contribute to the empowerment of participants' maximising the use of resources, thereby improving their livelihood without any extra financial costs.

Keywords: Farm dwellers; adult education; quality of life; family resource management; intervention research

INTRODUCTION

There were approximately 1,1 million workers and families residing on commercial farms in South Africa in 1992 (Central Statistic Service, 1992) of which about 0,5 million were agricultural workers, (Census, 1996) and the rest living on the farms are referred to as farm dwellers. Presently there are about 0,3 million agricultural workers (Census, 2001). Despite an overall decline in this figure, it is probably still the largest single sector of employment and one of the major occupations. According to Hall (2001:98), about one million people depend on farm labour for at least a portion of their income.

Historically, the farm worker environment was characterized by pitiable living conditions, which included low wages, insufficient housing, poor sanitation and disempowering labour practices. Although some of these problems have been addressed and have improved, the historical imbalances remain substantial (London *et al*; 1998). The low quality of life of farm workers can probably be ascribed to the fact that their needs, goals and wishes are not realized (Best *et al.*, 2000; Venter, 1992).

According to Kotzè (1994:22), the average farm workers, who are mostly rural-based, are caught in a 'deprivation trap' or 'deprivation cluster' which is a factor related to being disadvantaged, comprising of poverty, powerlessness, vulnerability, physical weakness and isolation. Living conditions of families are affected by the economic, social, political transformation, the result of rapid industrialization, urbanization and the triumph of materialism.

The New South African Constitution of 1996(Act of 108 of 1996), the provincial and local governments are primarily responsible for anti-poverty strategies in their areas through provision of education, health and welfare services (Serumaga-Zake and Naudé, 2000:563). According to Weyers (2001:23), one way of addressing the injustices and imbalances of the previous government and

of eradicating poverty is by introducing community development and capacity building projects in the country.

The Program of Reconstruction and Development for all the country's people followed the struggle against apartheid and the introduction of a democratic dispensation. According to September (1995), the Reconstruction and Development Program (RDP) was formulated and adapted by the Government of National Unity to address the problem of poverty.

Community development is an approach aimed at helping people to obtain skills and knowledge that will enable them to meet their needs and to reach their goals and by so doing, improve their own lives, standard of living and quality of life. Within this context, community development could be regarded as one of the most important practices to increase human potential (Swanepoel, 1989:9). Hence Weyers (2001:26) states that community development projects have the potential to help community members to be employed and to have skills and knowledge about ways to help them improve their quality of life and improve the standard of living.

The key tools for enabling and facilitating community development are inherent in, and emphasized through the characteristics and principles of community development (Cornwell, 1997:89). Communities need to be changed by means of community development interventions that will aim at anything and everything that impedes the community's ability to attain higher standards of living (i.e. material terms) and a higher quality of live (i.e. in psychosocial). Community development and capacity building go hand in hand, whereby capacity building refers to the capacity of the people and the process of assisting people to become the master of their own development (De Beer & Swanepoel 1997:21).

September (1995) also states that capacity building programs for development of organizations and local institution focus on:

- facilitation and researching of institutional development
- participatory needs assessment and planning
- project facilitating
- training of members and leaders
- provision of development information.

Capacity building helps the community members to sustain themselves, i.e. sustainable development. Barnard (2000:3) defines sustainable development as development that meets the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. The political policy of apartheid had a direct influence on the education qualifications and adult education level of the South Africa labour force, especially in black and coloured communities (Kotzé 1994:23).

According to Weyers (2001:6) the tools of community development are capacity building, education and training. Capacity building takes place through education and training. People should not be passive objects receiving capacity, but emphasis should be on individual's choices and participation. Capacity building will help individuals to manage their future. Education and training will be briefly discussed in order to understand the link between capacity building and education.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Adult education

Adult education is a process whereby a person who no longer attends school on a regular or full time basis undertakes sequential and organized activities with the conscious intention of bringing about changes in information, knowledge, understanding or skills, appreciation and activities, or for the purpose of

identifying and solving personal and community problems (Lowe, 1970:15; Jarvis, 1995:23; Green, 2002).

The South African Business Guidebook (2002–2003) states that education in South Africa is enshrined in the Constitution as a basic human right that will play a crucial role in defining and improving the quality of life of South Africans.

Knowles (1990:33) sees learning as a process of discovery by the learner. Green (2002) states that learning can be thought of as a process by which behaviour changes because of experience. Education and training should be viewed on a continuum: starting from narrowly defined objectives and progressing towards more freedom in terms of broader defined objectives. According to Erasmus and Van Dyk (1999:2), education can be seen as a broad term aimed at creating the circumstances and opportunities for individuals to develop and understand the broader society in which they live, thereby enabling them to contribute to that society. Van Wyk, (1996:92) sees training as more focused than education and it is utilized to acquire new skills, in order to keep up with changing events and situations, which were directed towards the satisfaction of needs. Training does not necessarily relate only to the building of skills, but also focuses on developing an understanding of behaviour and as well as developing learning.

Aims of adult education

Burrough (1994:4) states the aims of adult education as:

- to provide adult education and training programs which are equivalent to the existing level in the formal system, with an emphasis on literacy and numeric skills
- to conform to the standards set out within the National Qualification Framework
- to be included in all reconstruction projects (job creation projects) and particular programs for the unemployed
- to see education as a lifelong process within a system which is both

integrated and flexible.

Characteristics of adult learners

According to Knapper and Cropley (1991:52), adults have the following characteristics as learners: they have better developed personal goals, better-formulated ideas about what is a useful subject matter; they have a desire to learn things that they themselves define as worthwhile; they are seldom interested in learning answers of which they know the question; they are affected by an unwillingness to be treated in ways that they regard as more appropriate for children, while they are more sensitive to social factors such as fear of looking foolish in front of others; they do not consider abstract information important; and they underestimate their own ability to learn in a relatively formal setting. These characteristics suggest that adult learning is strongly affected by factors other than simply the ability to learn (Knapper & Cropley, 1991:53).

Effective learning depends on learners' response in the program, or the adults in general (Green, 2002). One cannot consider all these principles when practicing adult education. Facilitating adult learning processes relies on the perspective, flexibility, asking questions, listening to the answers and being prepared to change plans.

How adults learn

From the above one can see that there is a difference between the young learner and the adult learner. Therefore, there must be different teaching methods for adults. Rogers (1977:59-78; 2002:44-60) describes how adults learn as follows:

- *Learning by activity*

According to Rogers' (1977:59), adults experience a short-term memory due to ageing. The scanning age is easily disrupted by the other activities. The teacher should try to cut down to absolute minimum amount of conscious memorizing that has to be done by the learner or student.

- *The pace of learning*

Adult learners should be allowed to work at their own pace. Adult learners prefer to take longer, making sure that they have something just right.

- *Learning through realistic and relevant materials*

Adult learners view learning as something, which should be useful and relevant. They view learning as difficult if they have to translate instructions or processes from one medium to another.

- *Learning using experience*

Problem solving tasks in adults decline in adaptability with age and there is greater rigidity in both physical and mental skills.

- *Learning by preventing and recognizing mistakes*

Adult learners find it difficult to recognize their mistakes and they normally do not accept corrections by the facilitator (always question the action of the facilitator).

- *Giving knowledge of results*

Finding out straight away whether or not an answer is correct is one of the most important features of learning. Adult learners do not believe that 'practice makes perfect' but rather that 'practice is the result of what is known, which makes perfect'. The teacher should bring the learner to appreciate what the correct performance looks, sounds and feels like, so that the learner will be able to know what is right or wrong.

- *Learning through practice*

Timing of breaks is important. The learners must always be allowed to pause for a while during lessons because they cannot concentrate for a long time. Supplying learners with tea breaks normally assist with this.

- *Learning through eye and ear*

Hearing and vision both decline in efficiency. The room/classroom in which all the lessons are presented should be well lit, free from glare, the board should be visible and the manual should be well written in their mother tongue.

- *Learning to learn*

Continued lessons ensure that all the participants gain more knowledge through repetition.

An adult can learn in many ways. Communities can learn through the projects of improving their life skills, including learning or practicing family resource management skills.

FAMILY RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

According to Deacon and Firebaugh (1998:7), family resource management is defined as planning for and implementing the use of resources of families to meet demands. It helps families and individuals to cope with the pressure of changing conditions and serves as the avenue that anticipates the future, which becomes reality. According to Swanson (1981:2), family resource management is the time used for the management of quality and quantity of resources. Closely linked to resource management is the concept of 'sustainable livelihoods', which refers to the capacity of people to make a living and improve their quality of life (Deacon & Firebaugh, 1998:7). Every household has human and material resources, such as human cognitive ability, health, energy, time and materials (for example money, housing, furniture, appliances and clothing). The manner in which these resources are managed can make a difference to a household's quality of life, even if the resources do not increase (Goldsmith, 2000:82). The knowledge of how to improve management skills, that is, being taught how to use money and time efficiently can improve quality of life and standard of living.

In order to improve community members' standard of living and quality of life one should focus on the spheres surrounding the families and family members namely, economic, bio-physiological, spiritual culture, technological, environmental, educational, political and psychosocial spheres. This makes community development a much more comprehensive form of community intervention. Quality of life is relative and differs between individuals, but it can be perceived as the level of satisfaction or confidence with one's conditions, relationships and surroundings relative to the available alternatives (McGregor & Goldsmith, 1998). According to Steenkamp (2002:2), quality of life is the extent to

which a person enjoys the important possibilities of his life. Possibilities refer to the balance between opportunities and limitations.

PREVIOUS RESEARCH ON FARM DWELLERS

The farm dwellers in the North-West Province were identified as an extremely vulnerable group in the THUSA Study (Vorster *et al.*, 2000:505). The study was carried out between 1996 and 1999 to document the effect of urbanization on the health status and dietary intakes of the African population of the North-West Province of South Africa. The THUSA Study (Vorster *et al.*, 2000) shows that education of the farm dwellers is very low, which contributes to a weak socio-economic environment and to their poverty. According to Pillay (2000:ix), the high level of poverty influences the standard of living, economic growth, the level of crime and social stability. The current project forms part of the multidisciplinary FLAGH Study (Kruger, 2000) in which the objective is to develop an intersectoral, interdisciplinary intervention program to improve the nutritional, physical and psychosocial status of the farm dwellers.

THE AIM OF THE RESEARCH

The aim of the research is to provide an educational program and training of basic, but specific life skills to female farm dwellers. This will include family resource management skills such as information regarding women, time management, energy, budgeting, water, sanitation, housing and leadership, which can contribute to sustainable higher quality of life and psychological well being.

THUSA Study: Transition, Health and Urbanization in South Africa.

'Thusa' is the Setswana words for 'help'.

FLAGH Study: Farm Labour, Agriculture and General Health.

RESEARCH SAMPLE

An availability sample of 27 unemployed female farm dwellers, ranging between 16 and 40 years of age was used in this program. The farm dwellers were on adjacent farms in the Potchefstroom district in the North-West Province of South Africa. The community consists of about 68 families and 67 identified family heads. Each household is occupied by a maximum of ten people with an average of one to five children in a house. Participants are of African decent and Tswana speaking. Some are westernised but still traditional to a varying degree. Most of the participants are literate and semiliterate (Van der Westhuizen, 2002:8). Most of the female farm dwellers are not employed so they spend their days cleaning their houses, cooking for their families, washing laundry, caring for children and sitting around.

According to the farm dwellers, the community experiences many problems, namely:

- Housing: The houses are too small and there is no place for visitors
- Water: The water is dirty and there is rust in the water tank
- Time management: Most of the farm dwellers do not know how to use their time more efficiently
- Sanitation: The toilets are blocked and they do not know how to service them and there is no water in the toilet facilities
- Education: There is no high school, the nearest school is far away and there is no accommodation for the children to stay nearer to the school
- Shop: Shop prices are too high and there is no price list at the shop.

(Venter & Larney, 2002). If all these problems could be addressed, their community would be able to use their resources more fruitfully.

METHODOLOGY

An intervention program was designed by adapting the WOF 10* Program (Greyvenstein *et al.*, 1993). The program was designed to educate the female

farm dwellers on the issues which they had problems on, as listed in the aim of the research.

De Vos (1998:378) identified six phases of intervention research namely:

- Problem analysis and project planning
- Information gathering and synthesis
- Design
- Early development and pilot testing
- Evaluation and advanced development
- Dissemination.

Each phase of the program will be discussed in the following section:

Phase 1: Problem analysis and project planning

Problem analysis and project planning was done by the FLAGH Study, which is a follow up of the THUSA Study (Venter & Larney, 2002). This is a needs assessment phase and it included the following sub-phases: identifying and involving clients, gaining entry and co-operation from the population, identifying concerns of the population and analysing identified concerns.

Setting goals and objectives The primary aim of the research was to improve the female farm dwellers' resource management skills. In order to do this the following objectives were be set:

- Adapt the Women's Outreach Foundation 10 Program* and design a program with specific community needs concerning women; leadership; time management; energy; budgeting; and water, sanitation and housing
- Present the program to unemployed female farm dwellers
- Evaluate the program
- Make recommendations about the program for future implementation.

**The Women's Outreach Foundation (WOF) is a non-governmental organization devoted to the empowerment of women in Southern Africa through outreach and care by providing special development, welfare and educational programs in order to improve and enrich their quality of life. The Women's Outreach Foundation 10 Programme was designed specifically for women as an educational community development program. The WOF-program should be presented by women to groups of women of various communities at a wide spectrum of socio-economic and literacy levels.*

Phase 2: Information gathering and synthesis

Using existing information sources. During this phase a literature search was conducted concerning concepts relevant to the research.



Phase 3: Design

Adapting a model. Certain chapters from the WOF 10 Program manual were selected focusing on farm dwellers main needs. Six chapters were selected namely: women; leadership; time management; energy; budgeting; water, sanitation and housing.

Develop program material. The material needed for the presentation of the program including the manual, teaching aids and stationery, were prepared.

The researcher translated the manual into Tswana 'the female farm dwellers' mother tongue', which was originally written in English.

Specifying procedural elements of the intervention. An evaluation questionnaire was designed for the use before and after each lesson to check whether the objectives of the chapters were met. Participants were asked to choose the smiley faces resembling the answers using

 = representing 'YES' and  = representing 'NO'.

Set program activities: Activities were designed appropriate to the contents of each of the selected chapters of the manual.

Phase 4: Early development and pilot testing

Developing a prototype. Methods of presenting the program were designed for the specific needs of the farm dwellers.

Conducting a pilot test. One chapter of the manual was used in a pilot test. The contents were presented to a random group of farm dwellers. A pre and post-questionnaire was completed by the group and used to evaluate the success of the pilot test.

Phase 5: Evaluation and advanced development

Selecting an experimental design. Triangulation (De Vos, 1998:359) is a combination of qualitative and quantitative results with multiple methods of data collection that is used to increase the trustworthiness of the data. The methods of data collection for the program are: Before and after knowledge tests that are statistically analysed, observation of skills and activities and as well as individual evaluation questionnaires. By using three methods of data collection, methodological triangulation was obtained. All questionnaires were tested before use and translated into Tswana to ensure validity and trustworthiness.

- An available sample of 27 female farm dwellers was selected
- All the participants attended 6-weekly lectures to increase their knowledge, with practical application to increase their skills
- Assessment was done quantitatively, using pre and post-questionnaire which tested whether their knowledge had increased
- Evaluate the general program using a focus group.

Collecting and analysis of data. Data was collected and the results were statistically analysed and discussed.

Phase 6: Dissemination

Dissemination This phase will be completed in the future. It includes the following sub-phases: Preparing the product for dissemination, identifying potential markets for the intervention, creating a demand for the intervention, encouraging appropriate adaptation and providing technical support for adopters.

RESULTS

Introduction

The first two objectives of the program were to develop and implement the program, which was successfully done. The third objective was to evaluate the program to establish whether the aim of the program had been met. The aim was to improve the female farm dwellers' knowledge and skills regarding family resource management. The results of the before and after knowledge tests were statistically analysed to assess whether participants' knowledge had increased. Skill evaluation was done by observation and will be reported qualitatively. The result of the focus group regarding the implementation of the program will be discussed.

It was planned to conduct a post intervention evaluation after a six weeks period. Unfortunately this was impossible because part of the farm was sold and most of the people moved to other places.

Increase in knowledge of the participants

In order to establish whether there was a change in knowledge of the participants, the SPSS® program was used to statistically analyse the data obtained via the questionnaires. The score of each individual's test for each chapter, as well as the total was calculated. This was done for pre and post-questionnaires.

Paired sample t-tests were used to determine whether the results (e.g. difference between two means) were statistically significant. A small *p-value* (smaller than 0.05) is an indication that there is a statistically significant increase in knowledge. Statistical significance does not necessarily imply that the results are important in practice. The effect size (*d-value*) was calculated because the effect size is independent of the sample size and is a measure of practical significance (Steyn, 2000).

The *d-value* is calculated by using the following formula:

$$d = \frac{\bar{x}_{diff}}{s_{diff}}$$

Where \bar{x}_{diff} is the mean increase in knowledge, and

s_{diff} is the standard deviation of the increase in knowledge.

Cohen (1988) gives the following guidelines for interpretation of the effect size (d):

d \approx 0.2 small effect and no practical importance,

d \approx 0.5 medium effect that might be of practical importance,

d \approx 0.8 large effect that is of importance in practice.

Increase in knowledge of participants according to different chapters and total score

TABLE 3.1: RESULTS OF THE T-TESTS FOR THE BEFORE (B) AND AFTER (A) TESTS ACCORDING TO THE CHAPTERS

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std Error Mean
WOMEN B	4.00	20	.79	.18
WOMEN A	4.65	20	.88	.20
TIME B	3.28	18	.83	.19
TIME A	4.72	18	1.23	.29
BUDGET B	2.95	19	1.22	.28
BUDGET A	4.74	19	1.05	.24
ENERGY B	3.05	19	.91	.21
ENERGY A	4.79	19	1.27	.29
*W,*S & *H B	2.74	27	1.06	.20
*W,*S & *H A	4.11	27	1.22	.23
GENERAL B	3.95	20	1.19	.27
GENERAL A	5.25	20	.79	.18

W= Water,*S= Sanitation & *H= Housing B=Before A= After

TABLE 3.2: THE MEAN OF THE INCREASE IN KNOWLEDGE FOR DIFFERENT CHAPTERS AND THE EFFECT SIZE (*d*)

CHAPTER	Mean	Std. Deviation	Effect size
WOMEN	.65	1.09	.60
TIME MANAGEMENT	1.44	1.25	1.15
BUDGETING	1.79	.92	1.14
ENERGY	1.74	.65	2.67
WATER, SANITATION & HOUSING	1.37	.88	1.55
GENERAL	1.30	.66	1.96
TOTAL	6.25	2.40	2.6

The women's knowledge regarding family resource management has increased in a practically significant manner (as indicated in Table 3.2) for five chapters as well as in the total score for each individual. For the first chapter, the *d*-value indicated a medium effect of knowledge improvement. The female farm dwellers learned much and enjoyed the program. For Chapter One about women, the *d*-value had a medium effect. The *d*-value (effect size) was between the medium and large effect (0,6). The reason might be that the chapter had information which was well known to the female farm dwellers', and maybe because it was an introductory chapter and they could not concentrate for a long time since they were not used to lectures. The effect size of the chapter about energy was the largest at 2,67. The total effect size of the program was (2,6) which was a large effect. The effect size was $\geq 0,8$ so it is practically significant, showing that there was a knowledge increase by the participants.

Increase in knowledge according to different questions

In order to establish whether a relationship between two variables are practically significance, the statistical significance of such a relationship is determined by Chi-square (Steyn, 2002). The effect size (*w*-value) was used to determine

whether the relationship was large enough to be important. The effect size (w) was calculated using the following formula:

$$w = \sqrt{\frac{\chi^2}{n}},$$

Kinney (1999) states that the phi coefficient is obtained by dividing the value of the Chi-square by the total frequency and taking the square root. The χ^2 is the usual Chi-square statistic for the contingency table statistics or the sum of the squared differences of the observed and expected frequencies as a proportion of expected values and n is the sample size,

The Chi-square will be zero if there is no difference between observed and expected frequencies. The effect size (w) has a minimum value of zero when the two variables are independent. The maximum value depends on the number of cases and number of cells. Effect size was calculated for the identified knowledge gained as reported by participants during program evaluation.

Cohen (1988) gives the following guidelines for the interpretation of the effect size (w) as follows:

$w \approx 0.1$ small effect

$w \approx 0.3$ medium effect

$w \approx 0.5$ large effect that is importance in practice

TABLE 3.3: EFFECT SIZE FOR 2 X 2 CONTINGENCY TABLE AND THE EFFECT SIZE OF THE BEFORE AND AFTER TESTS ACCORDING TO THE QUESTION ASKED.

Chapters	W	EFFECT
Chapter 1 – Women		
1.1 Builder of a happy home.	Constant	No effect
1.2 Weaker sex	-.050	Small
1.3 Believe in herself	.289	Medium
1.4 Have same rights as man.	-.050	Small
1.5 Accept herself as a woman.	.354	Medium
1.6 A place of a woman is in the kitchen.	.429	Large

Chapter 2 – Time management		
2.1 Basic needs food, alcohol and shelter.	.679	Large
2.2 Body usage.	-.059	Small
2.3 Difficult task in one day.	.523	Large
2.4 Posture	.316	Medium
2.5 Posture	.200	Small
2.6 Posture	.354	Medium
Chapter 3 – Energy		
3.1 Energy is the power to burn, cook, move276	Medium
3.2 Food and alcohol.	.450	Large
3.3. All forms of energy are expensive.	.528	Large
3.4 paint a house with bright colours inside.	.351	Medium
3.5 Always put a small pot on a big plate.	.187	Small
3.6 Always wear heavy clothes to keep warm.	.430	Large
Chapter 4 – Budgeting		
4.1 Family must plan the budget.	.687	Large
4.2 Mother and father should write the budget.	Constant	No effect
4.3 Think about the future and plan ahead.	Constant	No effect
4.4 Compare prices.	-.016	Small
4.5 Save the money in the house.	.342	Medium
4.6 It is cheaper to buy cooked foods.	-.100	Small
Chapter 5 – Water, sanitation and housing		
5.1 Men responsibility to care and maintain water.	Constant	No effect
5.2 To purify water 5tsp Jik = 5l water.	.411	Large
5.3 each family should have disposal place.	.316	Medium
5.4 Place rubbish near the house.	.239	Medium
5.5 Recycle tins, bottle and plastics.	.462	Large
5.6 Clean the house if possible	.369	Medium
Chapter 6 – General	Phi- value	Effect
6.1 Women	.216	Small
6.2 Time management	.546	Large
6.3 budgeting	-.076	Small
6.4 Energy	Constant	No effect
6.5 Water, sanitation and housing	.553	Large
6.6 Leadership	-.039	Small

The effect size of the pre- and post-questionnaire and the phi-value are calculated and recorded in Table 3.4.1. It was found that for some questions the w-value were constant or had a small, medium and large effect. An example of a few questions with a large effect will be discussed in Table 3.4.2.

Effect size for the relationship of the before and after test in a contingency table.

TABLE: 3.4.1 THE 2 x 2 CONTINGENCY TABLE OF THE LARGE EFFECT.

			Time management before after		Total
			No	Yes	
Posture before	No		1	2	3
	Yes			17	17
Total			1	19	20

Before the course most of the female farm dwellers did not know the importance of using the correct posture. The participants realised that to simplify their household tasks one should do tasks using the correct posture. The w-value (0.546) indicated that the change in knowledge regarding the correct posture was practically significant (large effect).

TABLE: 3.4.2 THE 2 x 2 CONTINGENCY TABLE OF THE LARGE EFFECT.

	All the residence are responsible for housing, sanitation and water after		Total
	No	Yes	
All the residence are responsible for housing, sanitation and water before			
No	4	5	9
Yes		11	11
Total	4	16	20

From the beginning of the course it was clear that the female farm dwellers didn't know their responsibilities as community members. The participants realised that it was all the resident's responsibility to keep their own water, sanitation facilities and environment clean. The w-value (0,553) indicated that the change in knowledge regarding the residents was practically significant (large efect).

Improvement of skills

To establish whether the outcomes of the lecture were attained, the people's knowledge and skills must improve. According to De Vos (1998:388), change in skills can be observed and reported qualitatively. The participants were observed to see whether the objective of the program was achieved. Each chapter was designed so that there were certain activities to determine whether the skills improved. These results were observed and will be reported qualitatively.

purifying the water and keeping their household clean. After a week, the female farm dwellers proved able to clean the water reservoir and clean their houses.

▪ **Leadership**

The female farm dwellers were taught the need for a community to have a leader or a representative on the farm. They later had a meeting and chose or elected someone within the community of farm dwellers to be their representative, which showed that their knowledge and skills improved because they were able to function on their own.

GENERAL PROGRAM EVALUATION

A week after the completion of the program, the program was evaluated. A structured interview schedule was used and each participant was interviewed separately in her mother tongue (Tswana), using a tape recorder. The questions were based on an overview of the program. The answered questions were transcribed, quantified and translated into English. Qualitative results were quantified to obtain a better idea of the trends. The questionnaire's responses were summarized as the following:

- **Did you enjoy the program?** The female farm dwellers had to respond to the question by answering 'Yes or No'. A total of 16 participants (100%) respondents agreed that they had enjoyed attending the program. The respondents responded by saying 'eya' meaning yes and other said 'ke itumetse go tla fa' meaning 'I'm happy to be here'. This is just a more traditional way of saying yes.
- **What did you learn?** This was an open-ended question. The female farm dwellers responded and said that they have learned the following and the responses were categorized. The categories were identified as gained knowledge, resource management, water, money, time and sustainable livelihood. From the results achieved, 50% of the respondents indicated that they had learned much (gained knowledge), in Tswana saying 'go

- **Was it important to attend the program?** The female farm dwellers responded to the questionnaire by answering 'yes or no'. From the results, 9 respondents (53%) of the female farm dwellers responded 'yes' to the question and about 7 respondents (47%) gave no response to the question.
- **Did you communicate well with the facilitator?** The female farm dwellers responded by answering 'yes' or 'no'. If they responded negatively, they had to give the reason why. A total 88% of female farm dwellers responded positively about communication with the facilitator. While 12% responded negatively, saying that they did not communicate well with the facilitator because they could not give their own thoughts/ ideas.
- **Does the program need to be changed or improved?** This was an open-ended question. The female farm dwellers had to respond by stating their own opinion about the program, indicating whether it needed 'change or not'. A total of 43% or 7 respondents responded that there is nothing they can change or improve on the program, whereas 57% or 9 respondents had no response.
- **Were the teaching aids provided adequately?** The female farm dwellers responded to the question by indicating whether the facilities used were 'adequate or not adequate'. A total of 75% agreed that the facilities provided or used during the program were relevant whereas 25% of female farm dwellers responded that these were not relevant.
- **Will you attend another women empowerment program again?** The female farm dwellers responded to the question by 'Yes or No' to the question. A total of 94% of the female farm dweller respondents positively

to the question whereas only 6% of the female farm dwellers responded negatively.

CONCLUSION

Evaluation was done in two parts: that is knowledge and skills.

- **Improvement of knowledge** The results indicated that the female farm dwellers' knowledge increased in a practically significant manner in most chapters except in Chapter one about Women, which showed an increase in a medium effect. In chapters Two to Six, the knowledge increased.
- **Improvement of skills.** From the observations, tasks were completed which indicated the women's skills increased.
- The knowledge of the participants regarding the family resource management increased in a practically and statistically significant manner
- The participants' knowledge for every separate chapter increased as well as the total score summarising all the chapters.
- The effect size of Chapter One was a medium effect, which indicated practical significance.
- Observation of the skills of the participants indicated that what they were taught during the course could be repeated at the end of the sessions, which indicated that they had learned something.
- The focus group discussion indicated that the participants gained knowledge.
- Methodological triangulation indicated the participant's knowledge and skills increased. It can be concluded that the Ntataise course increased the knowledge and skills of this particular group of women. Although this result cannot be generalised, the program can be implemented with success in other communities, if adapted according to their needs.

Although there was an increase in knowledge for this particular group, these results will not apply to other communities. These results are only for

one community in the North-West Province, which was part of the pilot study FLAGH program, and only for the women that attended the course. This information can be used to adapt the program for dissemination to other groups.

The educational intervention program on family resource management was very informative and helpful to the female farm dwellers because the knowledge gained and skills observed helped them to be able to manage their resources and manage their time effectively. The focus group interview also showed that the female farm dwellers knowledge had increased. This shows that the program had an influence on the female farm dwellers.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Changes to specific chapters in the manual

From the chapters presented, the recommendation is as follows for each chapter:

- The chapter on women could be made more specific and even shorter, the information is very general.
- The chapter on time management could be made more practical and include more demonstrations.
- Water, sanitation and housing should also include more practical work and could be spread over a few weeks and include aspects such as maintaining painted walls, basic repairs and saving of water.
- Evaluation questions can be standardized in order to ensure valid and trustworthiness results.

General recommendations

- A post-post evaluation should be done after six weeks to ensure that the knowledge gained is really applied.
- Basic family resource management courses should be part of any development course that is presented to any group of disadvantaged

people. Family resource management can improve people's living conditions, without any extra financial cost, on the contrary, they can save on money.

- Any course should be adapted to the specific needs of the targeted participants.
- Holistically, most of the farm dwellers experience lack of adult education so there is a need for follow up courses, so that the farm dwellers will be able to be more informed resulting in improved quality of life.

It is very difficult to measure the impact of any intervention program. The impact will depend on the length and depth of the program as well as other development in their environment.

This intervention program will help to empower individuals so that they will start to take control of their own life by managing their resources more effectively. This can contribute to an improvement of their life without necessarily increasing their resources.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

- Dr. Annemarie Kruger
- Potchefstroom University and other members of the Focus Area 9.1, Preventive and Therapeutic Interventions for their co-operation and assistance.

REFERENCES

BARNARD, D. 2000. Effective sustainable development, the importance of partnership. Proceeding Potchefstroom In 'Sustainable social development critical challenges in the new millennium'.

BEST, C.J., CUMMINS, R.A. & LO, S.K. (2000). The quality of rural and metropolitan life. *Australian Journal of Psychology* 52(2):69-74.

BURROGHS, E. 1994. Meeting adult learning needs. *Journal of Education: Education Updates* 1(4):1-7.

Central Statistics Service. 1992. South African statistics. Pretoria. CSS.

COHEN, J. 1988. Statistical power analysis. 2nd ed. New York. Lawrence Elbaum.

CORNWELL, L. 1997. Education and training. (In Swanepoel & De Beer. F.C, eds. Introduction to development studies). Johannesburg. Thompson International.

DEACON, R.E. & FIREBAUGH, F.M. 1998. Family resource management: principles and application. 2nd ed. Massachusetts. Allyn & Bacon.

DE VOS, A.S. 1998. Research at grass root: a primer for the caring professions. Pretoria. Van Schaik.

DRAPER, A. 1998. African-adult education chronologies. Sandton: Heinemann.

ERASMUS, BJ. & VAN DYK, A. 1999. Training management in South Africa. 2nd ed. Johannesburg. International Thomson.

GOLDSMITH, EB. 2000. Resource management for individual and families. 2nd ed. Minneapolis. Wadsworth.

GREEN, C. 2002. Adult education: an approach for use in consumer education programmes. *Journal of Family Ecology and Consumer Sciences* 30(1):10-20.

GREYVENSTEIN, LA. VENTER, MD. & REITSMA, GM. 1993. Women's outreach foundation 10 Programs. Johannesburg. Perskor.

HALL, R. 2001. Farm workers versus the world market. *Agenda* 48:98-101.

JARVIS, P. 1995. Adult and continuity education. 2nd ed. British Library.

KINNEAR, RP. & GRAY, CD. 1999. SPSS for windows made simple. 3rd ed. Psychology.

KNOWLES, MS. 1990. The adult learner: a neglected species. 4th ed. London. Gulf.

KNOWLES, MS. 1973. The modern practice of adult education. Revised edition. Chicago. Association.

KOTZE, DA. 1995. The need for adult education. *Africanus: Journal of Development Alternatives* 24(2):20-30.

KRUGER, A. 2001. Protocol of the FLAGH Study. PU for CHE. Potchefstroom. (Unpublished).

LONDON, L., NELL, V., THOMPSON, ML. & MYERS, JE. 1998. Health status among farm workers in the Western Cape-collorate evidence from a study of occupational hazards. South African Medical Journal 88(9):1096-1101.

LOWE, T. 1970. Adult education and nation building. Edinburgh. Edinburgh University.

McGREGOR, SLT. & GOLDSMITH, EB. 1998. Expanding our understanding of quality of life, standard of living, and well being. Journal of Family and Consumer Science 90(2):2-6.

PILLAY, P. 2000. Foreword. (Proceeding Cape Town In May, J., ed, Poverty and inequality in South Africa: meeting the Challenge. Cape Town: ABC Press. p. Viii-ix).

ROGERS, J. 1979. Adult learning. London. The Open University presses.

SEPTEMBER, C. 1995. Capacity building in RDP not just an afterthought. Human resource management 11(1):8-12, Feb.

SERUMAGA-ZAKE, P. & NAUDE, W. 2002. The determinants of rural and urban household in the North-West Province of South Africa. Development Southern African 19(4):561-572, Oct.

STEYN, H.S. 1999. Practical significant for the difference in means. PU for CHE. Potchefstroom.

STEENKAMP, I. 2002. Violence and quality of life of farm worker in the North-West Province. M.A. Thesis. Potchefstroom. PU for CHE.

South African Business Guidebook. 2002–2003. Education in SA–2002. Available on line. Web.<http://www.africabusinessdirect.com/pebble.asp?relid=5861> [Date of access : 25 November 2003].

SOUTH AFRICA. 1996. Constitution of the Republic of South Africa as adopted by the Constitutional Assembly on 08 May 1996 and as amended on 11 October 1996. (B34B-96) (ISBN: 0-260-20716-7). Pretoria Typefaces Media.

SOUTH AFRICA. Department of Statistics. 1996. South African statistic, Census. Available on line Web : <http://www.statsa.gov.za/census> [Date of access 10 November 2003].

SOUTH AFRICA. Department of Statistics. 2001. South African statistic, Census. Available on line Web : <http://www.statsa.gov.za/census> [Date of access 10 November 2003].

SWANEPOEL, HJ. 1989. Community development: putting plans into actions. South Africa : Kenwyn Juta.

SWANSON, BB. 1981. Introduction to home management. New York. Macmillan.

VAN DER WESTHUIZEN, T. 2002. Perception of the biopsysocial health of the group of farm workers in the North-West Province. M.A. Dissertation. Potchefstroom. PU for CHE.

VAN WYK, HF. 1995. Die noodsaaklikheid vir versnelde opleiding. Munisipale en openbare dienste 14(13):23.

VENTER, JF. 1992. Lewenshalte van die werker op die plaas. Tydskrif vir rasse-aangeleenthede 43(1):59-65.

VENTER, MD. & LARNEY, M. 2002. Summary findings. PU for CHE. Potchefstroom. (Unpublished).

VORSTER, HH., WISSING, MP., VENTER, CS., KRUGER, HS., KRUGER, S., MALAN, NT., DE. RIDDER, JH., VELDMAN, FJ., STEYN, HS., MARGETTS, BM., & MACINTYRE, U. 2000. The impact of urbanization on physical and mental health of Africans in the North-West Province of South Africa: the THUSA Study. South African Journal of Science 96(9/10):505-514.

WEYERS, M.L. 2001. The theory and practice of community work: a South African perspective. Potchefstroom, South Africa. Keurkopie.

CHAPTER 4

GENERAL SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS



4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this final chapter, a summary of the main findings and the general conclusion will be presented. This will be followed by recommendations regarding the study.

4.2 GENERAL SUMMARY

The results indicated that:

- The knowledge of the participants regarding family resource management increased in a practically and statistically meaningful manner.
- The participants' knowledge for every separate chapter increased as well as the total score summarising all the chapters.
- The effect size of Chapter One was a medium effect, which indicated practical significance.
- Observation of the skills of the participants indicated that they were taught during the course could repeated at the end of the sessions, which indicated that they had learned something.
- The focus group discussion indicated that the participants gained knowledge.
- Methodological triangulation showed that the participant's knowledge and skills increased. It can be concluded that the Ntataise course increased participant's knowledge and skills of this particular group of women. Although these results cannot be generalised, the program can be implemented with success in other communities, if adapted according to their needs.

4.3 CONCLUSION

The educational intervention program on family resource management was very informative and helpful to the female farm dwellers because their knowledge increased and skills observed helped them to be able to manage their resources and manage their time effectively. The focus group interview also showed that the female farm dwellers knowledge had increased. The three methods of data collection confirm the improvement of skills gained from the program. This shows that the program had an influence on the female farm dwellers.

4.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations can be made regarding specific aspects of the program as well as the general recommendations.

Specific recommendations for changes to certain chapters:

- The chapter on women could be made more specific and even shorter, the information is very general
- The chapter on time management could be made more practical and include more demonstrations
- Water, sanitation and housing should also include more practical work and could be spread over a few weeks and include aspects such as maintaining painted walls, basic repairs and saving of water
- Evaluation questions can be standardized in order to ensure valid and trustworthiness results.

General recommendations will include the following:

- A post-post evaluation should be done after six weeks to ensure that the knowledge gained is really applied
- Basic family resource management courses should be part of any development course that is presented to any group of disadvantage people. Family resource management can improve people's living

conditions, without any extra financial cost, on the contrary they can save on income

- Any course should be adapted to the specific needs of the targeted group
- Holistically, most of the farm dwellers experience lack of adult education so there is a need for follows up courses, so that the farm dwellers will be able to be more informed resulting in improved quality of life.

It is very difficult to measure the impact of any intervention program. The impact will depend on the length and depth of the program as well as other development in their environment.

This intervention program will help to empower individuals so that they will start to take control of their own life by managing their resources more effectively. This can contribute to an improvement of their life without necessarily increasing their resources.

ADDENDUM

ADDENDUM A - F

QUESTIONNAIRE USED FOR DIFFERENT CHAPTERS IN THE NTATAISE PROGRAM

CHAPTER 1: WOMEN

1. A woman is a builder of a happy healthy family.
Mosadi ke moagi wa lelapa le le itumetseng le itikanetseng.



2. A woman must believe in herself so that she'll be able to carry her different roles with confidence.
Mosadi o tshwanetse go itshepa gore a kgone go dira medire ya gagwe ka mafolofolo.



3. A woman is a weaker sex.
Mosadi ke motho o bokoa.



4. A woman has the same rights as man.
Mosadi o na le ditshwanelo tse di tshwanang le tsa banna.



5. Women should be able to accept themselves.
Basadi ba tshwanetse go amogela bosadi ba bona.



6. A place of a woman is in the kitchen.
Mosadi ke mosala gae.



CHAPTER 2: TIME MANAGEMENT

1. Each family has three basic needs namely food, shelter and clothing
Lelapa lengwe le lengwe le na le ditlhokego tse tharo
e leng dijo, bodulo le diaparo



2. If one uses one's body correctly when you work,
then you have enough time to do the work well.
Ga o dirisa mmele wa gago sentle o tla nna le matla
go dira ditiro tsa gago sentle.



3. One can do all the difficult task in one day.
O ka dira tiro tsotlhe tse di thata ka letsatsi le lengwe.



4. Choose all the right postures in the following pictures

CHAPTER 3: ENERGY

1. Energy is the power that makes things work, burn, cook and move

Matla ke matla a go dira dilo di dire, dituke, di apeege mme di tsamaye.



2. Food and alcohol give the body energy to work.
Dijo le bojwala di fa mmele matla a go dira.



3. All form of energy are expensive.
Mefuta yotlhe ya matla e tlhwalhwa godimo.



4. Paint your house a colour inside to give light.
Penta ntlu ya gago ka mo gare ka mmala o o bonalang.



5. Always put a small pot on a big stove plate it cooks fast.
Baya pitsa e nnye mo polateng e kgolo gore go apeege ka pele.



6. Always wear heavy clothes to warm yourself.
Apara diaparo tse bokete gore o futhumale.



CHAPTER 4: BUDGETING

1. Each family should write down a monthly budget.
Lelapa lengwe le lengwe le tshwanetse go kwala bajete ya kgwedi le kgwedi.



2. The mother and father should write the budget.
Mme le ntate ke bona fela ba tshwanetse go kwala bajete.



3. Think about the future and plan ahead.
Nagana, mme o boloke madi a bokamoso.



4. When buying goods always compare prices.
Fa o reka dilo bapanya ditlhwatlhwa.



5. Always save your money in the house.
Boloka madi a gago mo ntlung.



6. It is cheaper to buy cooked foods.
Go tlhwatlhwa tlase go reka dijo tse di buduleng.



CHAPTER 5: WATER, SANIATION & HOUSING

1. Men are responsible for the care of storage of water.
Banna ba letleletswe go tlhokomela metsi.



- 2 To purify water add 2 Tsp of Jik or Milton to 5 litres of water.
Fa o tlhatswa metsi tshela maswana a le mabedi a Jik kgotsa Milton mo 5 litara ya metsi.



- 3 Each house should have a place of dispose for rubbish, used or dirty water and human stools.
Lelapa lengwe le lengwe le tshwanetse go go nna le lefelo la matlakala, metsi a maswe le lefelo la boithusetse.



- 4 Rubbish should be placed near the house.
Matlakala a tshwanetse go dula gaufi le ntlu.



- 5 Tins, bottles and plastics should be recycled or buried.
Mabotlolo, dithini le dipolasetiki di ka 'recycled' kgotsa tsa epelwa.



- 6 Clean your house if possible
Phepafatsa ntlu ya gago fa go tlhokega.



GENERAL QUESTIONS

1. Women do not have the same right as men.
Basadi ga ba na ditshwanelo tse ditshwanang le tsa banna



2. When a woman uses her body and time effectively, she'll be able to manage her chores.
Fa mosadi a dirisa mmele wa gagwe sentle o tla kgona go dira ditiro tsa gagwe.



3. All members of the family must be involved in budgeting.
Botlhe mo lelapa ba tshwanetsa go tsaya karolo mo bajeteng.



4. All forms of energy are expensive.
Mefuta yotlhe ya matla a tlhwatlhwa godimg.



5. All the residents of the farm are responsible for the care and maintenance of water, sanitation and housing.
Batho botlhe ba ba dulang mo polaseng ba tshwanetse go tsaya karolo mo go tlhokomeleng le go tlamela metsi, matlakala, ntlwana le legae.



6. A true leader is someone who makes decisions alone.
Moeteledipele wa nnete ke motho o o tsayang tshweetso a le esi.



GENERAL PROGRAM EVALUATION

1. Did you enjoy the program?

1.1 What did you learn?

2. Was it important to attend the program?

3. Did you communicate well with the facilitator?

4. Does the program need to be changed or improved?

4. Were the teaching aids provided adequately?

5. Will you attend another women empowerment program again?

Preparation and technical details of manuscript.

Components of the manuscript

Each separate part of the manuscript begins on a new page. Arrange the different parts as follows:

- ❖ Title page
- ❖ Summary in Afrikaans if the article is in English, and vice versa
- Abstract of 200 words in English with five to ten search words in English.
- Text
- ❖ References
- ❖ Tables
- ❖ Figures

1. Title pages

The manuscript is send anonymously to the reviewers, but all information should appear on the title page:

- Concise title that reflect the contents of the article.
- Name, current address, telephone number, faxes number, e-mail of each author.
- Information on support the author/received financial or otherwise, whether the

manuscript forms part of a larger project, and other relevant information.

- A colour photo may accompany the manuscript.

2. Summary

The second page of the manuscript –numbered page 1- contains the title of the article is in English, and vise versa.

3. Abstract and search words

An abstract of not more than 200 words in English. Please supply five to ten search words in English.

4. Text

The text begins on a separate page. Manuscript should be typed in 1,5 or double spacing A4 page, on only one side of the paper. Leave 30mm margin on both sides, an extra between the paragraphs and between sub-headings. Number each paragraph in the left-hand margin to facilitate the task of the receiver. Heading and subheading: NO more than three heading and subheading levels should be used. Heading and subheading are not underlined. Three levels are dealt with as follows:

HEADING

First-level heading are typed in the upper case bold. Two spaces (three manual line breaks) are left above and below the heading.

Second-level subheading

This subheading is typed in lower case bold. A space (two manual line break) is left above the subheading. The first sentence begins on the same line, with five spaces between the subheading and the start of the sentence.

5. Writing styles

Authors should use correct technical terminology and avoid unnecessary repetition and circumlocution. All numbers from one to twelve are to be written in full, except fractions, units of measurement, statistical data and symbols. Metric terminology and symbols have to comply with the recommendations of the Metrication Department of the SABS.

6. References

The Journal uses a user-friendly adaptation of the Harvard system

- Reference is arranged unnumbered and alphabetically.
- Quotations and references to literature in the text are accompanied by the author's surname, year of publication and the page numbers, in brackets (Smit, 1998:12).
- Facts or arguments are supported by a source reference.

- Reference with many author's require the first author's name only.
- Different publications of the same author in the same year are indicated by a, b, etc: Brown (1998a & 1998b)
- Reference to different publications of the same author are made with the dates in chronological order: (Davids, 19989, 2002, 2004 & 2005)
- Reference to an anonymous source require the title of the publication in the place of the authors name (Fur and Fur-like fabrics, 2004:20)
- References that are frequently used by authors who publish in the JFECS are illustrated below. Please note the use of punctuation marks, space, italics and capitals

Books, government publications, proceedings and theses:

KINGSDOM, J. 1997. THE KINGDOM FIELD GUIDE TO African mammals. San Diego. Williams. (book with one author.

Article in Journal

ERASMUS, AC. 1998. A suggested approach to educating consumer on the purchase of electrical household appliance. Journal of Family Ecology and Consumer Sciences 26(26):145-151. (article with one author)

Jonnassen, DH. Technology as cognitive tools: learners as designers. Available on line. URL; <http://itech1.coe.uga.edu.itforum/paper1/paper1.html>. accessed 15 April 1999. (Article on Internet)

7. Tables

Well-planned tables contribute to the value of an article. In the view of the relatively high cost associated with the publishing tables, only essential information should be included in support of the text. Each table have to be typed on a separate page and as far as possible in 1,5 or double spacing. Tables have to numbered and given heading that reflect the content.

TABLE1: FACTORS INFLUENCING FAMILY RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Each column should have a heading and should contain measurement of the same unit. No full stops are used after heading. Note the use of decimal comma. Abbreviations may be used as space is limited in the text a table is referred to by its number: table 1 or (Table 1). Indicate placement of the table in the text as follows:

PLACE TABLE 1 HERE

Please look at other specific technical details about typing tables, and for examples of tables

8. Figures

Carefully selected graphs, sketches or other graphic material that could facilities understanding of the text. Bear in mind that that figure have to fit into one or two columns of the Journal. Details may be lost in the process of scaling down graphic materials to fit into two or more columns. Design the graphic with the width of a column (75mm) or page (170mm) in mind. The largest graphic is 225 mm x 170 mm. Text-based figures should be constructed in Microsoft Office PowerPoint 97/2000 and saved as a PowerPoint presentation (.ppt format). Use Arial typeface as the above font for all the text-based figures. Chart should be constructed in Microsoft Office 97/2000 and saved as Excel.

FIGURE 1: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

In the text figure are referred to by their numbers: Figure 1 or (Figure!). Indicate placement of the figure in the text as follows:

Place Figure 1 here