

**A community asset mapping
programme for roots-driven sustainable
socio-economic change in rural South
Africa**

by

Melanie Desireé Nicolau

Submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in the subject

Geography

at the

University of South Africa

Supervisor: Dr. A.C. Harmse

2013

I declare that "*A community asset mapping programme for roots-driven sustainable socio-economic change in rural South Africa*" is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.



23 August 2013

Signature

Date

Melanie Desireé Nicolau
Student Number 31075649

Table of Contents

List of Figures.....	ix
List of Tables.....	x
List of Photographs.....	xii
List of Acronyms.....	xiv
Acknowledgements.....	xv
Abstract.....	xviii
Chapter One: Placing poverty and inequality in South Africa into the global context.....	1
1.1 Global inequality and poverty.....	2
1.1.1 Understanding inequality.....	2
1.1.2 Understanding poverty.....	3
<i>a. Absolute poverty.....</i>	<i>6</i>
<i>b. Relative poverty.....</i>	<i>7</i>
<i>c. Measurements of poverty.....</i>	<i>7</i>
1.1.3 The relationship between poverty and inequality.....	10
1.1.4 Global strategies and comparisons related to poverty and inequality.....	11
1.2 An overview of the extent and spatial distribution of poverty and inequality in South Africa.....	15
1.2.1 An evaluation of South Africa in terms of global measures and goals related to poverty and inequality.....	16
1.2.2 The spatial distribution of the poor in South Africa.....	18
1.2.3 Policies related to rural development in South Africa since 1994.....	21
1.3 Community driven change: the key to facilitate inclusive and sustainable poverty relief and inequality reduction in South Africa.....	24
1.4 The aim of the research.....	25
1.5 Partnerships involved in the research.....	26
1.6 Geographical area of the study.....	28
1.7 Post development theory.....	30
1.8 Methodology used in this research.....	32
1.9 Contribution of this research to the discipline of Geography.....	34
1.10 Chapter outline.....	34
Chapter Two: Participatory rural appraisal: a methodology to facilitate roots-driven change in rural areas.....	36
2.1 The development of Rapid Rural Appraisal.....	37
2.1.1 The main characteristics of Rapid Rural Appraisal.....	38
2.1.2 The major limitations of Rapid Rural Appraisal.....	38

2.2	Development of the Participatory Rural Appraisal Methodology	38
2.2.1	Phase One: the need for major participatory and visual approaches	40
2.2.2	Phase Two: The period of innovation and need for improvisation	40
2.2.3	Phase Three: Shifting the focus to social learning, participatory monitoring and evaluation.....	52
2.3	Concepts and principles of contemporary Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA)	52
2.3.1	The principles of Participatory Rural Appraisal	53
a.	<i>The changing roles of the researcher and community members</i>	54
b.	<i>Conscious enquiry and analysis and rapid learning</i>	56
c.	<i>Neutralising the biases of outsiders towards a community</i>	56
d.	<i>Optimising trade-off</i>	57
e.	<i>Triangulation</i>	59
f.	<i>Recognising and supporting diversity, complexity and multiple realities</i>	60
g.	<i>The sequence of application</i>	60
h.	<i>Handing over the stick</i>	61
i.	<i>Self-critical awareness</i>	62
j.	<i>Sharing</i>	62
2.3.2	Participatory mapping.....	63
a.	<i>Social Maps</i>	64
b.	<i>Resource maps</i>	64
2.3.3	Scientific validity of participatory approaches and techniques.....	65
2.3.4	Application of Participatory Rural Appraisal in the discipline of Geography in South Africa	66
2.4	Conclusion.....	68

**Chapter Three: Asset-based community development as a possible tool
for wealth creation in South Africa: Mathopestad, North-
West Province**

3.1	Asset-based community development (ABCD).....	69
3.1.1	Definitions of asset-based community development	69
3.1.2	The approach followed by asset-based community development.....	71
3.1.3	Defining assets within the asset-based community development approach	73
3.1.4	Application of asset-based community development.....	74
3.2	The Greater Rustenburg Community Foundation application of asset- based community development in North-West Province	75

3.3	The application of ABCD in Mathopestad (North-West Province).....	78
3.3.1	Pre-preparation.....	81
3.3.2	Three day workshop.....	81
a.	<i>Community appreciative enquiry</i>	82
b.	<i>Capacity inventory</i>	82
c.	<i>Association mapping</i>	84
d.	<i>Community asset mapping session</i>	84
e.	<i>Transect walk</i>	85
f.	<i>Community economic analysis</i>	86
g.	<i>Action planning</i>	87
h.	<i>Next steps and planned monitoring and evaluation</i>	87
3.3.3	Monitoring and evaluation.....	89
3.3.4	Roots-driven change challenges identified in Mathopestad after Asset-based Community Development.....	94
3.3.5	The transition of ABCD to CAMP as a tool for wealth creation in rural South Africa.....	96
Chapter Four: The development of CAMP for the rural communities in South Africa: Case study from the Free State Province		
4.1	The four day workshop.....	99
a.	<i>Community appreciative enquiry and association mapping</i>	101
b.	<i>Capacity inventory and association mapping</i>	103
c.	<i>Wishes, fears, trust and values processes</i>	108
d.	<i>Problem solving ability of the community</i>	112
e.	<i>Power mapping</i>	114
f.	<i>Cognitive shift to establishing opportunities for own wealth generation</i>	116
g.	<i>Community maps and the transect walk</i>	117
h.	<i>Opportunities identified by the community to effect change in their communities</i>	118
4.2	Monitoring and Evaluation	119
4.3	Lesson learnt in Feloane from and for the Community Asset Mapping Programme.....	120
Chapter Five: The development of a CAMP for the rural communities in South Africa: Case study from the Eastern Cape		
5.1	The four day workshop.....	123
a.	<i>Setting the scene by doing a community appreciative enquiry</i>	124
b.	<i>Capacity inventory</i>	127

a.	<i>Wishes, fears, trust and values processes</i>	131
b.	<i>Problem solving ability of the community</i>	139
c.	<i>Cognitive shift to creating opportunities for own wealth creation</i>	141
d.	<i>Community maps and the transect walk</i>	143
e.	<i>Opportunities identified by the community members to effect change</i>	144
f.	<i>Action planning and success indicators</i>	144
g.	<i>Observations and recommendations made of the researcher and the external non-profit organisation</i>	149
5.2	Recommendations to the community and external stakeholders of the selected communities in Kareedouw.....	150
5.3	Lessons learnt from the application of the Community Asset Mapping Programme in Kareedouw, Eastern Cape Province.....	152

Chapter Six: The development of CAMP for the rural communities in South Africa: additional case studies from the North-West Province

6.1	Skuinsdrift.....	154
6.1.1	Pre-preparation for the application of CAMP	154
6.1.2	The four day workshop.....	154
a.	<i>Setting the scene by doing a community appreciative enquiry</i>	156
b.	<i>Capacity inventory</i>	157
c.	<i>Wishes, fears, trust and values processes</i>	160
d.	<i>Cognitive shift and the leaky bucket process in Skuinsdrift</i>	162
e.	<i>Transect walk</i>	165
f.	<i>Action planning and success indicators</i>	167
g.	<i>General points and observations made during the workshop held with emerging farmers of the Skuinsdrift Community, North-West Province, October 2011</i>	169
6.2	Koffiekraal.....	170
6.2.1	Setting the scene by doing a community appreciative enquiry.....	172
6.2.2	Capacity inventory	176
6.2.3	Wishes, fears, trust and values processes	182
6.2.4	Problem solving ability of the Koffiekraal community, North-West Province, August 2012	186
6.2.5	Cognitive shift to creating opportunities for own wealth creation, Koffiekraal North-West Province, August 2012	188
6.2.6	Community maps and the transect walk in the Koffiekraal Village, North-West Province, August 2012.....	189

6.2.7	Social, economic and environmental opportunities identified by the Koffiekraal community to effect change.....	193
6.2.8	Action planning and success indicators as determined by the Koffiekraal community, August 2012	193
6.2.9	Commitments made to the community by GRCF and Unisa	195
6.2.10	General points and observations made during the workshop in Koffiekraal, North-West Province, August 2012	196
6.3	Conclusion.....	198
Chapter Seven: Monitoring and evaluation related to CAMP: case studies in the North-West Province.....		
		199
7.1	Follow up visits to Skuinsdrift and Koffiekraal after the CAMP workshop.....	200
7.2	Themes identified for high impact sustainable change in Skuinsdrift and Koffiekraal, North-West Province	201
7.3	The dream of a Multi-Purpose Centre (MPC) for the communities of Skuinsdrift and Koffiekraal, North-West Province.....	202
7.4	The training at the Multi-Purpose Centre, Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, 2013	211
7.4.1	Training in dealing with HIV and AIDS in the community of Koffiekraal and Skuinsdrift.....	211
7.4.2	Dealing with nutrition in adverse conditions.....	212
7.4.3	Environmental related training at the Multi-Purpose Centre, Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, 2013	213
7.4.4	Community based tourism as an entrepreneurial initiatives	214
7.4.5	Household food security as an important transfer of skills in the community	215
7.4.6	Training in textiles, clothing, fashion and arts/crafts with the purpose of creating entrepreneurial opportunities.....	216
7.4.7	Training that has focussed on the children in the community of Skuinsdrift	216
7.4.8	Adult Basic Education in the communities surrounding Skuinsdrift	218
7.5	Responses from the selected community members from Skuinsdrift and Koffiekraal on the impact of CAMP	219
7.5.1	Interview with Mr. I. Phakwe	219
7.5.2	Interview with Mr. B. Matlonye.....	220
7.5.3	Interview with Mr. P. Phefo.....	221
7.6	The transition from ABCD and CAMP in terms of monitoring and evaluation.....	223

Chapter Eight: Community Asset Mapping Programme (CAMP) for roots-driven change in South Africa: a tool for wealth creation in rural South Africa	226
8.1 Essential external role players in a Community Asset Mapping Programme (CAMP).....	226
8.1.1 Funders from corporates.....	227
8.1.2 Non-Profit Organisations (NPOs)	229
8.1.3 Institutions of Higher Learning	232
8.2 The basic structure of the Community Asset Mapping Programme (CAMP).....	234
8.2.1 Pre-workshop preparation.....	234
8.2.2 The four day CAMP workshop	236
<i>a. Appreciative Enquiry</i>	236
<i>b. Capacity Inventory</i>	238
<i>c. Power Mapping</i>	239
<i>d. Wishes, Fears, Values, Trust and Socialisation</i>	240
<i>e. Problem identification and solving</i>	241
<i>f. Community Economic Analysis</i>	242
<i>g. Community Map</i>	243
<i>h. Transect Walk</i>	243
<i>i. I belong</i>	244
<i>j. Project identification, action planning and indicators of success</i>	245
<i>k. Creation of a community forum</i>	245
8.2.3 Monitoring and Evaluation	245
8.3 Basic guidelines when applying the Community Asset Mapping Programme (CAMP).....	247
Chapter Nine: The role community asset mapping can play in wealth creation in South Africa	250
References	261
Appendix 1. Training Schedule at the Skuinsdrift Multi-Purpose Centre (2011 to 2013).....	272

List of Figures

		Page
Figure 1.1	South African rural communities selected as case studies for the development of a Community Asset Mapping Programme:2009-2013	29
Figure 3.1	Summary of the ABCD approach of the Coady International Institute	77
Figure 3.2	Seven step methodology of the ABCD workshop in the twelve community clusters in the North-West Province	77
Figure 7.1	The overall plan for the Multi-Purpose Centre in Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, 2012	206
Figure 7.2	The plans for the cultural centre of the Multi-Purpose Centre in Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, 2012	207
Figure 8.1	The researchers' representation of the Community Asset Mapping Programme (CAMP)	239

List of Tables

		Page
Table 1.1	Multiple classifications of the causes of poverty	5
Table 1.2	The three dimensions and ten indicators of the Alkire-Santos Multidimensional Poverty Index	9
Table 1.3	The most recent MPI figures for South Africa, Namibia and Congo	19
Table 1.4	Human Development Index for South African Provinces: 1993 to 2013	19
Table 1.5	Key targets of the National Development Plan:2030	23
Table 2.1	Comparison between Rapid Rural Approach (RRA) and Participatory Rural Approach (PRA)	41
Table 2.2	Important concepts and methods of Participatory Rural Approach (PRA) used in the mid-1990s	50
Table 3.1	The Greater Rustenburg Community Foundations: Community Engagement Programme Calendar 2010	79
Table 3.2	The collective assets of Mathopestad as captured during an Asset-based Community Development workshop: October 2009	83
Table 3.3	Community economic analysis of Mathopestad: October 2009	87
Table 3.4	Community vision and action plan for Mathopestad: October 2009	88
Table 3.5	Mathopestad feedback on the three day Asset –Based Community Development workshop: February 2010	90
Table 4.1	Community success stories of the Feloane Village, Free State Province, February 2012	102
Table 4.2	Individual assets and skills of community members from Feloane Village, Free State Province, February 2012	104
Table 4.3	Human, social economic and environmental assets of Feloane Village, Free State Province, February 2012	106
Table 4.4	The values of the community members in Feloane Village, Free State Province, February 2012	112
Table 4.5	Problem identification and possible solutions in Feloane Village, Free State Province, February 2012	113
Table 4.6	Power mapping of Feloane Village, Free State Province, February 2012	114
Table 5.1	Community success stories of the Kareedouw Communities, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012	126
Table 5.2	The collective individual assets of the Kareedouw Communities, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012	128
Table 5.3	The community assets of the Kareedouw Communities, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012	130
Table 5.4	Power mapping for the four communities in Kareedouw, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012	132
Table 5.5	The wishes of the four communities in Kareedouw, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012	133
Table 5.6	The fears of the communities of Kareedouw, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012	135
Table 5.7	The values of the four communities in Kareedouw,	136

	Eastern Cape Province, December 2012	
Table 5.8	The income, expenditure and surplus of the communities in Kareedouw, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012	145
Table 5.9	Identified opportunities for change in selected Communities, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012	142
Table 5.10	Projects, action plan and indicators of success in selected communities in Kareedouw, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012	146
Table 6.1	The collective and individual assets of the Skuinsdrift community, North-West Province, October 2011	158
Table 6.2	The community assets of Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, October 2011	159
Table 6.3	Community leadership and power mapping of Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, October 2011	161
Table 6.4	The values of the community members in Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, October 2011	163
Table 6.5	The wishes and fears of the community in Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, October 2011	163
Table 6.6	Average income and expenditure in Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, October 2011	164
Table 6.7	Opportunities for change in the Skuinsdrift Community	166
Table 6.8	Projects, action plan and indicators of success in Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, October 2011	168
Table 6.9	Community success stories: Koffiekraal, North-West Province, August 2012	174
Table 6.10	The collective and individual assets of the Koffiekraal community, North-West Province, August 2012	178
Table 6.11	The community assets of Koffiekraal, North-West Province, August 2012	180
Table 6.12	Community leadership and power mapping of Koffiekraal, North-West Province, August 2012	181
Table 6.13	The wishes and fears of the Koffiekraal community, North-West Province, August 2012	182
Table 6.14	Koffiekraal community questions and answers related to their wishes	180
Table 6.15	Values of the Koffiekraal community	181
Table 6.16	Problems and possible community solutions in Koffiekraal	184
Table 6.17	A summary of the Koffiekraal community income and expenditure, North-West Province, August 2012	189
Table 6.18	Social, economic and Environmental opportunities identified by the Koffiekraal community, North-West Province, August 2012	193
Table 6.19	Projects, action plan and indicators of success in Koffiekraal, North-West Province, August 2012	194
Table 8.1	Wishes, fears and values in CAMP	240

List of Photographs

		Page
Photograph 3.1	A community map of Mathopestad compiled by community members at an Asset-based Community Development workshop: October 2009	84
Photograph 3.2	A letter from a community member to the community of Mathopestad	92
Photograph 3.3	Success projects in Mathopestad as a result of Asset-based Community Development: October 2010	93
Photograph 4.1	Individual assets of the Feloane Community, Free State Province, February 2012	105
Photograph 4.2	Human, social, economic and environmental assets of Feloane Village, Free State Province, February 2012	107
Photograph 4.3	Template used to establish the wishes and fears individuals in Feloane village have for themselves and their community, Free State Province, February 2012	108
Photograph 4.4	Join the circle exercise at Feloane Village, Free State Province, February 2012	111
Photograph 4.5	Power mapping flip chart used in Feloane Village, , Free State Province, February 2012	115
Photograph 4.6	Community map constructed by one of the groups in Feloane Village, Free State Province, February 2012	117
Photograph 4.7	Transect walk in Feloane Village, Free State Province, February 2012	118
Photograph 5.1	The house of trust, built by the communities members of the selected communities of Kareedouw, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012	137
Photograph 5.2	Demonstration of the "leaky bucket", Eastern Cape Province, December 2012	142
Photograph 5.3	Members of selected Kareedouw communities creating a community map, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012	144
Photograph 6.1	Facilitators and emerging farmers from Quite Living and Open Areas cc, Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, October 2011	155
Photograph 6.2	Template used by the workshop to indicate income and expenses in Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, October 2011	164
Photograph 6.3	Building a community map of Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, October 2011	165
Photograph 6.4	Discussing action plans and establishing indicators of success, Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, October 2011	167
Photograph 6.5	Template used by workshop attendees to list their individual assets, Koffiekraal, North-West Province, August 2012	177
Photograph 6.6	Focus group discussion on community assets in Koffiekraal, North-West Province, August 2012	179
Photograph 6.7	Socialisation process outside the tribal office,	186

Photograph 6.8	Koffiekraal, North-West Province, August 2012 Koffiekraal community members building their community map, North-West Province, August 2012	190
Photograph 6.9	Koffiekraal community members identify their places of residence on a 1:50 000 scale map, North-West Province, August 2012	191
Photograph 6.10	Community members of Koffiekraal proudly show their community maps, North-West Province, August 2012	192
Photograph 7.1	Sustainable change of the Skuinsdrift Multi-Purpose Centre, North-West Province, 2012	206
Photograph 7.2	The 'Queen of the Night' cactus at the MPC, Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, November 2012	209
Photograph 7.3	The training facilities at the MPC in Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, August 2012	210
Photograph 7.4	Textile and craft training at Skuinsdrift Multi-Purpose Centre, North-West Province, April 2013	217

List of Acronyms

GRCF	Greater Rustenburg Community Foundation
NPO	Non-Profit Organisation
Unisa	University of South Africa
HDI	Human Development Index
MPI	Multi-dimensional Poverty Index
OPHI	Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
WoP	War on Poverty
ISRDP	Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme
CRDP	Comprehensive Rural Development Programme
AsgiSA	Accelerated and shared growth initiative of South Africa
NDP	National Development Plan
CAMP	Community Asset Mapping Programme
ABCD	Asset-based Community Development
PAR	Participatory Action Research
RRA	Rapid Rural Appraisal
CDW	Community Development Worker
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
CSI	Corporate Social Investment
GPS	Global Positioning System
MPC	Multi-Purpose Centre

Acknowledgements

The words and arguments presented in this thesis are by my own hand, heart and head. However, this has not been an independent act, as the vision and direction of so many hearts, heads and hands can be found in what you read. This is the work of collaborations and generousities of so many people who have helped make this research possible.

To the community members of the Skuinsdrift, Koffiekraal, Brakuil, Pella and Uitkyk and in particular *Mr Boesman Matlonye* (Emerging Farmer and Chairperson of Quite Living and Open Areas CC); *Mr Peter Phefo* (Chairperson of the Koffiekraal Village Forum and also representative of the Traditional Council); *Mrs Abea Phakwe* (Emerging Farmer and member of Quite Living and Open Areas CC); *Mr Isaac Phakwe* (Logistics and Administration at the Quite Living Multi-purpose Centre); *Mrs Tumi Mmapaletsebe-Modutwane* (Health Care Worker); *Mrs Tiny Lekabe* (Secretary of the Koffiekraal Village Forum) and *Mr Solly Mphatoe* (Member of the Koffiekraal Village Forum), thank you for inviting me to become part of your community. I hope I have done justice in sharing the successes and challenges you have experienced on your journey to creating a better world for your communities. I am looking forward to our journey ahead and our mutual sharing of knowledge and skills.

To *Mr Petrus Mabote* (of Feloane Trust Village, ThabaNchu), whom I first met as a security guard at Unisa, and now an entrepreneur, thank you for the privilege to work with you and your community.

To the communities of *Mathopestad, Wittekleibos, Guava Juice, Snyklip* and *Doriskraal*, your willingness to challenge yourselves and your communities, are examples for, and inspiration to, other rural communities in South Africa.

To each member of every community that has welcomed me in yours midst in a search for a tool to decrease the levels of poverty and inequality in South Africa, thank you for your inspiration; you have taught me more than you can ever imagine.

Mrs Christine Delpont, founder and CEO of the Greater Rustenburg Community Foundation (GRCF), thank you for your guidance. I was very fortunate to work with you as your keen eye, sound judgement, vast knowledge and experience in the rural communities, your patience and humour contributed hugely to the contents of this thesis. Much of the content of this thesis is in fact a reflection of your knowledge and experience, and without you this thesis would not have been possible.

Mrs Bonolo Mmokele of the GRCF, your patience and assistance with crucial translations during workshops, focus group and individual interviews, played

such an important role in the development of the community asset mapping programme. For this I thank you sincerely. I look forward to our fieldtrips and the continuation of our work in rural communities.

Ms Alma Delport, Unisa student and volunteer at the GRFCF, thank you for your tenacity and your insightful sessions during the workshops. You are indeed an inspiration to your fellow South Africans.

Mr Harry Botha, who was tasked with capturing the CAMP application, monitoring and evaluation on video clips, thank you for your patience, professionalism, innovation and creativity that went into the number of YouTube clips in the journey to develop CAMP.

Ms Hellene Steenkamp, who has walked this journey with me from the very beginning, thank you for your exceptional organisational skills. No request was too demanding or too trivial for your timely attention. Without you, the journey would not have been as pleasant, but more importantly, your insightful knowledge of the work undertaken in the rural communities was a constant inspiration to me.

Prof Jimmy Hendrick, thank you for your advice, encouragement and support during the period of this research. Your friendship and loyalty for the last eight years has supported me through many difficult times and for this I am extremely grateful.

Thank you, *Dr Alet Harmse*, not only as my supervisor but also as a colleague. Thank you for your years of support and patience, I am eternally grateful.

Prof Joan Fairhurst, thank you for your mentoring over the last decade. Your loyalty, support and encouragement over the last decade have contributed hugely to my development as a Geographer.

My journey in the discipline of Geography started by default, as I never went to University to become a Geographer. With many misgivings, I attended my first Geography class, and this was to be an experience that would change the direction in my life. *Prof PS Hattingh's* interpretation of Haggetts' "*footsteps in the sand*" captivated me, and within five minutes of his lecture, Geography became a way of life for me. Thank you, Prof Hattingh, for your wealth of knowledge, insight and wisdom, all of which continue to inform my thinking and actions as a Geographer after more than two decades.

Over the years, I have met many people from whom I have learnt many lessons. However, I wish thank and acknowledge the following academics for their respective contributions in making me a better academic: *Dr Jan Olivier, Prof Piet Jooste, Prof Elri Liebenburg, and Prof Mike de Jongh.*

I am deeply indebted to the University of South Africa (Unisa) and in particular the Department of Geography, where I have worked for the last 26 years. To all my colleagues in the Department, College and Unisa, thank you for your support and encouragement to pursue my passion for Geography and the opportunity to complete this qualification. In particular, I would like express my deep sense of gratitude to *Mr Leon Roets, Mrs Marie Nothling, Ms Willena Reinach, Ms Izelle Jakobs, Ms Laura Steyn, Ms Anja du Plessis, Mrs Retha Coetzee, Mrs Anna de Jager, Mr Chris Vlok and Mr Rudi Pretorius* and for your unreserved support and encouragement.

Finally, I owe my parents, *Mrs Delene and Mr Johnny Nicolau*; my sister, *Ms Vanessa Nicolau* and my husband, *Mr Chris Swanepoel*, much gratitude, as without their decades of on-going support and encouragement, I would not have undertaken this journey to completion.

Melanie Nicolau

Abstract

A community asset mapping programme for roots-driven sustainable socio-economic change in rural South Africa

Apartheid left a legacy that is spatially skewed. This is reflected in the present patterns of poverty and inequality in South Africa. While a number of global and national initiatives are in place to reduce the levels of poverty and inequality in rural South Africa, this research aimed at the development of a tool that would be able to assist communities themselves in reducing their own levels of poverty and inequality. This research was undertaken in collaboration with the Greater Rustenburg Community Foundation and a variety of rural communities in South Africa. The Community Asset Mapping Programme (CAMP) has as its purpose the achievement of sustainable and responsible high impact social change within communities. CAMP enables community members to map their own assets and empowers them to use these assets sustainably to create a better life for themselves. Communities are empowered to identify their own entrepreneurship and livelihood strategies and opportunities in an attempt to generate their own wealth. Unlike many existing asset mapping applications, CAMP advocates that the success of any roots-driven change depends on the inclusion of processes that will provide a cognitive shift in terms of a variety of processes such as wishes, fears, trust, self-worth, and power mapping, all providing different components that ensure a process of sustainable change within communities. The research presents an argument that if communities are to achieve effective roots-driven change they would require partnerships with Non Profit Organisations, government, civil society, business, and institutes of higher learning, who are willing to stand aside and allow communities to decide their own priorities in their journey to achieve their own wealth, but who would be willing to provide funding, mentorship, skills, and a continuous monitoring process over the medium to long term.

Key Terms:

Community Asset Mapping Programme; post development theory; Participatory Rural Appraisal; CAMP; Poverty; Appreciative Inquiry; Capacity Inventory; Transect Walk; Power Mapping; Roots-driven Rural Change.

Chapter One: Placing poverty and inequality in South Africa into the global context

Probably the most significant demographic phenomenon of the last fifty years is the rapidly increasing population in the world. The global population doubled between the period 1967 and 2012. Further it is estimated that the world's population had reached six billion people in 1999. By 2012, the estimated world population was 7.1 billion accounting for an increase in 1.1 billion people in just 13 years. The overall population growth in the world is now at 1.2% (compared to 2.1% in 1967), and is considered to be reaching a demographically stable level (Population Reference Bureau, 2012). The challenge however is that population growth is not spatially equal and this is problematic in terms of the distribution of resources globally.

Although the overall growth of the world population has slowed, the uneven pace of population growth is significant demographically. The largest percentage of population increase is currently taking place in the Global South, while in Global North populations are more static. These demographic contrasts present a number of spatial challenges. More importantly, governments in the Global South need to provide services, education and future employment for a large percentage of young people. In contrast to this is the demographic composition (aged populations) of the populations in the Global North, where governments need to provide increasingly for an aging population. Despite the type of population change in individual countries, it is clear that the increasing (albeit unequal) world population is one of the most crucial challenges facing the governments of the world today in terms of the provision of basic social services, infrastructure and public services, and employment. The failure to provide for populations in the various countries has led to widespread global poverty and inequality.

1.1 Global inequality and poverty

The word, 'poverty' raises a number of different meanings for different people, and thus general consensus on a single definition for poverty is elusive amongst practitioners and academics. Although the word 'poverty' is a contested concept, the conceptualisation, definition and measurement of poverty in a society is a mirror-image of the ideals of a society (Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute, 2007), and thus any definition of the word should be appropriate to the society in which a particular definition is applied. In public discourses, 'inequality' and 'poverty' are normally linked as an expression of the same problem. In reality however, they are very different and these differences have very important consequences for public policy.

1.1.1 Understanding inequality

Inequality is characterized by unequal opportunities and compensation for different social, economic and political positions within a society. It generally encompasses structured and chronic patterns of the unequal distribution of goods, wealth, opportunities, rewards, and punishments (Haddad & Ravi, 1990).

There are two main ways to define inequality: firstly, inequality of conditions, and secondly, inequality of opportunities. Inequality of conditions refers to the unequal distribution of income, wealth and material goods. Housing, for example, is an inequality of conditions with the homeless and those living in informal housing and those in houses built by the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) in South Africa are at the bottom of the hierarchy while those living in multi-million Rand mansions at the top. Inequality of opportunities refers to the unequal distribution of 'life chances' between individuals. This is reflected in factors such as level of education, health status, and treatment by the criminal justice system.

Globally the measurement of inequality is hugely contested amongst academics and practitioners. The generally accepted measure of inequality is the Gini coefficient. Although this measure has been used for decades, its suitability to actually measure inequality has been questioned since the early seventies (Atkinson, 1970; Allison, 1978) and there is still much debate on the acceptability of the measure. Measurement of income inequality using the Gini coefficient can vary between '0' and '1'. The closer a country's measurement is to '1' the more economically unequal the society. Alternatively, the closer a country's measurement is to '0', the more economically equal the society. The coefficient also measures the distribution of the national income. In an equal society 10% of the population will receive 10% of the income; 40% of the population will receive 40% of the country's income (Finn, *et al.*, 2009). In an unequal society, the country's income is not equitably distributed, for example, such a society would have a population where 10% of the society receives 30% of the income. In this type of society the distribution of income is unequal and thus the Gini coefficient will be higher. Within a Gini classification the highest possible score would be 1 (i.e., 1% of the population received 100% of the income), the lowest possible score would be 0 (Bhorat, *et al.*, 2003).

The Gini coefficient is used globally to determine economic inequality and as such cross country comparisons are available and the World Bank updates the data annually (World Bank, 2013).

1.1.2 Understanding poverty

Although the economic factor is one of many facets that give expression to poverty, this factor can give rise to or even assist in the eradication of poverty (Heintz & Jardine, 1998). The type of economy that a society embraces (and the subsequent) poverty in a country should be fundamental to any strategies to eradicate poverty. While economics is only one facet of poverty in society, poverty cannot be eradicated without addressing the

dynamics of a modern economy. A global understanding of modern day economies includes unemployment, ownership, wages, prices, and government policies.

Poverty has various indicators that include the lack of income and productive resources that are sufficient to ensure sustainable livelihoods, hunger and malnourishment, poor health, limited or lack of access to education and other basic services, increased disease and mortality from illness, homelessness and inadequate housing, unsafe environments, and social discrimination and exclusion. Poverty can also be characterised by the lack of participation in decision-making in civil, social and cultural life (United Nations, 1995).

To fully understand the relationship between poverty and economics one has to broaden the scope of the word 'economics'. Before one looks at a definition of poverty, perhaps one should look at the generally accepted causes of poverty. Hulme, *et al.* (2001) and Mbuli (2008) classify poverty into four broad categories namely economic, social, political and environmental, all with different macro- and micro-level causes (Table 1.1).

Poverty is often narrowly defined and measured in terms of a broad threshold of income or resources which separates the poor from the non-poor. This implies a certain level of material deprivation, below which an individual suffers physically, emotionally and socially (Bhorat *et al.*, 2003). Poverty was originally measured in monetary terms, in particular income, and its conceptualisation has extended to include the ability of an individuals and a household to effectively meet their basic needs and to engage with society on an equal footing.

Table 1.1: Multiple classifications of the causes of poverty(adapted from Hulme, *et al.*, 2001; Mbuli, 2008)

<p><i>Economic</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low productivity on the micro- and macro-level • Negative consequences of globalisation • Lack of research and development • Technological backwardness • Adverse terms of trade • Micro economic shocks such as unemployment and under-employment • Macro-economic shocks such as shrinking economic growth and/or inflation • Poor economic skills on the micro- and macro-level 	<p><i>Social</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender, age, ethnic, race or disability • High fertility and demographic dependency ratios • Poor health • HIV/AIDS • Inequality • Lack of trust or social capital • Absence of role models
<p><i>Political</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Poor political governance • Poor macroeconomic governance, such as poor resource management • Insecurity • Violent conflict • Domination by regional/global super powers • Globalisation 	<p><i>Environmental</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low quality of natural resources • Environmental degradation • Disasters such as flood, droughts • Remoteness and lack of access • Propensity for disease (for example, a malaria area)

In addition to the different understandings of poverty, there is a globally accepted principle called the 'poverty line' (Govender, *et al.*, 2006). The poverty line is the minimum level of income that is considered to be adequate in any given country. In practice, like the definition of poverty, a common understanding of the poverty line is higher in the Global North than is the case for the Global South. The poverty line that is considered to be internationally acceptable is an income of US\$1 per person per day (Govender, *et al.*, 2006).

The broad threshold of income and resources can be understood in different ways (Heintz & Jardine, 1998); firstly in terms of a fixed point of reference (i.e. absolute poverty), or secondly, as measured against the ability of others to command resources, specifically relative poverty (Heintz & Jardine, 1998). A more recent understanding of poverty takes into account an individual's opinion as to what constitutes poverty, i.e. subjective poverty (Oosthuizen, 2006). For the purpose of this research, the first two understandings need to be defined in more detail.

a. Absolute poverty

Absolute poverty relates to the basic and fixed levels of economic resources that will prevent physical and social suffering due to a material deficit. An individual must have access to enough food, clean water, shelter, clothing, basic educational, and health services. The resources required in a particular country to provide for these basic needs would be considered to be the threshold for absolute poverty. Should income fall below this level, the person will be considered to be poor in absolute terms. When poverty is viewed in absolute terms, then steady increases in living standards across the whole population will be sufficient to eventually eliminate poverty in the particular country. The rate at which poverty can be eliminated would be determined by the rate at which the income of individuals living in poverty is increased, and thus often includes social security provisions (Govender, *et*

al., 2006). When poverty is viewed in absolute terms the general acceptance is that steady levels of economic growth will eventually eradicate poverty.

b. Relative poverty

Relative poverty provides a more textured and complex engagement with the issue of economic deficiency in a society. Relative poverty identifies poor households as those whose economic resources (income) fall below the average level of income in an economy. Relative poverty captures the economic distance and injustices in a society (Heintz & Jardine, 1998). Relative poverty include issues such as social divisions and economic discrepancies between different groups. As a country's norms change with respect to basic needs, the definition of relative poverty will change as the economy develops. Unlike absolute poverty, rising standards of living will not be sufficient to eliminate relative poverty. Should increases in resources available to the wealthy increase at a faster rate than the resources of the poor, these increases can lead to social disintegration, growing violence, segmentation, emotional suffering, and ethnic and racial conflict. The application of relative poverty is very closely linked to that of inequality (refer to section 1.1.1).

c. Measurements of poverty

Poverty is multi-dimensional, and thus a single dimensional measure of poverty (i.e., income) is not generally acceptable. The measurements of poverty in recent years have some measure of multi-dimensionality. According to Ravallion (2011) the only truly one-dimensional index of poverty was the rice-based measure once found in some countries in Asia, but is no longer used. The main measures of poverty now in place include a multiple measure of consumption or income with many other components, such as non-market goods relevant to welfare, for example access to public services related to education and health (Alkire & Foster, 2007).

A key step in implementing any multi-dimensional measure is to select a set of dimensions. Most academics agree that 'wealth', 'health' and 'education' should be included in a multi-dimensional measure of poverty. However most academics do not have consensus on whether the three dimensions should have the same weight when calculating the measure. This measure of poverty replicates the United Nations Development Programme, Human Development Index (HDI). In term of the HDI, countries are measured numerically between '1' and '0'. Country's with an HDI below 0.5 is considered to have a low level of human development, a score of 0.5 to 0.79 are considered to have a medium level of development and those with values of 0.8 and above are nations considered to have a high level of human development.

The Multi-dimensional Poverty Index (MPI) developed by the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) is now globally used to measure poverty. Alkire and Santos (2010) of the OPHI first developed an MPI that was used in the Human Development Report of 2010 (United Nations, 2010). The MPI was then refined and is now referred to as the Alkire-Santos MPI (Alkire, *et al.*, 2011). This measurement of poverty is used in the United Nations Human Development Reports (United Nations, 2010; United Nations, 2013a).

The Alkire-Santos MPI (Alkire & Santos, 2010) has three dimensions: health, education, and living standards. This is similar to the Human Development Index (HDI); the difference is that the HDI uses aggregate country-level data, while the Alkire-Santos MPI uses household-level data which is then aggregated to the country level. In the Alkire-Santos MPI each of the three dimensions is measured using ten indicators (Table 1.2), with specific descriptions of deprivations.

Table 1.2: The three dimensions and ten indicators of the Alkire-Santos Multidimensional Poverty Index
(Alkire & Santos, 2010)

<i>Dimensions of poverty</i>	<i>Weighting of indicators</i>	<i>Indicators of poverty</i>	<i>Short description of deprivation</i>
Education	Each indicator is weighted at 1/6	Years of schooling	If no household member has completed five years of schooling
		School attendance	If any school-going child is not attending school in years 1 to 8
Health	Each indicator is weighted at 1/6	Child mortality	If any child has died in the family
		Nutrition	If any adult or child for whom there is nutritional information is malnourished
Living standards	Each indicator is weighted at 1/18	Electricity	If the household has no electricity
		Drinking water	If the household lacks access to clean drinking water, and clean water is more than 30 minutes' walk from home as a roundtrip
		Sanitation	If a household does not have adequate sanitation or their toilet is shared by other households
		Flooring	If the household has a dirt, sand or dung floor
		Cooking fuel	If the household cooks with wood, charcoal or dung
		Assets	If the household does not have more than one of: radio, TV, telephone, bike, motorbike, refrigerator, car or tractor
A person is identified as multi-dimensionally poor if he/she is deprived in one third or more of the three dimensions			

The MPI looks at poverty through a 'high resolution lenses' by directly measuring the nature and magnitude of overlapping deprivations at the household level. MPI assesses multidimensional poverty in over a hundred different countries. This cross country measure is the first of its kind as it not only measures income poverty but also:

- measures deprivations directly
- identifies poor people by showing the inter-connections between deprivations
- reveals spatial patterns within a country by geographical area or population group per indicator
- track changes over time.

Used in over hundred countries the MPI reveals a pattern of poverty that is different to spatial distribution of income poverty, as it measures deprivation directly. The MPI goes beyond any poverty measures by revealing combinations of factors that feed into an individual's poverty. To empower people to move out of poverty, it is important to look at the key components of poverty holistically, as most of which are linked to the Millennium Development Goals (discussed in section 1.1.4). A tool such as the MPI can enable policy-makers to target resources and design policies to address poverty more efficiently with more effective use of the spatial distribution of resources and people.

1.1.3 The relationship between poverty and inequality

Although many academics indicate that poverty and inequality should be treated as two very different factors in the writing of policy, there are very distinct relationships between the two (Bhorat, *et al.*, 2003; Govender, *et al.*, 2006; Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute, 2007). These include:

- A society with a low level of poverty may also be a society with a high level of inequality
- A relatively equal society may also have a high level of poverty
- A society that experiences economic transition may experience rising levels of inequality
- The process of transforming the ownership and composition of the economy to reflect a country's demographics will inevitably entail an improvement of the Gini coefficient of less inequality
- Poverty and inequality will respond differently to economic growth. High growth might decrease poverty but intensify inequality.

Any strategy that aims to address matters of poverty should take into consideration the relationship between poverty and inequality.

1.1.4 Global strategies and comparisons related to poverty and inequality

At the United Nations Millennium Summit in 2000, eight international development goals were officially established with the aim to free humanity from extreme poverty, inequality, hunger, illiteracy and disease (United Nations, 2011). A total of 193 member states of the United Nations and 23 international organizations agreed to work towards achieving these goals by 2015. The development goals, referred to as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), are:

- Goal 1: Eradicating extreme poverty and hunger
- Goal 2: Achieving universal primary education
- Goal 3: Promoting gender equality and empowering women
- Goal 4: Reducing child mortality rates
- Goal 5: Improving maternal health

- Goal 6: Combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
- Goal 7: Ensuring environmental sustainability
- Goal 8: Developing a global partnership for development.

The MDGs have inspired development efforts and have helped to set global and national priorities, and focus on subsequent actions to achieve the goals. By the end of 2010, some successes in the achievement of the MDGs were as a result of continued economic growth of countries in the Global South. In addition, increased funding from a variety of sources translated into the expansion of programmes to deliver services and resources to those most in need. Some of the highlights of the achievements in the first decade of the application of the MDGs include (United Nations, 2011):

- Poverty declined consistently in many countries and regions. Despite the economic downturn in 2008/2009, together with the food and energy crisis, it is expected that the global poverty rate will drop to below the targeted rate of 23% by 2015. This phenomenon is however probably due to the rapid economic growth in Eastern Asia and China.
- Some of the poorest countries have made major progress in terms of education, with the countries in sub-Saharan Africa showing a marked increase of around 18% in the net enrolment ratios for primary school education.
- Significant reduction in child mortality rates under the age of five years has been reported. This is largely due to extensive immunisation programmes and the improvement of basic health services.
- Deaths due to malaria have declined significantly as a result of increased funding and control efforts to eradicate the malaria carrying mosquito.

- New HIV/AIDS infections are declining steadily, with the highest decline rate occurring in sub-Saharan Africa. Due to increased funding, more people have access to anti-retroviral therapy and thus there has been a significant reduction in the number of AIDs-related deaths.
- Successful treatment of tuberculosis due to more effective protocols for the treatment of the disease has resulted in a one-third reduction of tuberculosis-related deaths in the last decade.
- The number of people who had access to clean drinking water in sub-Saharan Africa has doubled in the last decade.

Despite real progress over the first decade of the implementation of the MDGs, all countries need to intensify their efforts if they want to reach the MDGs by 2015. In most aspects and despite the overall successes as described above, there are a number of matters that still need urgent attention in order to reach the most vulnerable, the poorest of the poor, those who are disadvantaged, and those who live in rural areas (United Nations, 2011):

- The children of the poorest rural families have made the slowest progress in terms of nutrition. Approximately 25% of the children living in the Global South are still underweight. A shortage of good quality food and poor feeding schemes do not contribute to an improvement in the weight of children particularly in rural areas.
- The full and productive employment of women remains a problem, and this was aggravated by significant job losses experienced globally in 2008/2009.
- Children in the poorest of households, those living in rural areas and girls in the Global South are most likely not able to attend primary school.

- The advances in sanitation in the urban areas of the Global South, do not reach the poor the rural areas.
- The urban poor have grown considerably during the past decade. Efforts will have to be re-doubled to improve the quality of lives of the urban poor in the Global South.
- Progress with the provision of safe drinking water uneven, and is focussed on the urban areas, and the rural areas lag behind.

As the year 2015 (the date that global targets of the MDGs must be met) draws closer, the signatory countries have re-affirmed their commitment to the MDGs, and many have called for more intensified and collective actions to ensure that these goals are achieved.

The United Nations found in its most recent study (2013) that a total of 1.6 billion people lived in 'multi-dimensional' poverty. The report also noted that 9.5% of the bottom billion poor people lived in developed, upper middle-income countries. The poorest one billion live in 100 countries. Most of the bottom billion lives in South Asia, with India home to 40%, followed by sub-Saharan Africa with 33% (United Nations, 2013a).

The United Nations Human Development Report highlighted that the number of poverty reduction drives in the Global South had exceeded all expectations (United Nations, 2013a). The Report indicates that in the last decade all countries have accelerated their achievements in education, health and income, as measured by the Human Development Index (HDI), to the extent that no country presented data in 2012 that was lower than the data for the same country in 2000. The 2013 report cites four specific areas of focus for sustaining a development momentum that will relieve poverty and reduce inequality:

- Enhancing equity, including gender dimensions
- Enabling greater voice and the participation of citizens
- Confronting environmental pressures
- Managing democratic change.

While many of the goals can be achieved by economic growth, there is a very definite link between the MDGs, poverty, and levels of inequality in the world. Information gathered to track progress in the MDGs feed into the MPI measurement of poverty, and thus provides sufficient information to guide sustainable change that must be inclusive and equitable, and will enable growth that will benefit not only countries and communities but more importantly households, in terms of their growth and their share of economic opportunities.

1.2 An overview of the extent and spatial distribution of poverty and inequality in South Africa

Democratic South Africa has attempted to reduce the levels of poverty since 1994. The challenges inherited from apartheid were (and still are) massive. This ranges from an anti-poor economic structure to a deliberate denial of access to basic services and infrastructure, assets, education and training, and settlement patterns that placed the poor far from economic opportunity and discouraged the establishment of opportunities in poor areas (Armstrong, *et al.*, 2009). Given South Africa's social, economic, and political history any trends in terms of poverty and inequality should be evaluated within the context of its past (von Broembsen, 2010).

1.2.1 An evaluation of South Africa in terms of global measures and goals related to poverty and inequality

The Human Development Index (HDI) of the United Nations for South Africa has increased steadily by 0.0599% during the period 1980 (HDI of 0.570) to 2012 (HDI of 0.629) (United Nations 2013a). The methodology for calculating the HDI changed in 2010 (section 1.1.2.c). It would therefore be misleading to directly compare values and rankings of the post-2010 period with the HDI values prior to 2010. In 2010, the HDI value for South Africa was 0,597 and in 2012, this index increased to 0.629. These values are significant as they place South Africa in the category of 'medium developed' countries, with a ranking of 121 out of 187 countries in the world.

The HDI for South Africa has gradually improved and is in line with global and regional trends. During the last two evaluations, South Africa's HDI was considered to be relatively high when compared with other countries within the broader sub-Saharan Region. South Africa performs well in terms of its HDI when compared to the rest of the Region in terms of the three dimensions used in the Multi-dimensional Poverty Index (MPI) (refer to Table 1.2).

The most recent survey data available for estimating MPI figures for South Africa were collected in 2008 (United Nations, 2013b). In South Africa, 13.4% of the population lived in multi-dimensional poverty (the MPI 'head count') while an additional 22.2% were vulnerable to multiple deprivations. The intensity of deprivation (i.e., the average percentage of deprivation experienced by people living in multi-dimensional poverty), in South Africa was 42.3%. The country's MPI value, which is the share of the population that can be considered to be multi-dimensionally poor, adjusted by the intensity of the deprivations, was 0.057 in 2008.

Table 1.3 compares income poverty, measured by the percentage of the population living below US\$1.25 per day, and multi-dimensional deprivations in South Africa. Information in the Table shows that income poverty only tells part of the whole story. The multi-dimensional poverty headcount is 0.4 percentage points lower than income poverty. This implies that individuals living below the income poverty line may have access to non-income resources (United Nations, 2013b). Table 1.3 also presents the percentage of the South African population that live in severe poverty (deprivation score of 50% or more) and who are vulnerable to poverty (deprivation score of between 20% and 30%). The contributions of deprivations in each dimension to overall poverty complete the comprehensive picture of the number of people living in poverty in South Africa (United Nations, 2013b). The statistics for Namibia and Congo are also shown in the table for comparison purposes. Related to the HDI and MDI which provide valuable information, the application of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) provides another global comparison of the levels of poverty and inequality in South Africa.

While reviewing the MDGs within the context of the various countries in the Global South it is important to take into consideration that each country has unique characteristics and as such may present a varied picture within and between the different countries. In one decade, South Africa had managed to achieve some of the MDGs well in advance of the 2015 deadline, while there are some MDGs that will not be reached by 2015. In the *Foreword* of the Millennium Development Goals Country Report of 2010 (Statistics South Africa, 2010:3), Manual indicates that “between these two extremes are goals where achievements are probable or possible”.

South Africa has a sophisticated infrastructure with a well-developed private sector and a stable macro-economy but at the same time huge levels of inequality in terms of access to good quality education and health care (both

important components of HDI and MPI, see section 1.1.4). This explains in some way, why South Africa will not be able to achieve some of the MDGs by 2015. South Africa, as a middle income country, is less dependent on foreign aid, and improvements in the MDGs will depend on how well government and other stakeholders will mobilise domestic resources to achieve the targets.

1.2.2 The spatial distribution of the poor in South Africa

The overall description of poverty and inequality in South Africa can be misleading as there are strong regional dimensions and differences to the phenomenon. The spatial distribution of poverty across the nine provinces, also indicate a spatial pattern of uneven distribution (Table 1.4).

All the provinces fall into the category of medium-level development. However the actual number of people living in poverty varies considerably between provinces. With the exception of the Western Cape and Gauteng, more than a third of the population in the other provinces live in poverty. Trends in the poverty levels from 1993 to 2013 indicate that the poverty levels of South Africans are not improving, but in fact are getting worse. The Eastern Cape, North-West and Limpopo are three provinces that have more of their population living in poverty are also the three provinces that according to the latest census (Statistics South Africa, 2012) account for 59% of the country's population.

While the provincial distribution of people living in poverty presents an unequal distribution, the urban/rural divide within the Provinces presents an additional spatial pattern of the South African poor. The most common finding indicates that the majority of people living in the rural areas are poor, while the majority of the poor live in rural areas.

Table 1.3: The most recent MPI figures for South Africa, Namibia and Congo

(United Nations, 2013b)

	Survey year	MPI	Head-count (%)	Intensity of deprivation (%)	Population			Contribution to overall poverty of deprivations in		
					Vulnerable to poverty (%)	In severe poverty (%)	Below income poverty line (%)	Health	Education	Living Standards
South Africa	2008	0.057	13.4	42.3	22.2	2.4	13.8	50.5	7.5	42
Namibia	2006/7	0.187	39.6	47.2	23.6	14.7	31.9	31	15.1	53.9
Congo	2009	0.208	40.6	51.2	17.7	22.9	54.1	45.6	10.4	44

Table 1.4: Human Development Index for South African Provinces: 1993 to 2013

(Source: Mbuli, 2008; and own calculations from Statistics South Africa, 2012)

Region	HDI: 1993	People living in poverty (1993) %	HDI 2013	People living in poverty (2013) %
Western Cape	0.7876	21.24	0.7708	22.92
Gauteng	0.8096	19.04	0.7351	26.49
Northern Cape	0.7182	28.14	0.6856	31.44
Free State	0.7347	26.53	0.6717	32.83
Mpumalanga	0.7196	28.04	0.6491	35.09
KwaZulu-Natal	0.7108	28.92	0.6305	36.95
Eastern Cape	0.6638	33.62	0.6175	38.50
North West	0.6764	32.36	0.6062	39.38
Limpopo	0.6365	36.35	0.5943	40.57

Interpretation of the Index: Low level of HDI: 0-0.5, Medium Level of HDI: 0.5-0.79; High Level of HDI: 0.80 - 1

Recent estimates indicate that around 70% of the people who live in the rural areas are considered to be poor, while only 30% of the people who live in the urban areas are considered to be poor. Mbuli (2008) indicates that during the 2008 household survey in South Africa, less than 50% of the total population lived in rural areas, while 70% of all poor people in South Africa lived in a rural area.

Apart from the regional differences in poverty distribution, the 2011 census (Statistics South Africa, 2012) indicates that South Africa continues to show persistent correlations between poverty and a number of other factors such as:

- Racial bias towards poverty mostly but not restricted to the Black population
- Age bias towards the poverty of youths especially in terms of low formal employment levels, and a growing number of child headed households
- Gender bias towards a larger number of the female population living in poverty
- Poor and low levels of education
- Low levels of employment and unemployment
- Large household size and due to the high dependency ratios of a youthful population
- Inadequate access to basic services.

In order for the levels of poverty to be reduced in South Africa, consideration of all regional differences and factors that cause poverty should be addressed in all development strategies and policies implemented in South Africa.

1.2.3 Policies related to rural development in South Africa since 1994

South Africa's rural development programmes in the post-1994 period emanated through five policies/programmes:

- Reconstruction and Development Programme (1994 - 1996)
- Rural Development Framework (1997)
- Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme (ISRDP) in 2001
- The War on Poverty (2008)
- Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP) in 2009.

The War on Poverty (WoP) was a programme that aimed to coordinate anti-poverty programmes across all spheres of government, in an attempt to maximise impact and avoid wastage and duplication. Initially this project appeared to be a major national initiative; however the WoP plan was never revealed (Desai, *et al.*, 2011). On the other hand the challenges of many of the rural development programmes, especially the ISRDP and the CRDP) was that the rural areas have a large percentage of underutilised natural resources, while at the same time the use of natural resources in rural areas was not sustainable. Poor (and in many cases lack of) access to socio-economic infrastructure and services, public services and government services was also cited as major challenges in rural areas. Another major challenge for the successful implementation of the policies was the lack of access to water for household and agricultural development. The consistent low levels of literacy, generally low skills levels and the persistent migratory labour practise in the country also added to the challenges for the policies related to rural development in South Africa (DBSA, 2010).

The overall goal of all of these programmes was to develop social cohesion and development that created vibrant, equitable and sustainable rural communities. While the challenges on the local front impacted on rural

development, internationally South Africa had committed to the eight MDGs and embraced them into a national set of ten principles, launched in 2006 as the Accelerated and shared growth initiative of South Africa (AsgiSA). The government then formulated the Medium Term Strategic Framework (2009 – 2014) as statement of the government's intent with five over-arching objectives:

- Half poverty and unemployment by 2014
- Ensure a more equitable distribution of the benefits of economic growth and reduce inequality
- Improve the nation's health profile and skills base, and ensure universal access to basic services
- Build a nation free of all forms of racism, sexism, tribalism and xenophobia
- Improve the safety of citizens by reducing the incidence of crime and corruption.

In 2012, the National Planning Commission launched the National Development Plan: 2030. This Plan aims to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality by 2030, expressed in actual values (National Planning Commission, 2011; National Planning Commission, 2012):

- Eliminate income poverty by reducing the proportion of households with a monthly income below R419 per person (2009 Rand equivalent) from 39% to zero
- Reduce inequality – by reducing the Gini coefficient from 0.70 to 0.60.

The National Development Plan (NDP) developed key targets (Table 1.5) that with the help of communities, civil society, state and business will assist in the elimination of poverty and the reduction of inequality.

Table 1.5: Key targets of the National Development Plan: 2030
(National Planning Commission, 2011; National Planning Commission, 2012)

<i>Key target</i>	<i>Brief description of target/need</i>	<i>Key target</i>	<i>Brief description of target/need</i>
Economy and employment	Achieving employment, decent work and sustainable livelihoods is the only way to improve living standards and ensure a dignified existence for all South Africans. Active steps to broaden employment opportunities will make a significant impact on the level of inequality and the efficiency of the economy.	Transition to a low-carbon economy	South Africa has taken a number of steps to formulate and implement measures to adapt to and mitigate climate change. The country has a commitment to reduce its carbon emissions by 34% in 2020 and 42% in 2025. This commitment will present many challenges for the economy that relies heavily on fossil fuels.
Economic infrastructure	Sustainable and inclusive growth is possible if South Africans invest in a strong network of economic infrastructure designed to support the country's medium- and long-term objectives. Targeted development of transport, energy, water resources, and information and communication technology (ICT) networks is also crucial.	South Africa in the region and the world	Globalisation in the last three decades has increasingly created an interconnected network. Global trade in goods and services has expanded, knowledge is more widely disseminated and technology has increased. Activities that were previously considered to be domestic or national are now functionally integrated.
Integrated and inclusive rural economies	Since 1994, South Africa has had to deal with a major challenge in the form of rural development. Marginalisation of the poor in the rural areas remains a major problem in the country, and this needs to change to ensure that rural populations have access to land, water, education, skills, infrastructure and effective government services. Achievement of this target will go a long way in the reduction of inequality in South Africa.	Human settlement	Apartheid relegated the majority of South Africans to places far away for work, where services could not be sustained and where it was difficult to access the benefits of society and the economy. Although much has been done since 1994, the breaking down of apartheid geography through land reform; compact cities; decent public transport; the provision of services; the development of industries; the use of local resources to meet local needs remains a major problem in contributing to poverty and inequality in the country.
Building safer communities	Safety is a core human right. It is fundamental to human development and quality of life. When communities do not feel safe and live in fear, the country's economic development and well-being is affected, hindering the true potential of communities.	Social protection	South Africa has the 27 th largest economy in the world, with abundant resources (natural wealth and abundance of labour), yet the level of human development does not reflect this wealth. Too few people have work, and the levels of poverty and inequality remain high.
Health care for all	A number of factors are relevant for health care, including statistics on disease-specific morbidity and mortality; health systems and social and environmental determinants of health.	Education, training and innovation	Education, training and innovation are central to the long-term development of South Africa.

1.3 Community driven change: the key to facilitate inclusive and sustainable poverty relief and inequality reduction in South Africa

The apartheid era took an especially heavy toll on South African communities, biodiversity, and ecosystems. Widespread poverty and social dislocation; forced removals, overcrowding of the vast majority of the population into the 'homelands', prejudiced urban policies that was characterised by one-sided resources flows, inequitable access to environmental services, biased land use practises, the migratory labour system, and the protectionist approach to nature conservation produced widespread impoverishment and social displacement and contributed significantly to environmental degradation (Leibrandt, *et al.*, 2010).

In 1994 environmental issues moved into the socio-political arena and issues such as human rights, access to natural resources, social justice, social equity, and environmental sustainability. During the first decade of freedom, the Government focused on prioritising people's needs while safeguarding the countries natural assets. The range of legislation, policy and institutional developments that have occurred in South Africa since 1994, has served to bring about a new approach to sustainable change. It is also very clear that despite the number of improvements in the social, economic and political spheres, progress to improve the quality of lives (due to poverty and inequality) of South Africans is slow, and a tool is required to accelerate this process in a sustained manner.

The World Bank advocates community driven development programmes that encourage villages, urban neighbourhoods, and household groups to manage their own development resources (Mansuri & Rao, 2013). It is a bottom-up approach to development that seeks to give communities and local governments more control over planning and investments, and in the

process such communities are empowered to lift themselves out of poverty (World Bank, 2013). Across the world a number of community driven approaches are followed, some successful with others less successful. The principle of community driven change is incorporated into the National Development Plan of South Africa that strives to develop people's capabilities to improve their own lives through education and skills development and self-employment (National Planning Commission, 2011) .

It is the opinion of the researcher that if change is driven from within the community in such a way that it instils ownership, sense of pride, and a sense of belonging within one's own community, then sustainable and inclusive change is a real possibility and many rural South Africans would be able to raise themselves out of poverty and thus improve their own quality of lives. By doing this each citizen has the responsibility to work with government and civil society to ensure that they reduce poverty and inequality in their own communities.

1.4 The aim of the research

The aim of this research is thus to develop a community asset mapping programme (tool) to facilitate roots-driven inclusive and sustainable socio-economic change that will improve the quality of lives of South Africans living in rural areas and narrow the inequality gap and poverty levels and meet the 2030 Vision of the National Development Plan

In order to achieve this aim the following four objectives guided the research to:

- critically evaluate the use of asset-based citizen driven development (ABCD) as a tool for community development and poverty alleviation in rural areas within a South African context

- develop a community asset mapping programme (CAMP) based on the successes and challenges of the ABCD programme and to implement this programme in a number of South African rural communities
- monitor and evaluate a number of communities in which the CAMP was applied for a period of at least 12 months to determine the successes and challenges of the tool
- refine the community asset mapping programme as a tool for roots-driven sustainable socio-economic change in rural areas and to document the tool for use by other researchers, community organisations and rural communities.

1.5 Partnerships involved in the research

The South African Higher Education Act of 1997 set an agenda for the transformation of higher education from segregated, inequitable and highly inefficient institutions towards a single national system that would serve both individual and collective needs (South African Council on Higher Education, 2010). Along with research and tuition, community engagement is cast as one of the pillars in this system.

The South African Council of Higher Education (2010) defines 'community engagement' as initiatives and processes through which the expertise of the higher education institution in the area of teaching and research is applied to address issues relevant to its community. Universities are called upon to demonstrate social responsibility and a commitment to the common good by making available the expertise and infrastructure for a variety of community service programmes that would address specific wants and needs of the South African communities. Within the institutional framework in which all academic institutions need to function, the South African academic is increasingly confronted with the challenge to try and ensure that their

research goes beyond the pursuit of academic excellence and is relevant to the society in which they live.

This research grew out of a partnership which the researcher formed with the Greater Rustenburg Community Foundation (GRCF). This partnership was as a result of a community engagement initiative of the Department of Geography, University of South Africa (Unisa), in which the researcher is employed as a Geographer.

The GRCF is a grassroots grant making community foundation that was established more than a decade ago as one of South Africa's first community foundations. This non-profit organisation (NPO) operates from Rustenburg in the North-West Province of South Africa and focuses on the Bojanala Region of the Province. By the mid-2000, the GRCF had become part of the Building Community Philanthropy Project of the University of Cape Town's Graduate School of Business (Wilkinson-Maposa, *et al.*, 2005) which aimed at exploring the role of philanthropy at community level. These two factors played a significant role in the strategic direction of the GRCF from a vertical to a horizontal grant maker and the search for a new tool to assist them with grant making.

The original purpose of the Unisa collaboration with the GRCF was to provide technical support and skills training to communities that were located in the Bojanala Region of the North-West Province. During the partnership, the idea of developing a community asset mapping programme to facilitate roots-driven inclusive and sustainable socio-economic change that would improve the quality of lives of South Africans living in rural areas became the research focus of the researcher. The researcher has used the partnerships with the GRCF to assist in the development of an empowerment tool for rural communities. The application of asset-based community driven change (ABCD) in Mathopestad, a community in the North-West Province of South

Africa in 2009 by the GRFC provided the foundation of the development of the tool for roots-driven change that forms the focus of this thesis.

1.6 Geographical area of the study

Most of the case studies (Figure 1.1) included in this thesis are located in the North-West Province of South Africa. The North-West Province was proclaimed in 1993 and included some of the geographical areas of the former Orange Free State, Cape and Transvaal Provinces with a large percentage of the Bophuthatswana Bantustan also included. The Province borders Botswana. The North-West has a population of around 3.5 million people, mostly African and mostly Tswana-speaking. It houses about 6.8% of South Africa's population (Statistics South Africa, 2012). Although unemployment figures dropped in the last decade, the Human Development Index of the population in the Province dropped from 0.67 in 1993 to 0.60 in 2013 (Table 1.4). By 2013 it is estimated that 39.38% of the people living in the North-West Province lived in poverty. The most important contributors to the economy of the Province come from primary sector activities such as farming and mining. The Province has a rich reserve of a multitude of minerals of which platinum is the dominant mineral. The farming activities in the Province include large cattle farms and crops grown in the area include wheat, maize, citrus and tobacco.

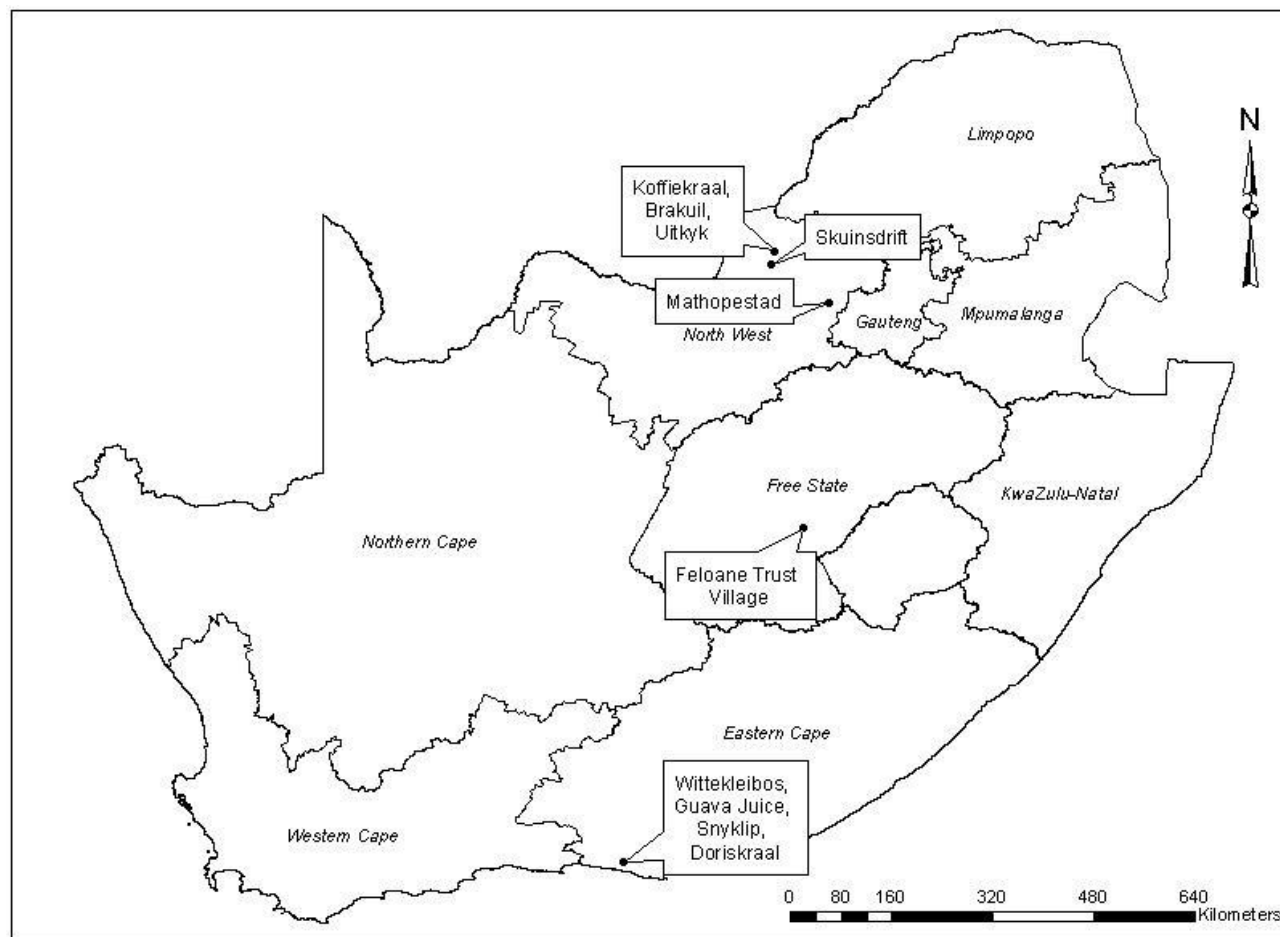


Figure 1.1: South African rural communities selected as case studies for the development of a Community Asset Mapping Programme: 2009-2013

The rural community of Mathopestad is located east of Derby, in the North-West Province, near the city of Rustenburg. The GRCF and the Department of Geography, Unisa, implemented ABCD in the community. This community was selected for research as it was the pilot study area for the development of the community asset mapping tool presented in this thesis. The communities of Skuinsdrift, Koffiekraal, Brakuil and Uitkyk (about 50km from Zeerust) in the Groot Marico, North-West Province, are included in this thesis to illustrate the application of the community asset mapping programme, and the monitoring and evaluation thereof with partnerships between an institution of higher learning, an NPO and a multi-national donor. The latter case study is also in an advanced stage and has presented a number of challenges and successes of the tool to facilitate roots-driven change in rural communities in South Africa.

Feloane Trust Village, located near ThabaNchu in the Free State Province was selected for inclusion in this thesis, as this rural community received training on community asset mapping as a result of an initiative driven of a community member in collaboration with a community development worker. In addition a non-profit organisation was involved in the monitoring and evaluation process after the application of the tool. The Kareedouw case study in the Eastern Cape Province includes four rural communities (Wittekleibos, Guava Juice, Snyklip and Doriskraal), and was selected to test the programme in a Province that had a history of high levels of poverty and inequality.

1.7 Post development theory

The thesis is grounded within post-development theory that arose in the mid-1980s as a result of growing critique against the dominant development theory (with specific underlying political and economic ideology) and the

development projects of the time. During last two decades of the previous century, the development process was socially constructed and reflected a dominant Western (Northern) hegemony (Escobar, 1995). The ideology of development is a social vision that is entrenched in the ideals of "modernisation", that assumes (and imposes) western economic structure and society as the universal model that the whole world should copy and follow. This ideology resulted in a discourse that reflected and encouraged the unequal power relations between the West and the rest of the world. During the last half of the previous century, the western influence and knowledge dominated the conception, approach and evaluation of development for the rest of the world.

Post-development theorists such as Escobar (1995), Esteva (1999), Esteva & Prakash (1998) debate the very meaning of development. These activists challenged the general understanding of development which they contend is rooted in earlier colonial discourse that depicts the North as 'advanced' and 'progressive' and the South as 'backward', 'degenerate' and 'primitive'. Sachs (1998, 2008), contends that the idea of development stands in ruin in the knowledge landscape and the time had come to dismantle the mental structure of this concept, which has resulted in the creation of a hierarchy of developed and underdeveloped nations, where the former were more superior, while the latter were inferior.

The assumption of post-development thought is that the western lifestyle that includes a strong middle-class (a nuclear family, mass consumption, suburban living and the allocation of extensive private space), that was imposed on the global population. This meant the loss of indigenous culture and other psychologically and environmentally rich and rewarding modes of life (Esteva, 1999; Sachs, 2008). The tragedy of this approach is that once very sustainable ways of living are discarded because development changes people's perception of themselves to their detriment. The most important problem that post-development theorists see in development and its

application is the imbalance of influence or domination of the west, and they argue for the application of more pluralism in the ideas about development.

In this thesis the alternative to development as posed by Escobar (1995), is relevant. He argues that local culture and knowledge provide a critical stance toward scientific discourses to development, and the defence and promotion of localised, pluralistic grassroots movements in the development discourse is crucial and critical to sustainable change.

In accordance with the grounding of this thesis within post development theory, the concepts of 'developed countries' and 'developing countries' and 'sustainable development' are avoided. Rather the thesis makes reference to the 'Global North', 'Global South' and 'sustainable change'. In terms of the latter the researcher's application of the term 'sustainable change' implies that changes to economy should be based on harmony and trade-off, wherein the policy focusses on direct democracy and knowledge systems and should be a hybrid of modern and traditional knowledge. The reference to 'sustainable change' interfaces with economics the social and environmental consequences of present day living that does will not compromise the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.

1.8 Methodology used in this research

The aim of the research is to develop a programme (tool) for roots-driven change for rural communities, and as such conventional research, which proceeds with the extraction and then presenting the results in a scholarly product, was not a suitable methodology for this research. In the research for this thesis community members were required to work together to develop a tool that could later be used by other communities with a similar profile to lift them out of poverty.

Participatory Action Research (PAR) was selected as the umbrella methodology to undertake the research. This is considered to be an alternative participatory research methodology and researchers based in the “developing world” have over several decades become dissatisfied with the intellectual and practical limitations of conventional research (Cornwall & Jewkes, 1995; Flowerdew & Martin, 2005). The term “participant” is significant, as this signifies who should instigate, conduct, analyse, present and benefit from the research undertaken. In this approach, the knowledge and experiences of the participants are recognised as valuable, and they are encouraged to voice them (Selener, 1997; Kindon & Latham, 2002). In the research for this thesis the community members were considered to have capacities and the potential to take an active role providing input into the development of the roots-driven tool in particular. The research methodology of this research was to enable community members to identify the research problem in their area and with facilitation, provide their input into designing techniques that would generate data about their own lives that will in turn provide the researcher and the community members with possible “solutions” that will assist with the generation of their own wealth creation. Chapter Two provides a detailed description of the development, application and analysis of Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA).

The validity of the research presented in this thesis must be gauged the extent to which the process of research develops the skills and knowledge of the participants to use the results themselves to tackle problems that they identified.

Primary data used in this thesis included the knowledge and experiences of community members, that researcher and the Greater Rustenburg Community Foundation (GRCF) collected during workshops, focus groups, participant observation and individual interviews. This research also made use of secondary data (in the form of unpublished technical reports) from the GRCF. No pre-tests or pilots studies were done for this research.

1.9 Contribution of this research to the discipline of Geography

Apartheid left a legacy that is spatially skewed, and is reflected in the present spatial patterns of poverty and inequality in South Africa. After almost two decades of democracy, the Geography of apartheid continues to plague our society with spatial patterns of poverty and inequality firmly entrenched nationally. In short little progress has been made to reverse these patterns. Geography as a discipline focuses its endeavours on the interaction between humans and the environment. The relationship between these two variables results in a variety of challenges and opportunities in the world we live in, and can be presented to the academic world in a space-in-time perspective. As a geographer the researcher firmly believes that any application of the discipline of Geography should have as its outcome 'a better life for all'. To give expression to this belief, the creation of a tool that can help reduce the levels of poverty and narrow the gaps of inequality in rural South Africa was the fundamental aim of this research. The outcome of this research will contribute to the discipline of Geography by providing a unique participatory rural appraisal application that can be used by geographers as a cognitive mapping tool that can initiate and trace the transformation of a community by the community itself. The research also provides a tool that can be used by the multi-inter-trans disciplinary field of 'development' to facilitate roots-driven approach to the self-empowerment of the rural communities of South Africa in their journey to wealth creation and a more equal society.

1.10 Chapter outline

The thesis is presented in nine chapters. Chapter One has placed the apartheid legacy of poverty and inequality within the global context. Measures of poverty and inequality are briefly discussed, and a number of

international measures and goals are presented together with the national imperatives to narrow the inequality gap and lower the poverty levels. The chapter also provides a brief problem statement and a statement of the aim of the research and the intended methodology. The chapter concludes with an explanation of the contribution of the thesis to the discipline of Geography.

Chapter Two provides an overview of participatory rural appraisal which is the fundamental methodology used in this thesis as a tool to wealth creation in rural South Africa. Chapter Three will provide an orientation of the Asset-based Community Development (ABCD) tool, which was applied in the case study of Mathopestad. The successes and challenges are highlighted in this chapter and a critical evaluation of the tool within the South African context is presented.

Chapters Four, Five and Six each focus on case studies from three different provinces respectively. Each case study is presented and analysed in terms of successes and challenges, with suggestions on how to refine the tool that is referred to in this thesis as the Community Asset Mapping Programme (CAMP). Chapter Seven presents the monitoring and evaluation of the communities in the Groot Marico (Madikwe) area as an indication of the real successes and challenges of the application of CAMP.

Chapter Eight presents the Community Asset Mapping Programme as developed after its application in select communities in South Africa. The suggestions of various stakeholders on the application of the tool are also included in the chapter. Chapter Nine contains the general conclusion of the research by briefly summarizing the research.

Chapter Two: Participatory rural appraisal: a methodology to facilitate roots-driven change in rural areas

Empowerment is a process whereby communities acquire the capability to understand, analyse and respond effectively to situations affecting their lives and livelihoods. Empowerment has been achieved through a process of organisation of people to voice demands for political and economic rights. However, within the context of poverty alleviation empowerment is an affirmation that all people involved in a change process need to work together on an equal footing if change interventions are to have any real hope of success and sustainability. Participation in the process of change means that all people have the right to participate in their society, to express their needs and work together with others until they meet the needs they set for themselves. People living in poverty often feel that they do not have the ability to get their voices heard. Using participatory approaches can help communities identify and find innovative solutions to their own challenges. Participatory approaches ensure that interventions are targeted, appropriate, more effective and efficient, and have more impact. The use of participatory methods implies sharing and understanding between governments, civil society, development organizations and communities, and as such traditional boundaries can be broken down and communities can feel greater ownership of the change process.

The philosophy underpinning participatory approaches is humanism and is people centred. It is founded on a set of beliefs that communities know the basic challenges of the rural poor and have an inherent power to solve its own challenges. The fundamental underpinning is an understanding that the rural poor can lift themselves and their communities out of poverty. For this reason the fundamental methodology followed in this research is participatory in general and Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) in particular.

This approach developed from Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA), and thus an explanation of RRA as the foundation of a PRA is required.

2.1 The development of Rapid Rural Appraisal

RRA approach was created by a number of professionals within the development field in the late 1970s. Practitioners of this approach feel that it is essential to have a better understanding of the overall situation in a local area with the intent to plan, execute and evaluate development and aid programmes. Chambers (1997) described the reasons for the development of the RRA as follows:

- development practitioners' general dissatisfaction with the anti-poverty biases of rural development
- disillusion of the 'normal' process and the results of questionnaire surveys in rural settings
- a continuous search for a more cost effective (time and finance) method of learning about rural communities.

Mukherjee (1994) defines this approach as any systematic process of investigation to acquire new information in order to draw and validate inferences, hypotheses, observations and conclusions within a limited period of time. The approach was first used to appraise the situation and conditions of farmers and agriculture in Third World countries (Narayanasamy, 2009). The biggest advantage of RRA is that it is a flexible method that can be adjusted as it does not have a prescribed standard set of methods, but rather a set of methods that varies depending on the local conditions, problems and the objectives of the programme.

2.1.1 The main characteristics of Rapid Rural Appraisal

RRA challenges the anti-poverty biases that are fundamental in most approaches to investigating rural settlements. The approach can only be successfully applied within a multi-disciplinary team. The appraisal makes use of techniques and methods that are easy to understand and communicate and in this way makes it easier for local people to explain their situation effectively. The method itself allows for the researcher to learn from local people, by obtaining a variety of different points of view, which are sometimes difficult to obtain from responses to formal surveys. The method provides for a certain degree of inaccuracy. The appraisal is quick to apply is very flexible and easily adapted to individual rural settings.

2.1.2 The major limitations of Rapid Rural Appraisal

The RRA methodology has a number of limitations, the most important of which is that it is extractive in nature. In most instances, data is collected and not shared with the communities themselves. The appraisal is the dominant part of the methodology, and after the appraisal the researchers never make the people the focus of the issue that is investigated. Emphasis is placed on the methods and outputs, and the attitude and behaviours of the outsiders are not considered to be important (Narayanasamy, 2009). There is no focus on the empowerment of people and there is no attempt at encouraging self-help community development initiatives.

2.2 Development of the Participatory Rural Appraisal Methodology

The word 'participatory' was increasingly associated with RRA in the early 1980s. The publication, *Rural Development Review* of Cornell University with the financial support of USAID consistently started using the word participatory in the RRA methodology. The work of Cernea (1985) is

considered to be significant contribution to the transformation of RRA to PRA. At the International RRA Conference (KKU, 1987) that was held at Khon Kaen University in Thailand in 1980, a typology of RRA was developed (Chambers, 1994d). From the original seven types of RRA, four dominant classes of RRA were established by 1988 (McCracken, *et al.*, 1988). These included:

- Participatory RRA
- Exploratory RRA
- Topical RRA
- Monitoring RRA.

Together with the Conference, two further significant events took place in 1988 that resulted in RRA evolving into Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA). The first event took place in Kenya, where the National Environmental Secretariat in collaboration with Clark University (USA) conducted a RRA and this application resulted in the development of a village resource management plan that was described as a participatory rural appraisal (PRA) (Chambers, 1992b). In the same year, the Aga Khan Rural Support Programme (India) and the International Institute for Environment and Development of London carried out a RRA in two Indian villages. This event was one of the most significant contributions to the development of the PRA from the RRA (Cornwall & Guijt, 2004).

RRA and PRA are not completely different, but rather form a continuum. Some academics indicate that PRA was an improved version of RRA (Chambers, 1994a; Anyaegbunam, *et al.*, 2004). The two methods are compared in Table 2.1, where the most significant differences are that RRA is aimed at informing the learning of individuals of outsiders where the outsider takes the role of an investigator, whereas the PRA is intended to enable the local people to conduct their own analysis and often to plan and to take

action, where the outsider performs the role of a facilitator (Narayanasamy, 2009).

According to Cornwall & Guijt (2004), there are three major phases in the development of the PRA. These phases are loosely divided into the following time periods:

- Phase One: Late 1980s to early 1990s
- Phase Two: Mid-1990s
- Phase Three: Late 1990s to present.

2.2.1 Phase One: the need for major participatory and visual approaches

Innovation characterised this phase (late 1980s to early 1990s) and the development of a new approach to change (Brace, 1995). During this phase field practitioners and facilitators together with communities experimented, discovered, and re-discovered a variety of methods that would aid in participatory development. The methodology that emerged is described as participatory, group and visual (Berardi, 2002). The application of PRA during this period was within research related to agriculture, natural resources and community planning (Chambers, 1994e). Collaboration between development practitioners from the North and South was dominant and the development of a community of practice developed (Box, 1989).

2.2.2 Phase Two: The period of innovation and need for improvisation

During the mid-1990s, the innovation and improvisation that characterised the first phase continued, and a large range of methods and applications emerged. With the diversity of applications, PRA during this period was

Table 2.1: Comparison between Rapid Rural Approach (RRA) and Participatory Rural Approach (PRA)
(Chambers, 1994b; Chambers, 1994d)

<i>Nature of process</i>	<i>Rapid Rural Approach</i>	<i>Participatory Rural Approach</i>
Major development	Late 1970s and early 1980s	Late 1980s, 1990s
Major innovators	Universities	Non-government Organisations
Main users	Aid agencies and Universities	Non-Profit Organisations and Government
Key resources earlier overlooked	Local peoples knowledge	Local peoples capabilities
Main innovation	Methods	Behaviour
Mode	Finding out: elicitation	Facilitating: empowering
Outsiders' role	Investigator	Facilitator
Objectives	Data Collection	Empowerment
Main actors	Outsiders	Local people
Long-term outcomes	Plans, projects and publications	Sustainable local action and institution
Information owned, analysed and used by the communities	Outsiders	Local people

applied within every major domain of human social activity. Chambers (1992a; 1992b; 1994a; 1994b; 1994c; 1994d; 1994e; 1997; 1998), is cited in the literature as the academic who contributed to the development of PRA in both the theoretical academic and real-world actual communities (Berardi, 2002; Anyaegbunam, *et al.*, 2004; Haines, 2009).

Until the early to mid-1990s, most rural programmes in government and large Non Profit Organisations (NPOs) were spread vertically, using a top down approach via central decision making, formal training and formal instruction. During this period, the spread of PRA was horizontal and the result of the personal choices of the practitioner, rather than as a result of official instruction from above. The manner in which PRA spread during this period was characterised by the following:

- Facilitators who had spent days in a village undertaking a PRA application on behalf of an NPO often left the village and began to train and spread PRA in his/her own organisation or area of specialisation
- After brief workshops or short introductions to the methodology, staff in NPOs and government permitted and encouraged the support of PRA in their own organisations, and thus the adoption of PRA approaches and methods
- Villagers, who were exposed to a PRA process, often become trainers and facilitators in other communities. The lateral transfer of PRA to neighbouring villages was significant. There were many examples of villagers in Sri Lanka, Botswana and Bangladesh who first conducted and presented their own analysis in their villages, and were then invited as consultants to present their maps, models, matrices, institutional diagrams, well-being ranks, seasonal calendars and other analyses to senior member within the governments of their respective country's (Chambers, 1994b)

- The active group of first generation PRA practitioners wrote and shared material (written documents, slides, and videos), which was readily accepted and applied by the growing number of PRA practitioners of the time (McCracken, *et al.*, 1988; Theis & Grady, 1991)
- The spread of PRA was also made possible by improved communication throughout the world, and this enabled practitioners to share experiences faster and very effectively
- PRA developed an open ended character that was easily embraced by NPOs. Given the innovative nature of the methodology and its practical application, it became popular. The diverse, detailed and interesting information that was generated in a short period of time added to the popular embrace of the methodology and thus contributed to the rapid spread of its application across the globe.

While this period was significant for the development of PRA, it was also a period that was characterised by major criticism of the approach. This was due to 'trial and error' applications of the methodology, as well as growing rivalry between the applicants of the approach. With the rapid development of PRA during this period there were reports of bad practises and abuse of the method. The most important points of criticism directed at those who applied PRA during this period is summarised in (Narayanasamy, 2009) as follows:

- Despite the method allowing for the adaption to specific local circumstances, a number of practitioners applied PRA in a mechanical and prescriptive way without consideration of the local conditions, or even the purpose of the research and related methodology
- Haphazard use of the method and random applications
- Concentration on the methodology, without consideration of attitudes and behaviour of local communities

- Non-consideration of the basic principles of the PRA (as described in Table 2.1)
- Application of PRA without adequate training and the lack of personal and professional transformation of the facilitators.

In 1994, a group of the most prominent first generation PRA practitioners met to discuss the use and abuse of PRA and they produced a document that was very significant in the history and future application of PRA (Absalon, *et al.*, 1995). This group of PRA practitioners provided the first working definition of PRA as a growing family of approaches and methods to enable local people to share enhance and analyse their knowledge of life and conditions, to plan and to act (Absalon, *et al.*, 1995). They further explained that if PRA is applied and used well, the methodology can 'enable local people, rural or urban to undertake their own appraisal, analysis, action, monitoring and evaluation. It can empower rural and disadvantaged people, giving them more control over their lives' (Absalon, *et al.*, 1995).

During the 1994 meeting a critical analysis of PRA found that donors, government organisations and non-profit organisations (NPO) were increasingly using PRA in their programmes and projects (Absalon, *et al.*, 1995). This development meant that although PRA was used as a vehicle to initiate and sustain processes of change and the empowerment of disadvantaged people with the transformation of organisations and the re-orientation of individuals, there was the danger that the external stakeholders were demanding change too fast using a top-down approach that had very little understanding of participatory change that was fundamental to the PRA approach. Their analysis of the situation regarding PRA focussed on the attitude and behaviour of the facilitators and practitioners of the methodology, and they came up with a set of recommendations. Narayanasamy (2009) summarises these recommendations as follows:

- The personal behaviour and attitude of the practitioners should be given prime place at all levels
- Opportunities should be created for facilitators to acquire face-to-face learning experiences through interaction with local people
- Proper time should be allowed for local communities and group level development
- Open-ended processes must be encouraged, practitioners should not allow for top-down logic and the development of a participatory 'blueprint'
- Process and qualitative change must be advanced and external targets and products must not be over-emphasised
- Institutions wishing to apply PRA should train facilitators who stress aspects of attitude and behaviour changes rather than those who only wish to give importance to methods
- PRA practitioners should work towards changing the culture, procedures and interactions of all partners (donors, other practitioners, academics, government, NPOs) with local communities.

The increase in the application of the methodology by donors, government, and communities, who in the first phase of the development of the methodology were sceptical, was a huge advantage. Despite the recommendations of the first generation of PRA practitioners in 1994, Chambers (1994b) identified four potential dangers of the future of PRA.

Chambers (1994b) described the first danger as 'instant fashion'. Like the RRA, PRA was vulnerable to critique due to rapid promotion and adoption. During this period some practitioners used PRA to legitimise the approaches and methods that other PRA practitioners sought to replace, while still using traditional methodology such as conventional questionnaires. This was

aggravated by the fact that there were very few PRA practitioners with experience, and there were many practitioners who saw PRA as a fashionable methodology and failed to recognise that it was not that simple, and required experienced and skilled practitioners to apply successfully. During the period of application of PRA, governments and NPOs did not look to the Global South for guidance in rural change, and failed to recognise that the best PRA practitioners in the world came from the Global South and did not come from the Global North.

A second danger that PRA faced in the 1990s was 'rushing' (Chambers, 1994b). While the word 'rapid' was associated with rural appraisal (i.e., RRA) in the early eighties, it did so as a counter reaction to the drawn out learning of traditional social anthropology and the use of long questionnaire surveys at the time (Anyaeibunam, *et al.*, 2004). By the mid-1990s urban based professionals were using the idea of 'rapid' in the methodology to legitimise hurried rural visits that were insensitive within a social context and lacked commitment and the result was that the poor were once again not seen, listened too nor learnt from. PRA practitioners during this period suggested that the 'R' in PRA should refer to 'relaxed', as the methodology required sufficient time to plan an application to ensure that time is made to find the poorest, to learn from them and to empower them (Chambers, 1997).

The third danger that Chambers (1997) cited was that of "formalism". This was described as academics' natural urge to standardise and codify any innovation in the name of quality. This is often done through the creation of manuals and handbooks, with the initial intention of compiling ideas and experiences as a source of tips and techniques to share with other practitioners. The unfortunate result is that more time is then spent in the classroom teaching the 'theory' on innovation than in the field learning from practical experience. According to Chambers (1994b), PRA worked because practitioners learnt in the field through experience; they had to feel free to

take responsibility for what they did and needed to make mistakes and learn on the run. The key to the success of the methodology was cited as personal commitment, critical awareness and increased improvisation.

Chambers (1994b) described the final danger of PRA as 'routinisation and ruts'. One of the biggest strengths of PRA was that it developed as a result of experimenting, inventing, testing, adapting and constantly trying to improve its application. Chambers (1994b) described this phase as a time that PRA was scaling up and spreading. He however cautioned that although there was a number of different ways of doing participatory mapping, modelling, transect walks and the like, practitioners were showing signs of slipping into unvarying standard practices and repetition. While he accepted that some repetition and application of routine was inevitable (i.e., the logic in the sequence of methods for specific purposes), the failure to nurture creativity and experimentation in its application was a huge danger for the success of the methodology.

The four dangers PRA faced in the mid-nineties were significant within an understanding that the methodology would fail if the fundamental underpinning of PRA was not adhered to (Narayanasamy, 2009). During this period, many academics questioned whether quality could be assured in a methodology that stressed that changes in behaviour was needed, that initiatives for change needed to come from local communities themselves, that practitioners should have confidence that communities can map, model, rank, score their own circumstances, that practitioners should share their mistakes and opportunities, while stressing the personal responsibilities of all stake holders (Chambers, 1994c; Brace, 1995; Dougill, *et al.*, 2006). However, the working hypothesis of the period was that should these aspects of the methodology be applied in PRA, the methodology would improve as good performance would come 'not from external quality control

but from internal quality assurance and through personal critical awareness, trying to do better' (Chambers, 1994b).

By the mid-1990s, the main role players in PRA were NPOs and government field organisations. NPOs easily adapted the methodology as they shared similar values to those suggested by PRA. Governmental field organisations were slower to adapt to the PRA, as they first needed to re-define their roles in communities and re-train their staff. Many PRA practitioners realised that the future success of the methodology was dependent on universities and training institutions embracing the methodology. Very few universities and training organisations embraced the methodology by including it in their curriculums, or in their research. Chambers (1992a) was of the opinion that the scale of adoption of PRA was minute compared to the scope. The potential for applications in training and education remains vast and almost unrecognised. Only when many more universities and other tertiary institutions for education and training introduce PRA into their curricula, teaching and fieldwork will the methodology be accepted and used universally. While the methodology was not easily embraced universities in the Global North, there were Universities in the Global South that embraced and used the methodology during this period.

The universities in Thailand (notably the University of Khon Kaen) and the Philippines (University of Philippines) were leaders in this field in the middle 1990s (Narayanasamy, 2009). A number of universities in sub-Saharan Africa, in particular, Egerton University in Kenya, Obafemi University, Ife-Ife in Nigeria and the University of Zimbabwe incorporated PRA in their curricula, teaching and research during this period (Chambers, 2002). A number of training institutions in India and Nepal also adopted the approach and methods. These included the National Academy of Administration in Mussoorie, the Indian Institute for Forest Management at Bhopal, the Xavier Institute of Social Service at Ranchi, and the Institute of Forest Management

in Nepal (Berardi, 2002). A number of Indian universities, including the Narendra Deve University of Agriculture and Technology, Faizabad, the Tamil Nadu Agricultural University and the Hebbel Agricultural University all hosted lecturers and workshops in PRA during this period (Chambers, 1992a). A number of academics in Australia started using PRA in their research, the most notable were Voyce (1989), Ison (1990), Dunn (1991), Dunn & McMillan (1991), and the PRA Team (1991). The work the PRA Team (1991) compiled by the of the University of Sydney and Wagga Wagga City Council is considered to be a significant application of the PRA. By the late 1990s, universities in the Global North started to look at and adopt approaches to development that had evolved chiefly in the Global South (Chambers, 1992a). This change in attitude towards PRA was very significant in the evolution of the methodology.

By the end of this phase, the PRA methods included a variety of interviewing and sampling methods that incorporated a variety of group and team dynamic methods. The PRA methods of the significant PRA practitioners are summarised in the Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Important concepts and methods of Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) used in the mid-1990s

(Grandstaff & Grandstaff (1987a); Grandstaff & Grandstaff (1987b); Grandin (1988); Box (1989); Dewees (1989); Mearns (1989); Sandford (1989); Mascarenhas (1990); Mascarenhas & Kumar (1991); Swift & Umar (1991); Welbourn (1991); Guijt & Pretty (1992); Mearns, *et al.*, (1992); Drinkwater (1993); Slim & Thompson (1993); Chambers (1994d)

<i>Categories of PRA method</i>	<i>Brief description in terms of common use during the mid-1990s</i>	<i>Categories of PRA method</i>	<i>Brief description in terms of common use during the mid-1990s</i>	<i>Categories of PRA method</i>	<i>Brief description in terms of common use during the mid-1990s</i>
Secondary sources	These include aerial photographs, maps, satellite imagery, reports, articles and books	Daily time use analysis	Daily routines of community members can contribute to a better understanding of community issues and challenges.	Participatory analysis of secondary sources	This involves the use of aerial photographs, satellite imagery and maps (often 1:50 000 topographical maps), to identify soil types, land conditions, land tenure.
Semi-structured interviews	These can include a mental or written checklist, however they are open ended and there is a follow up of any unexpected answers. Traditional as well as visual and audio methods of recording are used.	Livelihood analysis	Aspects such as relative income, credits, debits often done on a monthly basis or a seasonal basis in communities with agricultural economy.	Institutional or Venn diagrams	Establishing the relationships between community members are important in understanding power struggles within and from outside a community.
Groups	Various kinds of groups are used, which include casual/specialist/focus groups. The use of deliberate community groups is used. Group interviews form a major focus of the methodology.	Participatory mapping and modelling	Community members make use of the ground, floor or paper to create maps that depict social, demographic, health, natural resources, services, entrepreneur opportunities and, their farms. Three-dimensional models were increasingly used.	Do it yourself (researcher)	Allow community members to teach the researcher and often includes (and not limited to) a number of community activities such as weeding, ploughing, drawing water, collecting wood, washing clothing, thatching, planting and harvesting
Transect walks	Walking with community members and observe, ask, listen and discuss a variety of issues related to: identification of different zones, soils, land uses, types of vegetation, crops planted, livestock areas, local and introduced technologies. This information is used to add to maps and diagrams which include zones and resources. Three types of transect walks are dominant, in other words, slope, combing and loop.	They (community) do it	Community members take on the role of the investigators and researchers by doing transects, observation and interviewing of fellow community members. The role of community members in the analysis of the data and the presentation of results is a very important component of PRA.	Stories, portraits and case studies	Household and community histories are often a very important source of information to help the external facilitators to understand the ways communities cope with crisis or conflicts.

<i>Categories of PRA method</i>	<i>Brief description in terms of common use during the mid-1990s</i>	<i>Categories of PRA method</i>	<i>Brief description in terms of common use during the mid-1990s</i>	<i>Categories of PRA method</i>	<i>Brief description in terms of common use during the mid-1990s</i>
Oral Histories and ethno-biographies	Oral histories of local resources such as crops, animals, trees and culture. Stories about community members also used as a tool to share community histories.	Report writing	This has to be done immediately after a PRA or RRA by one or more people to understand and reach consensus on the way forward.	Estimates and quantification	Local measures are used to establish amounts in terms of seeds, fruits other material and are often used in combination with participatory maps.
Seasonal Calendars	This is a valuable methodology to establish a variety of resource related information, such as growing seasons, rainfall, show seasonal changes such as days and distribution of rain, the amount of rain, and temperature. Not only does this methodology establish agricultural related matters, but also aspects such as income, migration, debts and expenditure.	Key probes	These are questions which are used to probe direct issues related to any matter the external facilitator establishes is necessary to find out information about the community.	Participatory planning, budgeting, implementation and monitoring	Local people prepare their own plans, budgets and schedules. In addition they take action, monitor and evaluate their own progress.
Team contracts and interactions	This is crucial to help communities work together and interact as a team within a specific project within the community.	Presentation and analysis	Local community members draw maps, diagrams and present these to outsiders or use to analyse their own circumstances and be in a position to explain their findings to externals.	Short standard schedules or protocols	Use for very quick and short questionnaires to record data, often for social mapping.
Key informants	"Experts" in the community need to be found, this is often done using social mapping.	Participatory linkage diagramming	Sharing and understanding of linkages, flows, connections and causality.	Matrix scoring and ranking	Often used when trying to establish the best seeds, trees, soils, methods of soil and water conservation or crop varieties.

Many development practitioners had started questioning why they had worked in the field for so many years and had never really considered that communities have considerable and varied knowledge. They also started to realise that due to a community's creative and analytical abilities to adapt and change to challenges, the practitioners themselves could learn much from local communities. By the middle of the 1990s, the shift in development from a top-down approach to a bottom-up approach was firmly entrenched, and was embraced by some government departments, most NPOs and various institutes of higher learning.

2.2.3 Phase Three: Shifting the focus to social learning, participatory monitoring and evaluation

The idea of social learning took off during the third phase, when various stakeholders came together and participated in a joint process of fact-finding, negotiations, planning, reassessing and refocusing. PRA was embraced by a variety of fields, a depth and a maturity developed in the methodology (Anyaegebunam, *et al.*, 2004). Increasingly these methods and techniques were applied in policy research and participatory governments. This was followed up with the development of the monitoring and evaluation of the respective projects (Booy, *et al.*, 2000). Although there are a number of different participatory approaches that are accepted and applied today, there are a number of fundamental similarities on which the approach is based and which are acceptable to practitioners applying the methodology (Narayanasamy, 2009).

2.3 Concepts and principles of contemporary Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA)

A comprehensive definition that includes all of the essential aspects of PRA evolved at an international workshop in Bangalore in 1996. In short PRA is a

growing family of approaches and methods to enable local people to share, enhance and analyse their knowledge of life and conditions, to plan, act, monitor and evaluate (Kumah, 1996). By this definition, the community becomes the key and primary stakeholder in the development process, and it is the community that decides their own future and destinies. The Bangalore Workshop, in 1996, firmly acknowledged that PRA was a philosophy that stresses self-critical awareness and commitment to the poor, the weak and the vulnerable, on the part of the practitioner.

2.3.1 The principles of Participatory Rural Appraisal

All Participatory Rural Appraisals (PRA) are based on a number of principles. The application of PRA pre-supposes a number of principles that are all equally important as they are interrelated. The principles have been developed over a period of time and are based on experiences of good practice. Chambers (1994e) explains that principles of PRA are induced rather than deduced, they have been elicited by trying out practices to find out what works and what does not, and then asking the question why it does not work. Narayanasamy (2009) explains that the principles of PRA are experiential and not metaphysical. Practitioners working in the Global South have listed nine principles of good PRA and each one of the principles will be investigated using the collective works of a variety of academics to explain each principle (Chambers, 1998; Rietbergen-McCracken & Narayan, 1998; Adebo, 2000; Davis, 2001; Berardi, 2002; Chambers, 2002; Pain & Francis, 2003; Anyaegbunam, *et al.*, 2004, 2004; Cavestro, 2003; Homan, 2004; Flowerdew & Martin, 2005; Dougill, *et al.*, 2006; Narayanasamy, 2009; Schenck, *et al.*, 2010; Cornwall & Pratt, 2011; Lu, 2012). In the following section the words 'outsider(s)' refer to the researcher(s) or development practitioner(s), while the word 'insider(s)' refers to the community member(s).

a. The changing roles of the researcher and community members

The conventional role of the researcher or development practitioner is often described as one or more of the following: preaching, lecturing, and teaching of rural people in the process of undertaking research or doing development work. The fundamental principle of good PRA accepts that the outsider is ignorant of the local situation, conditions, and knowledge, and will go to the rural area as student, novice or a learner. The community members, on the other hand, are knowledgeable about their surroundings, have years of experience and possess the local knowledge and skills necessary to live in that particular community. There are different ways in which the role of the researcher changes in a typical PRA application.

Conventional investigations often have questionnaires that are pre-set, they are designed by researchers and mostly reflect an outsider view, concern, objective and categories. In PRA, the collection of data is based on a semi-structured checklist which provides scope for conversation, and in turn leads to more freedom for both researchers and community members by applying a greater measure of equality between both parties. With both parties equal, the community members have more freedom to change the agenda for discussion. In most instances the researcher would hand over control and the community members would then determine and drive the agenda they have been able to compile.

The way in which the researcher and community members interact and analyse "data" are also reversed in typical PRA. The most important shift is from the individual to the group. Group interaction and group analysis have advantages as the group has collective knowledge and wisdom that covers a wide field. Groups can build up collective and creative enthusiasm and can cross check, verify and correct details. In some communities groups can also

have a negative impact on the appraisal as one person could dominate or intimidate the rest of the group.

A second important shift is from the verbal to the visual. Using visual media is an equaliser between the literate and illiterate and includes a variety of media such as mapping, modelling, Venn diagramming, ranking and scoring. These are all methods that many rural communities can use to express, share and analyse their knowledge with the researcher. The visual aids created by the community also provide a valuable agenda for discussion.

A third reversal of learning is to switch from absolute measurement to a mode of comparing. Comparisons are easier and quicker to express, and trends and changes can be established without baseline data. Detailed and relevant information can be obtained over a short period of time. In a PRA a fourth reversal of roles is the change in relationship between the researcher and the community. The focus on the relationship is to collect information and data which are less formal and more casual. Researchers have to develop a relationship with the community that is based on mutual respect and trust that is gained by showing respect answering questions, being honest, willing to be taught and willing to learn from the community. Finally, in more conventional research there is a dominance of the researcher over the community members, while in good PRA there is a reversal of this dominance. This occurs when the objective is to collect less data, and rather to start a process of empowering the community to take a lead in the investigation (Chambers, 1998; Rietbergen-McCracken & Narayan, 1998; Adebo, 2000; Davis, 2001; Berardi, 2002; Chambers, 2002; Pain & Francis, 2003; Anyaegbunam *et al.*, 2004, 2004; Cavestro, 2003; Homan, 2004; Flowerdew & Martin, 2005; Dougill, *et al.*, 2006; Narayanasamy, 2009; Schenck, *et al.*, 2010; Cornwall & Pratt, 2011; Lu, 2012).

b. Conscious enquiry and analysis and rapid learning

PRA allows researchers (outsiders) and insiders (community members) to learn rapidly about the community. All the PRA practitioners however indicate that the rapid learning that is characteristic of this process does not impact on the quality of the PRA as the technique insists on progressive learning. The learning takes place by consciously exploring different aspects of rural life via the use of semi-structured interviews. This helps guide the process and avoids the participants from jumping from one topic to another. The characteristic of progressive learning helps in the cross-checking of the data and information gathered. In this way, data collected are constantly verified in terms of reliability and validity.

c. Neutralising the biases of outsiders towards a community

Conventional methods of data gathering in rural areas, are normally characterised by *ad hoc* visits to the community by urban-based professionals who bring with them many biases that could be temporal, spatial, personal, professional, economic or political. In the planning of any anti-poverty strategy the biases of the outsider brings in can camouflage the different dimensions of poverty. The result could be a strategy that is planned, designed and implemented in such a way that issues related to poverty are not addressed sustainably. It is thus important that all biases are neutralised and counteracted at the beginning of the interaction with the community.

The literature (see the list of authors at the end of the introduction of section 2.3.1) contains a number of different ways in which outsider biases can be offset. For example, spatial biases can be offset by ensuring that the

outsiders' visits to the community are not just confined to the project sites, but also incorporates visits away from project sites. Interactions of the researcher with community members who are not part of the project are also important. Personal biases can be counteracted by meeting various members of the community for example, the poor, the aged, the sick or the vulnerable (Grandstaff & Grandstaff, 1987a). In many communities in the Global South and in particular in patriarchal societies, outsiders often do not meet with the women of the community. Temporal biases are particularly important to offset. For example, many rural communities depend on agriculture, and visiting such communities in the wet or growing season should be offset by a visit in the dry season or during the least productive time of the year. In short, the PRA practitioner should be very careful in determining who are the right people to meet, how and with whom interaction needs to take place, and that the right information and data are collected without the compromise of biases as these would impact on the validity of the data.

d. Optimising trade-off

This principle relates to the cost of learning by all stakeholders, to the usefulness of the information with a trade-off to quantity, relevance, accuracy and timeliness. The conventional methods of appraisal include two extremes. On the one hand, the survey method is one of the most systematic and scientific methods of appraisal that can ensure valid and useful results. This type of appraisal is, however, time consuming and requires huge amounts of administrative and logical support which makes the mode of appraisal more expensive. The other type of conventional appraisal method is practised within the field of rural tourism development (Cavestro, 2003). In this appraisal the situation, condition or problem takes a very short period of time to undertake. Unfortunately, huge amounts of

vital information are often left out during this appraisal; in addition, this appraisal method does not try and offset any biases. A PRA must try to do appraisals between these two extremes. A PRA appraises a situation, condition or problem as quickly as possible, without sacrificing the basic prerequisites of the more relaxed, non-dominating and non-imposing approach. The PRA methodology also enables the collection of data and information at a low cost and without forfeiting the quality of the data and the information collected. This is done by making use of team work between both insiders and outsiders, using people-friendly methods of data collection and then following this up with on-the-spot analysis of data and information, which is then shared immediately (Dougill, *et al.*, 2006).

In order to obtain a trade-off between excess data on the one hand, and too little data on the other, the PRA advocates the optimum collection of data. This is in contrast to the conventional methods where data is often over collected. The PRA researcher needs to constantly ask 'what kind of data is needed?', 'for what purpose is this data?', 'how much data are required?' This helps the researcher to collect only the necessary data. The aim of the PRA is to arrive at an agreed sufficiency of knowledge that is relative to the project objectives, following the golden rule to avoid collection of unnecessary detail (Chambers, 2002).

The other trade-off PRA researchers make is the acceptance of appropriate imprecision of data. The data collected in a PRA are quantitative and qualitative. A certain amount of inaccuracy is accepted in the qualitative data, after validation through triangulation and sequencing. In a good PRA, allowance for a certain level of inaccuracy does not have an impact on the quality of the data (Flowerdew & Martin, 2005).

e. Triangulation

Triangulation is a form of validating data and information from several (often three) sources which can include individuals, groups, locations, types of information, items, and points of discussion. The use of at least three sources of information helps to gain insight and successfully approximate data in PRA. Given that the process applies more than one method to establish the same findings on the research subjects, the validity of data is not questioned. In the literature there are traditionally different types of triangulations (Chambers, 1994e; Adebo, 2000; Anyaegbunam, et al., 2004; Cornwall & Guijt, 2004; Homan, 2004; Schenck, *et al.*, 2010; Cornwall & Pratt, 2011):

- Data triangulation includes three categories, namely time, space, and personal triangulation. The latter can include individual interaction between groups, and a collective level triangulation
- Investigator triangulation occurs when more than one researcher examines the same situation
- Discipline triangulation happens when researchers from different disciplines evaluate and compare results
- Methodological triangulation involves between-method or within-method comparisons
- Theoretical triangulation occurs when competing theories are used to obtain data to analyse one situation.

The sources of information for a PRA are multiple. Information flows from people, places, events, and processes. Triangulation also takes place with people cross-checking and correcting one another.

f. Recognising and supporting diversity, complexity and multiple realities

All rural societies are complex and diverse. Although they might have similarities there are normally huge differences within and between communities. Aspects of gender, age, levels of poverty, levels of inequality, ethnic grouping, social standing, education, livelihoods, and composition of assets all contribute to differences from within and between others. Researchers from outside often treat a community as a homogenous group in their investigation of the respective community. This sometimes leads the researcher to meeting only a selected grouping of community members, and making assumptions on the whole community. This type of research reinforces biases (refer to section 2.3.1.c) and results in more rigid development strategies. The PRA methodology takes into account that communities are diverse and complex. This includes accepting that there are differences between communities and within communities, and finding variability than averages. The method maximises aspects of diversity of information and learns from exceptions, oddities, dissenters, and outliers. The method deliberately looks for and recognises contradictions, anomalies and differences.

g. The sequence of application

PRA is a step-by-step process that employs a variety of people-friendly methods. The use of one participatory method after another in a systematic manner helps to understand the different dimensions of a particular problem. There are several advantages to sequencing (Chambers, 1992b; Chambers, 1997; Chambers, 2002; Flowerdew & Martin, 2005; Green & Haines, 2007; Lu, 2012):

- The level of commitment of all participants increases, with participants likely to initiate spontaneous and sustainable actions and processes
- Sequencing is a very important validating tool as it continually cross-checks information and data collected
- The cumulative interaction of the activities quickly adds to new dimensions and details of the situation under investigation
- The insiders and outsiders both learn from the process, by sharing their observation from their respective perspectives
- Sequencing allows a process to develop and end naturally
- Field work is undertaken in a systematic fashion which helps to endorse the credibility of the PRA analysis and findings.

Sequences however imply that there is better communication between all stakeholders; that after each round of data collection there is a discussion on how to fill the gaps and the appropriate way to adapt the method to the local conditions, and ensure the best results.

h. Handing over the stick

Given that community members 'own' the outcome of the process in which they learn about themselves and the conditions they live in, the outsider's role almost stops with the initiation of the process. In PRA this is known as 'handing over the stick' (Chambers, 1998), where the researcher sits, watches, learns and listens to what the community is saying, showing, explaining, discussing, drawing, and analysing. In this way the researcher does not dominate the process, but rather acts as an extractor of information, a convenor, a facilitator and analyst.

i. Self-critical awareness

This PRA principle refers to the needs for the researcher or outsider to examine own behaviour in the community continuously and critically. This will assist in offsetting biases, and the researcher must acknowledge his/her own errors and be able to discuss the causes and effects of these errors on the process. Consequently, the researcher is able to learn and pursue his/her endeavours with more honesty. It also helps to develop a relationship with community members.

j. Sharing

A very important principle of PRA implies that information, data, and ideas are shared. Sharing is an important principle within a community, between communities and researchers, and between researchers and other researchers. This principle has a number of advantages:

- Nothing is secret; all is open. Sharing helps encourage attitudinal and behavioural change in the minds of the participants
- There is a high degree of transparency in the process and this brings the insiders and outsiders closer together
- Sharing encourages mutual learning, and the acknowledgement of the knowledge and skills of each individual in the team
- The outcome is visual (map, diagram, or a model), all participants can present and participate in the process. Sharing at this point assists with the validation and correction of data. The information is also visual and can thus be added at a later stage or during a different process.

While PRA is an evolving methodology that is based on field experiences, reflections, and sharing, its application depends on the strict adherence of

the principles discussed in this section, as it is through this adherence that the methodology is not just applied as a 'hit and run', but rather as the development of a relationship with a community over a period of time to assist communities learn and take ownership of their own destinies. In this section of the chapter, the visual nature of PRA has been discussed and a number of different methods of a visual representation of community knowledge have been alluded to. The remainder of the chapter will provide more details on one of the many applications of contemporary PRA that is pertinent to this thesis, namely, participatory mapping in general, and participatory asset mapping in particular.

2.3.2 Participatory mapping

Maps provide a useful tool for communities as they present a summary of data in such a way that the data can be used for purposes of planning, field discussions and analysis, and problem identification. As a visual aid, the community can participate in compiling and describing the map to assist the outsiders by clarifying issues and answering questions. Maps can be used to identify the comparative location and importance of different resources, and are also useful as a tool to aid and communicate the following (Davis, 2001):

- A framework for the discussion of relative location of resources
- The importance of using maps as a spatial guide
- Issues that affect or are affected by these resources
- The present status and condition of a location
- A focus area of interest in a discussion over resources
- Raise awareness of existing facilities and resources
- Stimulate debate on the importance of existing resources
- Create a baseline for assessing change during the monitoring and evaluation process.

Maps should be used as a visual stimulant to identify parameters the community faced and to facilitate discussion about the importance people place on the problem under discussion (Davis, 2001). There is a wide variety of different maps that can be used in PRA. Narayanasamy (2009) categorises PRA maps into two types: Social Maps and Resource Maps.

a. Social Maps

Social maps are used to locate houses, services, infrastructure, social stratification, and social issues under discussion. Thematic social maps could include health maps (reflecting one or more of a number of health related aspects and variables), water and sanitation maps, education maps, leadership maps, indigenous knowledge/skills maps and vulnerability maps. During a social mapping process, the community will draw a series of maps, which become more detailed and more useful with every session. Social mapping is a valuable aid in helping all participants to learn about a specific problem and to facilitate discussion between members of the team. The major importance of social mapping is for appraisal, planning, monitoring and evaluation. Social mapping is usually combined with other PRA methods such as transects, wellbeing analysis, livelihood analysis, focus group discussions, Venn diagrams, impact diagrams and historical profiles. One of the biggest limitations of the social mapping process is that outsiders tend to intervene in the mapping process and also try to include too much information in one map.

b. Resource maps

A resource map is used to present information about physical resources of a community, for example, the land, water, resources, land usage, soil types, cropping pattern, land and water management, watershed, water sources or degraded land. The purpose of the resource map is varied. The map can be used to take stock of the existing resources; it can help in establishing the

status of resources. Exploitation of resources can be mapped and information about ownership and control of resources can be established. A number of thematic maps are possible including maps of agriculture practises, water resources, forestry maps, vegetation maps, and farm sketches and profiles (Grandin, 1988; Booy, *et al.*, 2000; Cornwall & Guijt, 2004; Narayanasamy, 2009). The drawing of a resource map is a powerful tool in participatory planning, and the team can chose its own process of facilitating the resource map. However, it is crucial to 'interview the map' after it has been compiled as this will aid in the in-depth interaction and analysis of the resources in a community. This method is often used in problem identification, project formulation and impact evaluation. It can be used very effectively when used in combination with social maps, transect and other PRA methods.

The advantage of participatory mapping is that the process can be improvised as it progresses; it can be combined with other PRA methods and is an excellent planning tool for the community and an information tool for the researcher. A number of different participatory resource mapping techniques are used by PRA practitioners. For the purpose of this research, community asset mapping and the related asset-based community development are important, and these will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

2.3.3 Scientific validity of participatory approaches and techniques

It is necessary in conclusion to this chapter to summarize the most important aspects that give Participatory Rural Appraisal scientific validity. Firstly, involving participants in the design of the approach helps to legitimise the researchers presence and the position of the community members as important stakeholders in the research. This helps to ensure that methods applied are appropriate, meaningful and relevant to those who will use and

address them (Kindon & Latham, 2002). This will ensure that the community members are involved with the data collection (while conventional research methods would be asking them questions and they would be mere respondents. This will most likely result in more accurate and in-depth data that will reveal the perspectives and experiences of the community more accurately. Secondly, if community members are involved in the data analysis, it is more likely that the research will produce more credible information that the community would consider to be more accurate. Triangulation is thus built in and community members do not just provide data they help develop; they also analyse and verify the data produced. Thirdly, as the process is of central concern to the community members; it is well placed to provide a full and open audit of how and under what conditions ideas and themes arose and were applied. This helps to avoid some of the subjective interpretations that have traditionally been associated with qualitative research (Flowerdew & Martin, 2005). Fourthly, as PRA incorporates the multiple accounts of multiple participants, together with their own analysis, it provides a narrative between the communities and the researchers, and thus forms a position of reflexive objectivity. Finally, the epistemological foundation of all qualitative research is to build trusting and reciprocal relationships with communities and in this way gain deep insights into their real-life world.

2.3.4 Application of Participatory Rural Appraisal in the discipline of Geography in South Africa

The spatial and temporal character of many of the PRA methods has much in common with well tested geographical fieldwork methods. Binns, *et al.*, (1997) suggest that geographers have been practising PRA-type techniques long before the concept became 'fashionable'. The techniques used by geographers to investigate the relationship between people and the

environment in an integrated and holistic manner have included parallels to resource maps, transect walks, and the seasonal calendar which are used in the typical PRA (Binns, 1995; Brace, 1995). Geographers have long been aware that an understanding of environmental factors such as rainfall, soils, and vegetation are as important as appreciating the social; cultural; and economic context of decision-making among rural producers (Binns, *et al.*, 1997). The potential for geographers to become more involved in future PRA evaluations, parallels with the growing recognition of government agencies, non-government organizations, environmental scientists, and others that geographers have particular skills and research strategies that are highly relevant to the growing concerns about the environment and people-centred development (Binns, *et al.*, 1997; Motteux, *et al.*, 1999; Hill, Motteux, *et al.*, 2001).

Until the early 2000 there is very little evidence of research and writing of PRA undertaken in South Africa. There is little evidence that geographers were explicitly doing PRA research. Binns, *et al.*, (1997) suggest that the PRA field research was hampered by the realities of apartheid, antagonism and disempowerment, which in themselves generated biases unique to the South African field research situation. Such biases included racial prejudice, crime, violence, inequality, and discrimination.

Disempowerment of the majority of the rural black population generated further constraints in the application of PRA methodology. This sector of the South African community has been subjected to top-down decision making for decades, and this impacted on the self-expression that is required by PRA. Rural communities in South Africa are not used to articulating their views to external stakeholders who actually listen to these ideas. A second constraint in the application of PRA by geographers in South Africa is related to the historical legacy which has complicated the physical and political access of researchers to rural communities. Many communities are reluctant

to accept researchers in their communities and often question the purpose and relevance of the research undertaken.

If South Africa is to reduce the rates of poverty and narrow the inequality gap geographers and other researchers should adopt PRA methodologies and apply appropriate development-orientated research to fulfil their objectives and those of the communities in which the research is undertaken.

2.4 Conclusion

In looking for a tool to facilitate roots-driven change in rural South Africa, the use of a Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) was an obvious choice, as such an appraisal allows for community members to chart their own destinies by determining their own indicators of success. In this way communities can create their own indicators of success and with the assistance of outside stakeholders can drive a process of their own wealth creation that will have more sustainable value as the process is owned by the relevant community.

Chapter Three: Asset-based community development as a possible tool for wealth creation in South Africa: Mathopestad, North-West Province

This chapter focuses on the concept of asset-based community development (ABCD) as a specific approach of a PRA. The asset-based approach focuses on community assets rather than the conventional needs approach. By focussing on the positive (successes) and not the negative (what is missing), a positive outlook and vision for the future of the community can be fostered. In addition, this PRA approach also focuses on a sustainable change approach to development (Phillips & Pittman, 2009).

3.1 Asset-based community development (ABCD)

Kretzmann and McKnight (1993), of the Institute of Policy Research at North-western University, can be credited for the development of the asset-based approach to community development, called ABCD. They developed this approach over two years while working on endogenous community development in a number of low income urban neighbourhoods in the United States. The premise of the work of Kretzmann and McKnight (1993) is that communities can identify and mobilize existing (but sometimes unrecognised) assets, and drive the development process themselves by thereby responding to and creating local economic opportunity. A number of researchers have adopted and adapted the asset-based community development (ABCD) approach since 1993.

3.1.1 Definitions of asset-based community development

There are number of definitions of asset-based community development. For the purposes of this research the following definitions are relevant:

- “Community development is a place-based approach: it concentrates on creating assets that benefit people in poor neighbourhoods, largely by building and tapping links to external resources” (Vidal & Keating, 2004:126).
- “Community development is asset building that improves the quality of life among residents of low- to moderate-income communities, where communities are defined as neighbourhoods or multi-neighbourhood areas” (Ferguson & Dickens, 1999:5).
- “Community development is defined as a planned effort to produce assets that increase the capacity of residents to improve their quality of life” (Green & Haines, 2007:vii).
- “Community building in all of its efforts consists of actions to strengthen the capacity of communities to identify priorities and opportunities and to foster and sustain positive neighbourhood change” (Chaskin, 2001:291).

From the definitions, a number of components of the asset-based approach can be identified. Firstly, the approach has a place-biased focus, where communities are understood to be rooted in a physical geographical place. Secondly, the definitions refer to the building up of, or the creation of assets, which are considered to be a resource or advantage within a community or place. Finally, a strong component of quality of life is included in the definitions. While this is a very vague concept, it should be defined by each community by establishing their own list of indicators that can be used to monitor whether actual changes are happening. Quality of life can refer to a variety of aspects related to the economic, social, psychological, physical, and political spheres of a community (Haines, 2009).

Asset-based development thus advocates the idea of seeking existing resources and advantages in a community and then allowing community members to facilitate their own sustainable change that would be within the

financial, economic, environmental, and social spheres of society. The approach can be used universally. However, the application of the approach is more applicable to non-wealthy communities, where guidance to identify and utilise their own assets has been neglected for generations.

3.1.2 The approach followed by asset-based community development

There are two different approaches to community development. The one is the more conventional needs-based approach, where the researcher determines the issues, problems and needs of a community. In the Global South it is very easy to point out problems within communities. Throughout the 1950s and 1960s, the needs-based approach was the preferred Non-Profit Organisations (NPO) approach to development in Africa (Booy, *et al.*, 2000). The focus was on primary health care, water supply, and humanitarian food aid. The legacy of the needs approach in Africa is that many receiving aid have learned to define themselves and their communities by their needs and their deficiencies to the point that they can no longer identify anything of value around them (Greene, 2000). In communities where the basic needs approach had been applied, individuals believe that only a state of deprivation can enable them to attract external resources. They often define themselves by their absolute dependence on outside help to meet their most basic of human needs. Until the 1970s, aid organisations rarely asked communities in the Global South what their priorities and concerns were, and at the same time these same organisations did not believe that the communities had something of value to offer in responding to the humanitarian crisis they faced (Booy, *et al.*, 2000; Greene, 2000). The net result was that NPOs applied the basic-needs approach on an annual basis and the results of these applications were enough to indicate to donors that there was an increasing need for greater levels of donor investment.

The major criticism of this approach is that if a community and researcher or outsider focuses on the problem, the cause of the problem is hardly ever addressed (Green & Haines, 2007). In some instances the problem can be too large for the community to solve itself, and should the community only focus on that particular problem they would probably give up due to the complex nature of the problem (Haines, 2009). This approach sometimes creates unreasonable expectations and reliance on the outside by the community members and the failure to meet these expectations results in disappointment and failure over time within the dependency paradigm. The application of the approach in very poverty stricken communities could find that as there are many problems and needs, the community members feel defeated before they even start trying to address the challenges.

Asset-based community development however, is the reverse of the basic needs approach. In contrast to focussing on the problems and needs, this approach focuses on the community strengths and assets (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993; McNight, 1995; Mathie & Cunningham, 2002; Mathie & Cunningham, 2003; McNulty, 2005; Mathie & Cunningham, 2008; Haines, 2009; Mathie & Cunningham, 2010; Schenck, *et al.*, 2010). The assumption of the asset-based approach is that by focussing on communities assets, the community as a whole will start seeing the positive aspects of the community, for example, food gardens, mentoring programmes, and the inherent skills of the individuals. This approach does not ignore the problems within a community, but by focussing first on the strengths and small triumphs, and by implication the positive, it will create a snowball effect that will influence other sectors of the community.

3.1.3 Defining assets within the asset-based community development approach

Assets can be defined as the stock of wealth of a household or other unit (Haines, 2009). This can be extended to a definition that assets are a useful or valuable quality, person or thing, that can be an advantage or a resource (Sherraden, 1991). Kretzmann and McKnight (1993:25) define assets as 'gifts, skills and capacities of individuals, associations and institutions'. Derived from these definitions there are three types of assets: physical, human and social assets.

Physical assets include the natural resources and infrastructure of a community. These assets are normally geographically rooted into place, and normally have a high degree of existing or possible public or private investment, with the expectation of a return on investment. Human assets include the skills, talents, and knowledge of the community members. Human assets (irrespective of age, gender, or ethnic composition) are mobile; people move in and out of the community, and thus human assets change over time due to migration or life cycles. Alternatively the skills of the people who remain in the community can also change due to skills training, and educational opportunities.

Social assets refer to the social relationships within a community, and often refer to levels of trust, values, norms and social networks. The active connections between and among people bind the members of human networks and communities and make cooperative action possible (Cohen & Prusak, 2001). While all assets are considered important in the asset-based approach, social assets are critical when it comes to mobilising the community, and is often the reasons for the success or failure of a project. Social assets can further be divided into three categories. Firstly, financial assets refer to access to credit markets and other sources of funds. Poor

and minority communities often do not have access to credit, and this makes it difficult for such a community to obtain funding to start small businesses or any other activity that requires a financial input. The second social asset is that of political assets, in other words the capacity of the community and its organisations to exert political influence. The final social asset is cultural; this is a very important asset that is often overlooked in the Global South and particularly in South Africa.

3.1.4 Application of asset-based community development

The asset-based approach to community development is very closely related to the sustainable livelihoods approach which is an integrated method of development that brings together a number of individual approaches to achieve sustainable change. The approach requires the assessment of community assets and decisions on how to adapt strategies and technologies to ensure sustainable change in communities. At the community level, the approach emphasises the importance of participation of communities to alleviate poverty. A livelihood is sustainable if it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain and enhance its capability and assets, and provide sustainable livelihoods for the next generation. It also builds on the local strengths of identifying and reinforcing the various strategies of local people to maintain their livelihoods in adverse circumstances (Schenck, *et al.*, 2010).

A combination of the sustainable livelihoods approach with the asset-based community development approach is a very probable solution to poverty alleviation in South Africa in the 21st Century.

3.2 The Greater Rustenburg Community Foundation application of asset-based community development in North-West Province

With the publication of the work of Kretzmann and McKnight (1993), a number of asset-based applications have been developed. In more recent years the approach has been adapted to accommodate the changes of a globalised world; the changing role of governments as the provider of solutions to community problems; and the challenge to seize opportunities for sustainable change. The Coady International Institute of St Xavier's University in Canada has applied a contemporary version of asset-based community development, known as ABCD, in countries in the Global South. In 2009, the then chairperson of the Board of Trustees of the GRCF was awarded a scholarship by the Coady International Institute to attend one of their ABCD certificate programmes. The GRCF adopted the approach of the Coady International Institute in the North-West Province.

The Founder and Chief Executive Officer of the GRCF, confirmed that the GRCF started basic asset mapping exercises in communities in the North-West Province in 2000 after she had visited a community in Burkina Faso (C. Delport, personal communication, 3 April 2013). The GRCF started researching the ABCD approach to development as it was based on the premise that communities can create a future for themselves based on the discovery of their inherent potential. On the whole, the GRCF supported the approach that argued that the emphasis of development should be on the assets in any given community. This was the reason why the GRCF embraced ABCD as a suitable tool for wealth creation within the rural communities in their jurisdiction.

The ABCD approach begins with simple and participative workshops that include various practical and interactive activities. The typical ABCD as

applied by the Coady International Institute consists of three basic steps (Figure 3.1). The asset mapping process starts with a facilitated workshop during which the attendees of the workshop map the human, social, economic, physical and environmental assets within their community. The purpose of this step is to assist community members to discover and appreciate their own strengths. The second element is for the workshop attendees to collectively define a preferred future for their community. The purpose of the step is for the community to help its members to generate their own goals, and assist the community members with the development of an action plan and the indicators of their own successes. The last step in the basic ABCD approach is an impact assessment. The community is encouraged to measure and evaluate their own progress towards achieving their goals, using meaningful indicators of observable change that the community will have personally experienced and collectively agreed upon. A post-ABCD phase would include the possibility of an external agent who could act as a funder, and by providing small matching grants support key projects that the community has already begun to initiate with its own funds.

The GRCF made the strategic decision to change the way in which they supported communities, and they decided to combine their existing Community Asset Mapping processes with the ABCD and the notion of Philanthropy of Community (PoC) to facilitate change in the communities of the Bojanala Region. The result of the merger of the aforementioned experiences was a seven step methodology (Figure 3.2), which would allow for a creative and participatory approach that would engage community members by allowing them to work in small groups.

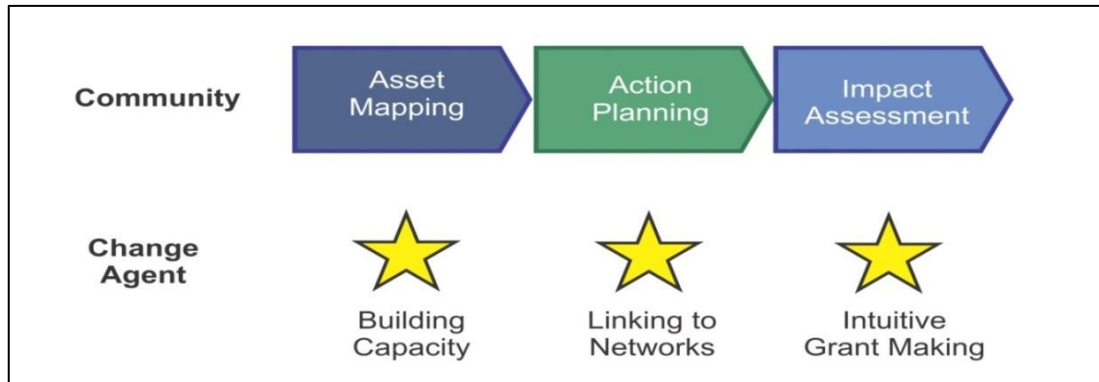


Figure 3.1: *Summary of the ABCD approach of the Coady International Institute* (Mathews, 2012)

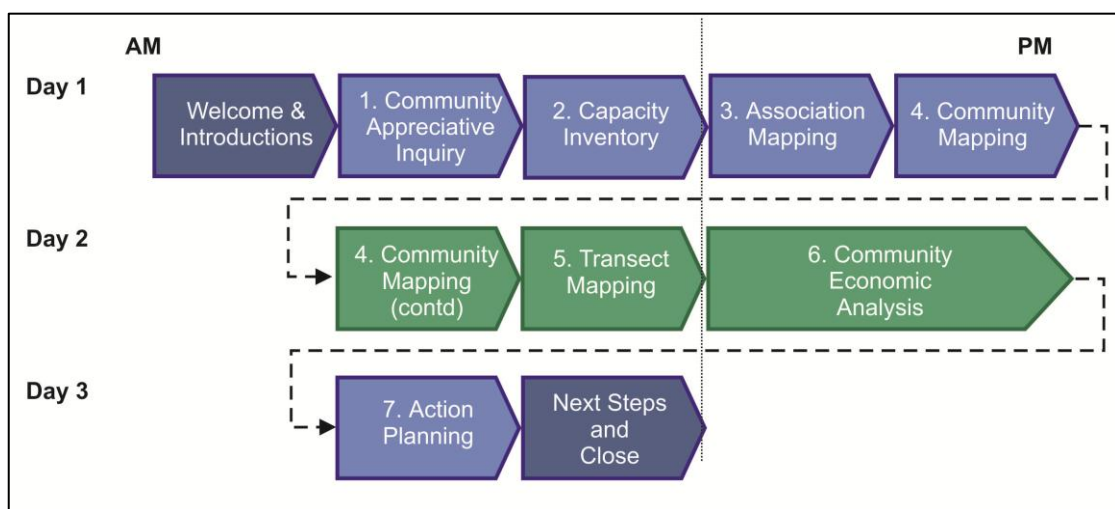


Figure 3.2: *Seven step methodology of the ABCD workshop in the twelve community clusters in the North-West Province*

It was hoped that the seven step approach would acknowledge the fact that there are assets in communities, that people share and help one another in communities, and that communities have the ability to find solutions to their identified problems. In this approach the GRCF would play a facilitating role in community development, especially in the monitoring and evaluation phase, while the community members themselves would be empowered enough to take a leading role in driving their own development.

In addition to making a strategic decision regarding the application of an adapted asset mapping tool for roots-driven change in the Bojanala Region,

the GRCF also decided to divide the communities in their geographical area into 12 community clusters. As the GRCF wished to undertake research following the application of ABCD/CAMP, the division of the communities into manageable units was crucial as this allowed for the GRCF to work through their communities on an annual basis, be in a position to write up measurable success and failures, and build on measured impacts on an annual basis. An annual plan for the implementation of ABCD, grant making visits and follow up visits were planned and is reflected in their community engagement plan for 2010 (Table 3.1).

Mathopestad was the first village to undergo ABCD training and as it was also the village that has been visited by many, nationally and internationally, practitioners of ABCD. Thus this research will only report on the application of ABCD in Mathopestad and not on all 12 community clusters in the Bojanala Region of the North-West Province.

3.3 The application of ABCD in Mathopestad (North-West Province)

The village of Mathopestad is located east of Derby, in the North-West Province, near the city of Rustenburg, and falls within the jurisdiction of the Bojanala Platinum District Municipality (Figure 1.1). The village is rural and depends largely on farming for its livelihoods. The composition of the village varies from poor to middle income residents that live in single residential houses, under the jurisdiction of Kgosi (Chief) Solomon Mathope. During a visit to Mathopestad on 24 March 2010 as part of the 'Back to the ABCDs: Creating an enabling environment for sustainable socio-economic development at grassroots level through community driven initiative' (UNISA, 2010) conference organised by the researcher, the community elders provided a very informative history of the village, through a story-

Table 3.1: The Greater Rustenburg Community Foundations community engagement programme calendar for 2010

<i>Cluster name (with the names of the villages)</i>	<i>Initial Community visit</i>	<i>ABCD Community Workshop</i>	<i>Grant-making visit</i>	<i>Follow up and Evaluation</i>
Mathopestad	October 2009	October 2009		
Kgetleng (Derby, Koster, Swaruggens)	January	February	March	April
Phokeng (Luka, Chaneng, Robega, Phatsima)	February	March	April	May
Bafokeng (Sunrise Park, Sondela, Paardekraal)	March	April	May	June
Marikana/Brits (Kroondal, Bleskop, Bethanie, Modihule, Barseba)	April	May	June	July
Tlhabane 1 (Tlhabane, Lefaragathle, Kgale)	May	June	July	August
Rustenburg (Rustenburg North, East, Zinniaville, Karlienpark)	June	July	August	September
Rustenburg (inner city)	July	August	September	October
Tlhabane 2 (Tlhabane West, Geelhoutpark ext 4 &6)	August	September	October	November
Mankwe (Mogwasse, Monakato, Rooikraal, Mahele, Rietspruit)	September	October	November	December
Madikwe 1 (Mabeskraal, Witrandjie, Tweelaagte)	October	November	December	January 2011
Madikwe 2 (Kameelboom)	November	December	January 2011	February 2011

telling session. The story was told by the elders in Tswana and with the GRCF providing an English translation. The researcher's own summary of the story shared with delegates is as follows:

"Mathopestad was purchased by the late Chief Mathope and headman of the clans of the Bakubung tribe, in 1910 from Mr. O. Coetzee. The land was purchased by 66 families although the land was only registered in the names of 22 of these buyers, the remaining 44 buyers had equal rights to the 22 registered owners. The land was later registered in the name of the tribe in 1912. In the 1950s some families were forcefully removed from areas like Sophiatown and Pineville and eventually settled in Mathopestad. More land was needed and in 1952 the farm Elandsfontein was purchased by 142 families together with the late Chief S. Mathope. In 1960, the government started forced removals, and Mathopestad was earmarked as a white town. From the 1960s to the 1980s the local commissioners stopped all development in the village with the intention of resettling the black villagers. It was during this period that the Mathopestad community resisted by building schools and drilling boreholes to supply the community with water. They obtained the help of a non-government organization to build a clinic, and in the early seventies built the first high school with the help of NPOs, the Black Sash and the then opposition party, the Progressive Federal Party (PFP), under the leadership of Mrs. H. Suzman and Mr. P. Saul. With the threat of forced removals hanging over the community, the Chief and headmen met with a variety of Ministers of Land Affairs, starting with Mr. van der Walt then Mr. B. Wilkens and lastly with Mr. P. Koornhof. As they could not convince the Ministers to remove the threat of forced removals, they turned to the World Council of Churches with the help of S. Duncan (then President of the Black Sash). During this period, the Council of Church invited an American senator to intervene. In addition the Kgosi wrote an open letter to the USA Secretary of State, through the New York Times (verified by researcher in New York Times, 1985). In the early 1980s, the

community received the good news that the community of Mathopestad would not be forcibly moved anymore. Thereafter developments in the village started in earnest”.

The GRCF decided to apply their new strategy of horizontal philanthropy (a methodology that combined community mapping and asset-based citizen driven development, as a result of a grant application from a community member for a child care giver initiative in the village of Mathopestad in 2009.

3.3.1 Pre-preparation

Briefing of the community leadership on any pending PRA application is crucial. In the case of Mathopestad the community leadership were briefed on the aims and objectives of the ABCD approach. The Kgosi and his Tribal Council were present at the orientation and information sessions on the process to be followed. Mutual expectations of the outcome of the process were also discussed among all stakeholders.

3.3.2 Three day workshop

The workshop planned for Mathopestad was a three day workshop, and was facilitated by then Chairperson of the GRCF Board (who had undergone ABCD training at the Coady International Institute at St Francis Xavier University in Canada), He was assisted by five staff members of the GRCF. Translation from Tswana to English and English to Tswana was done by a staff member at the GRCF.

Eighty eight (88) community members attended the workshop 28 October 2009, and this dropped to forty (40) community members by the last day of the workshop (30 October 2009). The number of community members who dropped out of the workshop was significant, and could not be explained in terms of other work related or community responsibilities.

The workshop was presented in a make-shift tent next to the tribal office. This was the best location for a community gathering and was central for all community members. The workshop organised for Mathopestad was based on the seven step methodology (Figure 3.2) that was a result of the adaption of the ABCD approach (Figure 3.1) of the Coady International Institute with the community asset mapping process used by the GRCF for nine years in various villages in the North-West province.

a. Community appreciative enquiry

The workshop attendees were encouraged to share positive stories from the past. The facilitator urged the community to share stories that made them feel good about themselves and as a community. The methodology followed was that of storytelling and sharing. The purpose of the session was twofold, on the one hand the facilitator used the session to get to know the community on a more personal basis, and on the other hand, the purpose was to create a positive energy of sharing and hope in the workshop.

b. Capacity inventory

Each individual in the workshop was offered the opportunity to share with the rest of the group the skills and abilities they have that might be of value to the community. At this point in the workshop the idea of assets as defined in the ABCD approach was introduced. In the case of Mathopestad the assets identified are summarised in Table 3.2. The focus of the exercise is individual skills that can be used by the community in a collective project.

Table 3.2: The collective assets of Mathopestad as captured during an Asset-based Community Development workshop: October 2009

<i>Human Assets (skills)</i>				<i>Economic Assets</i>	<i>Environmental Assets</i>
Baking	Brick laying	Swimming	Trauma counselling	Small Business	Primary School
Cooking	Building	Beadwork	Home Based Care	Farming equipment	Secondary school
Catering	Brick-making	Photography	HIV Counsellor	Live-stock	Clinic
Sewing	Roofing	Preaching	Conflict resolution	Piggery	Post Office
Knitting	Singing	Mediator	Public Speaking	Poultry	Police Station
Farming	Painting	Facilitation	Electric Appliance	Bottle Store	Graveyard
Gardening	Netball	Poetry writing	repair	Tuck Shop	Landline Telephones
Poultry	Dancing	Catering	Rock blasting	RDP Houses	Library
Soccer	Aerobics	Fruit canning	Traditional dancing	Small Business	Crèche
Tiling	Farming	Fire fighting	Pipe fitting	Tap water	River
Painting	Electrician	Grave digger	Rail-track installation	Electricity	Trees
Paving	Driving	Shoe-making	Office Admin	Tarred roads	Boreholes
Plumbing	Teaching	Dress-making	Computer Skills	Vegetable garden	Grazing land
Nursing	Care-giver	Fruit canning	Project Planner		Wetlands
Hairdressing	Cleaning	Shoe repairs	Organizing and		Mountains
Upholstery	Supervising	Bush Clearing	planning		Sand
			Financial		Stones
			management		Slate
			Good Communicator		Traditional Surgery
			Gardening Landscaping		Tribal Office
			Plastering & Glazing		
			Health & Safety		

c. Association mapping

Participants at the workshop were asked to identify the current projects and existing community associations. These associations are considered to be the social assets of a community. In the case of Mathopestad, a number of home based care organisations, churches, youth clubs and burial societies were identified.

d. Community asset mapping session

The attendees were provided with drawing material to 'build' their own community map (Photograph 3.1). The intention of the process is that the community members build a map that reflects the assets they have identified and possible opportunities in the community as a result of the identification of these assets. The session was hugely interactive and it appeared as if the community understood the purpose of the exercise.



Photograph 3.1: A community map of Mathopestad compiled by community members at an Asset-based Community Development workshop: October 2009

e. Transect walk

The workshop attendees were requested to walk through a selected part of the community, and to re-look at the section of the community through an asset lens. They were then requested to come back to the workshop and add to their community map and at the same time discuss ideas for possible entrepreneurial projects. During this session various ideas were reported that could be considered by the community as possible projects that could facilitate change in the community, these could include:

- Using slate in the area to make tables
- Use grazing land for cattle and cut grass to make brooms, mats and thatch roofs
- Use wild flowers to make perfume
- Put up a small supermarket
- Guest House
- Cinema
- Playground for children
- Home for elders
- Environmental care and action
- Car wash
- Upgrade graveyard and clinic such as the repairs to fences, toilets and the planting of trees
- Use open piece of land to create a recreational park with trees, thatch-shade, cement chairs and tables, braai stands and playground for children
- Use land for camping, fishing - tourism
- Revive the clinic to offer 24/7 services
- Farming.

f. Community economic analysis

The facilitator used the 'leaky bucket' tool (an analogy of a bucket with holes in the bottom), and the water (money) poured into the bucket flows out of the bucket through the holes (that is, the spending of money outside of the community, with the result that the bucket is empty shortly after the water is poured into the bucket). Coady Institute uses this approach and has been tested in a number of communities across the world (Cunningham, 2011). The approach gives communities a practical understanding of the economic situation within their community. Part of the exercise is to convince those present at the workshop that they need to create entrepreneurial opportunities to circulate money within the community and in this way create wealth within the community. A full description of this workshop session in Mathopestad with a detailed explanation of the 'leaky bucket' tool as applied in Mathopestad is captured in the works of Cunningham (2011) and Mathews (2011) in Cunningham (2011) and more recently Mathews (2012).

The tool demonstrated to the participants how much money comes into the particular area through salaries earned, grants or other income and then how much of that money is spent outside the community. Money literally leaks from the community, but the workshop attendees were told that with innovation, money can be circulated within the community and create the multiplier effect.

A detailed analysis was conducted by the community themselves, providing an estimate of the amounts based on a population of +/- 1000 inhabitants. The community for the first time realised that significant amounts of money was brought into the community, yet was being 'lost' through spending outside the community (GRCF, 2009).

Table 3.3: Community economic analysis of Mathopestad: October 2009

<i>Annual Community Income</i>	<i>Money spent in the community</i>	<i>Money spent outside the community</i>
R3.8 million through salaries, government grants and selling of livestock	R100,000	R3.7 million

g. Action planning

The last step in the three-day process was action planning, where participants used the information they gathered and identified, to create a community vision and action plan. This included an explanation and discussion on the following aspects:

- Desired future changes
- Steps required
- Local assets to contribute
- Outside assistance required
- Monitoring and evaluation as to how this required change will be tracked.

In the case of Mathopestad, the community vision and action plan, as the community developed, during the workshop is summarised in Table 3.4.

h. Next steps and planned monitoring and evaluation

The intention was that during the 12 months after the workshop, the community would establish a community development forum, which in turn would identify three definite projects. The intention was that the GRCF would make grants to the projects that demonstrated potential, and this

Table 3.4: Community vision and action plan for Mathopestad: October 2009

<i>Projects of the community</i>	<i>Action plan of the community members</i>	<i>Identified assets</i>
<i>Tshwaraganang</i> Police Forum	Work together as a team. Get more information about crime from the South African Police Service (SAPS). Ask the SAPS to present workshops on crime awareness in the village. To secure and protect our community by ensuring professional communication between the community and police service	Police Station
<i>Re a dira</i> Gardening	Use our own implements, buy seeds and fertilizers. After harvesting, we can sell our products to our and neighbouring communities	Food Plot
<i>Mafika</i> Cleaning Services	Use our own tools like brooms, wheelbarrows, rakes and spades. Recycle empty bottles, paper, plastics and tins. Create a clean and healthy environment for our community	Graveyard Streams River
Police Safety and Security	Unity of people. Gathering of young people to form safety of the community	Security Lights
Burial Scheme	Registration with Department of Health	Human Resources
Piggery, Poultry and Maize farming	Securing land and building and renovation thereof	Existing structures and markets
Security of Youth	Regular roll call of young community members. Have discussions with the Kgosi about the safety and security of children. Provide children with whistles	Human resources especially young men. Security lights
Bakery	Traditional oven baking. Identify suitable building for the bakery. Collect firewood and building material. Collect utensils and pans	Human skills. Trees for wood. Own pans and utensils Money for ingredients
Mathopestad Youth Club	Gather youth. Identify skills	Hall. Sports Ground Coach
<i>Ratanang</i> Sewing Project	Get material. Skills	Tailors Sewing Machines

would be followed by monitoring and evaluation to determine the impact of any grants made.

3.3.3 Monitoring and evaluation

The first meeting after the workshop took place on 20 February 2010. The group leaders from the first three day workshop attended the meeting, members of staff from the GRCF and members of staff from the Department of Geography (Unisa). In attendance was Kgosi Solomon and representatives of some of the Christian Based Organisations (CBO) in the village. The GRCF facilitated the meeting which was an informal discussion that provided feedback. Table 3.5 provides a summary of the feedback provided by the community (GRCF, 2010).

Only the group representatives from the initial three-day ABCD workshop were invited to the feedback session and this worked well as a smaller group allowed for more open and free discussion. These representatives were tasked with the responsibility of giving feedback to the rest of the workshop attendees and to formalise the Community Development Forum. It was also noted during discussions that the Community Development Worker (CDW) from the Rustenburg Local Municipality (Ward 36), which includes Mathopestad, was reported as being inactive, and the GRCF undertook to address this on behalf of the community. The GRCF decided to continue monitoring existing projects that it could support financially and provide small financial grants to initiate the first phases of new projects. From the feedback it was clear that the various groups would need support from other external donors, and assistance in this regard from the GRCF would be provided to the community. The researcher on behalf of the Department of Geography (Unisa) offered to provide technical support and skills sharing as

Table 3.5: Mathopestad feedback on the three-day Asset-based Community Development workshop: February 2010

<i>Questions</i>	<i>Responses (some edited in terms of language)</i>
Explain your experience of the three-day ABCD process	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I learned that a community forum needed to be established to oversee development and projects and monitor communication between project leadership and tribal/ political leadership • I realized that there is plenty of sand available to make bricks • I am so excited! I always felt like an outsider but this process gave me an opportunity to express myself to community members • We have since initiated a poultry project and have started planting some vegetables for sale • Since the workshop, I have been very surprised to see how much people actually care for one another • The first two days were very boring but on the last day I scored some points when I could see how everything fits together. I have started two projects and would like to thank you for showing me that I can make it on my own • I learned that we need to do things for ourselves in order to change our lives • I learned that communication and unity in a community are needed for our success • I learned a lot, but did not implement anything as I need further assistance in the implementation process • I was not aware that there are so many resources available in our community • We as a home base care learned a valuable lesson. We always tell others to have a food garden, but we ourselves do not have one. We must start a garden and for that we need a water pump
Tell us some of your success stories	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A community member has started a poultry project on his own and it would seem as if this project will be successful • A group of young villagers started a bakery that includes the delivery of bread to households. This effort was very successful until the money started coming in and this has resulted in conflict in the group. Money management is a serious problem and the project has now lost momentum • One group interested in animal health has approached Department of Agriculture for training and the supply of medicines and materials to provide basic animal care in the community • There are a number of discussion and planning meetings about a brick making project where bricks can be provided to government for local housing projects • One participant expressed the need for trained HIV councillors and immediately another delegate demonstrated that she was actually a skilled and trained HIV councillor who would love the opportunity to share her expertise and experience
Challenges you have experienced	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Money and other resources like seeds and transport are needed to start the projects • There is a need for technical support and training to start a community development forum • There is a need for further assistance in terms of project planning, strategies, targets, budgets and the writing of a business plan or funding proposal • Funding and the distance to market remains a challenge for the group

part of the research and community engagement directives of the Department of Higher Education and Training.

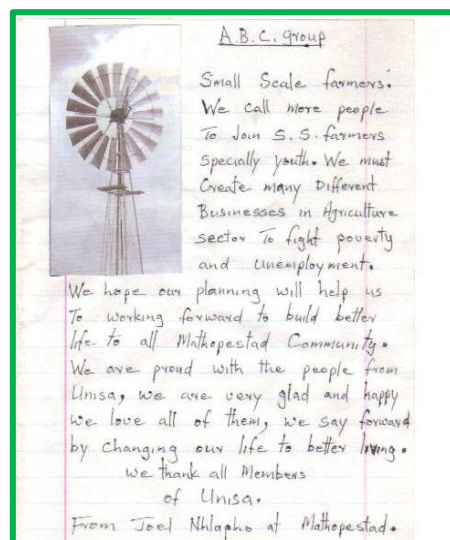
This was the first feedback session of the first ABCD workshop and the GRCF described the process as 'What an experience! What a take-off for something as exhilarating as a positive future for communities in the Bojanala Region' (GRCF, 2010:2). The experience of the ABCD workshop for the community of Mathopestad and the GRCF was nothing short of a wow- factor. All stakeholders seemed to be amazed to see the assets that are at the disposal of rural communities. The GRCF was of the opinion that the asset-based mind-set would unlock more resources that could be more efficiently applied in such a way that it would serve not only the community and its needs, but also donors with their particular philanthropic intentions.

The initial success was so significant that the researcher as the Unisa organiser of the "Back to the ABCDs: creating an enabling environment for sustainable socio-economic development at grassroots level through community driven initiatives" Conference (24 to 26 March 2010), decided to include a field visit to Mathopestad as part of the Conference (UNISA, 2010). The most important key note speakers at this conference were from the Coady International Institute of St Francis Xavier University, Canada. This Institute was then, and probably still is, the leading implementer of ABCD in many countries in the Global South. It was thus important for the researcher and the GRCF to have the three representatives from the Coady International Institute visit the community and to share their views on ABCD and the success of its application in Mathopestad. The representatives were positive about Mathopestad as an example of a successful case study of the application of ABCD and this was reflected as such in their respective presentations at the Conference itself.

From its initial application in Mathopestad, it appeared that ABCD was indeed a tool that could be used in rural communities where the following three dimensions of sustainable change in the community would be upheld:

- Sustainability of a community
- Sustainability of service organizations
- Sustainability of projects.

The GRCF and academics from Unisa visited the community regularly (March, April, and May July, August, November, and December) throughout 2010 to deal with a number of issues and challenges identified. During the first 12 months, significant successes of the ABCD application were reported (Photograph 3.2). The most important were a poultry project of an individual, a vegetable garden at the primary school, the start of a vegetable garden at the high school, a group vegetable garden, the planning for a piggery project and a community vegetable garden that would have commercial potential (Photograph 3.3).



Photograph 3.2:

A letter from a community member to the community of Mathopestad: August 2010



Photograph 3.3: Success projects in Mathopestad as a result of Asset-based Community Development: October 2010

During the year after the application of ABCD in Mathopestad, academics from the Unisa provided much needed technical and skills support in terms of projects in the community. The opportunity to work closely and regularly with community members was of huge value for the academics, as they ventured into the realm of participant observation during their respective activities of the sharing of knowledge and skills in terms of sustainable projects. These observations provided sufficient information by the end of

2010 that pointed towards a number of serious challenges in the community that could negatively impact on the sustainability of the project itself.

3.3.4 Roots-driven change challenges identified in Mathopestad after Asset-based Community Development

Within one year of the application of ABCD, the assumptions made of the GRCF and the researcher in 2009 were called into question when the successes in Mathopestad were overshadowed by an increasing number of challenges (some of which were already reported during the initial feedback visit on 20 February 2010 (see Table 3.5). These challenges were documented during the various visits of the GRCF members of staff, the researcher, other academics in the Department of Geography, and by a visiting academic from Ethiopia to the community during 2010.

The first problems identified in the community related to finances, for example, the bakery established within six weeks of the workshop was non-functional within six months due to the lack of skills to deal with finances and disagreements about how the money should be divided between the group. This problem also occurred with the group working in the school food garden, however the matter of responsibilities in terms of division of work added to the lack of success of the school food garden. The poultry business was also doomed to failure due to jealousy of other community members, who felt that the individual was 'favoured' by the external stakeholders and thus the reason for his success (B. Mmokele, personal communication, April 3, 2013). The projects depicted in Photograph 3.3 no longer existed by the end of 2011. Further indications that the ABCD application had not affected sustainable change in the community were when some of the champions in the community in terms

of the ABCD application were employed outside of the community. Also, when they left the community (albeit for short periods), the momentum of change in the community started to decline (A. Delport, personal communication, April 3, 2013). Overall, despite the ABCD application, the community was plagued with high levels of jealousy, low levels of trust, and a general lack of cohesion in the community (A. Delport, personal communication, April 3, 2013; B. Mmokele, personal communication, April 3, 2013). It is significant that the power struggles within the community did not come from the Kgosi. According to Mmokele (B. Mmokele, personal communication, April 3, 2013), Mathopestad is actually fortunate that they have a Chief who did not stand in the way of change. It was rather due to the undercurrents within the community itself that resulted in power struggles that had a negative impact on the community to apply sustainable change and embrace the possibilities presented in ABCD.

It is unfortunate that the case study of Mathopestad has been included as a case study of a 'successful' ABCD application in South Africa (Cunningham, 2011) and more recently at the conference 'Strategies to overcome structural poverty and inequality in South Africa: towards Carnegie III, 3-7 September 2012' (Mathews, 2012). This despite the fact that those claiming 'success', have not been back to the community since March 2010 to establish if the initial success were sustainable, and to establish any shortcomings in the approach. Claims of early success has provided the GRCF and the researcher with sufficient caution against claiming success" over a short period of time using a tool that has as its intention long term sustainability objectives.

Eighteen months after applying the adapted ABCD approach (Figure 3.2), a critical self-reflection of the application, monitoring and evaluation of the process indicated to the GRCF and the researcher that ABCD had failed to clarify the exact role of external agents and institutions in the community

development process. ABCD empowerment workshops had failed to deal with the unequal power issues in the community. In its application, ABCD does not address how to foster community leadership in varying settings, especially when applied to a tribal/rural setting (A. Delpont, personal communication, April 3, 2013; C. Delpont, personal communication, April 5, 2013; B. Mmokele, personal communication, April 3, 2013).

3.3.5 The transition of ABCD to CAMP as a tool for wealth creation in rural South Africa

Mathopestad is now in the next phase of development which includes three sustainable integrated agricultural projects, namely the development of a piggery, poultry farming and a community vegetable garden with the aim to become a commercial farming project. This was however only achieved with specific and directed interventions after the application of ABCD.

The pilot ABCD project took place in the rural town of Mathopestad, overseen by a tribal chief. There was an excellent response and some wonderful projects generated from this training back in October 2009, but there were also challenges as well, including local governance issues. The challenges identified resulted in a number of modifications to the programme, one of which was the inclusion of trust and power mapping exercises designed to look at the risks associated with power structures in communities. Due to the modifications of the programme, there was a thriving vegetable garden, a home based care, and a community policing forum in Mathopestad. Some of the original members that attended training later left after receiving employment opportunities elsewhere, and this has slowed some projects down, overall there is a positive outcome as it suggests the development initiatives also motivated individuals to find work and perhaps even made them more employable.

In following chapters, various case studies of the application of community asset mapping are presented in such a way that the reader can follow the transformation of the ABCD approach to CAMP, a tool that is postulated in this thesis to be more relevant in the facilitation of sustainable socio-economic change in the Global South and for rural communities in South Africa in particular.

Chapter Four: The development of CAMP for the rural communities in South Africa: Case study from the Free State Province

The most recent estimation of the number living in poverty in the Free State Province is 32.83 %, and there seems to be a trend that the levels of poverty in the Province are getting worse (Statistics South Africa, 2012). Feloane Village in the Mantsopa Local Municipality (Thabo Mofutsanyana District) and is geographically located less than 10 kilometres south of Thaba N'chu in (see Figure 1.1), which in turn is located about 60 kilometres from Bloemfontein in the Free State Province. During the apartheid years the area was classified as part of the Bophuthatswana Homeland for the Tswana speaking people and was characterised with high levels of poverty and inequality. The major languages spoken by the people in the Village are Tswana and Sotho; the Village is rural and has a traditional authority. The community has around 100 households and each household has access to a three hectare farms.

A community member approached the researcher (P. Mabote, personal communication, February 13, 2011), who at the time was employed as a Security Official on the main campus of the Unisa in Pretoria. Mr. Mabote had read the various internal institutional media coverage on the activities of the Department of Geography in the North-West Province and expressed his wish that a similar process be undertaken in his home village.

Arrangements to present the empowerment programme, now called Community Asset Mapping Programme (CAMP) in Feloane Village were made with the traditional leader of the Village, through correspondence during the latter half of 2011. The lack of a NPO operating within the Village that would be able to oversee the monitoring and evaluation of the programme after running a workshop was a problem, as the researcher was not in a position to make a commitment to the community for medium to long term

monitoring and evaluation. For this reason the researcher made contact with the community development worker from the Department of Social Development of the Free State Provincial Government that was responsible for the Village, and who would be able to attend the workshop and monitor the progress of the community after the workshop.

The application of the asset mapping programme in Feloane was different to the application in Mathopestad. As the focus in Feloane was to lay the foundations for Community Asset Mapping Programme (CAMP) that is postulated in this thesis.

4.1 The four day workshop

Three members from the GRCF and three members from the Department of Geography, Unisa, facilitated the workshop. Two staff members from the GRCF provided translation from Tswana to English and English to Tswana was provided by two staff members of the GRCF. The Department of Geography facilitated the logistical arrangements for the workshop, while Unisa sponsored the workshop.

Ninety eight (98) community members attended the workshop from 21 to 24 February 2012. The community members were mostly over the age of 50 years, with very few below the age of 25 years. There was no bias towards one gender. These attendees were community members from Feloane Village only. The majority of attendees were not comfortable with communicating in English and this meant the majority of the discussions had to be translated. The community development worker from the Department of Social Development, Free State Province also attended.

The workshop was held at the community hall of the Village. The community hall is also the central meeting place of the community, and was considered to be the most accessible location for the four day workshop.

The facilitator opened the workshop with a discussion on the purpose of the visit and the workshop. The role of Mr. Mabote as the community member who works at Unisa was acknowledged. The role of the University and the GRCF was explained and it was very clearly indicated that the Community Development Worker from the Department of Social Development was in attendance and would be responsible for the monitoring and evaluation of the process after the University and the Non Profit Organisation exited the community.

The purpose of community asset mapping as tool to relieve poverty in rural areas was briefly discussed. The facilitator made it very clear that the purpose of the workshop would not be to blame the government/local authority or the traditional office for levels of poverty or difficulties experienced in the community. The purpose of the workshop was to establish what the Feloane community has to offer one other, identify the assets of the community, and in this way discover the potential Feloane Village has to improve their own quality of life.

The rules of the workshop were specified:

- All community members had to remain positive
- There would be no test as was no right and wrong answers
- All attendees needed to respect one another, when one representative of the workshop speaks the others must listen and once the person has finished speaking, the facilitator was provided an opportunity to comment

- Community members were urged to share their success stories with the rest of the community.

Once the representative of the Ngosi addressed the workshop, the participants were divided into eight groups of mixed ages and gender, and the groups named themselves:

- Tshokoleleng
- Fepo
- Butterflies
- Kopano
- Nthuseng
- Old/Young
- Itireleng
- Mocheso.

a. Community appreciative enquiry and association mapping

The facilitator reiterated that the purpose of the workshop was to focus on the positive aspects of the community and not the negative. It was explained that if one looks closely one will find success stories in any community. The groups were asked to tell success stories of their community to the group members, and then asked to decide as a group which story should be shared with the rest of the workshop groups and the external facilitators (Table 4.1).

The stories the community presented indicated that the community already had an advantage of many successful stories in terms of small and medium enterprises. The recognition of these stories and the way the stories were told, provided the facilitators with valuable insight as there seemed to be a good understanding of what is required to start a business and the hardships

Table 4.1 Community success stories of the Feloane Village, Free State Province, February 2012

<i>Group</i>	<i>Group</i>
<p><i>Tshokoleleng</i></p> <p>This group told the story of a man named Lebogang who started planting vegetables; he decided to open a tuck shop to sell his vegetables. He then opened a mortuary and has become a very successful undertaker. He has a number of hearses and limousines. He assists community member with burial services if they cannot afford burial services. He often donates money to the community, sponsors a soccer team and is know all over the Province.</p>	<p><i>Fepo</i></p> <p>Told the story of Mr. Mathews, an unemployed community member, who started to plant a vegetable garden to feed his family. He also sold firewood and bricks. He took this money to buy seeds and a plough to expand his vegetable garden. He also started to buy and sell cattle and then horses. He purchased a number of dairy cows and started selling milk to the local hospital and the High School. He expanded his business by starting a piggery and currently employs more than 20 community members.</p>
<p><i>Kopano</i></p> <p>Shared the story of Mrs. Monari who as a young lady started an orphanage. She would provide a home for orphans and ensure that the necessary documentation was completed and submitted to the authorities for each orphan. She gave them homes and cared for the children, many of whom are now adults and working.</p>	<p><i>Itireleng</i></p> <p>The group told the story of Mr. Mosebi, who started a dairy and sold milk in the community and to surrounding villages. He was able to save money and started helping the community, especially orphans. He then purchased seeds and started a community garden. He also started buying horses for re-sale. He employs two community members.</p>
<p><i>Nthuseng</i></p> <p>Told the story of a group of farmers who would grew vegetables for re-sale. While the community was part of the old Bophuthatswana government they were assisted. However, this stopped in 1994, and the group's work has come to a standstill.</p>	<p><i>Mocheso</i></p> <p>This group told the story of Mr. Mpholo who bought seed and started a garden. He sells vegetables to the community and nearby township. He provides vegetables to the school, and the home for the aged. He employs some members from the community.</p>
<p><i>Butterflies</i></p> <p>This group told the story of a community member named Mavis, who started selling cigarettes and sweets from her shack. She then decided to start selling phone time. She approached Telkom and she purchases phone time and re-sells to the community. She has built a tuck shop with the money earned, and has now approached Eskom for permission to sell electricity to the community.</p>	<p><i>Old/Young</i></p> <p>Told the story of Mr. Motshimong who had started a vegetable garden, then a poultry business and started selling eggs. He has opened a shop and is very generous to the community who consider him to be a beacon of hope for the community.</p>

associated with such a venture. The community was very generous in their praise of community members and recognised others achievements and were proud of the achievements of fellow community members. Some of the success stories were of individuals who were present at the workshop and they were obviously proud and extremely touched when they heard that the community regarded them in high esteem.

The closing session took the form of self-reflection. The attendees were asked to think about how the success stories of other individuals made them feel about themselves.

b. Capacity inventory and association mapping

To start the information gathering process, the attendees were asked to reflect on their individual skills, with regards to their hands, head and heart. The concept of a skill being an asset to the individual and the community was explained, and translated to the group. This exercise is the start of the self-identification of possible assets that can be used to create entrepreneurial opportunities. Table 4.2 and Photograph 4.1 reflect the collective individual assets in Feloane Village.

The collective skills set of the community is high, and the audited list was presented to the community as their assets. Should they need to buy in these skills it would cost money, and they need to make use of the skills of the community members when thinking of possible entrepreneurial opportunities.

The workshop then investigated the communal assets of the community. This is commonly referred to as association mapping in the typical Asset Mapping approach and within the ABCD approach in particular.

Table 4.2 Individual assets and skills of community members from Feloane Village, Free State Province, February 2012

<i>Hands</i>	<i>Heads</i>	<i>Hearts</i>
Ability to plant	Implement	Love
Ability to build	Think	Wish
Plumbing	Plan	Care
Washing	Pray	Sympathise
Cooking	Memorize	Happy
Ironing	Discuss	Goodness
Writing	Dream	Peace
Decorate	Brain Storm	Respect
Plough	Arrange	Empathy
Irrigate	Teach	Compassion
Bake	Read	Understand
Drive	Understand	Work together
Sewing	Organise	Feel shame
Electricity	Strategize	Mercy
Hairdressing	Communicate	Tender
Draw	Calculate	Humble
Carpentry		Sad
Glass fitting		Hope
Design Clothes		Forgiving
Milk cows		Cherish
Cut wood		Faithful
Look after animals		Honest
Sign Language		Loyalty
Plastering		Calm

HANDS	HEAD	HEART
Planting	implement	LOVE
Building	think	wishes
Plumbing	Plan	Care
Touch	Pray	Sympathise
Comfort/Hug	memorize	Secrets
Cook	discuss	Happy
Wash Iron	Dreaming	goodness
Hold	Brain Storm	Peace
Write	arrange	respect
leaning	teach	empathy
catch the Ball	read	feel/compassion
air	understand	understand
decorate	dreaming	working together
ough	use mind	Be surprised
rigate	organise	feel shame
ake	strategize	Mercy
ve	Communication	tender
ing	Calculation	dreaming
Integrity		Humble
dress		Saol
w		Bad
penry		Hope
		well

Photograph 4.1: Individual assets of the Feloane Community, Free State Province, February 2012

The groups were once again asked to work as teams to identify the various assets within their community. The assets the groups were asked to identify included human, social, economic and environmental assets (see section 3.1.3). The collective assets of the community are reflected in Table 4.3 and Photograph 4.2.

Table 4.3: Human, social, economic and environmental assets of Feloane Village, Free State Province, February 2012

<i>Human Assets: Skills, gifts, abilities and talents</i>	<i>Social assets: Associations, community based organisations and groups</i>	<i>Economic assets: Entrepreneurial, existing and emerging business activities</i>	<i>Environmental Assets: Physical and natural surroundings</i>
Plumbing Baking Choir Teachers Farmers Brick layers Security Sewing Fencing Ploughing Cooking Cleaning services Health care workers Tailors Hairdressers Caterers Nurses Shoe-maker Plaster Tile Road Maintenance	Mobile clinic Pre school Primary school Churches from various denominations Soccer club Old age recreation centre Community tractor Home-based care World Vision Police Forum Dry vegetable project Wool project Clinics Parks Cemetery Community hall	Dairy Vegetables Grain SA (ARC) Tuck shops Poultry (eggs) Catering Dry vegetables Computers Taxi Air time sales Electricity sales	Mountain Dam Trees Land Forest River Wild animals Furrows Boreholes Water Stone for building Spring water Windmill



Photograph 4.2: Human, social, economic and environmental assets of Feloane Village, Free State Province, February 2012

The capacity inventory and association mapping was concluded with a discussion of individual and community assets that exist in the community. The vibrant discussion focussed on the existing assets and not on any deficiencies in terms of assets. Allowing the community to critically reflect on their inventory of communal and individual assets it was possible that when one looked at the list, it was clear this community was actually well off in terms of its assets.

c. *Wishes, fears, trust and values processes*

Based on the experience in Mathopestad, the wishes, fears, trust and values processes were introduced as different sessions into the programme. Individuals were asked to complete a template (Photograph 4.3) reflecting their wishes and fears and those for their communities.

The image shows two examples of the 'Wishes and Fears' template. Each form is divided into four quadrants: 'FOR MYSELF' WISHES, 'FOR MYSELF' FEARS, 'FOR MY COMMUNITY' WISHES, and 'FOR MY COMMUNITY' FEARS. The forms are filled with handwritten text in a local language.

WISHES AND FEARS (Individual)	
Name: Eliu Mampaso	
WISHES	FEARS
FOR MYSELF	FOR MYSELF
1. Ke labalabala qe mo besele jamae ke ke ke le seque seke bo diveka.	1. bila die diplesang ke madi
2. Ke labalabala qe leson ke rona umo le mome ke e tshwile beqele 3. ke le momeke 4. ke le momeke thote	2. seaphe mo mome 3. o fa e na qe dia seque mo diplesal 4. ke madi mo o bese mome a sekele bete qobona.
FOR MY COMMUNITY	FOR MY COMMUNITY
1. ke na tshwile beke mo mo seke wa qe e se 2. ke na tshwile beke e botum 3. Bo qe ke 4. mo dikousam di mo ag jeng	1. ke na tshwile beke mo 2. Medshwile qe ke qea businesseke

WISHES AND FEARS (Individual)	
Name: Leanne Dlamini	
WISHES	FEARS
FOR MYSELF	FOR MYSELF
1. want to have my own family To have my own business To be an accountant To be one of the persons who will run the community To be a teacher	Shortage of money Lack of knowledge I don't have someone who will help me I am shy Young people don't like me
FOR MY COMMUNITY	FOR MY COMMUNITY
To have many projects To have many sports To have schools # " Clinic	They many things Lack of people Shortage of goods Lack of water

Photograph 4.3 *Template used to establish the wishes and fears individuals in Feloane village have for themselves and their community, Free State Province, February 2012*

It was very clear during this exercise that all wished to have a better life, and the majority expressed a desire to start their own (or a community) business. They all desired to possess their own homes. The older generation wanted to be good role models for the younger generation. Many wanted to be proud of themselves and their community. Many wished

to be respected by the community. Many wish to retain close community ties and desired community support for their individual initiatives.

Almost all the individuals in the community were scared of failing in their initiatives. They were concerned that their actions would result in the community losing respect for them. They feared judgement, lack of support and failure. The following were listed as fears for their community:

- Unemployment
- Backstabbing
- Blackmail
- Crime
- Jealousy
- Gossiping
- Teenage pregnancy
- Disrespect of elders
- Divisions in the community
- Alcohol abuse after success
- Drug abuse.

This was followed by the session to determine the levels of trust within the community. The community members were asked to answer four questions:

- Do you trust yourself?
- Why do you trust yourself?
- Who do I trust in my community?
- Why do I trust them?

The results of this session were not shared with the group and were kept confidential. The facilitators however received the responses and used

them to establish if any further intervention in this regard was required by the community or an external partner in the process. An analysis of the levels of trust in the community indicated that the community itself did not have sustainable levels of trust within themselves or as a community. It was recommended to the community development worker to pursue this matter in the monitoring and evaluation phase, by bringing in professionals to assist with the lack of trust in the community.

At this point in the workshop, a sombre atmosphere descended on the attendees, and in an attempt to lighten the moment, all attendees and the facilitators were asked to stand up and form a circle. This was the start of a simple game where a person enters the circle and did something that all community members mimic. When the person in the circle wished to exit the circle he/she had to touch the hand of someone in the circle, who then entered the circle and proceeded to do something which the group had to follow (Photograph 4.4). While the exercise provided a lighter note to the afternoon session after a very emotional and demanding day for all attendees at the workshop, this exercise concluded an important component of self-reflection for the individuals. The message was that community members sometimes needed to be leaders and sometimes they needed to be followers. The most important lesson was that when one was in the middle of the circle (leading) one needed to stand up and do the best one could. If one was in the circle (following), one needed to follow the person who was leading and do this to the best of one's ability. Another lesson from the exercise was that one should not fear failure, one needed to enter the circle and try to overcome one's fear when expected to do so as there are many people around one who were there to help. Breaking the circle was done by a follow-your-leader exercise when all the members turned to their left and placed their hands on the hips of the person in front of them. The whole workshop group was then lead out of the community hall. Once again, the message of the exercise was that one needed to trust your leaders, and if

one did not trust the direction of a leader, one needed to form one's own group to lead.



Photograph 4.4: Join the circle exercise at Feloane Village, Free State Province, February 2012

The final session of the morning was to establish the value systems of the community. This was once again done using a simple template that contained three questions that each community member had to answer individually. These questions were:

- What do you value about yourself?
- What do you value about others in your community?
- What do you value about your community.

The results of this exercise were not shared with the community as a whole, but were collected by the facilitators as a information gathering session on the community. Some of the answers to the questions appear in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: The values of the community members in Feloane Village, Free State Province, February 2012

<i>What do I value about myself?</i>	<i>What do I value about others in my community?</i>	<i>What do I value about my community?</i>
I am a good person, because I trust myself	They sit down and solve problems that arise amongst them	We have very spacious land to farm
I am a hard worker	They make me happy	We have beautiful lands and the mountain is very special
I help others to be better people	We respect one another	Feloane community members are respectful and are proud to live here
I am free of gossip	We can work together	This community is selfless and helpful
I am strong and humble	We always share ideas	Peaceful, we do not quarrel
I am a peaceful person	This is a community with a good heart	We have good irrigation and water resources
I am sympathetic	We have so many projects	We have so many big trees

d. Problem solving ability of the community

Once individuals had established the value systems of their community they were asked to indicate what changes they would like for themselves and for their community. Each group was asked to identify one major problem in their community; they were then asked to discuss the problem and to suggest a few solutions to the problem. The purpose of this exercise was to establish the problem solving capacity of the community. The results of the exercise appear in Table 4.5.

It was clear during the exercise that the community desired change. The identification of a number of significant social problems in the community and the possible solutions offered the community provided insight that the community was able to make changes to their own lives should they be given the opportunity to do so (Unisa/GRCF, 2012a).

Table 4.5: Problem identification and possible solutions in Feloane Village, Free State Province, February 2012

<i>Group and problem identified</i>	<i>Possible solution</i>	<i>Group and problem identified</i>	<i>Group and problem identified</i>
<i>Tshokoleleng</i> and <i>Nthuseng</i> identified alcohol abuse	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establish a community organisation to deal with the problem • Find out the reasons why community members turn to alcohol • Establish awareness programmes • Approach the Department of Health to send professional people to speak to those who abuse alcohol • Find out where community members who abuse alcohol can go to for rehabilitation. • Restrict the tavern hours. 	<i>Itireleng</i> , identified teenage pregnancy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Approach the Department of Health to provide all high school learners with information (pamphlets) and condoms • Use the community centre and arrange for a speaker to create an awareness of the negative impacts of teenage pregnancies • Create an entertainment centre near the community hall to keep teenagers occupied with activities they find interesting.
<i>Fepo</i> , identified stock theft	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arrange a meeting with the community and the Headsman to discuss theft • Form groups that can work together to protect animals. Form patrols that will take place 24 hours a day, seven days a week • Hire a shepherd to look after the animals • Investigate the branding of animals. 	<i>Butterflies</i> , identified unemployment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This group identified a number of entrepreneurial opportunities for the community: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vegetable gardens • Designing and making of clothes • Catering • Create a sports centre to employ young people.
<i>Old/Young</i> , identified a food garden for the needy	This group wished to find land on the outskirts of the village and would plant vegetables to be distributed to the school, orphanage and old-age home.	<i>Kopano</i> , identified speeding in the community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have scholar patrol near the school • Awareness programme on the danger of speeding • Approach the traditional authority office to build speed barriers in the village.
<i>Mocheso</i> , selected the problem of human and child abuse	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Convene a meeting to discuss the problem in the community as a whole • Approach the traditional council to help prevent identified perpetrators from continuing such abuse • Home for the victims of such abuse. 		

e. Power mapping

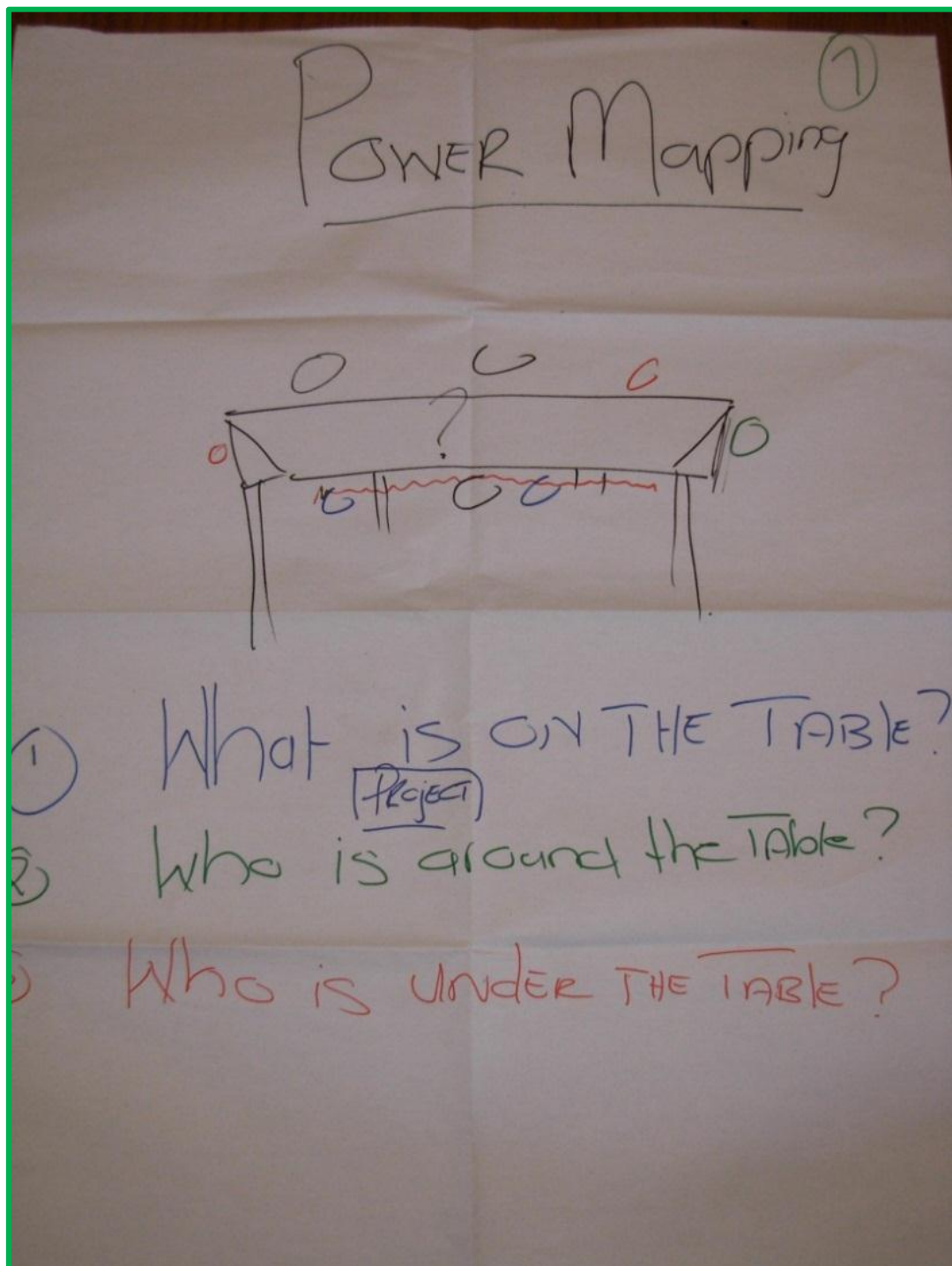
One of the reasons for the failure of projects in the case study of Mathopestad was the power struggles amongst community members. The power mapping exercise was introduced to create awareness amongst the community that all projects have key people who are critical for the success of a project. Similarly, they should be cautious of the people who are 'under the table' and have the potential of jeopardising a project. The session also provided valuable information for the outsiders who was be able to establish if power plays there evident in the community and if so, be in a position to deal with the problem before the problem impacted negatively on the progress of community projects.

The facilitator explained the concept of power mapping using the analogy of a table (Photograph 4.5). The different role players in a project could be seen within different capacities working with the group, working against the group, and undermining the group. The fact that one person can play more than one role was also discussed.

The groups were asked to identify possible entrepreneurial projects and to use these to try and identify the role players. The role players in the power mapping exercise in Feloane are recorded in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Power mapping of Feloane Village, Free State Province, February 2012

<i>Who is at this table?</i>	<i>Who is on the table?</i>	<i>Who is under the table?</i>
Community development worker	Traditional Council	Ourselves
Vulnerable people	Department of Social Development	Debtors
Group members	Department of Health	Dishonesty of the group
Community groups	Department of Agriculture	Lack of money
	Big Business	Drought



Photograph 4.5: Power mapping flip chart used in Feloane Village, Free State Province, February 2012

During this session, it appeared that despite the difficulty in understanding the concept of power mapping which had to be translated on more than one occasions, there was an understanding of potential power struggles that impacted on a group project. It is significant that this community did not mention the traditional authorities as a possible power under the table. This was also in line with the situation in Mathopestad (which was also under traditional leadership) where the Ngosi was not considered a threat to communities they wished to create better opportunities for themselves.

f. Cognitive shift to establishing opportunities for own wealth generation

Using the leaky bucket analogy that is used in the ABCD approach, the concept of keeping money within the community was explained to the attendees. Using an actual bucket with holes in the bucket and pouring water into the bucket, provided a light hearted explanation of the concept that each community member could understand.

The participants were requested to provide an estimation of their monthly income and expenses (within the community and outside of the community). It was estimated that there were 55 households included in the group in the workshop. Their estimated income was R58 444.00, and their estimated expense was R72 055.00. Apart from the community spending more than they earned, it was further established that only R17 429.00 of their money was spent within the community, and that the majority of the earnings were spent outside of the community. A discussion about possible options and the advantages of trying to keep this money in the community, led to a discussion on the types of projects that can be developed to keep their money within the community (Unisa/GRCF, 2012a).

g. Community maps and the transect walk

The eight groups were provided with equipment to build their own community maps (Photograph 4.6) and include the assets as (discussed during the workshop) and possible projects that the community could undertake. The vibrant discussions in the groups indicated that a number of opportunities were available to the community members.



Photograph 4.6: Community map constructed by one of the groups in Feloane Village, Free State Province, February 2012

Once the community mapping exercise had reached a point where the ideas of the groups were depleted, the community members were requested to walk around their Village to identify assets that they were not aware of. The facilitators who walked with the community learnt much from the community, and community members were amazed at the number of assets they had, and never really considered as assets (Photograph 4.7). Based on this information the group was asked to identify potential projects.



Photograph 4.7: Transect walk in Feloane Village, Free State Province, February 2012

h. Opportunities identified by the community to effect change in their communities

The following projects were identified by the community:

- Poultry (eggs and meat)
- Youth Centre
- Commercial Vegetable Production
- Sheep and Piggery
- Commercial Dairy Production.

Each group presented their respective projects in terms of:

- A description of the project, and community needs of the project
- Actions or steps that would be required to start the project
- Identification of the assets that could be used to make the project successful
- List of the outside assistance that would be required
- Measures on how to determine the success of the project.

After the presentation of the project plans, the community members initiated a discussion on basic project management and they linked the discussion to the power mapping exercise. The discussions were open, frank and honest and direct (Unisa/GRCF, 2012a).

The community decided to create a community forum that would have the following roles:

- Liaise with the Department of Social Development, and should it be required contact the Unisa and the GRCF for assistance
- The forum would hold discussions with the traditional authority to explain the process and the motivation of the programme
- Assist the groups in their various initiatives and mediator should conflict develops.

The fact that the community initiated the development of the forum indicated that the community was serious about taking the opportunity to change their way of life and deal with the levels of poverty in the community.

4.2 Monitoring and Evaluation

A community forum was established to ensure that the community progresses with their initiative. This forum served as the contact between government and possible NPOs for assistance. It was recommended that the Department of Social Development provides follow up workshops to monitor the progress of the different projects. In addition, Social Development needed to assist the community forum in accessing the required skills and monetary support to the different projects. Feedback on the progress at Feloane Village since the workshop is positive. Individual projects are progressing well and a number of group projects were started and some are progressing well. During the latter half of 2012, the

community convinced the Provincial Government to include them as part of the Mohoma-Mobung Project, which is a Farming Development Advancement Strategy of the Province. This meant that the community received nine tractors and a number of machines for an agro-processing and a food ponds project. In addition, the community celebrated World Food Day in October 2012, and received a donation of 1000 ornamental trees and 514 peach trees. These very significant donations which were aligned to the communities' projects and their own indicators of success will hopefully assist the community to change in a sustainable direction. The researcher is however concerned that the change in the community is happening at a highly commercial level with external partners that might have their own agenda. Importantly, if the cognitive shift of the community from a needs-based approach to an asset-based approach was not successful, the changes in the community might not be successful in the long term.

4.3 Lesson learnt in Feloane from and for the Community Asset Mapping Programme

A number of additional processes were included in the Community Asset Mapping Programme in Feloane Village, when compared to the earlier application in Mathopestad. These included:

- Power mapping
- Wishes and fears
- Values
- Trust
- Problem solving
- Creation of a community forum.

While it is clear that some of the processes needed refinement, it appeared that the introduction of the new processes into the asset mapping programme were successful from the point of view of the outsider, as information about the social dynamics of the community were gathered by the researcher. This information provided valuable input into the recommendations to the community development worker who continued with the monitoring and evaluation of the progress of the community after the workshop. It was also significant to witness the cognitive shift of community members during the trust, wishes, fears and power processes. It was hoped that this self-realisation and self-reflection of the community members assisted them in making sound decisions on their journey out of poverty.

The Community Asset Mapping Programme that had developed from the ABCD approach in Mathopestad had been refined during its application in Feloane Village, and the programme was now ready for application in other rural villages. In the next chapter, the application of the newly developed CAMP was applied in a few rural villages in the Eastern Cape.

Chapter Five: The development of a CAMP for the rural communities in South Africa: Case study from the Eastern Cape

It is estimated that 38.50% of the people in the Eastern Cape live in poverty (Table 1.4). The recent Human Development Index for the Province was estimated as 0.61 (2013 Figures). Although the region has experienced a positive growth rate in the last decade the poverty levels continue to increase and the inequality levels are increasing. If the Province is to turn around the trend of increasing poverty it will need to increase its economic growth rate significantly. The Province has varied forms of economic activities. The case study selected for this research in the Eastern Cape comprised four communities near Kareedouw. The communities Snyklip, Guava Juice, Doriskraal and Wittekleibos are located in Kou-Kamma Municipality (Cacadu District).

The Department of Geography, Unisa and the Greater Rustenburg Community Foundation implemented a Community Asset Mapping Programme (CAMP) in Wittekleibos, Eastern Cape from 4-7 December 2012. The workshop was similar to the workshop presented to the Skuinsdrift community in October of 2011 (discussed in full in Chapter 6) A representative of the multinational donor in the North-West Province who attended the latter workshop had taken a position with another donor in the Eastern Cape. The request to run the workshop and apply the CAMP process in selected communities in the Eastern Cape was directed towards the Greater Rustenburg Community Foundation.

An NPO and the donor in the Eastern Cape identified the four communities (Wittekleibos, Guava Juice, Doriskraal and Snyklip) as part of their partnership with the Tsitsikamma Wind Farmers Association and the Tsitsikamma Development Trust (TDT).

5.1 The four day workshop

The initial community visit was undertaken by the Donor and the NPO and not by Unisa or the GRCF. Unisa and GRCF agreed to present CAMP to the communities with the understanding that the NPO and the donor would undertake the monitoring and evaluation after the workshop, within the context and principles prescribed by CAMP.

Three members from the GRCF and one member of staff from Unisa facilitated the workshop. An independent community member who had undergone the CAMP process in the North-West Province assisted with translation and interpretation between Xhosa and English. In addition, three members of an NPO and three members from a multi-national donor attended the workshop. A freelance cameraman was in attendance to film the entire workshop.

Hundred and twelve community members attended the workshop from 4-7 December 2012. These attendees were community members from Wittekleibos, Guava Juice, Doriskraal and Snyklip and members of the Tsitsikamma Wind Farmers Association, Tsitsikamma Development Trust as well as community members from Keiskammahoek, Ekuphumleni, Woodlands, Plettenberg Bay and George.

The workshop was held at the OR Tambo Community Hall in Wittekleibos near Kareedouw. The venue was identified as a suitable site due to the fact that electricity and water were available and it was large enough to house all the participants.

The CAMP process started off by using a metaphor of a boat on stormy waters. Participants were asked to imagine the 'Boat of Hope' taking off with

them as they ventured on a journey of discovery and hope for all to land on safe shores. Throughout the four day workshop participants were constantly reminded that they were still on stormy waters and asked whether they were still in the same boat and whether they wanted to row together to reach the safe shore. This example seemed as a constant, however subtle, reminder that communities collectively possess more knowledge and skills than what they perceive they have (Unisa/GRCF, 2012b).

a. Setting the scene by doing a community appreciative enquiry

The first step in the process encouraged the participants to focus on dreams, and not on their problems and needs. The community was divided into seven groups. The groups named themselves: Simunye, Masakhane, Ithemba-Labantu, Kuyasa Mamfengu, Littlumile, Sinethemba and Siyaphambiu. The workshop took the form of storytelling, focussing on the sharing of experiences. The groups were asked to describe current and past success (feel good) stories within their communities, and were then asked to speculate on the reasons for the success in the examples they provided. This exercise was followed by a session where the community dreamed of a collective vision for their community, and they also provided indicators on how they will measure their success in the creation of this vision. Table 5.1 includes unaltered excerpts from the different groups.

After the story telling session the facilitator prompted the community to share their feelings following the stories of the communities. The community recognised that many successful individuals had created employment in the community and helped the poor, the disadvantaged and the elderly. Feedback from the community indicated the following feelings about the success of their peers:

- happy
- encouraged
- positive
- appreciative
- proud
- hopeful
- motivated
- successful
- inspired.

When asked what characteristics they thought the people in their success stories possessed, the participants identified that the above mentioned business people

- had strength
- had dreams
- could take risks
- had the power to make choices and thus have control of their destiny
- can motivate, inspire and encourage other people.

There was a general consensus amongst participants that the majority of these successful people contribute by 'helping and giving' to the community (Community Philanthropy).

Table 5.1: Community success stories of the Kareedouw Communities, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012 (Unisa/GRCF, 2012b)

<i>Group</i>	<i>Feel good story</i>	<i>Group</i>	<i>Feel good story</i>
<i>Simunye</i> (We are one)	The story is about a man who owned two piglets and started a small business. Today he owns many pigs and has also started a food garden.	<i>Kuyasa Mamfengu</i>	Mrs. Budaza's business moved from Keiskammahoek to Wittekleibos in 1979. She has a clothing and design business. She started a soup kitchen and feeds the children free of charge.
<i>Masakhane</i>	Mr. Mendisi Oliphant started selling clothes in between his piece jobs. He partnered with his brothers and opened a supermarket and a tavern. Apart from the groceries sold at the supermarket, Mr. Oliphant also sells essentials such as electricity and airtime. Mr. Oliphant provides assistance to the community and the needy, and provides transport to funerals and transports the elderly from their homes to their "pay stations". Mr Oliphant's initiative also provides jobs. The community is very grateful of Mr. Oliphant's initiative.	<i>Littlumile</i>	Nosipho Ntukanatu started the Ekuphumleni Community Crèche in February 2011 in her RDP house (cross road from the N1 to the N2 – R102 road) with two children and has grown substantially, but numbers vary due to relocation of parents. The majority of parents can't always afford to pay for her services. She plans to start a school for Grade R children in Clarkson next year. The whole community is very proud of her.
<i>Themba-Labantu</i>	When we (Amafengu people) relocated from Keiskammahoek to here (Clarkson) were desperate and had no money. Mr. Vry, the owner of the shop, created jobs, gave groceries to the people on credit and helped with transport to different communities surrounding Clarkson.	<i>Sinethemba</i>	Mncebisi Msizi started the bus transport to the communities of Clarkson, Doriskraal and Snyklip. In partnership with Cennergi, Mcebisi built the community hall and installed electricity in some houses.
<i>Siyaphambu</i>	Elibali Lelotata owned one tractor and a horse. The business has grown and he now owns chainsaws and provides jobs. He is now ready to register his business.		

b. Capacity inventory

A standard practice in any Community Asset Mapping Programme (CAMP), the facilitator needs to assist the community in establishing the individual and community assets of the group. This was done in two different ways. Firstly, the participants were asked to identify their individual human assets in relation to their hands, heads and hearts. The exercise was the start of the self-identification of possible assets/potential that can, in future, be used to launch themselves into entrepreneurial opportunities, the second, to identify the community assets. Table 5.2 summarises the individual assets of the community members who attended the workshop.

From the above information, it was evident that the skills set within the community were very high. In order to emphasize the actual wealth of the community, a volunteer was asked to illustrate the value of individuals when they were measured against their skills set. It was clear to the community that should they have to purchase the skills, the monetary value of the skills would be high. It was pointed out that if the community had to go out and purchase these specific skills, it would cost them a fortune in monetary value. When listing the skills of the individuals, it was significant that a number of community members indicated that they could fight. It was decided to validate these skills during upcoming sessions as this was a concern for the outsiders in term of the way in which the community members might deal with problems they might be confronted with in group projects where differences of opinion were bound to occur.

The second step in establishing the assets of a community to determine the collective assets. This methodology is typical of all asset-based community mapping exercises. Within the South African rural context it was clear that the division of collective assets into four different categories make sense: human, social, economic, and environmental. After describing what each

Table 5.2: The collective individual assets of selected Kareedouw Communities, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012

<i>Hands</i>	<i>Heads</i>	<i>Hearts</i>
Needlework	Think	Love people
Kneading of bread	Plan	Happiness
Making food	Help	Pain
Helping people	See	Pumps blood
Make music	Communicate	Care
Farm	Direct	Consider
Beadwork	Mentor	Lead
Paint	Learn	Listen
Clean	Develop	Guide
Plant	Support	Pray
Milking	Ideas	Forgive
Fix houses	Concentrate	Do good
Shoe repair	Hear	Store information
Panel beating	Taste	Feel emotions
Electrical work	Study	Honesty
Hair dressing	Start business	Dedication
Play piano	Create	Feel sorry
Draw	Live	Pity
Drive	Maths	Compassion
Carpentry	Accounting	Help
Joinery	Dream	Patience
Fencing	Manage	Trust
Fight	Preach	Respect
Feed people	Listen	Peace
Brick laying	Smile	Belief
Sculpture	Strategize	Give
Knitting	Solve a problem	Keep promises
Play sport	Make decisions	

asset was, and after this was translated into Xhosa, the community members were asked to provide the facilitator with the assets in each category. The assets were then listed on a flip chart and the list 'grew' in front of the community. This method seemed to be preferable for communities, and it provided the researcher with opportunity to validate, check and correct information. This method also seemed to relax the attendees, and as the assets were mentioned they thought of more assets were sometimes removed assets already mentioned as they developed an understanding of what an asset was and what it is not. The results of this exercise are depicted in Table 5.3. Once again the reaction of the community was very optimistically received. Comments such as 'we are richer than we realised', 'we are not poor' indicated that the cognitive shift from thinking in a needs based approach to a more asset-based approach was meeting with success.

The most important addition to the capacity inventory approach in the Community Asset Mapping Programme (CAMP) was the power mapping exercise. Lessons learnt in Mathopestad and Feloane, this process was also applied in Kareedouw. The groups were again asked to work together for this session. The objective was to share their ideas for potential development projects, who they regard as partners, and also who/what they regard as challenges. This exercise helped create awareness around the fact that all projects have key stakeholders who are critical to the success (and failure) of the project. This also helps with recognising potential people 'under the table' who might try to disrupted and jeopardise a project. Effectively, this process identifies existing power structures within a community. Translation of the concept of power mapping from English to Xhosa was necessary to ensure that community members understood the concepts. During this session, the facilitator took

Table 5.3: The community assets of the Kareedouw Communities, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012

<i>Human assets: Skills, gifts, abilities, talents</i>		<i>Social assets: Associations, community based organisations and groups</i>		<i>Economic Assets: Entrepreneurial, Existing and emerging business activities</i>	<i>Environmental Assets: Physical and natural surroundings</i>
Musicians Athletes Writers Cultivators Soccer players Builders Plumbers Carpenters Bead makers Fencemakers Knitters Electricians Brick makers Mechanics Pavers Singers Mathematicians Teachers Farmers	Dancers Poets Coaches Traditional dancers Painters Till workers (cashiers) Artists Nurses Welders Policemen Lawyers	Ilisolomzi Police forum Crèche Churches Sports club Traditional Healers Burial Associations Co-ops School Community Hall	Clinics Soccer field Grave yard WATT Energy Community structures Clarkson sewing projects Wind farm Blue print project Soup kitchen Traditional dancers "Stokvel" Bead work Sewing Area management committees	Poultry Shops Taverns Dairy farm Restaurant Garages Lodge Tree cutting Water Gravel Sand Brick laying Vegetable farm Piggery Caterers Butchery Sheep farming Transport Wind Farm Electricity Abattoir Liquor store Subsistence farming	Land Nature Scenic routes Waterfall National Park Big Tree Bungee bridge Water Alien bush Mountain (hiking) Rivers Fruit trees Herbs Flowers Bush tea Sand Gravel Crystal stone Dam fish Wild animals Garden Route Sandstone Beach

the community through a process where they mapped the power structures in terms of the following:

- Who is at the table?
- What is on the table?
- Who/what is under the table?

The potential powers within the four communities were identified and are summarised in Table 5.4. Groups were not requested to give verbal feedback due to the sensitive nature of the answers. The role-players, as listed in Table 5.4, were derived from the sheets completed in the groups. In most communities, the multiple roles of the same (specific) role players were evident. This session was closed with an explanation of why it was important to have a good idea of who was necessary to consult to make sure one's project was a success, while at the same time, to be aware of possible role players/threats/challenges who/which could be working against the success of one's project. This exercise proved to be a crucial component of the Community Asset Mapping Programme as it provided a wealth of information for the outsiders, and increased their ability to be of assistance to the community during the monitoring and evaluation process.

a. Wishes, fears, trust and values processes

In this session, individuals are normally asked to complete a template reflecting their wishes and fears for themselves, as well as for their community. However, due to the diversity of the participants and the large number in the group, the groups were requested to reflect on their wishes and fears for their communities only. The facilitator also decided to include the 'socialisation' process to highlight that life is about the choices one makes. This was further motivated by the noticeable underlying conflict

Table 5.4: Power mapping for the four communities in Kareedouw, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012

<i>Who is at the table?</i>		<i>What is on the table?</i>		<i>Who is under the table?</i>	
Tree cutting project	District Municipality	Local Government	Farmers	Local beneficiaries	Money
Tar road	ESKOM	Social Development	Clarkson Sewing Project	Land owners	Resources
Joint venture partner	Department of Water Affairs	Tsitsikamma Development	Ward Councillor	Environmental Affairs	Training
Community Rural Municipality	Milk companies	Trust	WATT Energy	Joint venture partner	Working place
Department of Agriculture	Transport	Land owners	Trade Link	Farmers	Donors
Land Affairs	Farmers	Land	Cennergi	Land Affairs	Customers
Bank	Sewing project members	Community	School	Bank	Stakeholders
Humansdorp co-op	Gravel & sand supplies as a potential economic project	Rural Development Municipalities	Community	Consultants	Department of Agriculture
Consultants – development	Tsitsikamma	Department of Agriculture	Bank	Lawyers	Tsitsikamma
Lawyers	Development Trust	Humansdorp co-op	Funding agencies (government)	Provincial Government	Department of Agriculture
Training providers	Local business people	Consultants	Department of Mineral Resources	ESKOM	Development Trust
Provincial Government	Environmental Affairs	Training providers	Equipment	Cacadu Municipality	SAPPI
	Social Development	ESKOM	Labour/skills	Department of Water Affairs	Sanparks
		Department of Water Affairs	Planting project		Department of Environmental Affairs
		Milk companies	Alien vegetation		Department of Forestry and Fishery
		Transport	Department of Transport		
			Private donors		

amongst the various communities and/or individuals/leadership. Table 5.5 provides a summary of the wishes of the four communities.

Table 5.5: The wishes of the selected communities in Kareedouw, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012

Women empowerment Development Flushing toilets Prosperity Road maintenance Honest leadership Better education Unity Understanding Clean environment High school Job creation House renovations Youth Centre Land claims to be settled quicker	Clinic/health service Service delivery Alcohol & subsistence abuse support group Self-sustainable community Recreation facility for children Tolerance Proper Police Forum Trust Success of Wind farm Tarred roads Street lights Gender equality Success Peace
---	---

After the wishes process was completed, the community was prompted to answer a number of questions on their feelings:

- Question: How will you feel if you woke up in the morning and you had all of these wishes come true? Answer: We would feel proud, blessed, happy, relieved and confident
- Question: All of the above means you will be? Answer: Hopeful
- Question: What do you wish for all of your community? Answer. Success, freedom in terms of safety and security, transparency, equality, trustworthy leadership, better education and less crime.
- Question: What do you wish to see between parents and the community? Answer: Happiness, respect, trust, understanding and love. The youth commented that parents should stop covering up for their children and work with the authorities to stop crime.
- Question: What is the difference between hopeful and hopeless? Answer: Attitude is the difference

- Question: What does your attitude determine? Answer: It determines the choices you make.

The community was reminded that life was all about choices. They can choose to be positive when they wake up in the mornings, and they can choose to have a good day. Workshop attendees were encouraged to choose to be positive every day, to do things that make their lives better. The concept that life is all about attitude and choices was reiterated.

Table 5.6 provides a summary of the fears in the community. When asked how these fears made the community feel when they wake up in the morning, the following was listed:

- Angry
- Afraid
- Hurt
- Pain
- Disappointment
- Hatred
- Hopeless
- Sad
- Frustrated
- Confused
- Helpless
- Sorrow
- Mistrust.

Table 5.6: The fears of the selected communities of Kareedouw, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012

Unemployment	High HIV/AIDS prevalence
Nepotism	Corruption
Discrimination	Wrong leadership selection (Community Committees)
Loss of hope	Crime
Negative attitudes	Drug and alcohol abuse
Child mortality rate	Judgement Day
Divided communities	Violence
Fear of losing their land	Depression
Bribery	Fraud
Theft	Teenage pregnancy
Land abuse	Human trafficking
Self-indulgence of individuals	Lack of skills development
Jealousy	Natural disasters
Influx of external people (invasion)	Women abuse
Dishonesty	Poverty

The session to establish the value system of the community was used to validate some of the information provided in the various sessions up to this point in the workshop. This process was also a valuable addition to the CAMP. In this session, community members were asked three questions to be answered as individuals. Table 5.7 is a summary of the completed questionnaires.

After the process, emphasis that people (referring to the values listed under 'What do I value about my community') are the most important assets of a community seemed to be understood by the attendees. Without people, there is no community. This exercise confirmed the results obtained during the asset mapping and association inventory. The trust session commenced with an analogy of a house of trust. Throughout this session the facilitator illustrated the processes by drawing a 'House of Trust', using the information/feedback from the groups and eventually reiterating issues such as honest communication, attitude, respect and trust.

Table 5.7: The values of the selected communities in Kareedouw, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012

<i>What do I value about myself?</i>		<i>What do I value about the people in my community?</i>		<i>What do I value about my community?</i>	
Sacrifice	Integrity	Friendship	Ideas	Nature	Religion
Respect	Hard worker	Love	Trust	Cooperation	Unique culture
Peace	Motivation	Respect	Sharing	Involvement	Contribution
Honesty	Good father	Help	Obedience	Better life	Transparency
Patience	Good spirit	Honesty	Support	Communication	History
Sharing	Principles	Challenges	Communication	Problem solving	Sympathetic and emphatic attitudes
Humble	Caring	Loyalty	Advice	Unity	Eagerness
Trust	Fairness	Acceptance	Good food	Tranquillity	Tradition
Pray	Morals	Commitment	Benefits	Tolerance	Good listening skills
Support	Fairness	Laughter	Keeping secrets	Struggling together	
Creativeness	Ambition	Inspiration	Strong willed	Neatness	
Self-esteem	Empathy	Caring			
Courageous	Sympathy				



Photograph 5.1: The house of trust, built by the communities members of the selected communities of Kareedouw, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012

Individual community members were asked to reflect on four questions (no written or verbal responses were asked for:

- Do I trust myself?
- Why do I trust myself (what abilities do I have that I can trust)?
- Who else do I trust in my community?
- Reasons why I trust them.

After the reflection, members were simply asked to stand up and approach a person, shake hands, and tell them that they trusted them. During this exercise it was observed that the youth in the groups made an effort to get up and approach not only their peers, but also the elderly. A large number of the elderly males however did not get up during this process. When asked why not, one elderly gentleman made the following statement 'in our culture, we trust everybody'. There seemed to be some disagreement from the youth and a number of the elderly females. The facilitator however did not pursue the issue. Secondly, it was observed that not all attendees were approached; once again this suggested a high level of distrust amongst the community as was evident during the Power Mapping and Wishes and Fears sessions. This behaviour served to cause further doubt and a sense of exclusion amongst some individuals who thought, 'I am not trusted by my community'.

This session validated a number of concerns that the facilitators had already noticed in previous sessions, and it was clear at this point that the four communities as a whole probably did not have sustainable levels of trust within themselves or as a community. Should sustainable change be an option for this community, the matters of trust would to be addressed with an external agent of change/peace negotiator/trust builder as well as community leadership, and the donors independently and collectively.

A socialisation process was done with the collective group using gender, race, culture, religion, age, abilities, class, nationality, sexuality and HIV/AIDS as the basis illustrating again that life was about attitude and the choices we as human beings make in life. The socialisation process also demonstrated that human beings were born with certain social identification which in most instances cannot be changed. The choice however remains to celebrate the differences and diversity rather than judge and discriminate (Unisa/GRCF, 2012b).

b. Problem solving ability of the community

In groups, the members were asked to select a topic that was identified in the fears section of the workshop. The groups were then also requested to try and suggest possible solutions to their identified challenges. The groups Simunye, Ithemba-Labantu, Kuyasa Mamfengu and Siyaphambiu, all chose crime as the most important problem in the community that needed urgent attention. They identified a detailed list of possible solutions:

- To restrict underage drinking in the taverns and around town
- To restrict hours of business in taverns
- Tavern owners should be fined when allowing underage children in taverns
- To put up awareness posters around town
- The church to provide spiritual support
- The police to assist with the situation
- Clinics to provide counselling
- Establishment of a rehabilitation centre
- Formation of support groups and police forum
- Tavern owners should be forced to obtain the necessary licence
- Community members should stop buying stolen goods
- Establish proper sport grounds, gym and family recreation areas
- Parents should stop protecting their children while they know they are doing crime
- Parents should be more involved in their children's decisions about life
- Community must stop hiding information
- Train volunteers to assist the police
- Work with the communities to change their attitudes – support groups.

The groups Littlumile and Sinethemba chose unemployment as the major problem and they suggested the following solutions to this problem in their community:

- Job creation (to first start with a thorough skills audit)
- Skills training
- Development strategies
- Youth: engaging of stakeholders in the field of developing and creating opportunities
- Sports, arts and culture to be encouraged
- Members should be encouraged to start agricultural activities and explore markets
- Potato planting – money has been collected from community members to start this project. A marketing strategy needs to be implemented for selling crops next to the N2. Once the project is sustainable, the community can approach donors to expand and create more jobs.

The group Masakhane, chose the problem of teenage pregnancies, and they provided the following possible solutions:

- Government should put an age restriction on government grants (no grants under the age of 21 years)
- Educate youth about condoms, sex before marriage, preach abstinence
- Schools should be more involved in awareness campaigns
- Parents should restrict their children from watching certain television programmes and advise children to watch educational programmes
- Stricter measures should be placed on cell phone usage.

The creative and detailed way in which the groups were able to suggest possible solutions to the problems in their communities, indicated that the potential to deal with problems was probably strength. However, when one validated this session with the other sessions on trust, then it was clear that problem solving might be impacted upon when the community was called upon to solve a problem.

c. Cognitive shift to creating opportunities for own wealth creation

The leaky bucket exercise of the basic ABCD approach was used to explain basic community economics. The process was illustrated using a bucket with holes, water being poured in from the top and water flowing out (Photograph 5.2). After the illustration, there was a buzzing reaction from the participants, discussing how their money flows outside their community 'makes somebody else rich'.

The individuals in the workshop were asked to provide an indication of their average income and expenses. The following information was collected:

- Total monthly income (and source)
- Expenses (individuals were asked to provide a breakdown of expenses)
- Average amount spent monthly
- The amount spent in the community
- The amount spent outside of the community.



Photograph 5.2: Demonstration of the 'leaky bucket', Eastern Cape Province, December 2012

Once all the individuals had filled in the template, an average of the income was calculated for the community. This exercise provided the community with a practical understanding of the economic situation of their community and the possible entrepreneurial opportunities that were possible. The exercise demonstrated to the community how much money came into their community through salaries, grants and other income and then how much money was spent outside of the community. The community saw that money literally flows from the community and that with some innovation the money could be circulated within the community and in this way grow the community. This step was often the catalyst that encouraged groups to create small business opportunities.

Table 5.8 is a summary of the figures recorded from leaky bucket exercise. It should be noted that due to the fact that four different communities participated in this exercise, figures may vary if the communities went through this exercise within their own communities.

Table 5.8: The income, expenditure and surplus of selected communities in Kareedouw, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012

<i>Money spent on</i>	<i>Amount</i>
Fruit and vegetables	R 4,625.00
Meat	R 9,252.00
Bread	R3,559.50
Milk and eggs	R4,524.00
Other groceries	R 17,889.00
Clothes	R 14,375.29
Airtime	R 5,525.00
Electricity	R 6,520.00
Transport	R 8,303.00
Education	R 8,140.50
Health	R 4,639.50
Other	R15,389.00
Total monthly expenses	R102,742.78
Total spent IN the community	R 29,617.00
Total spent OUTSIDE the community	R 64,326.97
Total monthly Income	R 144,150.00
<i>Surplus</i>	<i>R41,407.22</i>

From the information in Table 5.8, it was established that a large portion of the earnings was being spent outside of the community. With the concept of the leaky bucket fresh in their minds, the community was asked about possible opportunities that could bring about real change in their communities.

d. Community maps and the transect walk

With possible business opportunities in mind, the communities were requested to build a community map. The groups were given card board, pens, crayons, glue and other material to build a map of what their community looks like in terms of the assets they have identified, and the opportunities that these assets provide in terms of possible small and medium business opportunities.



Photograph 5.3: *Members of selected Kareedouw communities creating a community map, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012*

The transect walk provided the community with the opportunity to link the previous two processes by physically walking through the community area looking through asset lenses, and then coming back with further ideas for projects. During the walk they affirmed and saw new social, economic, and environmental opportunities that existed and which could be used to drive their roots-driven change. The seven groups were merged into four groups, and each assigned different routes and accompanied by facilitators from the GRCF, Unisa, the donor and the NPO.

e. Opportunities identified by the community members to effect change

Table 5.9 summarises a few of the opportunities the groups discovered during the building of their maps and the transect walk. For the purposes of this community they were asked to classify their opportunities in terms of social, economic and environmental. This was done in an attempt to validate the assets the community presented in the capacity inventory.

f. Action planning and success indicators

Having gone through the various processes, the workshop attendees were asked to identify one project per group which they considered to be a viable project that can effect changes in their lives. The groups each identified a

Table 5.9: Identified opportunities for change in selected Kareedouw Communities, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012

<i>Social opportunities</i>	<i>Economic opportunities</i>	<i>Environmental opportunities</i>
Sport ground Multi-purpose Centre Wood selling Park/Play ground Taxi rank Crèche Primary School Police contact point Post Office Clinic Home-based care facility for children Soup kitchen for adults	Poultry project Vegetable garden Dairy bi-product operation Wood selling Re-cycling project Eco village Holiday resort Shopping complex ATM facilities Ferns & pine trees Compost project	Wind farm Honey bush Quarry Forest Herbs (medicinal) Game reserve (tourism) Natural gravel

project and had to work through a process whereby they had to name the project and then establish the action steps that would be required to start the project. They then needed to identify the local assets that would contribute to the success of the project and the outside assistance needed for the project to succeed. Finally, they had to establish their own indicators of success in their projects. The projects with the accompanying actions plans are listed in Table 5.10.

In each group, facilitators played a leading role in assisting the participants to consider their projects within the specified template. This exercise brought together all the processes over the previous three days. Once each group had planned its respective projects, it was requested to present its project plans to all the participating groups. In the opinion of the researcher the projects were all feasible and addressed real needs in the community. What was significant in this community was their impulsive understanding of what would be required to start a business related to their

Table 5.10: Projects, action plan and indicators of success in selected communities in Kareedouw, Eastern Cape Province, December 2012

<i>Sumunye</i>					<i>Sinethemba</i>				
<i>Future change or project</i>	<i>Action steps required</i>	<i>Local assets to contribute</i>	<i>Outside assistance required</i>	<i>How will the group measure their own success?</i>	<i>Future change or project</i>	<i>Action steps required</i>	<i>Local assets to contribute</i>	<i>Outside assistance required</i>	<i>How will the group measure their own success?</i>
Quarry Development Plan	Feasibility study Company/group registration Business Plan Legal advice and representation Human capital and assets Logistics Insurance Operations Maintenance Projection and sales forecast Investment strategy	Quarry Human capital and assets	Funds Donors Logistical support Stakeholder engagement Specialist consultants	Monitoring and evaluation Growth strategy Collaborations and partnerships Diversification Acquisitions (buy other companies)	Milk processing plant (for cheese, butter, juices, yoghurt, sweet and chocolates)	Setup project management team and committee Establish guiding principles for the committee Consult with local dairy Draw up a business plan Research Skills Audit Asset Audit Implementation Plan Environmental Impact Assessment	Land Human Resources, assets Dairy cattle Milking parlour Milking skills Builders Local government They already had 900 head of dairy cattle and could start the business immediately	Transport Processing experts Market Clients Funding Donors Government Departments for example Department of Agriculture Private investors	Monthly reports from different operating structures Formal and information meetings Annual general meeting and audited financial reports

<i>Masakhane</i>					<i>Kyasa Mamfengu</i>				
<i>Future change or project</i>	<i>Action steps required</i>	<i>Local assets to contribute</i>	<i>Outside assistance required</i>	<i>How will the group measure their own success?</i>	<i>Future change or project</i>	<i>Action steps required</i>	<i>Local assets to contribute</i>	<i>Outside assistance required</i>	<i>How will the group measure their own success?</i>
Alien vegetation removal for two purposes: to sell as wood for furniture and to make furniture	Business Plan and registration Identify area of alien vegetation Do market research Enquire about a licence Create a forum Approach the Municipality Do research about the tools to be used Raise capital	Land Bush Municipality Chain- saw People Axes Fuel Safety wear Factory space Tractor Horses	Municipality Department of Rural Development Department of Coastal Works	Amount of money raised Number of employees Success of factory Meetings every two months to measure progress and allocate tasks	Piggery	Scope of the area Project plan Agreements with community members Finance Implementation Plan	Feed for the pigs Cleaning Maintenance Building Fenced area Management and leadership Storage for stock equipment Land Water Pigs	Watt energy (NPO) Local farmers for feed Specialists for animal health	Plan for 2013: End January all research must be completed. End of February the scoping must be completed and the agreements must be in place. By the end of March the finance must be sourced and the implementation must start. By end of April all must be in place, and in September the first piglets will be born.

<i>Littlumile</i>					<i>Siyaphambiu</i>				
<i>Future change or project</i>	<i>Action steps required</i>	<i>Local assets to contribute</i>	<i>Outside assistance required</i>	<i>How will the group measure their own success?</i>	<i>Future change or project</i>	<i>Action steps required</i>	<i>Local assets to contribute</i>	<i>Outside assistance required</i>	<i>How will the group measure their own success?</i>
Honey Bush Tea Project in Guava Juice Community. This will include a growing and harvesting of the tea under the name <i>Littlumile Tea</i>	Form a group Name the group Develop a business Plan Register the project Obtain permit to sell the product Market research Start own nursery	Land Bush Workers Tools	Money Equipment Training Transport Tools Fencing Mentoring Soil tests Testing of the tea	Measure monthly income and expenditure We must make a profit within 12 months	Chicken Project	Registration as a CC Guidance Training Customers Bank Loan Marketing Insurance	Labour Land	Training Transport Uniforms Chickens Different types of equipment for feeding Training in animal health	We will measure success by the jobs we create for the people and the support the community gives to the project.
<i>Ithemba-Labantu</i>									
<i>Future change or project</i>	<i>Action steps required</i>	<i>Local assets to contribute</i>	<i>Outside assistance required</i>	<i>How will the group measure their own success?</i>					
Various projects that include: Sewing Farming Catering Chicken Farm Harvesting of trees Nature Reserve	Clean areas to be used Buy seeds, compost and fencing Find necessary land Find labour Obtain finance Get training Obtain equipment	Water Land Material Tractor Money Fencing Labour Training	Seeds Compost Medicine for animals Training Machines Customers	A profitable business within a short period of time					

own assets. The understanding of their shortcomings was also evident, and the realisation of the type of assistance they needed from the outside was also significant. In all cases the financial role of the outsiders (in particular a donor) was not very high on the agenda of the groups; rather they suggested that the role of the outsiders should be in terms of skills and training. The measures of success of the groups were somewhat optimistic. However, the careful discussion around the measures of their success was an indication that the groups had a good sense of what was meant by the measures of success.

g. Observations and recommendations made of the researcher and the external non-profit organisation

There was a good balance between the skills within the community, and the assets in the community to ensure successful group and individual small and medium enterprises. The attendees were willing to share their knowledge and skills amongst themselves and with the outsiders. Community members were willing to listen to the advice from community members and the outside facilitators. There were high levels of unemployment in the communities, and the high unemployment rates of neighbouring communities negatively impacted on the participant communities as there was an influx of unemployed people into their areas. The eagerness to create their own employment opportunities on the part of the members from all four communities was obvious, and the high level discussions on what was required to start one's own business was significant.

There appeared to be major problems with the issue of trust within the groups that attended the workshop. In addition, there were high levels of distrust amongst the different communities. This was further aggravated by the perception of the community that the leadership and organisations within

the communities were not honest. The attendees often referred to the high levels of nepotism and the existence of elite groupings, which needed to be addressed as a matter of urgency if sustainable change in the communities was to be achieved. The communities all fell under the Tsitsikamma Development Trust (TDT) and perhaps the representation of all four communities on the Board should be considered. This will encourage the feeling of inclusivity rather than exclusivity amongst community members. The community structure (existing forums) raises a concern about how power is delegated (and abused). It would be highly recommended to reduce the number of committees and introduce a more effective and simpler structure that would be easily understood and less open to abuse by leadership.

5.2 Recommendations to the community and external stakeholders of the selected communities in Kareedouw

The clustering of the four different communities together into one CAMP process posed an advantage to Wittekleibos who had the advantage of undertaking the transect walk in their own community. The other three communities were at a distinct disadvantage, and it was recommended to the donor and the NPO that the process be redone in each the other three communities. In addition, it was recommended that the leaky bucket process also be done in the individual communities. The researcher offered to train representatives from the NPO, the donor and selected community members using the short learning programme in Community Asset Mapping that the Department of Geography at Unisa now offers. The training of selected individuals in the process ensured that the monitoring and evaluation of the community projects was more effective. In this way one

was assured that money was invested in sustainable and integrated projects with more success.

In all communities that have undergone an asset mapping process, external stakeholders provided the community with sufficient support to ensure that the community was able to meet its own indicators of success. This involved training, and by the end of the workshop the following training interventions were suggested:

- Leadership training in all four communities
- Trust and skill training which should include a hands-on and interactive workshop
- Adult literacy training.

The four communities were rich in potential assets, and there seemed to be a possible “surplus” of money that could be used collectively to support local entrepreneurial opportunities (local social economic developments) to the benefit of the broader communities. However, sustainable change in the community was however only possible with the suggested training.

The monitoring and evaluation of the communities’ progress was undertaken by the NPO and the donor. Students have been identified for further training the second half of 2013. The medium to long term monitoring and evaluation of these communities will be very significant in testing the success and suitability of the CAMP tool. However, despite the problems experienced by the community, they were willing to work together and communicate differences with the hope of changing their lives for the better.

5.3 Lessons learnt from the application of the Community Asset Mapping Programme in Kareedouw, Eastern Cape Province

The community presented itself as a community that communicated well. They were able to identify a number of projects related to their existing assets. However, the lessons learnt from the Mathopestad case study echoed strongly during the application of CAMP in this community. The levels of distrust towards leading figures in the community had the potential of derailing the process of sustainable change. What might seem sustainable in the short term would probably not be sustainable in the long term. The wishes and fears processes alerted the facilitators to a number of potential problems which were verified in subsequent processes. The trust and socialisation workshop and the power mapping sessions also verified that these were matters that needed additional intervention to ensure medium to long term sustainable change. Once again, the value of the trust and power mapping processes was a valuable addition to the process, and it was increasingly obvious that in the typical South African rural context these processes would have to be a standard feature in any community asset mapping process.

Chapter Six: The development of CAMP for the rural communities in South Africa: additional case studies from the North-West Province

The North-West Province was proclaimed in 1993 and included some of the geographical areas of the former Orange Free State, Cape and Transvaal Provinces with a large percentage of the Bophuthatswana Bantustan. The Province borders Botswana. The North-West has a Provincial population of around 3.5 million people (2012), mostly African and mostly Tswana speaking. It houses about 6.8% of South Africa's population (Statistics South Africa, 2012). Although unemployment figures have dropped in the last decade, the Human Development Index of the population has dropped from 0.67 in 1993 to 0.60 in 2013 (Table 1.4). By 2013 it was estimated that 39.38% of the people living in the North-West Province lived in poverty. The most important contributors to the economy of the Province come from the primary sector of farming and mining. The Province has rich reserves of a multitude of minerals of which platinum are the dominant mineral. The farming activities in the Province include huge cattle farms while, crops grown in the area include wheat, maize, citrus and tobacco.

The two case studies in this chapter are Skuinsdrift and Koffiekraal (Figure 1.1) are both located in the North-West Province. Skuinsdrift falls within the Ramotshere Moiloa Local Municipality located in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District and is a dispersed farming community of around 1000 people from different cultural and racial backgrounds. Koffiekraal, on the other hand is a traditional rural community (Bahurutshe Boo Mokgatlha) and although located geographically adjacent to Skuinsdrift, is in the Moses Kotane Municipality within the Bojanala Platinum District.

6.1 Skuinsdrift

The researcher's involvement in the Skuinsdrift community began as a result of a request from a multinational donor to the Greater Rustenburg Community Foundation (GRCF) to undertake a Community Asset Mapping Programme (CAMP) with the emerging farmers in the Skuinsdrift area. This request was based on a site visit of the donor in September 2011, when it became apparent that a group of emerging farmers from two registered Closed Corporations (Open Area and Quiet Living) required additional assistance in their quest to become self-sustained farmers in their own right.

6.1.1 Pre-preparation for the application of CAMP

The preparation for the workshop included site visits and interviews with the community leadership in the area. Given that the farming community was dispersed geographically, the concept of community was different to compare to the other case studies in this research. The GRCF undertook the major part of the pre-preparation for the workshop. Prior to the workshop it was established that the community was very disempowered and had been subjected to top-down decision making for many years. Political, social and economic structures within the community were complex and very sensitive. Despite these observations, it was very clear that the community desired a reconciliatory approach towards improving their quality of lives.

6.1.2 The four day workshop

The Skuinsdrift case study was unique when compared to the other case-studies in this research. The application of asset mapping programme that was now increasingly referred to as CAMP took place in two phases. The first phase was a fully-fledged asset mapping programme with twelve

emerging farmers from Skuinsdrift. This phase of the workshop took place away from Skuinsdrift at Tlholego Eco Village, approximately 20km from Rustenburg in the North-West Province on 8, 9, 15 and 16 October 2011. This venue was chosen as the farmers had the opportunity to be exposed to eco-friendly, sustainable livelihoods. The second phase of the programme took place at Skuinsdrift Primary School on 4, 5, 11 and 12 November 2011 (GRCF, 2011).

Twelve emerging farmers from Quite Living and Open Areas tended attended the first workshop (Photograph 6.1). The second workshop was attended by 100 community members from Skuinsdrift. It was significant that two-thirds of the attendees at the second workshop were female. Attendees were more comfortable communicating in Tswana or Afrikaans rather than English. The workshop was however presented in English and Afrikaans with translation when necessary.



Photograph 6.1: *Facilitators and emerging farmers from Quite Living and Open Areas cc, Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, October 2011*

The results of both workshops have been combined as a reflection of the community as a whole.

a. Setting the scene by doing a community appreciative enquiry

The attendees at the workshop were divided into groups. The facilitator requested the groups to share 'feel good and success stories' from their community. Although these stories were shared freely during the workshop and have been placed on record, the researcher felt that due to the very sensitive political, economic and social undercurrents in the community that sharing this information in this thesis was not in the best interest of the long term relationships within the community. An overall summary of the pertinent aspects included in the stories shared at the workshop reflected the appreciation the black farmers and rural community had for selected established and commercial farmers and inhabitants in Skuinsdrift. The words of appreciation extended to the provision of schooling for children, provision of housing, provision of transport, skills training, and conflict resolution. This case study was unique in the sense that the stories were less about successful stories of individuals in the community, and more about the appreciation of named individuals in the community who were seen by the community members and the emerging farmers through the lens of philanthropy. Since the workshop, the community members and the NPO as well as the academics at Unisa have developed a closer relationship, and more information related to the persistent negative under-currents that existed in the community has been shared. It was clear to the researcher that if any roots-driven initiative was implemented in this community, these matters needed be addressed. This, in itself, emphasis that a medium to long term relationship among all stakeholders was required to ensure that change was long term and sustainable.

b. Capacity inventory

Part of the information gathering process on the assets in the community, the capacity inventory was divided into three different processes:

- Establishing the individual assets
- Establishing the community assets
- Establishing the leadership assets.

The individual skills of the community of Skuinsdrift are summarised in Table 6.1. The spontaneous suggestion of individual aspects indicated an understanding of the concept 'asset' which was presented in English, translated into Tswana and Afrikaans. The individual asset set of the community members was also a reflection that the community was a rural farming community. After identifying their individual assets, the attendees were asked to think about the community assets that exist in their area (Table 6.2). Once again, the responses to the exercise was very spontaneous and reflected a community with a rich set of assets and skills that could be used to the advantage of the community in creating better lives for themselves. In terms of the collective and individual assets, the process followed replicated the processes followed within the typical ABCD approach, and as such forms part of a standard asset mapping process.

The power mapping exercise involving the Skuinsdrift Community was a crucial test to CAMP, as this community consisted of both black and white farmers, and the legacy of South African's racially divided community were still evident and formed the basis of a number of the negative undercurrents in the community. The attendees were asked to think of a number of development projects that were possible in their community. They were then

Table 6.1: The collective and individual assets of the Skuinsdrift community , North-West Province, October 2011

<i>Hands</i>				<i>Head</i>			<i>Heart</i>	
Writing	Chop wood	Hairdresser	Feel	Think	Make	Study	Confidence	Miss somebody
Help	Cook	Give	Clap	Explore	decisions	Trust	Sympathetic	Anger
Carry	Paint	Fight	Fetch	Read	Catering	Communicate	Helpful	Teach
Work	Put roofs	Type	water/wood	Help	Bakery	Get funds	Encourage	Moral support
together	on	Plan	Art	Hit a ball	Help children	Carry bucket	Give	Accommodate
Join hands	Sell	Bath	Bake	Dream	with	Design	Change	Patience
Vegetable	vegetables	Plumbing	Make things	Plan	homework	Picture	Love	Hope
gardens	Plant	Feed others	Spit	Solve	Financial	something	Hate	Contribute
Wash	Brace	Open doors	Plough	problems	skills	Math's	Feel sorrow	Self esteem
Take care	Make	Organize	Take care of	Remember	Bookkeeping	Work on a	Happiness	Optimism
of babies	gardens	Handcrafts	cattle	Manage	Controlling	computer	Talk	Motivate
Food	Dig	Play	Knitting	Accuracy	Admin	Structuring	Sadness	Wish
gardens	Drive	Shake/hold	Embroidery	Solve	Keep	Explain	Compassion	Passion
Clean	Fishing	hands	Sign	conflict	deadlines	Knowledge	Care	Make people
Show	Out root	Support	language	Guide	Teach	Animal	Develop	smile
direction	trees	Communicate	Drawing	Facilitate	Improve	medicine	Feel	Volunteer
Point	Make	Hoeing ground	Push	Donate	children	Inspire	Give hope	Make friends
Count	furnishing	Animal	Care for	Build a	language	Mediate	Trust	Respect
Hold	Pat	farming	children	business	abilities	Brain storming	Listen	Fear
Pick	somebody	Make music	Take	Read	See	Share	Belief	Accept
Work	Make	Milking cows	Sports	Recognize	Creativity	Have an	Understand	Know
Eat	shoes	Build houses	Make bricks	Imagine	Ideas	opinion	Resolve	Be hard
			Sowing	Prejudice	Learn	Agree/ disagree	conflict	Peace
					Understand	Flower	Forgiveness	Make people
					Educate	arrangements	Honesty	feel good
					Common		Sense of	Decide
					sense		humour	Say sorry
					Discuss		Follow my	Fix things
							heart	Complain

asked to establish the challenges with a specific focus on possible partners that could be incorporated into the development project. They were asked to think about who in the project (internal and external) would add value to the project, and who might challenge the project openly or behind the scenes. In short, they were asked to answer the following questions that are now a standard process in CAMP:

- What is on the table – What do they want to do/achieve?
- Who is at the table – Who are the stakeholders?
- Who/what is under the table – What are the challenges?

The results of this exercise are presented in Table 6.3, and provide a detailed understanding of the power dynamics of the community. The actual list does not contain the discussion and reflection on the matter of power mapping that took place. It was however very clear, that externals involved during the monitoring and evaluation process after the CAMP workshop needed to develop a clear understanding of the power structures in the community. The failure to do this would jeopardise the sometimes fragile relationships in the community.

c. Wishes, fears, trust and values processes

The second day of the CAMP workshop concentrated on the building of trust, attitudes and values. This was an important process that formed part of the Community Asset Mapping Programme, as community members were guided to realise their own values within a community, as well as establishing a collective purpose for the community. The activities took the form of an experiential learning process, where participants became aware of their own thinking patterns, negative beliefs that they have of themselves, and on the

Table 6.3: Community leadership and power mapping of Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, October 2011

<i>What they want to do</i>	<i>Who is at the table</i>	<i>Who/what is under the table</i>
Goats Farming for Meat Export	Department of Agriculture Donors/Sponsors Traditional authority Ward Councillors and Ward Committees	Lack of experience Disease Lack of Land
Establishing an agri-village for the community which will include: Stand demarcation Roads, Sanitation, Electricity, Churches, Schools and Crèche Sports fields, Cattle pen, Fences, CPF Civic structures	Farmers Union Maruping Committee Hawks Departments of Rural Development Program, Land Affairs, Agriculture Department of Water Affairs Municipality Marico Catch Meat Association Department of Public Works	Farmers Union Maruping Hawks Government structures Neighbours of agri-village Donor
Bricks Company	Government Community members (named, but removed from the list for this thesis) LS Brick maker	Personality clashes Not enough money Government
Business plan Land/Farm Supply chain	Department of Agriculture Sponsors Lekgotla	Climate change Competition Chieftaincy
Brick making Job creation	Mayor Counsellors Nurses Agriculture SADA	Money Misunderstanding Machinery (breaking)
Chicken farming Selling of eggs Decreasing unemployment	Chief Department of Agriculture Funders and Ward counsellor	Lack of support Unreliable leaders Bad time management
Fruit and vegetable market - the border market	Departments of Trade and Industry, Agriculture Tribal Authorities Counsellors Community Development Union	Traditional authorities

other side, values that they brought to their community. Table 6.4 summarised the values the Skuinsdrift community have for themselves and for their community. The community members (participants) were also invited to share their wishes and their fears, to describe their dreams and their concerns (Table 6.5).

d. Cognitive shift and the leaky bucket process in Skuinsdrift

Day three was spent on finances in the community, where participants were guided to prepare a budget in order to assess the average income and expenditure in the community. For some participants this was a difficult process, as a large percentage of them live on small grants received from the government, and has no other means of income (Photograph 6.2). It became apparent that unemployed community members did not regard the grants from government as an income, and the facilitator had to explain that money was received, was still money in their hands that they used for survival, regardless of the origin. The leaky bucket analogy was used to explain basic economics to the attendees.

The process indicated to the community as well as the external facilitators how much money was earned in the community per month and then worked out per annum. This was made up of salaries, wages, grants, and profits from small businesses. It also established how much money was spent inside the community, and more importantly outside the community. Money that was spent outside a community served as an opportunity for small enterprises to develop within the community, where citizens' need could be met and money was practically recycled within a community. Based on approximately 1000 households the basic income and expenditure figures for Skuinsdrift were captured in Table 6.6.

Table 6.4: The values of the community members in Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, October 2011

<i>Values about themselves</i>		<i>Values about others</i>		<i>Values about the community</i>	
Love	Good relationships	Good leadership	Bravery	Nature	Dam
Peace	Honesty	Perseverance	Sympathy	Crops and livestock	Hard workers
Success	Hope	Skilful Reliable	Reliable	Mobile ambulance	Friendly people
Happiness	Trust	Assistance	Inspiration	People	Open minded people
Compassion	Harmony Wisdom	Initiatives		Hospitality	Helpfulness
Encouragement	Obedience				
Advice	Confidence				

Table 6.5: The wishes and fears of the community in Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, October 2011

<i>Wishes</i>			<i>Fears</i>	
Sustainable vegetable gardens	Respect for each other	Emerging farmers to gain access to funds, implements, fertilizers, salaries and wages and workshop for repairs	Accidents	Floods
Running water in houses	To develop a culture promoting farming	To break the big projects into smaller economic units	Violent fights	Lack of emergency transport
Electricity for everybody	Secure fencing		Drugs and alcohol	Lack of education resulting in unemployment
Education	Agricultural training centre		Diseases	Lack of medicine
Crèches	Dipping" place		Criticism	Laziness
High school	Market Grazing land		Poverty Criminality	Lack of delivery
Computer schooling	Catering Poultry project Sewing		Unemployment	Infighting Emotional people
Clinic (24 hours with qualified nurses) Roads	Better jobs		Abuse	Wasting income
Sowing machine	Talking straight with each other		Hunger	Youth moving to cities
Get better qualified teachers	Good bookkeeping to secure income		Strong winds, rain and hail	Jealousy
Building houses for poor children	Good administration - no fraud		Stock theft	
Subsidy for electricity and water	Transfer of skills from generations		Drought	
Economic empowerment			Animal diseases	
Trust Equality Peace			Wild fires	

EXPENSE BUCKET TEMPLATES

Total monthly income R15 000-00 from (circle one) WAGES, GRANTS, BOTH, SALARY

Expense (Money Spent On)	Average Amount Spent Monthly	Amount spent in Community	Amount spent Outside Community
Fruit and Veg.	160-00	—	160-00
Meat	200-00	—	200-00
Bread	24-00	—	24-00
Milk & Eggs	84-00	—	84-00
Other groceries (sugar/coffee/salt)	500-00	—	500-00
Clothes	1500-00	—	1500-00
Airtime	600-00	R100-00	500-00
Electricity	100-00	R100-00	
Transport	2800-00	—	
Education	1200-00	—	R1200-00
Health	300-00	—	R300-00
Other	2000-00	—	2000-00
TOTAL SPENT MONTHLY	9464	R200-00	9264

After groups fill in the above exercise using one typical household as an example we do the rest as a group. We ask the group.

EXPENSE BUCKET TEMPLATES

Total monthly income R550,00 From (circle one) WAGES, GRANTS, BOTH

Expense (Money Spent On)	Average Amount Spent Monthly	Amount spent in Community	Amount spent Outside Community
Fruit and Veg.	R50,00	R50,00	—
Meat	R50,00	—	R50,00
Bread			
Milk & Eggs	R60,00	—	R60,00
Other groceries (sugar/coffee/salt)	R200,00		R200,00
Clothes			
Airtime	R10,00	R10,00	—
Electricity	R20,00	R20,00	—
Transport	R54,00	—	R54,00
Education	R160,00	R160,00	—
Health			
Other			
TOTAL SPENT MONTHLY	R540,00	R260,00	R360,00

After groups fill in the above exercise using one typical household as an example we do the rest as a group. We ask the group.

Photograph 6.2: *Template used by the workshop to indicate income and expenses in Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, October 2011*

Table 6.6: **Average income and expenditure in Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, October 2011**

<i>Average income and expenditure</i>	<i>Amount</i>
Average income per household per month	R2,218.09
Average income per household per year	R26,617.07
Average income for community per year	R26,617,068.00
Average amount spent in the community per year	R8,427,864.00
Average amount spent outside community per year	R18,558,960.00

It was established that most money spent outside the community was on clothes and groceries. A reference back to the capacity inventory will find that there were skilled seamstresses and shoe-makers in the community who could fill this gap in the market. Most community members also spent a large amount of their income on paying off their debts.

e. Transect walk

The fourth day of the workshop started off with a transect walk through the community. Members were given an opportunity to walk through their community area, equipped with a new vision that was targeted on opportunities (Table 6.3). They were asked to return to the training venue and build maps of their community (Photograph 6.3), depicting existing assets as well as indicating new or potential projects/businesses/ventures for their community (Table 6.7). Each group compiled a list of potentially new projects, and the first steps in the planning phase were taken (Table 6.8).



Photograph 6.3: *Building a community map of Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, October 2012*

Table 6.7: Opportunities for change in the Skuinsdrift Community, North-West Province, October 2011

<i>Social Opportunities</i>	<i>Economic Opportunities</i>		<i>Environmental Opportunities</i>	
Farming	ABET	Old tobacco steam	Dumping sites	River
Empty houses to start child	Clinic	house	Water in the canal	Dumping site
Centres	Land	Borehole	Stores to build	Culverts
Clinic	Corn fields	Broken dam	Water pipes	Oxygen
ABET	Recycling	Tavern	Recycling	Road signs and beacons
Soccer field	Canals to water plants	Tuck shops	Scrap metal	Silk worms
Library in abandoned	Clean water	Post office	Trees for traditional	Grass
building behind post office	Crops	Landmark	medicines	Disease Free Buffalo
Churches	Cut grass, bale, and sell	Aloe trees	Empty land for	Breeding Project
Shelves for books	Cut trees to make wood	Maize farm	agriculture	Different Bird Breeding
Recreational grounds for children,	and sell	Wheat farm	Cleaning	Hunting
sports and	Sell products	Dairy	environment	Other endangered
exercise	Electricity for computers	Rocks	Flowers	Wildlife
Electricity for houses	Broiler units	Poultry	Aloe	Breeding of Sable and
Water pumps	Broiler butcheries	Scrap metal	Water dam	Rhino
Workshops	Irrigation scheme	Pig sty	Bushveld wood	Tourism
Aloe trees	Field opposite Landmark	Lime	Rocks	
Gravel roads		Lucerne	Old tyres	
Co-operation business				
Culverts				
Grave yard				
Filling station				
Energy from trees				
Herbs				
Tourism				

f. Action planning and success indicators

The final part of the workshop was to plan their respective businesses, whereby they needed to identify local assets that underpin the success of the project. They then needed to identify the outside assistance they needed for success and more importantly, they needed to identify their own indicators of success. The workshop attendees (Photograph 6.4) had no problem with this exercise and spontaneously participated and completed the templates (information summarised in Table 6.8).



Photograph 6.4: *Discussing action plans and establishing indicators of success, Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, October 2011*

Table 6.8: Projects, action plan and indicators of success in Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, October 2011

<i>Future Change/ Project</i>	<i>Action Steps</i>	<i>Local Assets</i>	<i>Assistance from outside the community</i>	<i>How will the community measure success?</i>
Huge vegetable garden for the whole community	To find land Equipment Seeds Money Sponsor Helpers	Water Soil Sunlight Space Oxygen Lots of people who know how to manage a vegetable	Municipality Department of Agriculture	Number of new jobs created. Sale of produce Amount of vegetables donated to the homeless
Bakery	Traditional Authority Ward councillor Government Departments Assistance from municipality Identify spot for project	Job creation Skill management	Financial assistance Social Development Municipality Material Transport	Completing project within required time frame
Community Multipurpose Centre	Consultant Community trading authorities Municipal Engineer Consultant to test the ground Draw map identifying the spot for the project Assistance from the municipality	Land Community	Financial assistance from public and private sectors Material Engineering consultant	Completing the project within the required time frame
Provide an old-age and disability home that will keep them safe in the community	Renovate the house by using some members in our project to help restore the place	Ask for an abandoned house within the community to avoid misuse Social worker nurse volunteers	Disability grant from Social Development invite externals to help us to live our dream Training for our people to get well skilled	Three months after the house has been acquired, the first inhabitants must move in
New houses for Venture	Plan for the houses Material for building Clean the environment Three bedroom houses with toilet and tiled roof. Assess to pipe water	People with skills, brick layers, those who are unemployed Land and Permit Water	Funding Training	When the house is finished Give the keys to the owners
Vegetable garden at the primary school Skuinsdrift	Ask the principal Find help Get seeds Planting	Land Collect seeds from other veggie gardens around	Needs somebody who knows how to do and can teach	Plants are growing. Enough vegetables to provide the children with fresh and healthy food everyday Knowledge on vegetable gardens

g. General points and observations made during the workshop held with emerging farmers of the Skuinsdrift Community, North-West Province, October 2011

The key assets identified in the Skuinsdrift community after the two CAMP workshops were as follows:

- There is a huge human potential in this community and despite racial and cultural tensions they wanted to make a positive change in their lives. It was clear that the broader community wanted to overcome the various challenges and differences and they seemed to genuinely believe the principle of working together for a successful future and the improvement of their quality of lives
- During the past decade the community had gained substantial skills through various training and empowerment programmes. There was a willingness amongst the community to seek help, advice and guidance from external stakeholder support programmes
- The traditional authorities, religious and local government (ward councillors) leadership seemed to be very strong, consistent and showed a high level of involvement in the workshops. The broader community (including the surrounding areas of Skuinsdrift) had access to land. However, much of the land belonged to the Baroleng Tribe
- The neighbouring villages of Koffiekraal and Pella, Brakuil, Uitkyk were identified as hubs of incubation of some of the community projects. The area is fairly well preserved in terms of environmental aspects. The community presented a history of negotiations (including a court case) to prevent extraction industries (such as platinum and copper mines) from establishing mines in the area. It appeared that the farming practices are conducted in environmentally friendly ways.

A number of key challenges that were identified during the two workshops can be summarised as:

- Numeracy and literacy levels were low for the whole community, but very low for the age group above 40 years. Unemployment levels were high, income levels were low. Many of the participants at the workshop lived in debt. Transportation in the area presented a major challenge
- There was very little recreation facilities and activities available, and the levels of alcohol and substance abuse were major concerns for the community
- The community seemed to be very close, however, it was clear that there were deep divides amongst the various groups. The fact that many local community members attended the CAMP and no landowners who play a major role in the workplace attended was a further indicator of the divides in the community and a lack of synergy in the broader community. There was a high level of distrust among, community members, land owners, traditional authority and political leadership. There was a perception that only a few people in the community receive opportunities and this in turn leads to conflict and rejection as well as the undermining of development initiatives and projects.

Despite all its challenges, Skuinsdrift has the potential to become a high impact development initiative and with strong support from many levels can become a case study that provides an example for integrated sustainable socio-economic change to other communities in South Africa.

6.2 Koffiekraal

Koffiekraal was identified as a possible community that could benefit from the Community Asset Mapping Programme, that the community members of Skuinsdrift held. The two communities are geographical neighbours and there was a high level of synergy between the communities. Unlike Skuinsdrift, Koffiekraal is a rural village that is managed by a traditional

authority. Any development in the one community will have an impact on the other community. Thus when the request from Mr. P Phefo (Chairperson and spokesperson of the Koffiekraal Village Forum and also representative of the Traditional Council) to the Greater Rustenburg Community Foundation (GRCF) to undertake a CAMP was received it was seriously considered. The multi-national donor for the Skuinsdrift development was not involved in the Koffiekraal community and wished to keep their focus on the Skuinsdrift community, the Department of Geography of Unisa together with the GRCF funded the CAMP in Koffiekraal.

Three members from the GRCF, six members from Southern Cross, and seven staff members from the Department of Geography, Unisa facilitated the four day workshop. One visiting academic from Palacky University, Olomouc, Czech Republic was also in attendance. Translation from Tswana to English/Afrikaans and English/Afrikaans to Tswana was provided by a staff member of the GRCF. The Department of Geography, Unisa and the GRCF undertook the logistical arrangements. Financially the workshop was paid for by the GRCF (using donor money) and Unisa. A freelance cameraman was in attendance to capture the entire workshop for possible study material for Unisa's new credit bearing short learning programme on Community Asset Mapping Programme (CAMP).

Seventy six (76) community members attended the workshop on 13, 14, 15 and 16 August 2012. These attendees were community members from Koffiekraal and neighbouring Uitkyk and Brakuil (UNISA/GRCF, 2012). There was an even spread of male and female attendees, with a fair representation of community members from all age groups. The language of communication was English. The majority of the community members were comfortable with communication in English, but most preferred Tswana or Afrikaans. Translations of some of the sessions into Tswana for the community were required and provided.

The workshop was held at the traditional hall in the south-western part of the village. This was identified as a suitable site due to the fact that electricity was provided and it was large enough to house many participants. The traditional hall was also the central meeting place of the community, and was considered to be the most accessible location for the four day workshop.

6.2.1 Setting the scene by doing a community appreciative enquiry

In an attempt to orientate community members to think positively about themselves and their community, the workshop started with an explanation that one should try and concentrate on one's dreams and not on one's problems and needs. An analogy of the community on a boat with the GRCF and Unisa, working together to reach a better destination was introduced at the beginning of the workshop, and constant reference was made to this analogy during the workshop to establish who was still in the boat and thus still on a journey to a possible better life. The session's purpose was twofold: firstly, to allow the participants to feel good about their communities and to be more hopeful about the past and future of their community and thus also their role as individuals in the community, and secondly the exercise was particularly useful in creating a sense of pride and belonging amongst the community members.

The community members in attendance were divided into groups and the workshop took the form of story-telling that focussed on the sharing of experiences. The groups were asked to name themselves, and they decided to name themselves after wild animals, namely, Tigers, Giraffes, Cheetahs and Springboks. These groups and names remained in place for the duration of the workshop. The groups were then asked to describe current and past success (feel good) stories within their communities, and were then asked to

speculate on the reasons for the success in the examples they provided. The purpose of the exercise was to convince the groups that, like all communities, they have success stories to tell about individual members or groups within their own community. The discussions within the groups were spontaneous, and many successful stories were shared with each other. The task required them to only select one story to report back to the workshop. However, some arguments occurred as to exactly which story should be shared with the workshop. The success stories reported by the groups are summarised in Table 6.9.

The story-telling session was then followed with a community self-reflection on the success stories of individuals in the community. The most important aspect at this point of the workshop for the facilitator was to try and establish how the success stories made them feel about their community and themselves as members of the community. In the case of Koffiekraal the community recognised that the successful individuals in all the stories were people that were able to recognise opportunities and to create jobs for a number of community members. The groups also recognised that these individuals who could provide for themselves were also able to help the poor, the disadvantaged and the elderly by supplying free vegetables to them.

The community members at the workshop expressed that the success stories made them feel happy, blessed, encouraged, good and very importantly, proud to be members of a community such as Koffiekraal. At the same time they listed the following characteristics of the individuals portrayed in the success stories as having great strength in character; they not only had a dream but also the courage to take the risks. More importantly, the community members indicated that these individuals had the power to make choices and take control of their own destiny.

Table 6.9: Community success stories: Koffiekraal , North-West Province, August 2012

Tigers	Giraffes
<p>The group selected the story of a community member, who was described as a husband, father and business man. This gentleman started working as a welder for a company in Rustenburg. While he was employed he saved money that enabled him to purchase a small pick-up truck. He made this purchase as he observed that there was very little public transport in Koffiekraal and the surrounding areas. To start, he transported people between Koffiekraal and Rustenburg. He was able to save more money and he then purchased a taxi (<i>mini bus</i>). He employed someone to drive the taxi, while he still transported goods in his truck. The profit made from the taxi enabled the community member to branch out from transportation and go into brick-making. He did thus as he noticed that community members were transporting large quantities of brick to build homes. This community member was a recipient of a business award of which the community is very proud. Not only does this community member have a successful business, the group noted that he was also a charitable person, as he has a large vegetable garden where he grows vegetables for community members who cannot afford to purchase or grow their own vegetables.</p>	<p>This group selected a success story of a gentleman who was born and grew up in Koffiekraal. He started a small milk business. His business was not a dairy as he purchased the milk, and resold the milk to the local community. On a daily basis he would visit a local farmer (identified by the group as a white farmer) and buy the milk which he would then transport to Koffiekraal and re-sell. This person went on to start a Church in Koffiekraal, as he wanted to help his fellow community members spiritually. In addition he started to build houses in the community. The group expressed their pride that this gentleman has one of the best gardens in Koffiekraal. In 1995, he started a project which encouraged a group of people to grow vegetables that they could sell to the community and also supply some vegetable for free to needy schools, clinics and the elderly in the village. In the opinion of the group, this gentleman was a success, as he was a good husband and provider for his six children, the eldest of which he has managed to send to University to study.</p>
Cheetahs	Springboks
<p>This group described the life story of a bus driver in the community, who started a small tuck shop to generate extra income to help support his family. After he retired as a truck driver, he started a brick-making business. He then employed people from the community to help make and sell the bricks. He later branched out into farming (livestock and vegetables). He bought all the necessary tools and machinery such as tractors and employed more people to work for him. In more recent times his tuck shop has grown into a bigger shop and now he has a tavern linked to it, where he employs a number of people from the community.</p>	<p>This group described the initiative of a group of elderly people who pooled their money to start a community vegetable garden. The elderly hired tractors to plough the field and they planted vegetables for sale to the community. They have since registered the project, and employ and train a number of youths in Koffiekraal to help them. The project also receives grants for their work, making their project sustainable.</p>

The collective message that the workshop facilitator attempted to convey at this stage was that although everyday life can be difficult in the Koffiekraal community, there were ways of making life easier. This can be done by doing something to make everyday living different and easier, and not waiting for other (external) people to make the changes on the communities' behalf. The message that communities were responsible for their own lives, was supplemented with discussions around hope and choice. The conclusion of this session was a generic discussion on why it was important to dream a collective vision for their community, and that as a community they would need to provide the NPO, the University, the local authority and possible donors with an indication on the type of indicators the community members will use to measure their success in the creation of this vision.

One of the community members very effectively provided the following message to the rest of the community members at the workshop: "Life is difficult but it is not impossible. Hope is all we have – if we lose hope we lose life. Life can be better, we have a choice and we can choose to make the most of it" (P. Phefo, personal communication, August 15, 2012)

At this point in the workshop, the researcher was able to establish that this community already had significant evidence of successful entrepreneurship activities, where community members were able to benefit collectively in terms of employment and the charity of the individuals. The overall purpose of CAMP was to facilitate the process where community members were able to provide for a better quality of life for themselves. The success stories and the feeling of pride to be a member of Koffiekraal probably contributed greatly to the success of CAMP in the community over the long run. The researcher also observed that within the groups there were signs of power struggles in the manner in which discussions took place, selection of the person to be the spokesperson and the way the stories were presented.

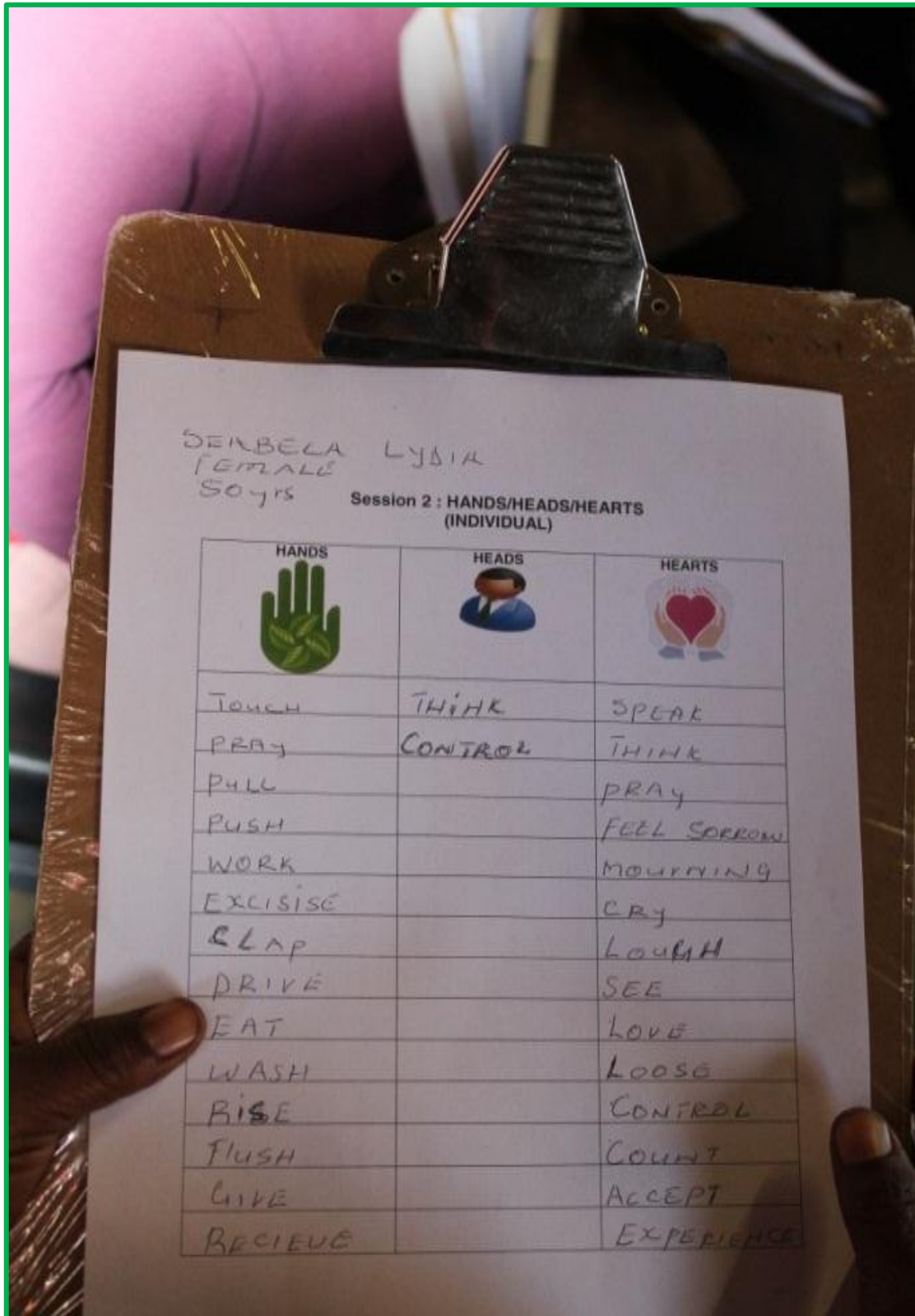
6.2.2 Capacity inventory

A crucial part of the CAMP process was to help community members identify the assets they had. This part of the workshop focused on the general understanding of the concept of an asset. The facilitator explained the concept and the explanation were then translated to ensure that all had a clear understanding of the concepts of an asset. As part of the CAMP process, the workshop attendees needed to gather information about their own assets. The facilitator explained that their community assets can be divided into three different groups:

- Individual assets (hearts, head and hands)
- Community assets (association mapping)
- Community leadership assets (power mapping).

In preparation for the activities the community members were told that there was no right or wrong answer and they should not judge each other on their responses.

The first exercise focussed on the individual assets of the community. The workshop attendees were asked to consider their assets as individuals. A template (Photograph 6.5) was used to assist the individuals in establishing their assets. Table 6.10 summarises the collective individual assets listed by the attendees of the workshop, and it was evident that the skills set within the community was very high. The facilitator pointed out that if the community had to go out and purchase these specific skills, it would cost them a fortune in monetary value. Emphasis on the actual wealth of the community was made, and that the Koffiekraal community should stand tall and be proud of what they have.



Photograph 6.5:

Template used by workshop attendees to list their individual assets, Koffiekraal, North-West Province, August 2012

Table 6.10: The collective individual assets of the Koffiekraal community, North-West Province, August 2012

<i>Hands</i>		<i>Heads</i>		<i>Hearts</i>	
Hold	Bath	Think	Understand	Love	Trust
Work	Drive	Memorise	Be responsible	Share	Feel
Chop	Eat	Dream	Cope	Happiness	Open heart
Pull push	Type	Visualise	Mind maps	Preach	Peace
Wash	Draw	Plan	Choices	Forgive	Joy
Cut	Grind	Decisions	Focus	Regret	Respect
Cover	Fix	Differentiate	Doubt	Believe	Stress
Bake	Hairdressing	Disagreed	Interpret	Compassion	Expect
Play	Point	Capture	Listen	Patience	Speak
Roll	Talk	Creativity	Help	Hurt	Pray
Plant	Protect	Draw	Agree	Keep secrets	Feel sorrow
Clean	Build mud bricks	Training	Problem solving	Breath	Mourn
Sew	Help	Belief	Wisdom	Attitude	Experience
Cook	Iron	Knowledge	Organise	Cry	See
Write	Drink	Calculate	Acknowledge	Laugh	
				Accept	

The next phase of the asset mapping process was helping the community determine their community assets (also called association mapping). This activity was done in a group, and the groups were asked to concentrate on their human, social, economic and environmental assets (Photograph 6.6). The workshop attendees identified assets listed in Table 6.11 as their most important community assets.



Photograph 6.6: *Focus group discussion on community assets in Koffiekraal, North-West Province, August 2012*

The third session on mapping the assets was that of establishing the community leadership, also known as power mapping. The four groups were again asked to work together in the power mapping exercise. The objective was to share their ideas for potential projects for the community. They were then asked to speculate on who they regarded as partners and who they thought would not support them in the project. During this session, the

Table 6.11: The community assets of Koffiekraal, North-West Province, August 2012

<i>Human assets</i>		<i>Social assets</i>	<i>Economic assets</i>	<i>Environmental assets</i>
Gardening	Caterers	Home based care	Fresh produce market	Groot Marico river
Electricity	Poets	Koffiekraal forum	Various taverns	Fertile soil
Sowing	Painters	Foster care	Butchery	Cows
Needle-work	Comedians	Community projects	Builders	Sheep
Bricklayers	Teachers	Road maintenance	Panel beaters	Gardening
Singing	Social workers	Youth against drug abuse	Chicken (broilers)	Park
Dancing	Nurses	Policing forum	General dealer	Madikwe River
Plumbing	Traditional dancers	Gardening project	Restaurant	Fishing
Preaching	Craft workers(wood)	Grave diggers	Trading store	Hunting
Praying	Dress making	Churches	Bottle store	Forest
Exercise	Shoe repairs	Crèche	Tribal office	Good weather
Sport (soccer)	Designers	Burial society	Bricks	Seleke's Park
Panel beaters	Writers	Liquor association	Beads	
Hairdresser	Talkers		Hair salon	
Boiler makers	Children			
Traditional healer				

facilitator took the community members through a process where they were asked to map the power structures in terms of the following:

- Who is at the table?
- Who is on the table?
- Who is under the table?

Due to the abstract concept of 'power', the facilitator's explanation was translated to ensure that all community members understood the purpose of the session. The summary of the power mapping process in Koffiekraal is summarised in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12: Community leadership and power mapping of Koffiekraal, North-West Province, August 2012

<i>Who is at the table?</i>	<i>Who is on the table?</i>	<i>Who is under the table?</i>
Traditional council Local municipality Old age home Department of Health Clinic Forum Community Community leaders Donors Market	Health centres Department of Social Development Traditional council Private doctors State doctors Municipality	Local government Ward councillors Traditional authorities

The multiple roles of role players were evident in the exercise. This session was closed with an explanation of why it was important to have a good idea to consult to make sure the project was a success, while at the same time, to be aware of possible role players who could be working against the success of the project. This important information was translated to ensure that all attendees were clear on the implications of the exercise.

6.2.3 Wishes, fears, trust and values processes

The second day of the workshop concentrates on a number of 'softer' issues that exist within the community. During these sessions, templates were used to inform the NPO, University, possible Donors, and local authorities establish on issues such as wishes, fears and trust levels within a community. A summary of the wishes and fears of the Koffiekraal community appears in Table 6.13.

Table 6.13: *The wishes and fears of the Koffiekraal community, North-West Province, August 2012*

<i>Wishes</i>	<i>Fears</i>
Peace	Child abuse
Job opportunities	Alcohol abuse
Police station	Teenage pregnancy
Unity	Disappearance of people
Parental guidance	Poverty
Service delivery	Satanism
Improved facilities	HIV/Aids
Better education	High death rate (all ages)
Ambulance	Domestic violence
Library	High crime rate
Internal roads (tarred)	Stock theft
Own land back	
To know more about the history of the community	
Skills development	

After the wishes process was completed, the community was prompted to answer a number of questions based on their wishes (Table 6.14). In contrast to questions on the wishes they have for their community they were asked on how the fears they listed (Table 6.13) made them feel when they woke up in the morning. The community was reminded that life is all about choices. They can choose to be positive when they wake up in the morning, and that they can chose that the day is a good day. Workshop attendees were encouraged to choose to be positive every day, to do things that make

their lives better. The concept that life is all about attitude and choices was reiterated.

Table 6.14: Koffiekraal community's questions and answers related to their wishes, North-West Province, August 2012

<i>Questions to the community</i>	<i>Answers from the community</i>
<p>How will you feel if you woke up in the morning and you had all of these wishes come true?</p> <p>All of the above means you will be?</p> <p>What do you wish for all of your community?</p> <p>What do you wish to see between parents and the community?</p> <p>What is the difference between hopeful and hopeless?</p> <p>What does your attitude determine?</p>	<p>We would feel proud, blessed, and confident</p> <p>Hopeful</p> <p>Success, freedom in terms of safety and security, transparency, and equality</p> <p>Happiness, respect, trust, understanding, and love</p> <p>Attitude is the difference</p> <p>It determines your choices</p>

The second session on the second day focussed on the values that reside within the community. They were asked three questions and to respond as a group. The community values are summarised in Table 6.15. The following is a list of answers provided:

- Angry
- Afraid
- Hurt
- Pain
- Disappointment
- Hatred
- Hopeless.

Table 6.15: Values of the Koffiekraal community, North-West Province, August 2012

<i>What do I value about myself?</i>	<i>What do I value about the people in my community?</i>	<i>What do I value about my community?</i>
Love	Supporting	Opportunity
Smile	Guiding	Beauty
Caring	Dignity	Freedom
Respect	Forgiveness	Unity
Trust	Welcoming	Honesty
Forgiveness	Respect	Good communication
Sharing	Sharing	Christian community
uBuntu (humanity)	Cooperation	Professional people
Unity (kopano)	Commitment	Bylaws/rules
Humble	Courage	Care givers
Obedience	Listening	Schools
Passion	Peaceful	History
Peace	Self esteem	Transport
Understanding	Trust	
Happiness	Love	
Patience	Advice	
Friendliness	Helping	
Honesty	Confidence	
Approachable	Friendship	
Determination	Wisdom	
Ambitious	Joy	
Integrity	Happiness	
	Caring	

After the process, the emphasis that people were the most important assets of a community seemed to be understood by the attendees. For the facilitators, a number of matters related to the community that were already highlighted on the first day were verified and confirmed using the wishes and fears process.

Trust is often a problem in rural communities in South Africa, CAMP includes a trust process. This session started with a facilitator asking the members of the workshop to answer the following four questions:

- Do I trust myself?
- Why do I trust myself (what abilities do I have that I can trust)

- Who else do I trust in my community?
- Reasons why I trust them?

Due to the personal nature of the questions and the related answers, individuals were not expected to share the answers to the questions with the facilitators or the rest of the community members. This session was concluded with a request for the attendees of the workshop to stand up and to approach members in their groups and to shake the hands of those in the group they trusted (Photograph 6.7). Observations of the researcher during this session in Koffiekraal were that the youths in the groups did not make any effort to get up to shake the hands of their elders, given that this is a traditional community. Secondly, it was observed that not all attendees were approached; this could imply a level of distrust in the community. This behaviour could cause further doubt and a sense of exclusion in some individuals who may think to themselves, 'I am not trusted by my community'. One of the members in fact came out and said that she doesn't trust a specific person in her group as she gossips about others. Another woman noted that she did not trust herself.

The trust exercise was significant in that the facilitators established that the community did not have sustainable levels of trust amongst themselves or as a community. For this reason, the facilitators decided undertake a socialisation process with the Koffiekraal community, where the negative impact of stereotyping due to the way people look, their cultural origins, language differences, their economic income, education, levels of employment and stigmatisation, was addressed.



Photograph 6.7: Socialisation process outside the tribal office, Koffiekraal, North-West Province, August 2012

6.2.4 Problem solving ability of the Koffiekraal community, North-West Province, August 2012

The conclusion of the second day of the workshop focussed on problem identification and the solving abilities of the community. The groups were asked to go back to the fears process and to identify one of biggest fears of the community that was also a major social problem. They were then asked to identify possible solutions to the problem that could come from the community itself (Table 6.16).

Table 6.16: Problems and possible community solutions in Koffiekraal, North-West Province, August 2012

<i>Problem</i>	<i>Possible solution(s)</i>	<i>Problem</i>	<i>Possible solution(s)</i>
Unemployment	The group decided that the only way to deal with unemployment was to create employment by starting small businesses. After lengthy discussion on what sort of businesses, they decided to propose one for this case study and this was a bakery. The bakery would supply community members with `vetkoeK' (dough cooked in oil), birthday cakes and bread (in particular, bread rolls). They suggested that the bakery could sell their products to schools, clinics and the rest of the community. They suggested that perhaps they could approach the Department of Social Development for funds to train those employed by the bakery. They felt that they could advertise the bakery through posters in the village as well as through business cards. In their opinion, creating a business such as a bakery is sustainable and viable and would thus increase the employment opportunities within the community.	Poverty and hunger	The social and economic problems of poverty were the focus of this group's discussion. The suggestions to alleviate poverty included the creation of a vegetable garden to plant crops for those who could not afford to buy vegetables. To do this they indicated that they would have to speak to the Chief about a suitable site. Once such a place was identified, they would clean the site and prepare the soil for planting. In order to receive the necessary training, they could approach the Department of Agriculture and contribute from their own pockets. In addition, they could collect empty bottles from the taverns and start a re-cycling business. Both plans could create employment and thus contribute to the relief of poverty in the village.
Overgrazing	This group identified the problem of overgrazing of cattle in the area. Some of their solutions included the informal rezoning of land use by creating a community plan of land use, as they were of the opinion that demarcation of land for grazing would be crucial. They also suggested that there should be a limitation on the number of livestock of any one individual. The grazing of cattle (and the number) during the winter months should be monitored. A general education of land use and abuse was crucial and this would include the eradication of alien plants and the removal of invasive alien plants.	Alcohol Abuse	This group identified alcohol abuse by underage community members. In order to restrict underage drinking in the taverns and around town, they proposed that one should put up posters and obtain the assistance of the police to prevent the situation from getting worse. Approach the local churches to provide spiritual support to those with a problem. Establish support groups and a rehabilitation centre, with clinic to provide counselling.

6.2.5 Cognitive shift to creating opportunities for own wealth creation, Koffiekraal North-West Province, August 2012

The third day of the workshop started off with a focus on finance with the intention of identifying possible projects that the community could use for wealth creation. A basic session in community based economics was presented to the community. The analogy used in the Asset-based Community Development (ABCD) approach of a leaky bucket was used to explain the concept and value of keeping money in circulation within the community. The individuals in the workshop were asked to provide an indication of their average income and expenses on a template. The following information was collected:

- Total monthly income (and source)
- Expenses (individuals are asked to provide a breakdown of expenses)
- Average amount spent monthly
- The amount spent in the community
- The amount spent outside of the community.

Once all the individuals had filled in the template, the templates were given to the facilitators who calculated the value of the aspects above. The individual templates of the community members were not shared with the rest of the community, but only supplied to the facilitators in order to calculate the basic financial situation of the community (Table 6.17).

Although the results of the process could not be equated to an accurate reflection of the actual financial situation in Koffiekraal, the values calculate in Table 6.17 are as a result of the estimated income and expenditure of the community members who attended the workshop multiplied by the estimated

number of households. In the case of Koffiekraal, an unusual trend (when compared to other communities that have undergone CAMP) was that this community probably had a surplus (around R20 million is not accounted for in the estimated annual budgets). The community was in shock to learn about their estimated but 'unaccounted' wealth, and they went further to speculate that most of the surplus money was probably spent at taverns or on drugs. Like many other communities a large portion of the earnings in Koffiekraal was spent outside of the community, while a relatively smaller amount of money was spent within the community.

Table 6.17: A summary of the Koffiekraal community income and expenditure, North-West Province, August 2012

<i>Income and expenditure</i>	<i>Amount</i>
Number of households in Koffiekraal	Estimation of 3000
Average income per household per month	R2,698.00
Average income per household per annum	R32,387,640.00
Average income for community per annum	R97,162,292.00
Average amount spent in the community per annum	R26,173,800.00
Average amount spent outside the community per annum	R50,363,640.00
<i>Surplus per annum</i>	<i>R20,624,852.00</i>

6.2.6 Community maps and the transect walk in the Koffiekraal Village, North-West Province, August 2012

With possible business opportunities in mind, the attendees were requested to build a community map. The groups were given material like cardboard, pens, crayons, and glue, to build a map of what their community looks like in terms of the assets they have identified, and the opportunities that these assets provide in terms of possible small and medium business opportunities (Photograph 6.8). Each group was requested to build their own maps and they were provided with around two hours to complete their draft maps.



Photograph 6.8: *Koffiekraal community members building their community map, North-West Province, August 2012*

After creating their own community maps each group was divided into two groups. One half of each group was tasked with continuing with the map, while the other half was tasked with going on the transect walk. The transect walk involved the group members physically walking through the community, and they were asked to re-look at their community through an asset lens. They were then asked to go back to the group and suggest further ideas on the assets on the map, and possible projects.

During the Koffiekraal workshop, the transect walk followed a different process than used at previous workshops. The workshop members who walked through the community area did so with a Global Positioning System (GPS) to identify assets: The facilitator (Unisa geographer) ensured that the exact location was recorded on the GPS with a description of the asset. On the one hand community members returned to the group to share and add to their community map. This had a two-fold purpose. On the other hand,

the information recorded on the GPS was collated onto an electronic true to scale map. This true to scale map was further developed when community members were asked to do a second transect 'walk' using the aerial photograph and topographical map of the area (Photograph 6.9). The result of the mapping exercise in Koffiekraal was twofold:

- Four community maps (Photograph 6.10) were produced on which the different groups mapped their community assets
- The start of the creation of a community map that was true to scale that they and any other external stakeholder involved in the community could use.



Photograph 6.9: *Koffiekraal community members identify their places of residence on a 1:50 000 scale map, North-West Province, August 2012*



Photograph 6.10: *Community members of Koffiekraal proudly show their community maps, August 2012*

The creation of the two maps in the Koffiekraal was significant as this was the first time that the Koffiekraal community had a true to scale map of their community. The fact that they were able to be the co-authors of the map, added to the sense of pride and belonging of the attendees to their respective communities. The true to scale mapping of a rural community will be added to CAMP workshop in future as it will be of value for the communities and external stakeholders involved in change in the community.

The mapping process and the introduction of the true to scale mapping process in Koffiekraal proved to be a very effective empowering process as community members expressed a sense of pride in the fact that their community and village was important, as a topographical map and aerial photograph of their village existed. The conclusion of the session was very positive with the attendees expressing a sense of belonging as a community member of Koffiekraal.

6.2.7 Social, economic and environmental opportunities identified by the Koffiekraal community to effect change

All the sessions presented at the workshop culminated with the workshop attendees suggesting a number of different opportunities related to assets that could effect change in their village. Table 6.18 summarises the opportunities listed by workshop attendees. The opportunities were numerous and varied and could provide valuable foundations for projects that could change the quality of life of the community.

Table 6.18: Social, economic and environmental opportunities identified by the Koffiekraal community, North-West Province, August 2012

<i>Social opportunities</i>	<i>Economic opportunities</i>	<i>Environmental opportunities</i>
Orphanage	Complex	Open space next to clinic
Old age centre	Entertainment	Dam
Communal hall	Game reserve	Vegetable garden
Library	Poultry farm	River
Shopping centre	Goats, sheep, pigs	Forrest
Cinema	Filling station	Swimming pool
Museum	Hair salon	Nature conservation project
	Car wash	

6.2.8 Action planning and success indicators as determined by the Koffiekraal community, August 2012

Having gone through the various processes, the workshop attendees were asked to identify one project per group which they considered to be a viable project that could effect change in their lives. Each group identified a project and had to work through a process of naming the project, suggest an action plan to get the project started, identify a local that could underpin the success of the project and then they identify the outside assistance needed for the project to succeed. Finally they had to establish their own indicators of success in their projects. The projects identified are listed in Table 6.19.

Table 6.19: Projects, action plan and indicators of success in Koffiekraal, North-West Province, August 2012

Tigers					Giraffes				
<i>Future change project</i>	<i>Action steps required</i>	<i>Local assets to contribute</i>	<i>Outside assistance required</i>	<i>How will the group measure their own success?</i>	<i>Future change project</i>	<i>Action steps required</i>	<i>Local assets to contribute</i>	<i>Outside assistance required</i>	<i>How will the group measure their own success?</i>
Bakery project	Shop space Baking equipment Baking ingredients Market research to find out if the bakery will be supported by the community Advertising needed to market the bakery. Suggestions of radio adverts and the distribution of pamphlets	There a few vacant houses in the village that could be used Electricity Enthusiastic group members Traditional ovens for traditional baking Community members with financial knowledge and skills Community members who can undertake the printing of marketing materials	Materials for aprons Money for ingredients Donor to assist with the start-up of the bakery	Group gave themselves one month to finalise this measure Agreement with possible clients Daily bread sales Time of 6 months to obtain necessary equipment Regular meetings with the group to formulate strategy In the future, ensure that the traditionally baked goods are part of a possible tourism route to Groot Marico	Improve local roads	The group decided that they needed to make contact with the relevant government department to obtain information on the status of the present project	Community members willing to spend their free time trying to improve the present road system Minutes of previous meeting Telephone number and details of the officials who can assist with the project	Department of Public Works, North West Province Infrastructure on the status of the project Engineers training	Regular follow ups and constant communication with the relevant authorities Their level of understanding of the process and constraints experienced by the external on the project
Springboks					Cheetahs				
Internet café	Need a place to house the Internet café Suitable infrastructure such a Wi-Fi coverage Computers Fax machines Printers Experienced people Trained people Security Chairs and tables Cleaning materials	Existing buildings Electricity Experienced Technician living in the community Community member who can maintain computers Well trained computer literate community members	Computer technicians Software Hardware technicians Electricians Funding or donor Management training for staff Project management expertise Book keeper	The number of people who use the facility Income to get profit Customer satisfaction Competitive with other similar business that might open in the future	Poultry shop focussing on selling eggs	Identify the needs of the community Donors to assist in starting the business Seek the assistance of professionals with skills to help writing proposals to seek funding	Labour Shelter Security Infrastructure Builders from community can contribute Community members can help support	Donors to assist with funding the start of the business Professionals help to help with the business part of the project Suppliers to help identify correct type of chickens to buy and the food they need	A successful business in place with two years Marketing opportunities Business must see a profit in a year. Provide employment for at least 10 people from the community

In each group, a Unisa academic played a leading role in assisting to consider their projects within the specified template. This exercise brought together all the processes over the past three days. Once each group had planned their respective projects, they were requested to present their project plans to the group. While an outsider could criticize the projects and their viability it was important to note that the community members were seriously thinking about entrepreneurial opportunities and were relatively more realistic on the prospects and measures of their own success when compared to the first day of the workshop.

6.2.9 Commitments made to the community by GRCF and Unisa

From the workshop the assumption could be made that the community of Koffiekraal appeared to be a well organised community, with a number of feasible and sustainable projects that with more planning and development could contribute to changing the lives of community members. The community was rich in potential assets, and there seemed to be a surplus of money that could be used to support local entrepreneur opportunities. The problem of drug and alcohol abuse was significant as this matter was highlighted during various sessions over the four day period. It was decided at the workshop that the GRCF and Unisa would liaise with the community forum, and make specific decisions on when they will return to the community to determine the type of monitoring and evaluation that will take place. It was also decided that at that meeting the community could provide Unisa with an indication of the type of technical skills and knowledge that the community needed to meet their own indicators of success.

The GRCF committed to returning to the community within the next three months to establish the progress each group made in terms of their

respective projects, and to assist with the development of project plans for new projects. The GRCF together with external partners provided the following assistance to the community (depending on the needs identified by the community):

- Formalisation and registration of business initiatives
- Strategic planning
- Project and/or business planning
- Financial management
- Trust and self-worth workshops
- Soft skill workshops
- Technical support.

A more detailed reflection of the monitoring and evaluation process after the workshop will be discussed in detail in Chapter Seven.

6.2.10 General points and observations made during the workshop in Koffiekraal, North-West Province, August 2012

It was clear from the daily attendance register that the group was dedicated and cohesive who were really interested in making changes to their lives. There were relatively high levels of education and their command of English was good. It was noted that their understanding of Afrikaans was good and in some instances they insisted on speaking in Afrikaans rather than Tswana or English. There was a good balance of skills within the community and with this, there was the potential for individuals and groups to start small/medium enterprises. The group was willing to share their skills and knowledge amongst themselves as well as with the facilitators.

Trust also was an issue for this community, especially between the youth and elderly. This was surprising as this was a traditional community under

the leadership that was a Ngosi. The group generally seemed willing to take the advice offered to them. They considered a number of controversial issues and were able to openly discuss these issues against the potential impact these issues had on their own wealth creation. Many community structures (existing forums) were already in place; these would facilitate easier communication between the NPO, University, local authorities and/or donors and community members. During the workshop it was established that there was a potential surplus of income in the community. Not only did this help the community confront the possibility that much money was spent in taverns and possible drug habits, but it was also important for them to realise that with careful planning they could finance their own wealth creation with little monetary subsidy from an external party.

There were a number of challenges identified in the community. These included possible power struggles within the community and trust issues amongst community members. These were matters that needed to be followed up with interventions during the monitoring and evaluation stage. A general concern was raised amongst the Koffiekraal workshop attendees regarding the unemployment situation in neighbouring villages. In particular the loss of employment amongst the farm workers in Skuinsdrift was highlighted as major concern in Koffiekraal as this negatively impacted on the Koffiekraal community.

The addition of the community based Geographical Information System Mapping process that was linked to the transect walk and mapping exercise to the CAMP process was significant in the refinement of CAMP. It was very clear that this process had the potential to become more powerful in ensuring a cognitive shift of the individuals. The opportunity for a community to actually build a map of their own area that all stakeholders in the CAMP process could use, needed to be developed. It was the opinion of the academics as well as the GRCF that the mapping exercise could be used

as a short term gain in the CAMP process, as real and tangible outcomes were evident within four weeks of the CAMP workshop. The community mapping process in terms of community members locating themselves on the aerial photograph was an extremely powerful empowering tool. The visible excitement of individuals locating their homesteads on the aerial photograph and the realisation that they are not invisible, but actually belong geographically was an emotion that can only contribute positively towards the CAMP programme.

This community has a well organised Community Development Forum. They were pro-active and more organised than many other rural communities in the area. This made it easier for business and government to come to provide funding for the community. There was visionary leadership in the community, and they need to be recognised for their leadership and forward thinking (UNISA/GRCF, 2012b).

6.3 Conclusion

The application of CAMP in the Skuinsdrift and Koffiekraal communities confirmed that the communities from the rural areas of South Africa do not want to be passive recipients of aid as advocated within the basic needs approach, but they are capable of making informed decisions and plans towards their own sustainable future. The communities identified appropriate development options and strategies in partnership with each other, and they established their own indicators of success. In collaboration with the GRCF and Unisa as external partners, the communities decided to make significant changes in their respective communities that would ensure a better quality of life for themselves. The following chapter will present the monitoring and evaluation process of the activities in these two communities during the 18 months after they had undergone CAMP.

**Chapter Seven: Monitoring and evaluation related to CAMP:
 case studies in the North-West Province**

All asset mapping programmes advocate that rural communities must drive their own change. The workshop was designed to start a cognitive shift within communities that focused on the positive rather than the negative. Within the South African rural setting however, communities have been subjected to generations of top-down decision making, and this has negatively impacted on the willingness of community members to articulate their own views. This was also aggravated by the fact that in the 20th century the authorities rarely listened to the communities (especially Black). It was thus unlikely that after a four day workshop that aimed at convincing communities that they should think positively, ask for advice and plan their own indicators of success. The four day workshop provided the beginning of a journey that will hopefully convince rural communities that they could improve their quality of life and rely on local, provincial or national government to do this. It is for this reason that the follow up visits to the community are crucial to the success of CAMP. In this way the external stakeholders are able to walk with the community on a journey determined the community. It is however fundamental that externals will be able to provide assistance to the community that is not only relevant to the community's own plans, identified by the community itself.

This chapter focusses on the monitoring and evaluation of the CAMP in Skuinsdrift and Koffiekraal, as an example of the ideas, challenges and success rural communities experience on the journey to improving their quality of life.

7.1 Follow up visits to Skuinsdrift and Koffiekraal after the CAMP workshop

Two weeks after the four day CAMP workshop was completed in the Koffiekraal and Skuinsdrift, the facilitators visited the communities to establish how the community was doing and to support and assist individuals and groups to progress with their future planning. Discussions on the identified projects in terms of viability were crucial, as the community had time to reflect and think about what they had learnt at the workshop and to think how this knowledge could be used in the creation of development opportunities. It was during these visits that the projects identified during the workshop were refined, and in some instances consolidated. In the case of Skuinsdrift, the development of the multi-purpose centre became a priority, while in Koffiekraal the matter of training and technical advice on a number of projects started to become the focus of the community members. In all the case studies presented in this research, it was apparent how the initial plans of the communities changed and grew over the first six months after the workshops. It was thus important that in any asset-based development approach, the organic nature of the plans of a community should be taken into account and encouraged. External stakeholder need to allow the community to grow into its own, and make changes to its plans over time.

It should be noted that the employees from the Greater Rustenburg Community Foundation visited (and still do) the community at least four times a month, while the researcher visits the community at least once monthly. The number of projects and initiatives in the two communities was vast and will not be included in this chapter for practical reasons. Instead a selection of the most important (from the perspective of the researcher) will be presented as examples of the successes and challenges that the communities have experienced.

7.2 Themes identified for high impact sustainable change in Skuinsdrift and Koffiekraal, North-West Province

During the CAMP workshops and follow-up meetings with the communities in Koffiekraal and Skuinsdrift, the community cited the following themes as the critical components needed for high impact sustainable change:

- Multi-purpose centre for Skuinsdrift
- Food security was identified as a major theme in some of the projects, but more importantly a need for the communities as a whole
- Health related matters form the basis of many of the fears and wishes of community member during the workshops. The high level of HIV/AIDS in the community was cited as a major problem that prevented sustainable change in the community
- During the follow-up visits the community members indicated that education was an area of concern for the community. These concerns included the need for adult basic education and training in numeracy and literacy. The community expressed the need for interventions in primary and secondary schooling as well as the provisions of early childhood development. These interventions would not only be for learners, but would also have to capacitate and empower educators, parents and governing bodies through possible short learning programmes, certificate courses and/or skills training programmes
- The need for a drop-in centre for abandoned babies and a facility that will provide orphans and vulnerable children with the opportunity of living a normal family life
- The need to create their own entrepreneurial opportunities to stem high unemployment was very strong

- The community expressed the need for sport and recreational facilities as a requirement to ensure a healthy and balanced community
- Environmental literacy and awareness hands-on workshops empowering educators and parents to take care of the environment and manage natural resources
- Water resource and management workshops (hands on training to harvest rain water)
- Community-based tourism workshops to create a basic awareness amongst the community about the resource potential of their environment in terms of tourism and to empower them to take first steps in becoming involved in community based tourism initiatives to create business opportunities and jobs.

7.3 The dream of a Multi-Purpose Centre (MPC) for the communities of Skuinsdrift and Koffiekraal, North-West Province

The two communities decided to combine their efforts and concentrate their activities in establishing a Multi-Purpose Centre (MPC). It was significant that the CAMP workshops with the emerging farmers were held at Tlholego Eco-Village and Learning Centre just outside Rustenburg, the venue seemed to have had an influence on the emerging farmers as they expressed the need for such an eco-development. An already existing, partially completed structure (approximately 2400 square metres) situated on the land of Quiet Living cc in Skuinsdrift was identified as the central and ideal hub for development almost all the themes highlighted in section 7.2. However, the structures on the property would have to be completed and renovated. The property belonged to Quiet Living cc and the chairperson, Mr B Matlonye, was approached to seek permission to utilise the property for the benefit of

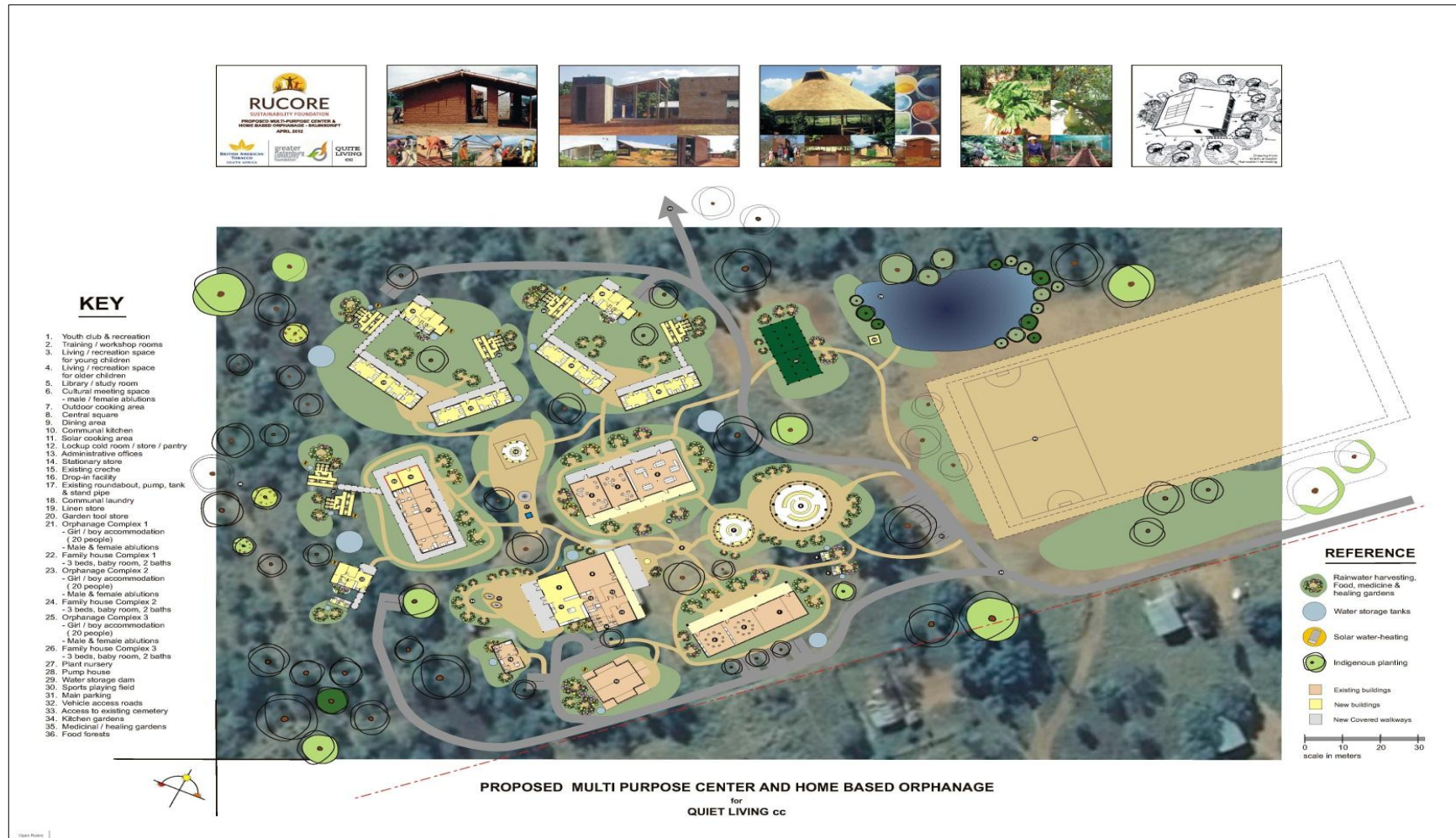
the greater Skuinsdrift community. There was a high level of willingness and commitment from the members of the Quiet Living cc for the development of this facility for the community.

A YouTube search on the keyword 'Skuinsdrift' would present the reader with different visual footage of the development of the Centre. The videos were captured and finalised by Mr. H. Botha, a freelance camera man, and are included in the DVD that accompanies this thesis. This footage merely provides additional information on the various processes.

The GRCF and the multinational donor approached Mr. P. Cohen of the Rucore Sustainability Foundation to assist the community members with the planning of the Multi-Purpose Centre in Skuinsdrift. After discussions of the needs of the community, the plans for the Multi-Purpose Centre and home-based orphanage were drawn up and presented to the community (Figure 7.1) for approval. The plans for the Centre represent the two communities' wishes and dreams for their respective communities. With the financial assistance of a multinational donor and the expertise in sustainable building methods of Mr. P. Cohen development of the MPC has commenced in January 2012.

The vision of the Multi-Purpose Centre was to implement sustainable building practises to create an area that the community can use for a variety of purposes. During 2012, Mr. P. Cohen, worked with approximately 20 unemployed communities members and trained them in sustainable building methods.

Figure 7.1: The overall plan for the Multi-Purpose Centre in Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, 2012



During 2012, the group were able to make bricks using local soil, grass and water, which were then baked in the sun (Photograph 7.1). These bricks were used as part of the construction of the compost toilet, and well as some of the building material for the *lekgotla* or meeting place. The principle of rainwater harvesting was applied, and a decision was made on where to plant indigenous trees in the area between area of the *lekgotla* and the area for the soccer field using the stones from the area cleared for the construction of the *lekgotla* (Photograph 7.1).

Rainwater harvesting reduces the need to water trees in a water scarce environment, as the gradient of the land was taken into account when the trees were planted, and stones were used to ensure that the water runs and dams in areas that maximise the benefit of the gradient during the rainy period. Once the *lekgotla* had been built using local stone and some locally made brick, the principle of using lime for a variety of earth building structures was conveyed to the community members. The development of the Multi-Purpose Centre has been captured on video and placed on the public platform, YouTube.

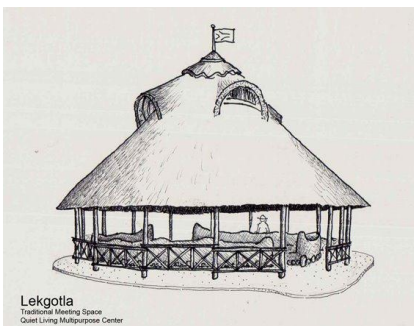
Another dream of the two communities was to start a nursery at the MPC. The purpose of the nursery was to train community members in the harvesting of seeds of indigenous trees, to germinate the seeds and to grow trees. The intention was that these trees could be sold on the community based tourism route (especially the Coffee Tree after which Koffiekraal is named). Secondly, the idea was to use the trees grown in the nursery to green their own communities. Thirdly, the intention was be to grow vegetable seedlings for the vegetable garden in the MPC, and fourthly, to train community members for small entrepreneurial possibilities of starting a garden service as a self-employment opportunity.



The handmade bricks that were used for the compost toilet. The bricks are made from soil and grass found in the area, and baked in the sun.



The preparation of the planting of indigenous trees at the MPC, using stones as well as the gradient, the runoff of the rainwater is maximised to ensure that trees are watered. The area around the tree bark will be used to plant seedlings which can also maximise the rain water run-off and thus reduce the labour in terms of watering of seedlings.



Graphic representation of the completed *lekgotla*, the traditional meeting place. This building will form a gathering place for the intended tourism route envisaged by the community.



Graphic representation of the outdoor kitchen that will make use of solar energy and traditional cooking methods. It is hoped that the traditional cuisine will be prepared in the outdoor kitchen for tourists on the intended tourism network.

Photograph 7.1: Sustainable change of the Skuinsdrift Multi-Purpose Centre, Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, 2012

The existence of the exotic cactus 'Queen of the Night' also presents an opportunity to unemployed community members. Given that the area is infested with this cactus that is very difficult to eradicate, it is possible to train a group of community members in ways of eradicating the cactus (Photograph 7.2). The nursery would provide the opportunity to train community members in a number of environmental literacy and awareness programmes as well as veld management.



Photograph 7.2: *The 'Queen of the Night' cactus at the MPC, Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, November 2012*

The MPC will also have a food garden, which will provide vegetable for the vulnerable people in the respective communities. The community refers to

this section of the MPC as a food forest. The food forest has not been started by July 2013, as the community still needed to eradicate the exotic cactus before they can start preparing the soil for planting. This preparation will be done during the winter of 2013 and planting will probably commence in the spring of 2013.

The sports and recreation centre is still under development. The MPC already has a soccer field with no grass. The drop-in centre for unwanted babies as well as the orphanage complex with the living areas, communal living areas and facilities (for example, the laundry and the kitchen) were still in the planning phase. The community will have a solar cooking area and will not rely on electricity. The crèche was already functioning. The cultural centre of the Multi-Purpose Centre is depicted in Figure 7.2. Some of the existing buildings have been converted into training facilities (Photograph 7.3). These rooms have been equipped with redundant furniture donated by the University of South Africa, Florida Campus.

While developments were taking place at the MPC, and more ideas were placed on the table, the community has experienced a number of challenges. These challenges are summarised as follows:

- External funding and commitment to a medium to long term plan
- Internal undercurrents in the community
- Skills training and knowledge acquisition to ensure that a number of their projects succeed
- The community decided that the MPC should be the centralised area for skills training, however, the transportation from the various Villages in the area was difficult and in some instances there were no taxi services to the MPC.



Figure 7.2: *The plans for the cultural centre of the Multi-Purpose Centre in Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, January 2012.*



One of the training rooms, with the *lekgotla* in the foreground. The stones between the two were used for the rainwater run-off harvesting.



The second training room on the other side of the central square. The crèche is the building on the left hand side of the photograph. The grass in the centre of the photograph was used as material to make the bricks.

Photograph 7.3: The training facilities at the MPC in Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, August 2012

Unisa, in particular the Department of Geography in the College of Agriculture and Environmental Sciences was able to assist the community with the third and fourth challenge as part of their community engagement mandate as a University.

7.4 The training at the Multi-Purpose Centre, Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, 2013

In order for the community to achieve many of their indicators of development, community (particularly that of Koffiekraal) identified the need for skills training in the many themes listed in section 7.2. As part of the 'Roots-driven rural change' community engagement project under the leadership of the researcher, a number of academics at the University of South Africa were willing to share their skills and knowledge with the community members within the context of the Community Asset Mapping Programme. In order to formalise the possible skills training interventions a participatory community meeting was held in Skuinsdrift on 5 March 2013. The result of the meeting with the community was the training schedule that appears in Appendix 1. The community identified a number of training opportunities in the MPC for the rest of 2013, and these addressed the major themes the community identified.

7.4.1 Training in dealing with HIV and AIDS in the community of Koffiekraal and Skuinsdrift

One of the major issues that most rural communities in South Africa need to deal with on a daily basis is the high prevalence of HIV and AIDS. During all the CAMP workshops the negative impact of the disease on all sectors of a community were highlighted. For this reason, it became necessary to partner with the Tirisano Centre (in the College of Human Sciences, Unisa). This

Centre presents a number of accredited short learning programmes related to HIV and AIDS. Fifteen students registered for the credit bearing short learning programme in 'Developing a Project plan for an Advocacy Campaign on HIV and AIDS' in the first semester of 2013. This programme will equip the community members with the necessary knowledge and skills to develop and implement an advocacy campaign on HIV and AIDS-related issues, and to mobilise the communities to respond to the impacts of HIV and AIDS. The second programme that has been presented to five members of the community is the 'Workshop in mainstream of HIV and AIDS in Community Development and Outreach'. This programme enhances the capacity of the community members to collaborate with external organisations to coordinate an integrated response by applying a mainstreaming strategy to their current community development and outreach interventions and programmes.

The research interest of one of the members of staff in the Department of Geography is the de-stigmatisation of HIV and AIDS in rural communities. A number of information sessions with thirty health care workers took place in 2013 and will continue to take place in 2014. These sessions were presented to assist health care workers with the counselling of their peers who deal with the emotional impact of HIV/AIDS counselling. The second purpose was to assist community members with the importance of disclosing their status to their families. The third purpose of the workshop was to encourage community members to change their perceptions and attitudes towards community members who have HIV and AIDS.

7.4.2 Dealing with nutrition in adverse conditions

Nutrition is highlighted by many community members as a problem. This problem is often linked to food security as well as the development of food gardens. The Department of Life and Consumer Sciences have registered 15 students in their credit bearing short learning programme in 'Managing

Health and Nutrition in Adverse Conditions'. This programme will enable the successful students in the community to identify malnutrition and address the problem appropriately, taking into consideration the adverse social, economic and environmental conditions in Skuinsdrift, Koffiekraal and the surrounding villages. Many of the fifteen students are health care workers and it is hoped that the successful completion of this programme will enable the health care workers to identify nutrition related diseases and malnutrition, and implement nutrition management principles that would prevent disease.

7.4.3 Environmental related training at the Multi-Purpose Centre, Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, 2013

Skuinsdrift and Koffiekraal are located near the Groot Marico Dam and the Eye of the Marico River. The water is graded as A/B, which refers to a 'least impacted river'. The water is safe to drink and is the source of drinking and household water for the farms and villages in the area. There are major irrigation schemes (including a network of furrows) that support the farmers in the area. South Africa is a water impoverished country and this geographical area is extremely dry, despite the existence of the Groot Marico River. In order to ensure that roots-driven sustainable change takes place in the area, the community identified water as one of the issues which needed some training and knowledge transfer. Water quality is one of the areas of specialisation of one of the geographers in the Department of Geography at Unisa, and she compiled a number of workshops in which the community members are given more information about the importance of water in a community. The 30 adults who will complete these workshops will all receive attendance certificates from the Unisa in December 2012. During these workshops, the community members are encouraged to create a basic water awareness strategy in their communities, to start initiatives that include

water saving techniques and to empower participants to solve problems related to water pollution and implement a number of water conservation projects in their respective communities. The various groups who have attended these workshops have already formed water conservation groups within their communities. These groups aim to monitor the use and abuse of water within their own communities and will (with the assistance of the Unisa academic) develop strategies to not only minimise water abuse in communities but also recognise good water practises within their respective communities.

7.4.4 Community based tourism as an entrepreneurial initiatives

During the CAMP workshop, various groups identified the possibility of developing the tourism potential of the Madikwe area in order to create employment opportunities for community members. It was for this reason that the academics in the Department of Geography, Unisa, decided to include this need in their respective community engagement responsibilities.

The purpose of the tourism component of the Skuinsdrift and Koffiekraal project was to create basic awareness among participants about the resource potential of their local living environment in terms of tourism. This would be taken a step further by empowering the community to take the first steps in becoming involved in community based tourism initiatives with the intention of creating business opportunities and jobs from which they can benefit. Although the current focus is on the Koffiekraal and Skuinsdrift communities, other communities may also be included at a later stage. The academics will be presenting a series of workshops on creating a tourism route that would link these communities to the broader tourism network of the North-West Province (in particular for the international tourist that visit Sun City and the Pilanesberg Nature Reserve).

The broader geographical area of Madikwe is rich in terms of cultural as well as environmental assets that could provide the basis for a very successful tourism route. This includes archaeological sites, the source of the Groot Marico River, culturally significant landmarks and a wealth of natural environmental assets. The community members that attend the training will be given a workshop attendance certificate issued by Unisa.

7.4.5 Household food security as an important transfer of skills in the community

This accredited short learning programme will equip fifty community members with the skills to improve household food security, health and nutrition, and in this way contribute to the sustainable change of the community. The programme consists of six modules:

- Introduction to Food Security Concepts
- Participatory Extension for Household Food Security
- Sustainable Natural Resource Use
- Food Behaviour and Nutrition
- Optimising Household Food Production
- Food Resource Management.

This programme has been very successfully applied in the rural areas of the Eastern Cape, and the Skuinsdrift and Koffiekraal communities will form the basis of the roll out of this programme in the North-West Province in 2014.

7.4.6 Training in textiles, clothing, fashion and arts/crafts with the purpose of creating entrepreneurial opportunities

The Department of Life and Consumer Sciences at Unisa in collaboration with The Marico-Rustenburg Craft Co-operative have joined forces to train a group of 55 adults in various aspects of textiles, clothing, fashion and crafts. The training is specifically aimed at empowering the group to create entrepreneurial opportunities for particular groups. This training has already commenced at the MPC and was made possible by a Unisa donation of five sewing machines on which some of the community members are presently been trained.

7.4.7 Training that has focussed on the children in the community of Skuinsdrift

Related to the wishes and fears of the community, the Southern Cross Mission trained a total of 30 young ladies in May 2012. These sessions included a 'Dream Camp' and 'Walking with the Wounded'. Both these training sessions provide spiritual, psychological and emotional growth interventions to young ladies that attended. The 'Dream Camp' assisted the attendees with the ability to identify realistic dreams for their futures. The process goes toward the transfer the skill of planning, living and making choices towards reaching their dreams. The 'Walking with the Wounded' programme focused on severely traumatised children and aims to enable them to start a journey to emotional healing through relief of negative emotions, bitterness, guilt and fears. This is a week long course and culminates in on-going support of a qualified counsellor who acts as a role model during the week, and after the weeks training. Two leadership camps



During their very first training session the group of adults that have joined the textile group, were able to design their own mattress and complete the mattress. During the training period all of their products will be donated to the crèche at the Multi-Purpose Centre.



The beading group learnt to make beads from discarded glossy cardboard, flyers and posters. Each bead is created individually and is thus unique. The beads they are used in necklaces and earrings.



In addition to the making of beads from paper, the group are also using assets from their natural environment such as seeds (especially exotic seeds), stone, wood and bone to create more artistic and interesting necklaces for sale.

Photograph 7.4: *Textile and craft training at Skuinsdrift Multi-Purpose Centre, North-West Province, April 2013*

of the Southern Cross Mission, focussed on equipping children with knowledge, skills, experience, value systems and a mind-set that is necessary to grow into effective leaders within their communities.

Three outreach programmes with the school children at the Skuinsdrift Primary School related to a World Environment day events, have been presented with much success. The awareness days of the different social, environmental and economic topics presented to children provided valuable opportunities to educate children on a variety of important issues that affect their communities.

7.4.8 Adult Basic Education in the communities surrounding Skuinsdrift

The low levels of literacy in the communities surrounding the MPC, present a serious constraint to many of the possible projects. During the monitoring and evaluation after the CAMP workshop the community identified the poor adult literacy as a serious liability. After consulting with the College of Education (Unisa), the researcher was made aware of the 'Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy Campaign' that was launched in 2008 by the Department of Basic Education (RSA). This programme has been very successful most Provinces but with limited success in the North-West Province. The campaign aimed to enable adult learners to read, write and calculate in their mother tongue in line with the Unit Standards for ABET level 1. Plans are underway to ensure that 3000 members of communities within the broader geographical area of Groot Marico are identified, and training will commence in January 2014. This programme reduce the level of literacy in the communities and make use of volunteers (who are paid stipends) within the communities who will be gainfully occupied for a period of six months.

7.5 Responses from the selected community members from Skuinsdrift and Koffiekraal on the impact of CAMP

7.5.1 Interview with Mr. I. Phakwe

Mr. I. Phakwe (I. Phakwe, personal communication, 5 April 2013) is the newly appointed Logistics and Administration Officer at the Multi-Purpose Centre. He is 31 years old and was born in Koffiekraal. His father worked in Rustenburg and his mother worked on one of the farms in Skuinsdrift. His highest qualification is Grade 10, and although he school he left I to help support the family and to send his siblings to school. He attended the CAMP at the Skuinsdrift Primary School, and had many expectations before he went to the workshop. Most of these expectations were centred on the concept of learning something new, as he always likes learning new things. He was of the opinion that the CAMP process has enabled him to change his life. For the last 18 months (from January 2012) he has worked at the MPC under the tutorship of Mr. P. Cohen, and he has learnt much about sustainable building techniques. He was very proud of the fact that he was able to make bricks using grass and mud, and hopes to build his own house using such bricks. He indicated that this is a skill that would be able to provide him with possible employment opportunities in the future. He is very proud of the lekgotla as well as what he learnt on the lime processes. He also speaks proudly of learning the basic concept of the compost toilet. He feels that he is part of a legacy of the Multi-Purpose Centre and is very happy that this facility will provide lifelong learning (something he feels very passionate about). He speaks with pride when he describes his vision of his community in five years' time. He describes the community as a proud community that will look after their own. With reference to the latter, he thinks that the younger generation (including his own daughter) will benefit greatly from the sports and recreational facilities at the Centre. He is of the opinion that the

orphanage and food forest will be a valuable asset in his community as this will show how much his community cares for their own. He is very grateful for the opportunity to be involved in the Multi-Purpose Centre as this will provide him with an income. Koffiekraal is in his heart and the CAMP processes have enabled him to be gainfully employed within his community. This means he does not have to leave the community to find work elsewhere to support his daughter. Although he has very definite plans for his daughter, he wishes to set an example to the younger generation in the area, with the hope that they will also stay in the area and not go to Gauteng for employment.

7.5.2 Interview with Mr. B. Matlonye

Mr. B. Matlonye (B. Matlonye, personal communication, 5 April, 2013) was born in Skuinsdrift. He is one of the emerging farmers and is the chairperson of Quiet Living and Open Areas cc. When he was younger he left the community for a short while to work in Gauteng, but returned to the community and worked on the tobacco farms in the area. He attended two CAMP workshops, one for the emerging farmers and the second for the community at the Skuinsdrift Primary School. He then returned to Skuinsdrift and worked on the farms. He is of the opinion that the CAMP process has changed the attitude of the community in the sense that they have opened themselves to opportunities that they can create for themselves. He described the impact of CAMP on his community as “we were trying to find our way in the dark, now we have a light that can guide us” (B. Matlonye, personal communication, 5 April, 2013). He describes the Multi-Purpose Centre as a community vision which will give the community the power to dream for a better future. He sees the community members are more hopeful than they were two years ago. Mr. Matlonye is a community member with vision; he is also solution driven and tries to solve problems. He firmly believes that each community member has the ability to change

their own lives and fight. He believes that to keep young people in Skuinsdrift one needs to provide work and opportunities, and for him this is the biggest benefit of the Community Asset Mapping Programme.

7.5.3 Interview with Mr. P. Phefo

Mr. P. Phefo (P. Phefo, personal communication, 4 April 2013) is the spokesperson for the Koffiekraal Village Forum and is the representative of the Traditional Council of the Bahurutshe Boo Mokgatlha. Mr. Phefo regards himself a traditional person. He prides himself on his knowledge of the Bahurutshe Boo Mokgatlha people; he knows their history and he understands their wishes, fears and challenges. He is a "people person" and gets on well with people regardless of their ethnic backgrounds. He was born in Koffiekraal and was brought up by his grandmother when his mother relocated to Gauteng for employment opportunities. He has the highest regard for his mother who he constantly praises. He has a Grade 12 qualification, but feels that he was a victim of apartheid. Once he finished school he followed his mother to seek employment in Gauteng. He described the period that he lived in Gauteng as very problematic; the pace was rushed and uncertain. During this period he described himself as an angry person. As an activist, he eventually became involved with the Communist Party and he regards some of the past leaders of this Party as his mentors. He has two children. He explained that the reason he relocated back to Koffiekraal was due to a dream where his deceased grandfather appeared to him with a message. He consulted his mother who in turn suggested that they consult a traditional healer to establish the meaning of the dream. The final consensus was that Mr. Phefo should return to Koffiekraal as this is where his destiny was. The mother of his children did not return from Gauteng to Koffiekraal with him and this is a point of sadness for Mr. Phefo.

On returning to Koffiekraal, he was accepted by the community only due to his blood ties with the Bahurutshe Boo Mokgatlha. Initially he was received with scepticism due to his activist nature and his Communist connections. It was only when he returned to Koffiekraal that he started to find inner peace, and became involved in traditional administration and his personal campaign to fight for social justice.

The community and the traditional council quickly learnt the worth of Mr. Phefo as a valuable community member. This was due to his ability to mediate very difficult situations. He has been involved in successful land claims within a geographical community where apartheid values are still practised. He explains that he is able to see different sides to all stories and this has helped him to diffuse very tense situations. In addition he has led a campaign to prevent mining in the area as he firmly believes that the natural environment should be protected for future generations.

Mr. Phefo has driven the Community Asset Mapping Programme in Koffiekraal and continues to do so. He believes that the fight against poverty is to train people and to share knowledge. He believes that it is not money that prevents people from getting themselves out of poverty, but the lack of knowledge. The various processes in CAMP make sense to him. He sometimes thinks his community members do not fully understand the processes. However, with time and patience he is willing to walk the route with community members who want to drive and change of their own lives. He found the leaky bucket process to be very applicable to his own situation and over the last eighteen months has increasingly understood the concept in a variety of areas in his own life. He has been assisting community groups with plans to ensure that money remains in the community; however, he feels that within the CAMP principle he should allow for personal development of the group and not interfere too much to speed up the process. He is of the opinion that the major change that can be attributed

to CAMP is the change in the people's perceptions of themselves and their ability to make a difference in their own lives. He finds that more community members are reading about possible projects and potential entrepreneurial opportunities.

Mr. Phefo has two suggestions with regards to future CAMPs. Firstly, he is of the opinion that the facilitator should be a fluent speaker of the language of the community. He is also of the opinion that the race of the facilitator should be the same as the community; however, this is not more important than someone who can speak the language of the community fluently. He does not regard the gender of the facilitator to be important, but suggests that a female facilitator is more understanding and compassionate than a male facilitator, and this he feels is an important component of the CAMP. His second suggestion is that when the opportunity of skills training is provided to the community as a result of CAMP, these opportunities should go to community members who have committed themselves to remaining in the community for the long term. He thinks that the effort of training youths who might leave the community and never return is not a good investment in the CAMP process. This dynamic leader is of the opinion that his community is better off after CAMP and he thinks that within the next five years the racial and economic divides in the community will be significantly reduced as a result of CAMP.

7.6 The transition from ABCD and CAMP in terms of monitoring and evaluation

Reflecting on the list of themes identified in the community as the requirements for their own success, the major difference between CAMP and ABCD becomes very apparent. The ABCD approach advocates that the most important catalyst of change is economical. The ABCD monitoring and evaluation concentrate on indicators of success that are all related to the

creation of entrepreneurial opportunities. CAMP on the other hand, encourages communities to explore a wide range of cultural, environmental, social and economic indicators of success, and in this way develop a more holistic plan that will be the blueprint to drive sustainable change that will lift people out of poverty and narrow the inequality gap in rural South Africa.

A further difference to the two community asset mapping processes is the period of time that is used for monitoring and evaluation. The ABCD approach advocates a short period of approximately 18 months with an external agent that acts as a funder who only provides small matching grants to support key projects that the community have already begun to initiate with their own funds (Mathews, 2012). While on the other hand, the CAMP approach advocates a monitoring and evaluation process of at least three years. While it could be argued that the presence of externals for a longer period could create a dependency between community members and externals, the relationship between the various parties is that of partners seeking to assist the community to achieve their specified objectives. The role of the external players is to assist with advice, training, skills transfer, mentoring on the one hand. However, also, to provide very specific financial assistance only when required by the community, and only to assist the community in achieving objectives that are relevant for their sustainable change.

In the case of CAMP, the levels of poverty in the community and the community potential of the specific project are considered when deciding on the type of financial assistance to be provided to the community. Match grants are considered first, however CAMP does not only advocate this type of financial assistance to the community. In some communities, the ability to generate own funds (to apply for match grants) are so limited that the lack of own finance could prevent very good and sustainable change projects from taking place. The key in CAMP is that should any financial assistance be

given to the community, this gift is only given if it has real impact on the community as a whole, and is in line with the indicators of success as specified by the community. Thus in CAMP, financial assistance is more intuitive and not only in the form of match grants.

The final key difference between ABCD and CAMP is the sharing of skills and knowledge during the monitoring and evaluation phase. As the community members initiate community projects, they identify areas in which they require more information and skills in order to be successful in their respective projects. CAMP advocates that the external agents should focus their attention of skills training and knowledge transfer as this will generate more effective and faster sustainable change.

The application of asset mapping in a number of rural communities in South Africa, some of which have been included in this research, provided some very valuable lessons and insight into the development of asset mapping programmes that are more relevant for rural communities in South Africa than is the case of ABCD. The following chapter will present CAMP as a tool for roots-driven sustainable change in South Africa.

Chapter Eight: Community Asset Mapping Programme (CAMP) for roots-driven change in South Africa: a tool for wealth creation in rural South Africa

The aim of this research was to develop a community asset mapping programme to facilitate roots-driven sustainable socio-economic change that will improve the quality of lives of South Africans living in rural areas. This tool was developed over a period of time, and from lessons learnt from various case studies where asset mapping techniques were applied and refined. From the experiences learnt in the different case studies, this chapter will present a tool for wealth creation in rural South Africa. The basic premise of the tool is that a number of external stakeholders need to partner with communities and should have as their objective to assist communities with achieving their own indicators of success. Each of the role players would have different reasons for their interactions with particular communities, but all should place their own agenda's second to the agenda of the community to ensure that the conventional needs based approach to development is not followed, and that a dependency relationship between communities and external stakeholders does not develop.

8.1 Essential external role players in a Community Asset Mapping Programme (CAMP)

Social change in communities has for many years been seen as the responsibility of the government, who in turn have been seen as the exclusive social change agent. Since 1994, the South African government has done much to try and combat social inequalities, through different social programmes. However, persistent inequalities in education, infrastructure, economic power and basic services remain part of the socio-economic reality of South Africa. Increasingly business and civil society have become active in social and community projects, and this trend forms the basis of the following essential role players for a successful CAMP:

- Funders
- Non-Profit Organisation
- Institution of Higher Learning
- Community.

Each of these role players has specific roles and responsibilities to ensure the success of any roots-driven change and wealth creation in a rural community.

8.1.1 Funders from corporates

Most responsible corporates apply a variety of forms of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and in turn have funding that meets their vision of Corporate Social Investment (CSI). In many instances companies approach their CSR in a way that incorporates philanthropy. This often takes the form of monetary donations (CSI) and aid that is provided to Non-Profit Organizations (NPO), who in turn distribute the funds in the name of the donor in the areas such as the arts, education, housing, health, social welfare and the environment. Many corporates do not subscribe to the philanthropy-based approach as they are not convinced that the monetary contribution will help build on the skills of local populations, and prefer a community-based approach to their CSR and CSI as this is, in their opinion, more sustainable. Corporate Social Investment is how companies help their communities. They set aside money, time and expertise for local non-profit organizations who in turn work closely with communities to provide solutions for significant social problems. Usually corporates will make sure that their social investment is aligned to their mission statement, and in this way ensure that their monetary contributions reflect back to their reputation and brand.

Funders that wish to support the application of CAMP, should take the following principles into account:

- The funder should be circumspect in selecting the other external stakeholders in CAMP. They must ensure that they choose a community, NPO and Institutions of Higher Learning that reflect the company's ethical principles and a record of successful implementation of a participatory methodology
- Partner with external partners that are willing to work in the selected community, and avoid partners who are hesitant to work in the identified community
- Accept that achievements, progress and setbacks, will occur and cannot be predicted
- Do not expect results too soon and do not evaluate the project prematurely
- Recognise that training and mentoring for success are crucial, and provide the budget and time for these activities
- Do not consider the CAMP four day workshop to be a once-off event. Be prepared to provide resources and support for follow ups for a period of three to five years. NPOs are perfectly aligned to oversee the monitoring and evaluation of CAMP; however, they would need a budget to cover their operational expenses. Communities need certainty that funding will be available for at least three years
- Should budgets not be spent within the time period, make the necessary arrangements to roll over the budget to the next financial year
- Ensure transparency and consistency and make clear what can be funded and specify the criteria for funding
- Participate in the CAMP as often as possible to ensure a good understanding of the process, challenges, successes and failures

- Promote the use of written and non-written reporting which includes photographs, videos and audio clips (especially those produced by community members)
- Should the funder be a sole funder, withdrawal of funding will sound the death knell for the project. In the same vein, failure to provide guarantees of budgets from one financial year to another will negatively impact on the project, and in some instances will prevent sustainable change
- Ensure that staff transfers, resignations or new appointments do not negatively impact on the project. Make a corporate decision to support a project despite staff turnover. In the worst case scenario, if staff turnover means the end of a project, have the moral obligation to implement a phase out plan to ensure that community members are not negatively affected by changes in staff
- Never impose your indicators of success on a community; always ensure that investments meet the community needs first and corporate needs second. Never allow the principles of the dependency paradigm to development to be followed.

8.1.2 Non-Profit Organisations (NPOs)

Non-Profit Organisations (NPOs) are perfectly suited to be the link between communities and the externals in a CAMP. It is important that the NPO that is chosen to participate in CAMP is a local, independent, philanthropic, grant making and support organization that offers services to donors and grantees alike. The ideal NPO would be in a position to build permanent invested funds, and would be able to offer philanthropic advocacy and non-profit support services. In addition the NPO must be able to run and facilitate workshops that would help identify the individuals and organizations that can have the highest potential impact on development in their communities. In this way the NPO services will help donors achieve their strategic

philanthropic goals and enable non-profit organizations to deliver more effective services and build stronger communities. In addition to managing the donations of the corporate, the NPO should be able to focus on:

- Mobilizing additional resources and raising more funds in order to ensure sustainability of the project
- Make grants (on behalf of the funder) available for sustainable projects in the community
- Develop the capacity of the local community by identifying suitable service providers for the skills development in a community. Be able to identify and facilitate the provision of technical support services to communities
- Facilitate relevant research, global and local networking and sharing of resources, as well as creating access to information and acting as a liaison between all stake holders
- Fulfil a community leadership role and be able to assist in building bridges between divided communities.

In addition to the above, the identified NPO that undertakes CAMP on behalf of a corporate should provide the following value propositions:

- Be registered as an NPO, PBO (Public Benefit Organization), and preferably an Article 18a Trust, and must be audited and BEE certified.
- All grants made from donor funding must be done in the funders' name.
- Must have knowledge of and close relationship ties with, the community.
- Have extensive experience in local development and grant making, and must not subscribe to the conventional needs driven approach to development.

- Be prepared to measure and evaluate the impact of CAMP to ensure that initiatives have maximum impact in communities, and therefore would be strategically beneficial to funders as well
- Not be seen as self-serving by the communities, and should prevent corporate led initiatives from implementing an agenda that is not the agenda of the community as this can lead to the decreased sustainability of corporate led projects
- The NPO should have permanent endowment funds to ensure that the communities who have undergone CAMP are able to continue with the initiative should the funder terminate funding abruptly.

NPOs involved in CAMP where there is an external funder should take the following principles into account:

- Understand the funders' organisation structure and establish what can be funded and the requirements for the provision of such funds
- Develop long term relationships with the funder and in particular with champions and like-minded staff in the organisation
- Negotiate on behalf of the community and be prepared to say not funds when the agenda of the community is swept aside
- Insist on flexibility and be prepared to negotiate and consult should the unexpected happen during the monitoring and evaluation phase
- Provide funders with the necessary documentation to enable the corporate to track and trace the impact of their investment. Make use of audio and visual material to share successes and illustrate challenges
- Involve the funders at all times. Take time to ensure that the funder has the opportunity to participate in the programme and thus experience the changes taking place in the community.

8.1.3 Institutions of Higher Learning

The Higher Education Act of 1997 (South African Council on Higher Education, 2010), set aside an agenda for the transformation of higher education in South Africa from segregated, inequitable and highly inefficient institutions towards a single national system that can serve both the individual and collective needs of society. Along with teaching and research, community engagement is cast as one of the pillars in the system. The Council of Higher Education (2010) defines community engagement as initiatives and a process through which the expertise of the higher education institution in the area of teaching and research is applied to address issues relevant to the community it serves. In this way Universities are called upon to demonstrate their social responsibility and to commit to the common good of society by making available its expertise and infrastructure in a variety of community service programmes that will address the specific wants and needs of the South African community (South African Council on Higher Education, 2010).

Institutions of Higher Learning have a wealth of expertise, skills and knowledge to offer communities that wish to follow roots-driven sustainable change. There are two broad ways in which such institutions can contribute to the transformation of society. On the one hand, the academics in a University can provide their knowledge and skills as technical partners of the NPO and the community. They can provide training in areas that the community identifies as necessary empowerment to ensure their indicators of success. This is often done as part of the academic's community engagement mandate, and can lead to research activities at the same time. The second way that Universities can provide their knowledge and skills to a community and in this way contribute to the transformation of society is to develop 'in-service' learning programmes where students on a variety of levels can work within communities to transfer their knowledge and skills and at the same time have the opportunities to learn from communities and be able to deal

with and understand the dynamics of real-life situations. In a country such as South Africa, an 'in-service' learning component of the University curriculum could provide opportunities for students to liaise with communities that are socially, culturally, economically and politically different from themselves. The latter would go a long way in narrowing the divides from the legacy of apartheid.

The Institute of Higher Learning should partner with the NPO and not the funder. All activities in the community should be through the NPO who should be considered to be the connector between the community and all externals. A memorandum of agreement should be drawn up between the NPO and the University to ensure that roles and obligations are spelt out. With all the responsibilities of an academic, it is rare that an academic can spend more than 20% of their time in community engagement. However partnerships with the NPO allow academics the opportunity to share valuable expertise through the NPO which operates as the connector to the community. The NPO has the time and mandate to monitor change in communities on a regular basis, and ensure the continuity of sustainable change. It is recommended that the partnership with each community is between three to five years, and in an attempt to prevent mutual dependencies, a formal exit plan from the community is established when the partnership commences.

Academics who wish to support the application of CAMP should take the following principles into account:

- Be careful of creating expectations and guard against creating unrealistic expectations
- Be transparent and inform the community of any intentions to use information and knowledge in tuition or research outputs

- Ensure compliance with universally accepted ethical norms and practices, and more importantly obtain the necessary ethical clearance from the relevant NPO, community and academic institution
- Share any research generated from the activity with the community, and consider publishing results of activities in both popular and academic publications
- Provide the community with the necessary acknowledgment in any publication and conference presentation
- Where relevant, consider multiple authors of publications to include members of the NPO, community and funder
- Be careful to impose unnecessary knowledge onto a community, and do not impose your agenda on the community. Be cognisant of the fact that the drivers of success are the community and not the academic and a possible research or tuition agenda.

8.2 The basic structure of the Community Asset Mapping Programme (CAMP)

Communities are identified by various stakeholders (including the community) to undergo CAMP. Once the community has been identified, the external stakeholders should start preparations for the four day CAMP workshop.

8.2.1 Pre-workshop preparation

External stakeholders should obtain as much information as possible about the community. This would include the components of a typical regional geography, such as the climate, demographic, social, economic, political and cultural aspects. It is crucial to establish if the community is under the jurisdiction of a traditional authority. Contact must also be made with the

local government department (especially the ward councillors and community development workers). Once information about the community has been obtained it is important for the externals to obtain all information about and engage with the community leadership (for example traditional leaders) to obtain additional information about the community. It is recommended that the externals spend about one or two days discussing the basic principles that underlie CAMP with all the stakeholders (local government and community leadership) to set the scene for the workshop, and to ensure that communities are not expecting a basic needs approach and an ad hoc hand out of assistance and money.

Logistical matters related to the location and refreshments are essential in many rural communities, and all attempts should be made to make use of local resources. It is advisable to have one contact person, through which the initial liaison will take place. The preferred language of facilitation should be established and, if required, the services of a competent translator must be finalised.

The composition of the workshop attendees is crucial and should reflect the social, economic and demographic profile of the community. It is advisable that the externals allow the community leadership to decide the composition and representation of community members who are to attend the workshop, but that they do so with due cognisance of proper representation of the gender, age and ethnic composition of the community. It is recommended that no less than 40 and more than 100 community members attend the workshop. Attendees must be informed before-hand that attendance of all four days is required and as such they should make the necessary arrangements to attend the entire workshop.

8.2.2 The four day CAMP workshop

The CAMP processes essentially take a community through exercises designed to make them aware of the skills and talents they possess, as well as the physical economic and social assets the community as a whole possesses. It also helps the community to identify their biggest hopes and fears, and assist them with building trust amongst them. The whole process is meant to enable the communities to switch their thinking from 'this is what they lack' to 'they are richer than they realised'. The CAMP workshop utilises a very practical fifteen step methodology (figure 8.1). This methodology allows for a creative and participatory way to engage all community members while working in small teams. The workshop starts with a welcome, introductions and brief orientation of the purposes of CAMP and ends with the development of indicators of success as determine during the workshop.

a. Appreciative Enquiry

The first step in the process encourages the participants to focus on dreams and not on their problems and needs. The community is divided into groups and the workshop takes the form of story-telling, with a focus on sharing of experiences. The groups are asked to describe current and past success (feel good) stories within their communities, and are then asked to speculate on the reasons for the success in the examples they have provided. The effects of this exercise are remarkable as the community members for the first time discover the richness and diversity of opportunities within their own community. This exercise is particular useful as it assists in creating a sense of pride and belonging amongst the community members. This exercise is followed by a session where the community is able to dream of a collective vision for their community, and they also provide indicators on how they will measure their success in the creation of this vision.

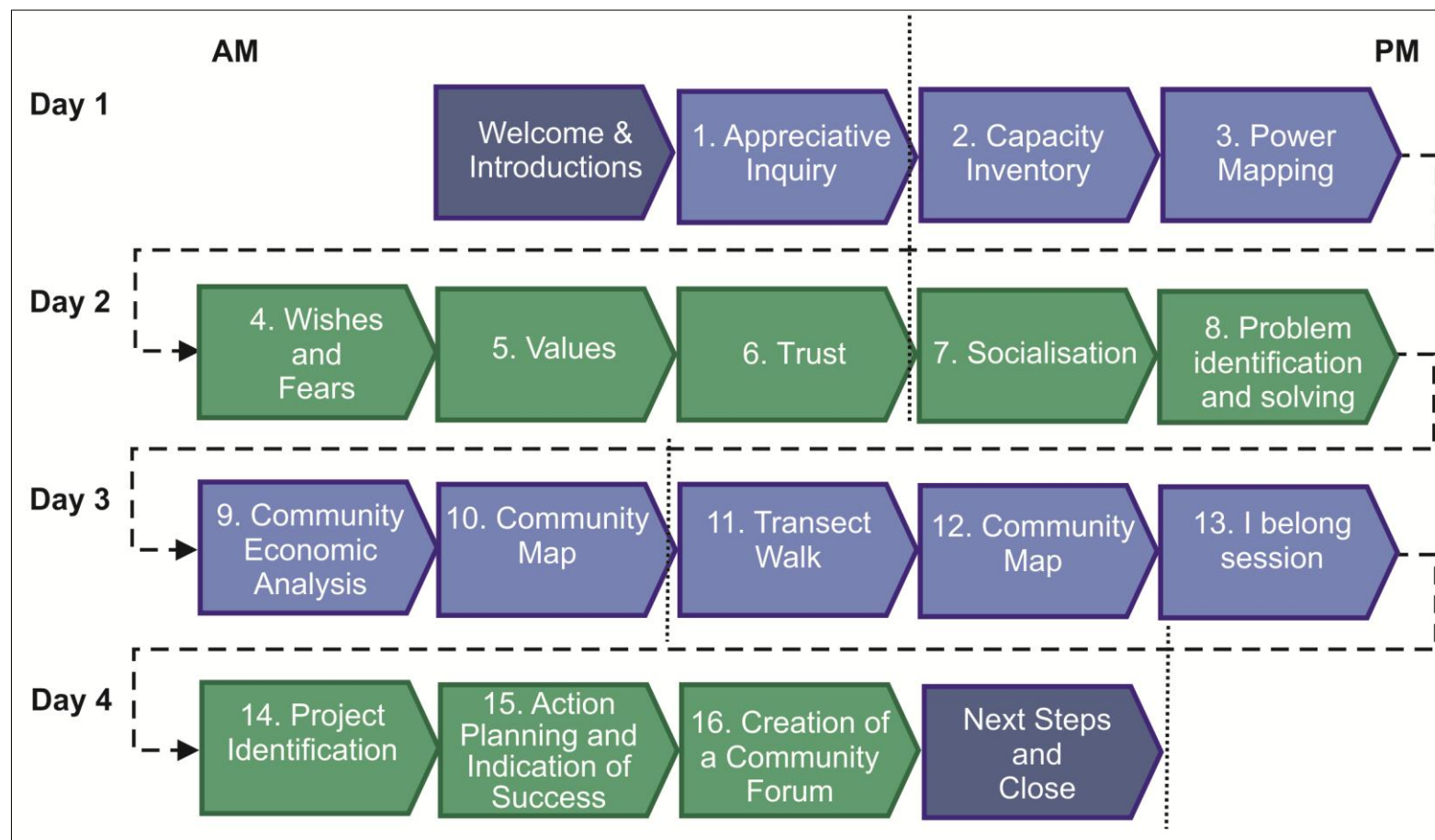


Figure 8.1: *The researchers' representation of the Community Asset Mapping Programme (CAMP)*

b. Capacity Inventory

The next phase of the workshop is a session in which each member of the group provides an indication to the group of their skills and abilities that they can offer the community. Each group member is provided with a template on which s/he can fill in their individual assets, in three groups:

- Hands
- Heads
- Hearts.

The facilitator will then write down a list of skills and assets in the three categories and in this way create a substantial list of assets that the community possesses. This is followed by a group activity, called association mapping, where the groups are asked to group their community assets (using the list compiled after the individual exercise) into four different categories:

- Human assets include the skills, gifts, abilities and talents of the community members
- Social assets include the various associations within the community and associations with organisations outside of communities
- Economic assets focus on the assets that can trigger or form the basis of entrepreneurial opportunities as well as the existing and emerging business opportunities
- Environmental assets include the physical (infrastructure) and natural resources.

The result of this activity is a complete inventory of the collective assets that exist within a community. Given that the community created the list, they

take ownership of the list, and the cognitive transition of thinking about what they lack to begin and develop into an understanding that they have a number of opportunities based on their assets. The conclusion of this exercise is generally a sense of pride and a feeling of they are richer than they realised.

c. Power Mapping

A crucial component of all rural communities is the power structures within a community itself. CAMP thus takes the attendees through a process of identifying and recognising power structures within their community. The power structures of the community are extremely important to describe and analyse. In some case studies the lack of open discussion of the power structure is one of the main reasons for the community's failure to effect change within their community, and contributes to the failure of roots-driven change. During this session, the facilitator takes the community through a process where they map the power structures in terms of the following:

- What is on the table? This normally includes a typical development project that has been identified by the community.
- Who is at the table? Using the identified project, community members are requested to identify the role players who would work with the group to ensure the success of the project.
- Who is under the table? Workshop attendees are asked to think of role players within and outside the community who might work against the success of the project.

This is a particularly difficult process as the various role players in the power structure are sometimes part of the workshop groups. The value of the exercise is to sensitise community members to possible power struggles that might harm or help their projects. It is then possible to do a risk evaluation

of the success of potential community projects. The exercise also provides the externals with important information regarding power structures that can be followed during the monitoring and evaluation phase.

d. Wishes, Fears, Values, Trust and Socialisation

Another reason why roots-driven change in some communities, fail is the lack of self-worth and overall trust in the communities. In order to improve the typical asset mapping paradigm, CAMP incorporates sessions related to the wishes, fears and values into the workshop. This part of the workshop is divided into four different processes, and each process is completed by the individuals who are attending the workshop. The questions are related to themselves as individuals and as a community (Table 8.1).

Table 8.1: Wishes, fears, values and trust in CAMP

<i>Quality</i>	<i>Types of questions that each individual must provide answers to</i>
Wishes	What wishes do I have for myself? What wishes do I have for my community?
Fears	What fears do I have for myself? What fears do I have for my community?
Values	What do I value about myself? What do I value about others in my community? What do I value about my community?
Changes	What changes do I want to make for myself? What changes do I want to see in my community? Who do you think will bring about change? Do you trust these people to bring about change? Do you think people in your community have the ability to change? Do your trust their abilities to bring about change?
Trust	Do I trust myself? Why do I trust myself? What abilities do I have that I can trust? Who else do I trust in my community? Reasons why I trust them?

The facilitator then collects the individual responses and a story board is created and the responses are captured for the group. Although the workshop attendees are requested to answer the questions for them, it is important that individual responses remain anonymous. Individuals should be requested to do some self-introspection on their answers. Not only does this process provide crucial information to the community for their own roots-driven change, it also provides crucial information that will inform the success of the process in the future. In some communities, it is clear at this point that those possible interventions to deal with these “soft issues” will be required during the follow-up and monitoring process. Depending on the history and composition of the community, matters of self-worth and trust remain on the agenda of change and needs careful monitoring to ensure that communities achieve their roots-driven change. In communities where it is apparent that there are major divides between groups and where a certain amount of stereotyping is evident, a socialisation process can be undertaken. This process involves a general discussion of the dangers of stereotyping and the need for all communities to understand each other and not make assumptions about each other.

e. Problem identification and solving

Using the list of fears identified by the attendees, the groups are asked to identify one problem in the community. They are then asked to discuss and describe the extent of the problem and discuss and possible solutions to the problem. They are then requested to select a group member who would present the problem and possible solutions to the problem to the rest of the workshop. This exercise is extremely important, as the purpose is to take something negative in the community, and provide positive solutions to the problem. The exercise assists the external stakeholders in establishing how well the community can work together and the level of problem solving they are able to think of, and apply. In some communities the problems identified

and the solutions can be directly related to the power struggles that might exist in the community and can be used to verify information already collected.

f. Community Economic Analysis

The community is then ready to make a cognitive shift and is able to generate ideas and projects that could lead to small entrepreneurship opportunities and job creation of community members. The process involves simple community based economics and is more commonly known as the leaking bucket in the typical ABCD approach. The individuals in the workshop are asked to provide an indication of their average income and expenses. The following information is collected:

- Total monthly income (and source)
- Expenses
- Average amount spent monthly
- The amount spent in the community
- The amount spent outside of the community.

Once all the individuals have filled in the template, an average of the above is calculated for the community by the facilitator. This exercise provides the community with a practical understanding of the economic situation of their community and the possible entrepreneurial opportunities that are possible. The exercise demonstrates to the community how much money comes into the particular community through salaries, grants and other income and then how much money is spent outside of the community. The community can see that money literally flows from the community, but with some innovation the money can be circulated within the community and in

this way grow the community. This step is often the catalyst that encourages groups to create small business opportunities.

g. Community Map

Once the community can see that they need to keep the money circulating within their community, they are encouraged to think about possible business opportunities. In order to do this the communities are requested to build a community map. The groups are given material like card board, pens, crayons, glue and other material to build a map that reflects their community in terms of the assets they have identified, and the opportunities that these assets provide in terms of possible small and medium business opportunities. This is normally a very exciting and interactive activity that allows the groups to creatively think about and plan their physical environment in terms of positive and sustainable opportunities. There are several reasons for using the map in CAMP:

- The map provides a framework for discussion on the relative location of resources
- Provides an opportunity for the community to highlight resources they consider to be important in the community
- Raises awareness of the existing assets and resources
- Stimulates debate on the relative importance of resources
- Creates a visual presentation which can be understood by everybody
- Create a baseline for assessing change during the monitoring and evaluation process.

h. Transect Walk

Once the community has progressed with its maps, the groups are requested to go on a transect walk. The transect walk provides the community with the

opportunity to link the previous two processes by looking at their communities through asset lenses. The groups physically walk through the community area with a facilitator with the intention of looking for additional social and environmental assets, and then come back to their respective groups to complete their respective maps and to suggest ideas for projects that will be the catalyst of change in the community.

i. I belong

The afternoon session can be closed with an actual map/aerial photograph of the village. Allowing the workshop attendees the opportunity to identify their homestead and a variety of land marks that have meaning for them, provides a very powerful tool that enforces the fact that as a community they are important and as individuals they belong in their community. In some communities, this will be the first time that the community member will be exposed to a visual representation of their village and the shouts of joy when community members locate the homes on the map or aerial photograph is very powerful.

In areas where a map of the village does not exist, it is advised that the workshop members who walk through the community during the transect walk do so with a Global Positioning System (GPS). As they identify assets, the facilitator ensures that the exact location is recorded on the GPS, with a description of the asset. The community can use these co-ordinates to create a map of the community. In this way the community can become the authors of their own true to scale maps of their village. The fact that they were able to be the cartographers of the map adds to the sense of pride and belonging of the attendees to their respective communities. In addition, they see new social, economic and environmental opportunities that exist and can be used to drive their roots-driven change.

j. Project identification, action planning and indicators of success

The final part of the workshop is where the participants make use of all the information gathered to create a community vision and action plan in terms of projects that will be the drivers of change in the community. In the process the group identifies their own indicators of success, and it is these indicators that are used to monitor if effective and sustainable change is taking place in the community. The workshop is requested to provide information on the following:

- Future change normally in terms of an identified project
- Actions required ensuring the success of the project
- Local assets that will contribute to the success of the project
- Outside assistance required to help the project's success
- An indication on how the community will measure the success of the project.

k. Creation of a community forum

As the final part of the workshop, communities are encouraged to create a community forum of individuals in the community who can champion (or lead) the process of change in the community. Not only does the creation of this forum help the community to take ownership of their own change, the group also acts as the connector to the NPO or external partner.

8.2.3 Monitoring and Evaluation

Two weeks after the four day CAMP workshop has been completed in a community, the facilitators should visit the community to establish how the community is doing and to provide individual/group support and assistance

to progress with their future planning, and providing advice on the identified projects.

Depending on the action plan and the projects identified by the community a general two day workshop should be presented and be tailored to meet the needs of the community and these can include the following:

- Formalisation and registration of business initiatives
- Strategic planning
- Project and/or business planning
- Financial management
- Trust and self-worth workshops
- Soft skills workshops
- Technical support.

Regular visits to the community are undertaken to track the progress of change in the community. Communities are encouraged during the whole CAMP process to set their own indicators for success and as much as possible their success is tracked and recorded to ensure that real change is actually occurring. There should be an understanding between the external stakeholders that only a community can actually say whether their quality of life is improving or not although this does not have to prevent the externals from tracking their own indicators of change. At all times the community generated indicators in the monitoring and evaluation process should be used to evaluate sustainable change.

Depending on the measurement and monitoring process, on-going support with the permission of the community is provided to the community by various external stakeholders over the medium to long term. This includes the provision of skills, technical and monetary support on an as needed basis. It is however important that expectations are not created in the

community by the externals. In addition external stakeholders should constantly monitor the levels of dependency between stakeholders and should not tolerate any form of dependency during the monitoring and evaluation phase.

8.3 Basic guidelines when applying the Community Asset Mapping Programme (CAMP)

Sharing is the most important principle of CAMP and this implies the sharing of ideas and information. Sharing must take place between community members, between community members and externals and between the externals themselves. There should be a high degree of transparency and openness to ensure that there is mutual learning and the knowledge of each participant is enhanced in the process. All products of CAMP should be open to all stakeholders, and can be checked, verified, amended, added to and owned by all participants. With this in mind there are certain guidelines that should be adhered to while undertaking a CAMP:

- Where possible stay in or as close to, the community
- Learn to listen rather than talk
- Create an atmosphere in which participation and communication can take place
- Build up interaction and dialogue over time
- Meet the community when they can meet, and not necessarily at your convenience
- Ensure that your external team knows and understands their respective roles
- Try and gather an external team that is multi-disciplinary
- Allow the community to set and drive the agenda
- Be flexible in your approach
- Be aware of possible conflicts and deal with them in a positive way

- Be sensitive to the feelings of all participants
- Share your knowledge with the community, but also take the time to learn from the community
- Identify a local group to provide refreshments (paid by the externals) to the community, and share the same meals with the community
- Respect the communities, their culture, their customs and their way of life
- Be aware of silence during participation and try to establish the cause of such silence
- Be aware of the effect of your body language
- Ensure that proper translations are done
- Be cautious of creating expectations amongst the community
- Ask open-ended questions and rely on the questions of a typical Participatory Rural Appraisal: What? Where? When? Who? How? Why?
- When provided the opportunity probe into issues that might elicit valuable information for all stake holders
- Be careful of hijacking the process to suit your own objectives and in this way forget about the objectives of the community
- Reach consensus with all stakeholders (community, NPO, tertiary institution and funder), about the period and type of commitment that will be provided after the CAMP
- Know when to 'hand over the stick' as is required of a typical Participatory Rural Appraisal
- Allow the community to decide their own indicators of success.

While the above provides a list of a number of aspects one must take into consideration, there are a number of aspects one should not do while implementing CAMP:

- Do not ask leading questions
- Do not be insensitive while asking questions nor when providing possible answers or solutions
- Do not interrupt community members while they are providing answers
- Do not judge the community or any of their responses
- Do not dominate the conversation and do not lecture
- Do not personalise any issues
- Do not make any commitment one cannot keep
- Do not be arrogant and judgemental
- Do not use tricky language
- Never decide for the community.

In addition to the above suggestions of what should and what should not be done during a CAMP, the stakeholders should apply the basic principles of a typical Participatory Rural Appraisal that was explained in section 2.2.1. It is crucial that external stakeholders' attitude and behaviour are characterised by openness, humility, curiosity, sensitivity, self-introspection and self-criticism. The externals should also never lose sight of the fact that the programme is designed and implemented by the community for the community, and the role of the external is merely to facilitate this process. In closing, the externals should realise that every community has different dynamics and the tool as presented in this chapter should be adapted to the specific conditions of the community. The golden rule of CAMP is that one size does not fit all.

Chapter Nine: The role community asset mapping can play in wealth creation in South Africa

Although overall world population growth appears to be becoming more stable, the uneven pace of population growth is significant demographically. The largest portion of the global population growth takes place in the Global South, while the countries in the Global North have static (or negative) population growth. The demographic contrast of population growth results in a number of significant spatial challenges. The failure to provide for populations in the various countries of the Global South has led to global poverty and inequality. There are a number of strategies in place to try and eliminate poverty and reduce the levels of inequality across the globe. The most important of these strategies is the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) that aim to free humanity from extreme poverty, inequality, hunger, illiteracy, and disease. The MDGs have inspired development efforts in the Global South and have helped set global and national priorities, and focus on subsequent development related actions. By the end of 2010 there were a number of global successes in the achievement of the MDGs in the Global South. This achievement was largely due to better economic growth and increased funding from a variety of sources. Although a number of successes have been reported in terms of the MDGs there are a number of areas that need attention in order to ensure that the signatory countries reach the specified goals by 2015.

While much effort has been put into the achievement of the MDGs, the United Nations (2013) reported that a total of 1.6 billion people were living in multidimensional poverty across the globe. The majority of these people lived in South Asia, India and sub-Saharan Africa. In the same report, four specific areas of focus are suggested in order to sustain a development momentum that will relieve poverty and reduce inequality and these include: enhancing equality, enabling a greater voice and participation of its citizens,

the confrontation of environmental pressure, and the management of demographic change.

South Africa, like many countries in the Global South has waged war on poverty. The reality of the apartheid past of the country, where deliberate denial of access to basic services and infrastructure, assets, education, and training placed the poor far from economic opportunity and discouraged the establishment of opportunities within these areas. This has resulted in spatial patterns of poverty and inequality in the country that continue to plague the country after two decades of democracy.

South Africa has a sophisticated infrastructure with a well-developed private sector and a stable macro-economy, but at the same time has huge levels of inequality in terms of access to good quality education and health care (both crucial elements of the HDI and the MPI). This explains why South Africa will not be able to achieve some of the MDGs by 2015. In addition, as a middle income country, South Africa is less dependent on foreign aid and thus the drive to achieve the MDGs will depend on its own government and other national stakeholders who will have to mobilise domestic resources to achieve the development targets as set by the United Nations for 2015.

The spatial distribution of poverty and inequality in South Africa has very strong regional dimensions. The concerning trend is that over the last decade the levels of poverty in South Africa has shown no signs of improving, but rather seems to be getting worse. While the provincial distribution of poverty is unequal, this is further aggravated by the urban/rural distribution of poverty. The majority of people living in the rural areas of South Africa are considered to be poor, while the minority of people living in the urban areas are considered to be poor.

In an attempt to address the high levels of poverty and inequality in South Africa, the National Planning Commission launched a National Development Plan. This Plan has as its aim to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality by

the Year 2030. The National Development Plan (NDP) can only be realised by drawing on the energies of the South African people, a growing and inclusive economy, by building on the capabilities of its citizens, by enhancing the capacity of the state, by providing leaderships and partnerships throughout society. The NDP sets a total of 13 targets that will assist in the elimination of poverty and the reduction of inequality.

The NDP advocates community driven development programmes that will empower communities to manage their own resources for development. It follows a bottom up approach to development that seeks to give communities and local governments more control over planning and investments and in the process empower communities to lift themselves out of poverty. Aligned to the fundamental principles of the NDP, this research aimed to develop a Community Asset Mapping Programme that would facilitate roots-driven inclusive and sustainable socio-economic change that would improve the quality of lives of South Africans living in the rural areas of South Africa. This programme would assist in narrowing the inequality gap and reduce the poverty levels in line with the 2030 goal set of the NDP.

The fundamental PRA methodology allows for the empowerment of communities to acquire capabilities to understand, analyse and respond effectively to situations in their lives and livelihoods. Often empowerment has been achieved through a process of the organisation of people to voice their demands for political and economic rights. However, within the context of poverty alleviation, empowerment is an affirmation that all people involved in a change process need to work together, on an equal footing if the development interventions are to have any real hope of success and sustainability. The philosophy of PRA is humanistic and people centred and fundamentally advocate that the rural poor have the inherent power to solve their own problems. The PRA methodology developed during the 1970s, and many practitioners are of the opinion that this methodology provided an essential understanding of the overall situation in a local area, and this made

it possible to plan, execute and evaluate development and aid programmes more effectively. The approach however, was not readily accepted in academia until the late 1980s.

The spatial and temporal nature of many of the PRA methods has much in common with well tested geographical fieldwork methodologies. The techniques of geographers to investigate the relationship between people and the environment in an integrated and holistic manner have included parallels to resource maps, transect walks, and seasonal calendars that are used in typical PRAs. Geographers have long been aware that the understanding of environmental factors such as rainfall, soils, and vegetation are as important as appreciating the social, cultural, and economic context of decision-making within the rural setting. The potential for geographers to become involved in future PRA evaluations, parallels with the growing recognition of government agencies, non-government organisations, environmental scientists and others that geographers have the required skills and research strategies that are highly relevant to the growing concerns about environment and people-centred development.

Until early 2000 there was little evidence of actual research and writings of PRA in South Africa. Although PRA is closely related to the fieldwork of geographers there was little evidence that geographers were explicitly doing PRA research during this period. Some geographers suggest that the reason for this the realities of apartheid hampered the PRA research through antagonism and disempowerment, which in them generated biases unique to the South African research situation. These biases included racial prejudice, crime, violence, inequality, and discrimination. The disempowerment of the rural black population generated further constraints in the application of the PRA methodology in South Africa. This sector of the South African society has been subjected to top-down decision-making for decades and this has impacted on the self-expression of community members that is required for a PRA. Rural communities in South Africa are not used to articulating their

views to external stakeholders who actually listen to their ideas. Secondly, the application of PRA in South Africa is also related to the historical legacy which has complicated the physical and political access of researchers in rural communities. Many communities are reluctant to accept researchers in their communities and often question the purpose and relevance of the research undertaken.

Despite the challenges associated with the methodology, the search for a tool to facilitate roots-driven change in rural South Africa was within the realms of PRA. This approach allows communities to chart their own destinies by determining their own indicators of success. More specifically, it was decided to follow a participatory mapping approach that focussed on communities' inherent assets as the key to creating their own wealth. The asset-based approach of Kretzmann and McKnight in the 1990s was also an obvious choice, as this approach has a place bias where assets are considered a resource and finally the approach focuses on the quality of life of the community members as an important outcome in the overall methodology.

The approach is a reversal of the basic needs approach of many development agents that focuses on the problems and needs of a community. The asset-based community development approach focuses on the strengths and assets of the community. The fundamental assumption of the asset-based approach is that if communities focus on the positive aspects of the community, the overall achievement of wealth creation would be more successful. It is important to realise that this approach does not ignore the problems that do exist in communities; however, it chooses to focus on the strengths and small triumphs with the hope that there is a cognitive shift in the community over time that will equip them with the necessary skills to deal with their inherent challenges. The asset-based approach to community development is closely related to the sustainable livelihoods approach which

brings together a number of individual approaches to achieve sustainable change.

Using a typical Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) and the fundamentals of and asset-based approach, the research in collaboration with the non-profit organisation, the Greater Rustenburg Community Foundation (GRCF), attempted to develop a tool that would aid communities in achieving their own roots-driven change. In 2009, the GRCF and the researcher, met with representatives of the Coady International Institute of St Xavier's University in Canada, who were driving the application of the Asset-based Citizen Driven (ABCD) approach to development in South Africa and the rest of the Global South. The ABCD approach was applied to the rural village of Mathopestad in the North-West Province, and it was the application of an asset-based approach in this village (and the resultant challenges) that the way to the development of a tool for roots-driven rural development that would be more relevant to the Global South and rural South Africa in particular.

The application of the ABCD approach in Mathopestad provided a number of valuable lessons in rural development. The challenges experienced in this case study were probably rooted in the apartheid history of the country, and includes issues related to power struggles and matters of trust within the community. The monitoring and evaluation process that followed the application of ABCD in Mathopestad was characterised by major interventions and training sessions related to the social structures within the community and less on the actual skills transfer required for the successful development of entrepreneurial opportunities as advocated by the typical ABCD. It was during the monitoring and evaluation phase that the GRCF and the researcher realised that the typical ABCD approach as applied by the Coady Institute would have to be adapted drastically if it was to have an impact in addressing poverty in rural South Africa.

After an analysis of the case study of Mathopestad, it was decided that the following aspects needed to be introduced into the ABCD process if this process was to have any effect on the poverty situation in South Africa:

- The ABCD approach encourages communities to work in groups in order to pool resources and assets to create sustainable entrepreneurial opportunities. It was found that although many rural communities are very loyal to their respective communities, there were very low levels of trust between community members. This was further aggravated by the levels of self-trust that were identified in the Mathopestad case study. Working in groups implies that the group members need to trust one another, especially when income becomes a reality. The introduction of the trust and socialisation process in the programme for roots-driven development was thus an essential component for any tool that would address poverty in the South African context
- Many rural communities in South Africa have high levels of fears for themselves and their communities. In order to effect sustainable change in these communities it was necessary to introduce a process that would allow communities and community members to dream and to articulate these dreams in terms of wishes for their communities
- The negative impact of power struggles within the rural communities of South Africa was another aspect that threatened the process of sustainable and roots-driven change in its communities. The power struggles vary between community members, between community members and external stakeholders, between communities and local and national government, and communities and traditional authorities. In the case of Mathopestad the power struggles between community members was enough to inhibit the development of sustainable

projects with commercial potential, and presented a constant threat to sustainable change in the village

- The ABCD approach advocates a short term monitoring and evaluation process after the presentation of the three day workshop. Given the number of challenges faced of the rural communities in South Africa, as well as the historical context of their existence, the GRCF and the researcher postulate that a medium to long term monitoring and evaluation process is required to ensure that sustainable change is able to take place in a community. The assumption that the monitoring and evaluation process takes place within a context that the external stakeholders should at all times ensure that their own agenda does not dominate the development agenda and indicators of success of the community is however crucial to the programme.

Using the lessons learnt by the GRCF and the researcher in Mathopestad, the journey to develop a more effective tool for roots-driven development that could be applied in the rural areas of South Africa and perhaps even in the rural areas of the Global South started. The development of the Community Asset Mapping Programme (CAMP) was possible as a result of lessons learnt by the application of the programme in a number of rural communities in South Africa. The case studies presented in this thesis, contributed the most to the development of CAMP as a tool that has as its intention the facilitation of roots-driven sustainable socio-economic change that would be the catalyst in improving the quality of lives of those communities who are subjected to the programme. More importantly this change would be a major step in providing communities with the power to lift themselves out of poverty and not have to wait for local or provincial government to be the catalyst of change in their daily lives.

CAMP uses a PRA methodology, and the asset-based approach to community development. Amongst many community members that participated in this research social change is initially seen as the responsibility of the government. Since 1994, the government has done much to try and combat social inequalities through different social programmes, however persistent inequalities and high levels of poverty have increasingly meant that business and civil society must become more active in social and community projects. This forms the fundamental premise of CAMP that a number of external stakeholders need to partner with communities in order to facilitate sustainable roots-driven change in a community that can alleviate the levels of poverty in the community. Each of the stakeholders would have different reasons for their interactions within particular communities, however, CAMP specifies that external stakeholders own agendas may never overshadow the particular communities' pre-determined indicators of success. It is also crucial that the relationship between communities and external stakeholders is not a dependency relationship between themselves and the communities.

The basic structure of the Community Asset Mapping Programme (CAMP) that forms the focus of this research is summarised as follows:

- Identification of a community, and the establishment of the external role players. A process whereby as much information as possible on the community is obtained must precede the application of CAMP. This would include a typical new regional geography analysis of the environmental, social, economic, political, and cultural aspects of the community. Contact must be made with the local government (if not a stakeholder), and with the traditional authorities to ensure that any possible roots-driven development of a rural community is in line with the provincial development plan
- Logistical matters relating to the CAMP workshop must be arranged in such a way that it suits the majority of the community members who will become part of the programme. The leaders in the community

need to identify the workshop attendees with due cognisance of gender, age, and cultural background

- CAMP advocates a four day workshop, with a total of sixteen processes. The most important components of the CAMP workshop that differs from other asset-based approaches include the wishes, fears, trust, socialisation and power mapping processes. These are also the most important differences between the ABCD and CAMP application during the workshop phase
- The creation of a community forum and the formalisation of the relationship between the communities and the external stakeholders conclude the workshop phase
- Within six months of the CAMP workshop a follow up two day workshop is designed to meet the needs of the specific community. The workshop normally includes aspects related to skills training and knowledge sharing in terms of formalisation of business initiatives, strategic planning, financial management, trust and self-worth workshops, and technical support specifically related to the projects undertaken of the community
- During the monitoring and evaluation phase regular visits to the community are undertaken to assist communities in determining their own indicators of success. External stakeholders assist with the tracking and tracing of real roots-driven change in the community. CAMP advocates that external stakeholders must understand that it is only the community that can determine whether their quality of life has changed and that the externals should not influence this process, but rather just facilitate the process.

In the application of CAMP, the researcher has indicated a number of aspects that should be taken into consideration of the various stakeholders in the application of CAMP. The most fundamental of these is that all stakeholders should apply the basic principles of a typical participatory rural appraisal and

that the external's attitude and behaviour should be characterised by openness, humility, curiosity, sensitivity, self-introspection, and self-criticism. Of crucial importance is that the external's must never lose sight of the fact that the CAMP is designed and implemented by the community for the community and the role of the external is merely to facilitate this process.

While it is hoped that this research will assist the rural communities of South Africa in driving their own agenda of transformation that will make them more equal and competitive with their urban counterparts. At the same time it is hoped that CAMP will play a major role in the realisation of the National Development Plan objective to eradicate poverty by 2030 in South Africa. The development of CAMP as a tool to accomplish these objectives within the field of Geography realises the researcher's belief that the application of the discipline within the contemporary South African society should have as its outcome a better life for all.

References

- Absalon, E; Chambers, R; Francis, S; Gueye, B; Guijt, I; Joseph, S; Johnson, D; Kabutha, C; Khan, MR; Luers, R; Mascarnhas, J; Norrish, P; Pimbert, M; Pretty, J, Samaranayake, M; Scoones, I; Shah, MK; Shah, P; Tamang, D; Thompson, J; Tym, G; Welbourn. (1995). Sharing our concerns and looking to the future. *PLA Notes* (22), 5-10.
- Adebo, S. (2000). *Training manual on Participatory Rural Appraisal*. Author Publisher. Addis Ababa.
- Alkire, A., Roche, J., Santos, M., & Seth, S. (2011). *Multi-dimensional Poverty Index: 2011*. Oxford: Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative, Oxford University.
- Alkire, S., & Foster, J. (2007). *Counting and multi-dimensional poverty measurement*. Oxford: Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative, University of Oxford.
- Alkire, S., & Santos, M. (2010). *Acute multi-dimensional Poverty Index: A new index for developing countries*. Oxford: Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative, University of Oxford.
- Allison, P. (1978). Measures of inequality. *American Sociological Review*, 43 (6), 865-880.
- Anyaegbunam, C., Mefalopulos, P., & Moetsabi, T. (2004). *Participatory rural communication appraisal: starting with the people*. Harare: SADC Centre of Communication for Development.
- Armstrong, P., Lekezwa, B., & Siebrits, K. (2009). *Poverty in South Africa: A profile based on recent household surveys*. Stellenbosch: Bureau for Economic Research (BER).
- Atkinson, A. (1970). On the measurement of inequality. *Journal of Economic Theory*, 2, 244-263.
- Berardi, G. (2002). Commentary on the challenge of change: Participatory Research and Professional realities. *Society and Natural Resources: An International Journal*, 15, 847-852.

- Bhorat, H., van der Berg, S., & van Aardt, C. (2003). *Breaking the grip of poverty and inequality in South Africa: 2004-2014*. Stellenbosch: EFSA Institute.
- Binns, T. (1995). *People and Environment in Africa*. Chichester: Wiley.
- Binns, T., Hill, T., & Nel, E. (1997). Learning from the people. Participatory Learning Appraisal, Geography and Rural Development in the 'new' South Africa. *Applied Geography*, 17(1), 1-9.
- Booy, D., Sena, O., & Arusha, S. (2000). Capacity building using the alternative inquiry approach: the experience of world vision Tanzania, Global social Innovations. *Journal of GEM Initiative*, 3, 4-11.
- Box, L. (1989). Virgilio's theorem: a method for adaptive agricultural research. In R. Chambers, & T. L. Pacey, *Farmers first* (pp. 61-67). London: IT Publications.
- Brace, S. (1995). Participatory rural appraisal: a significant step forward in understanding relationships between poor people and their environments. In T. Binns, *People and Environment in Africa* (pp. 39-46). Chichester: Wiley.
- Cavestro, L. (2003). *PRA - Participatory Rural Appraisal - Concepts, Methodologies and Techniques*. Universita' Degli Studi Di Padova.
- Cernea, M. (. (1985). *Putting people first: sociological variables in development projects*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.
- Chambers, R. (1992a). *Rural appraisal: rapid, relaxed and participatory*. Discussion Paper 311, Brighton: Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex.
- Chambers, R. (1992b, October 22). *Beyond traditional knowledge: enabling them and changing us*. Brighton: Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex.
- Chambers, R. (1994a). *Paradigm shifts and the practise of participatory research and development*. Working Paper 2, Brighton: Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex.
- Chambers, R. (1994b). Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA): challenges, potentials and paradigm. *World Development*, 1437-1454.
- Chambers, R. (1994c). All power deceives. *IDS Bulletin*, 25(2), 14-26.

- Chambers, R. (1994d). The origins and practise of participatory rural appraisal. *World Development*, 22, 953-969.
- Chambers, R. (1994e). Participatory rural appraisal (PRA): an analysis of experience. *World Development*, 22(9), 1253-1268.
- Chambers, R. (1997). *Whose reality counts: putting the first last*. London: Intermediate Technology Publications.
- Chambers, R. (1998). Beyond "whose reality counts?" new methods we now need. In O. Borda, *People's participation challenges ahead* (pp. 105 - 130). Stockholm: Colciencias.
- Chambers, R. (2002). *Relaxed and participatory appraisal: notes on practical approaches and methods for participants in PRA/PLA-related familiarisation workshops*. Brighton: Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex.
- Chaskin, R. (2001). Building Community Capacity: A definitional framework and case studies from a comprehensive community initiative. *Urban Affairs Review*, 36(3), 291-323.
- Cohen, D., & Prusak, L. (2001). *In good company: how social capital makes organisations work*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Cornwall, A., & Pratt, G. (2011). The use and abuse of participatory rural appraisal: reflections from practise. *Agriculture and Human Values*, 28(2), 263-272.
- Cornwall, A., & Guijt, I. (2004). *Shifting perceptions, changing practises in PRA: from infinite innovation to the quest for quality*. PLA Notes 50: 160-167.
- Cornwall, A., & Jewkes, P. (1995). What is participatory research? *Social Science and Medicine*, 1667-1676.
- Cornwall, A., Guijit, I., & Welbourn, A. (1993). Acknowledging process: challenges for agricultural research and extension methodology. *Discussion paper*.
- Cunningham, G. (2011, March). Community Economic Literacy and the "leaky bucket". *Coady International Institute Occasional Paper Series*, 9. Antigonish: Coady International Institute.

- DBSA, (2010). Comprehensive rural development programme, rural development – fast tracking social and economic development for sustainable development. Partners and Stakeholder Forum.
- Davis, A. (2001). *Participatory Rural Appraisal*. Rural Travel and Transport Programme. Author publisher.
- Deweese, P. (1989). Aerial photography and household studies in Kenya. *RRA Notes*, 7, 9-12.
- Dougill, A., Fraser, E., Holden, J., Hubacek, K., Prell, C., et al. (2006). Learning from doing participatory rural research: lessons from the Peak District National Park. *Journal of Agricultural Economics*, 57(2), 259-275.
- Drinkwater, M. (1993). Sorting fact from opinion: the use of a direct matrix to evaluate finger millet varieties. *RRA Notes*, 17, 24 -28.
- Dunn, A. (1991). New challenges for extension: targeting complex problems and issues. *10th European Seminar on Extension Education*. Universidade de Tras-os-Montese Alto Douro: Vila Real, Portugal, September.
- Dunn, T., & McMillan, A. (1991). Action research: the application of Rapid Rural Appraisal to learn issue of concern in and care areas near Wagga Wagga, NSW. *Conference on Agriculture, Education and Information Transfer*. Murrumbidgee College of Agriculture, NSW: September 30 to October 2.
- Escobar, A. (1995). *Encountering development, the making and unmaking of the Third World*, Princeton, Princeton University Press.
- Esteva, G. (1999). The Zapatistas and People's Power. *Capital and Class*. 68.
- Esteva, G. & Prakash, M. (1998). Beyond Developed, What? *Development in Practise*, 8, 249-278.
- Ferguson, R., & Dickens, W. (1999). Introduction. In R. Ferguson, & W. Dickens, *Urban problems and community development* (pp. 1-31). Washington DC: Brooking Institution Press.
- Finn, A., Leibbrandt, M., & Woolard, I. (2009). *Income and expenditure inequality: analysis of the NIDS Wav1 Dataset*. Cape Town: South African Labour Development Research Unit.

- Flowerdew, R., & Martin, D. (2005). *Methods in human geography: a guide for students doing a research project*. London: Pearson Education Limited.
- Govender, P., Kambaran, N., Patchett, N., Ruddle, A., Torr, G., & van Zyl, N. (2006). *Poverty and inequality in South Africa and the World*. ASSA, Social Security Committee. RSA.
- Grandin, B. (1988). *Wealth ranking in small holder communities: a field manual*. London: IT Publications.
- Grandstaff, T., & Grandstaff, S. (1987a). A conceptual basis for methodological development in rapid rural appraisal. *Proceedings of the 1985 International Conference on Rapid Rural Appraisal* (pp. 69-88). Khon Kaen, Thailand: University of Khon Kaen.
- Grandstaff, S., & Grandstaff, T. (1987b). Semi-structured interviewing by multi-disciplinary teams in PRA. *Proceedings of the 1985 International Conference on Rapid Rural Appraisal* (pp. 129-143). Khon Kaen Thailand: University of Khon Kaen.
- GRCF. (2009). *Asset-based community driven development, Mathopestad Community Implementation Report*. Rustenburg: Unpublished report of the Greater Rustenburg Community Foundation.
- GRCF. (2010). *Asset-based community driven development (ABCD) in Mathopestad: Feedback Meeting 20 February*. Rustenburg: Unpublished report of the Greater Rustenburg Community Foundation.
- GRCF. (2011). *Community Asset Mapping Programme, Skuinsdrift, North-West Province, October/November*. Rustenburg: Unpublished report: GRCF.
- Green, G., & Haines, A. (2007). *Asset Building and Community Development*. Thousand Oak, CA: Sage.
- Greene, M. (2000). *The power of associations: not mapping but organizing*. Evanston, IL: ABCD Neighbourhood Circle Initiative, ABCD Institute.
- Guijt, I., & Pretty, J. (1992). *Participatory rural appraisal for farmer participatory research in Punjab, Pakistan*. London: IIED.
- Haddad, L., & Ravi, K. (1990). How serious is the neglect of intra-household inequality. *Economic Journal*, 100, 866-881.

- Haines, A. (2009). Asset-based community development. In R. Phillips, & R. Pittman, *An introduction to community development* (pp. 38-48). New York: Routledge.
- Heintz, J., & Jardine, C. (1998). Poverty and Economics in South Africa. *Occasional Publications Series No 3.* Stellenbosch
- Hill, T., Motteux, N., Nel, E., & Papaloizou, G. (2001). Integrating rural community and expert knowledge through applied participatory rural appraisal in the Kat River Valley, South Africa. *South African Geographical Journal*, 83(1), 1-7.
- Homan, M. (2004). *Promoting community change: making it happen in the real world.* Belmont, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Hulme, D., Moore, K., & Shepherd, A. (2001). *Chronic Poverty: Meaning and analytical framework.* CPRC Working Paper 2, Manchester, UK: Institute of Development Policy and Management.
- Ison, R. (1990). *Rapid Rural Appraisal: a participatory "problem" identification method relevant to Australian agriculture.* Sydney: School of Crop Science, University of Sydney.
- Kindon, S., & Latham, A. (2002). From mitigation to negotiation: ethics and the geographic imagination in Aotearoa, New Zealand. *New Zealand Geographer*, 58 (1), 14-22.
- KKU. (1987). Proceedings of the 1985 international conference on rapid rural appraisal. Khon Kaen, Thailand: University of Khon Kaen.
- Kretzmann, J., & McKnight, J. (1993). *Building communities from the inside3 out: a path toward finding and mobilizing a community's assets.* Chicago, IL: ACTA Publications.
- Kumah, S. (. (1996). ABC of PRA: Attitude and Behaviour Change. A report on the proceedings of South-South Workshop on Attitudes and Behaviour in PRA. *South-South Workshop on Attitudes and Behaviour in PRA.* Bangalore: Action Aid, India.
- Leibrandt, M., Woolard, I., Finn, A., & Argent, J. (2010). *Trends in South African income distribution and poverty since the fall of apartheid.* Organisation of Economic Co-operation and Development. Cape Town: OECD Social, Employment and Migration Working Paper 101.

- Lu, C. (2012). Who is poor? One question, many answers and their implications: A comparison of alternative to the monetary approach of poverty assessment in rural Yunnan, China. *Q-Squared Working paper*, 54.
- Mansuri, G., & Rao, V. (2013). *Localising development: Does participation work?* Washington DC: World Bank.
- Mascarenhas, J. (1990). Transect in PRA. *PALM Series*, 16-30.
- Mascarenhas, J., & Kumar, P. (1991). Participatory mapping and modelling: Users notes. *RRA Notes*, 12, 9-20.
- Mathews, S. (2012). Asset-based community driven (ABCD): development in South Africa: rebuilding communities from the inside out. *Strategies to overcome structural poverty and inequality in South Africa: towards Carnegie III*, 3-7 September, UCT: Cape Town.
- Mathie, A., & Cunningham, G. (2002). *From clients to citizens: Asset-based Community Development as a strategy for community driven development*. Antigonish: Coady International Institute.
- Mathie, A., & Cunningham, G. (2003). *Who is driving development? Reflections on the transformative potential of asset-based community development*. Antigonish: Coady International Institute.
- Mathie, A., & Cunningham, G. (2008). *From Clients to Citizens: Communities changing the course of their own development*. Warwickshire, UK: Intermediate Technology Publications Ltd.
- Mathie, A., & Cunningham, G. (2010). From clients to citizens: asset-based community development as a strategy for community -driven development. *Development in practise*, 13(5), 474-486.
- Mbuli, B. (2008). *Poverty reduction strategies in South Africa*. Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- McCracken, J., Pretty, J., & Conway, G. (1988). *Introduction to rapid rural development appraisal for agricultural development*. London: IIED.
- McNight, J. (1995). *The careless society: community and its counterfeits*. New York: Basic Books.
- McNulty, R. (2005). Using an asset-based community development approach globally beyond the developed world. *Asia-Pacific Creative*

Communities: A strategy for the 21st Century Conference. Jodhpur, India.

Mearns, R. (1989). Aerial photographs in rapid land resources appraisal, Papua New Guinea. *RRA Notes*, 5, 12-14a.

Mearns, R., Shombodon, D., Narangerel, G., Turul, U., Enkhamgalam, A., Myagmarzhav, B. (1992). Direct and indirect uses of wealth rankings in Mongolia. *RRA Notes*, 15, 29-38.

Motteux, N., Binns, T., Nel, E., & Rowntree, K. (1999). Empowerment for development: taking participatory appraisal further in rural South Africa. *Development in practice*, 9(3), 261-272.

Mukherjee, N. (1994). *Participatory Rural Appraisal: methodology and applications*. New Delhi: Concept Publishing Company.

Narayanasamy, N. (2009). *Participatory Rural Appraisal: Principles, Methods and Application*. New Delhi: Sage Publications.

National Planning Commission. (2011). *National Development Plan*. Pretoria: National Planning Commission.

National Planning Commission. (2012). *National Development Plan: 2030 Our future - make it work -Executive summary*. Pretoria: NPC Department of the Presidency, Republic of South Africa.

New York Times. (1985, April 26). South African Blacks fearing relocations send pleas to Schultz. *New York Times*. New York.

Nicolau, M. (2010). Making a difference ... empowering citizens to achieve the Millennium Development Goals in their communities. *Keynote speaker: 10th Anniversary of the GRCE, 31 October*. Rustenburg.

Oosthuizen, M. (2006). *Estimating poverty lines for South Africa*. Cape Town: Development Policy Research Unit, UCT.

Pain, R., & Francis, P. (2003). Reflections on participatory research. *Area*, 35(1), 46-54.

Phillips, R., & Pittman, R. (2009). *An introduction to community development*. Routledge: New York.

Population Reference Bureau. (2012). *World Population Data Sheet*. Retrieved 04 23, 2013, from

<http://www.prb.org/publications/datasheets/2012/world-population-data-sheet/data-sheet.aspx>

- PRA Team. (1991). *The Kyeamba Valley: Issues of concern to landholders and their families, identified in a Participatory Rural Appraisal by the Kyeamba Valley Community*. The University of Sydney and Wagga Wagga City Council: Department of Conservation and Land Management, New South Wales.
- Ravallion, M. (2011). *On multidimensional indices of poverty*. Washington DC: Development Research Group, World Bank.
- Rietbergen-McCracken, J., & Narayan, D. (1998). *Participation and social assessment: tools and techniques*. Washington DC: World Bank.
- Sachs, W. (1998). Rich in things, poor in time: Poverty of time degrades the wealth of goods. *Resurgence*, 96 (14 -18)
- Sachs, W. (2008). Climate Change and Human Rights, *Development*, 51 (332-337)
- Sandford, D. (1989). A note on the use of aerial photographs for land use planning on a settlement sites in Ethiopia. *RRA Notes*, 6, 18-19.
- Schenck, R., Nel, H., & Louw, H. (2010). *Introduction to participatory community practise*. Muckleneuk: University of South Africa.
- Selener, D. (1997). *Participatory action research and social change*. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University.
- Sherraden, M. (1991). *Assets and the poor: A new American Welfare Policy*. Armonk, New York: ME Sharpe.
- Slim, H., & Thompson, P. (1993). *Listening for a change: oral testimony and development*. London: Panos Publications.
- South African Council on Higher Education. (2010). *Community Engagement in South African Higher Education*. Pretoria: Council of Higher Education.
- Statistics South Africa. (2010). *Millennium Development Goals: Country Report 2010*. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.
- Statistics South Africa. (2012). *Census 2011: Methodology and Highlights of key results*. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.

- Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute. (2007). *The measurement of poverty in South Africa: Key Issues*. Richmond, Johannesburg: Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute.
- Swift, J., & Umar, A. (1991). *Participatory pastoral development in Isiolo District: Socio-economic research in the Isiolo Livestock Development Project*. Isiolo Livestock Development Project, EMI ASAL Programme: Isiolo: Kenya.
- Theis, J., & Grady, H. (1991). *Participatory rapid appraisal for community development: A training manual based on experiences in the Middle East and North Africa*. London: Save the Children and IIED.
- UNISA. (2010). Back to the ABCDs: Creating an enabling environment for sustainable socio-economic development at grassroots level through community driven initiatives, 23 to 25 March. Department of Geography, Pretoria, Gauteng.
- UNISA/GRCF. (2011). *Technical report one, CAMP, Koffiekraal, North -West Province, 13 to 16 August 2012*. Florida, Johannesburg: Unpublished report UNISA/GRCF.
- Unisa/GRCF. (2012a). *Feloane Community Asset Mapping Exercise: 21 to 24 February 2012*. Florida, Johannesburg: Unpublished report of Unisa/GRCF.
- Unisa/GRCF. (2012b). *Technical Report, CAMP: Kareedouw, Eastern Cape: 4-7 December 2012*. Florida, Johannesburg: Unpublished report Unisa/GRCF.
- United Nations. (1995). *Report of the World summit for Social Development in Copenhagen*. New York: United Nations.
- United Nations. (2010). *The real wealth of nations: pathways to human development*. New York: United Nations.
- United Nations. (2011). *The Millennium Development Goals Report: 2011*. New York: United Nations.
- United Nations. (2013a). *Human Development Report 2013: The rise of the South: Human Progress in a Diverse World*. New York: United Nations.

- United Nations. (2013b). *Human Development Report 2013: Explanatory notes on 2013 HDR composite indices for South Africa*. New York: UNDP, United Nations.
- Vidal, A., & Keating, W. (2004). Community Development: Current issues and emerging challenges. *Journal of Urban Affairs, 26*(2), 125-137.
- von Broembsen, M. (2010). Informal business and poverty in South Africa: re-thinking the paradigm. *Law Democracy and Development, 14*, 256-287.
- Voyce, M. (1989). The transfer of the family farm. *National Farmer, 1*-17.
- Welbourn, A. (1991). RRA and the analysis of difference. *RRA Notes, 14*, 14-23.
- Wilkinson-Maposa, S., Fowler, A., Oliver-Evans, C., & Mulenga, C. (. (2005). *The Poor Philanthropist: How and Why the Poor Help Each Other*. Cape Town: The Southern Africa-United States Centre for Leadership and Public Values, University of Cape Town.
- World Bank. (2013). *World Development Indicators*. Washington DC: International Bank for Reconstruction and Development.

Appendix 1: Training Schedule at the Skuinsdrift Multi-Purpose Centre (2011 to 2013)

<i>Month and year</i>	<i>Programme</i>	<i>Number of community members trained</i>
2011	CAMP – Quiet Living & Open Area cc. Workshop	12 adults
2011	CAMP – Skuinsdrift community. Workshop	110 adults
April 2012	HIV/AIDS de- stigmatisation. Hands-on workshop presented by Department of Geography, Unisa	19 adults
Aug 2012	HIV/AIDS de- stigmatisation. Hands-on workshop presented by Department of Geography, Unisa	22 adults
April 2012	Leadership training. Workshop presented by Southern Cross Mission	20 youths
May 2012	Dream Camp. Workshop presented by Southern Cross Mission	18 female youths
May 2012	Walking with the wounded. Workshop presented by Southern Cross Mission	12 female youths
May/June 2012	Advanced Leadership. Workshop presented by Southern Cross Mission to the emerging farmers of Quite Living and Open Areas cc	12 adults
April 2012	Basic environmental literacy hands-on workshops. Knowledge transfer workshop presented by Department of Geography, Unisa	35 adults
June 2012	Basic environmental literacy. World environment day celebration event presented by Department of Geography, Unisa, focusing on water and general environmental awareness, indigenous plants and small animals	150 school learners
June 2012	Spatial literacy workshops presented by Department of Geography, Unisa	150 school learners
Aug 2012	Koffiekraal CAMP. Community Asset Mapping Programme workshop	120 adults
May 2012 - on-going	Organisational Development. Training to the emerging farmers of Quite Living and Open Areas cc by the Greater Rustenburg Community Foundation	12 adults
Nov 2012 – June 2013	HIV/AIDS Unisa accredited short learning programme. Presented by the Tirisano Centre, College of Human Sciences (Unisa). A total of four workshops will be presented from November to June 2013. Monitored by GRCF	5 adults
April 2012 – Dec 2012	Sustainable building methods. Training of unemployed community members in sustainable building methods at the Multi-Purpose Centre	15 adults
June 2012 – on-going for 1 year	Brain boosters. Training presented by GRCF volunteer and Unisa	2 adults and 300 children
Oct 2012 – Dec 2012	Painting of Skuinsdrift Primary School. Skills transfer to unemployed community members by local community members on neighbouring farms	6 adults

Oct 2012 – Nov 2012	Various skills transfer workshops: GIS, HIV/AIDS de-stigmatisation, Water awareness, Community Based Tourism. Presented by the Department of Geography, Unisa	50 adults 60 learners from Koffiekraal Secondary School
Dec 2012	World Aids Day event. Community event - awareness	200 adults and learners 5 home visits
Feb 2013	Hygiene awareness event. Awareness day	197 learners from Skuinsdrift Primary School
March 2013	Community participatory meeting. Information session on the training programme to be presented at the Multi-purpose Centre for 2013 by Unisa.	200 adults
April 2013 – on-going until November 2013	HIV/AIDS – Advocacy workshop. Unisa accredited workshop	15 adults
June 2013 to December 2013	Adult Basic Education (ABET), levels 1 to 3	3000 community members will undergo training
April to December 2013	Textile, clothing, fashion and arts/crafts workshops. Skills training & development of plans. Logistical support from GRCF. Beading project offered by Marico-Rustenburg Craft Co-operative	55 adults
April to December 2013	Water Conservation and Management workshop. Skills training. Logistical support from GRCF	30 adults
April to December 2013	Community Based Tourism. Skills training. Logistical support from GRCF	25 adults
April to December 2013	HIV/AIDS de-stigmatisation workshop. Skills training. Logistical support from GRCF	30 adults
April to December 2013	Field Management. Skills training. Logistical support from GRCF	35 adults
April to December 2013	Managing Health & Nutrition in adverse conditions. Accredited short learning programme. Logistical support from GRCF	15 adults
April to December 2013	Household Food Security. Accredited short learning programme. Logistical support from GRCF	50 adults
April to December 2013	GIS. Skills transfer – mapping of Skuinsdrift. Logistical support from GRCF	10 adults
April to December 2013	Youth Leadership training for grade 10, 11 and 12 learners. Training. Logistical support from GRCF	To be identified
June 2013	World Environment Day. Environmental awareness and outreach programme	300 learners and 100 adults
Dec 2013	World AIDS Day. Awareness and outreach programme	300 learners and adults