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A UNIVERSITY AND COMMUNITY-DRIVEN SOCIAL FACILITATION MODEL FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING IN SOUTH AFRICA

By

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A thesis for Doctor of Philosophy in Rural Development (PHDRDV) Degree submitted to

Institute for Rural Development

School of Agriculture

University of Venda

SOUTH AFRICA

November 2011

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DECLARATION

I, Beata Mukina Kilonzo, hereby declare that this thesis for Doctor of Philosophy in Rural Development (PhDRDV) submitted to the Institute for Rural Development at the University of Venda has not been submitted previously for any degree at this or another university. It is original in design and in execution, and all reference material contained therein has been duly acknowledged.

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To my late father, *Mr. Joseph Kilonzo Munywoki,* who throughout his life helped people appreciate their innate potential to improve their livelihoods and all development workers who soldier on to free Africa from poverty and underdevelopment.

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ABSTRACT

The approaches used in South Africa and beyond to plan rural development programmes suffer from a genuine community involvement deficit. Moreover, universities are increasingly being challenged to find sustainable solutions to socio-economic issues such as poverty and underdevelopment. This situation provided a fertile opportunity for demonstrating the relevance of a rural-based university in development programming through a series of participatory action research studies. Exploratory studies were conducted, aiming to construct a university and community-driven social facilitation model for planning rural development. The hypothesis tested in this study was, "Children, youth, men, women and community leaders have similar perceptions regarding the priorities for developing village communities".

All the 13 villages constituting the Masia Traditional Council Area in Makhado Local Municipality participated in this study. The initial phase of this exploratory study involved organizing orientation workshops for the leaders and members of the participating communities. This was necessary because it helped create awareness of the planned work, apart from securing commitment to participate in the jointly developed plans of action. Multi-stage stratified sampling procedures were used to select the respondents. Since collective views and decisions by various interest groups within villages guided the rural development planning, open invitations were sent to all local residents at least 7 years old to participate. Community-selected Village Development Champions (VDCs) served as paraprofessional researchers in their communities. Before being deployed to lead the village-based engagements the VDCs, university staff members and students received training in participatory action research techniques. Through a series of village-based reflection circles involving children, youth (15-35 years old), men, women and leaders, rural community development issues were determined and prioritized. A uniform semi-structured interview guide, participant registers and questionnaires requiring responses on a Likert-type scale were used to collect data. Thematic content analysis was used to analyze qualitative data. Kruskal Wallis and Mann Whitney tests were used to analyse the nonparametric data collected using questionnaires.

Inadequate social cohesion as evidenced by tensions and conflicts among leaders of local institutions was the most common impediment to people-centred and driven development. Other rural development themes distilled from the community-engaged work were infrastructure; basic services; health and wellbeing; utilization of economic opportunities; human capacity development; and resource mobilization. There were no differences among the interest groups

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within the Masia village communities ($P > 0.05$) with respect to most of the perceptions on issues relating to rural development. The perceptions of children, youth, men, women and community leaders regarding the priority issues to address were similar ($P > 0.05$). For this reason, the hypothesis underpinning this study was accepted. However, the mean ranks for the perceptions of community leaders, children 11-14 years old and school-going youth with respect to the need for tarred roads in Masia were higher ($P < 0.05$) than those for 7-10 years old children, out of school youth, men and women. It was not clear why there was such a difference in perceptions among the interest groups.

The step by step social facilitation model developed in this study and confirmed at various village level platforms rests on three fundamental pillars, namely social preparation (planning to plan); rural development planning; and planning to implement community-defined projects. This model generates community-owned, holistic and integrated development plans. It is a unique community engagement process that provides pointers on the roles that a rural-based university should play in the pursuit of sustainable rural development.

It was concluded that the current approaches such as municipal integrated development planning that mainly engage local leaders as representatives of their communities might be appropriate. However, the unique nature of engaging diverse interest groups in rural development planning is crucial because it creates and nurtures a sense of belonging, ownership and commitment to self-driven improvement of the quality of household and community lives. Also noteworthy is the fact that the model has a huge potential of nurturing multiple layers of cross-generational community leaders of development. Although the model was produced through a case study of the Masia community, it has the potential to revolutionize rural development planning in South Africa and beyond.

Key words: Community, community-driven, model, rural development planning, university, University-community partnership

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This thesis is drawn from the rural development work I have been involved in since 2009 as part of the partnership between the University of Venda (UNIVEN) and Masia Development Trust (MDT). The MDT operates in the 13 villages of the Masia Traditional Council area in Makhado Municipality of Vhembe District in Limpopo Province of South Africa.

In the course of my work, various people helped me. My Promoter, Prof. J. Francis was my greatest source of inspiration and support. He was not only a Promoter but also mentored me as an academic and a writer. He consistently assured me that I could do it even when I became so overwhelmed with other responsibilities related to my work as an employee of UNIVEN. I will always be grateful to him. My sincere thanks also go to Dr Paul Sarfo-Mensah of Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology for co-promoting this thesis research. He always encouraged me to keep on writing even when I did not know what to put together.

Sincere gratitude is due to my academic colleagues in the School of Agriculture and the Institute for Rural Development (IRD) who were always supportive. Sincere appreciation goes to Prof A. Musyoki who always pushed and encouraged me that it was possible to undertake this study. Dr M. O. Marenya deserves special mention because despite being from a different field of study (Agricultural Engineering), he was instrumental in pointing out pertinent issues of factual accuracy on the basis of his exposure to and experience in research and publication.

Let me acknowledge the UNIVEN management through the leadership of Prof. P.A. Mbati, who together with Chief Nthumeni Masia initiated the partnership that gave birth to this thesis. Both continue to support implementation of the community development work.

An important part of my study involved engaging communities and their leadership institutions at village level. I would not have been able to do it without the cooperation and active participation of local leaders, grassroots communities, students and staff. Let me take this opportunity to sincerely thank them all for their enthusiastic and relentless support in achieving my goal. Many students made the thesis research their own and accompanied me all the way to the finishing line. This made my work more interesting and manageable every day.

This study could not have been possible without the funding from the Department of Science and Technology through the National Research Foundation as part of the pilot Community-

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University Partnership Programme (CUPP) (Grant 71231), which was extended to the Institute for Rural Development.

Finally, I will forever be grateful to my late mother, Mrs Hannah Yula Kilonzo, who always encouraged me to do what was practically possible in order to progress in life, but simultaneously helping others. Wherever you are resting, I have no doubt that you are proud of this notable achievement. However, I am aware that the real journey towards a global community of people free from poverty and underdevelopment is only starting now.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AKRSP	Agha Khan Rural Support Programme
BCCP	Bibb Child Caring Project
CBD	Community based Development
CBO	Community-based Organization,
CCHS	College of Community Health Science
CCN	Capstone College of Nursing
CDD	Community Driven Development
CDW	Community Development Worker
CRDP	Comprehensive Rural Development Programme
CL/PT	Community learning/planning teams
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
HSRC	Human Sciences Research Council
IDP	Integrated development plan
IFAD	International Fund for Agriculture and Development
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IRD	Institute for Rural Development
ISRDS	Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy
IUCN	International Union of Conservation and Nature
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MDT	Masia Development Trust
MDIC	MASIA Development Initiative Committee
MoU	Memorandum of Understanding
NGO	Non-governmental Organizations
GIS	Geographic Information System
PMCT	Project Management and Coordination Team
PARN	Pamoja Africa Reflect Network
PRA	Participatory Rural Appraisal
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
PWA	Pamoja West Africa
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
RDS	Rural Development Strategy
RSP	Rural Support Programme

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RSPN	Rural Support Programme Network
SAPs	Structural Adjustment Programmes
SONA	State of the Nation Address
SCM	Source Content Management
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Scientists
STASA	Statistics South Africa
TASAF	Tanzania Social Action Fund
UN	United Nations
UNCDF	United Nations Capital Development Fund
UNESCO	United Nations Education Scientific and Children's Organisation
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNIVEN	University of Venda
VDC	Village Development Champions
VPIT	Village Project Implementation Team
WCARRD	World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development
WCED	World Commission on Environment and Development
WSSD	World Summit on Sustainable Development

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Widespread poverty, underdevelopment, skewed distribution of incomes, hunger, lack of assets, unemployment and un-employability are some of the major challenges facing the world today, especially in sub-Saharan Africa (International Fund for Agriculture and Development: IFAD, 2001; World Bank, 2004; Seekings, 2007; Van Donk, 2007; Sachs, 2008; IFAD, 2011). The 2000/1 World Development report and IFAD (2011) further highlight that poverty encompasses material deprivation, low levels of education, poor health care, vulnerability, voicelessness and powerlessness. The IFAD (2001), and Halweil and Nierenberg (2011) reveal that 1.2 billion people throughout the world are poor. They consume less than US$1 per day. In addition, about 75% of the world's poor work and live in rural areas (IFAD, 2001; Halweil and Nierenberg, 2011). In Third World countries, 55% of the total population resides in rural areas whose environments are physically marginalized (IFAD, 2001; Sachs, 2008; IFAD, 2011). Unless viable solutions to poverty-inducing and entrenching factors are found, the number of poor people in the world will continue to increase.

In an effort to find sustainable solutions to poverty-related challenges, the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED, 1987; Ekins, 1993; Estes, 1993) introduced the concept of "sustainable development. The Brundtland Commission defines sustainable development as: "paths of progress which meet the needs and aspirations of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their needs" (Blundtland, 1987). Although the International Union of Conservation and Nature (IUCN) used this concept in the early 1980s, the WCED (1987) was the first to link it to economic growth (Ekins, 1993). Since then, the concept of sustainable development has been accepted widely as the most ideal way to address persistent economic, environmental, social and political challenges confronting Third World countries (Devkota, 2000; Adesina, 2001; Swanepoel and De Beer, 2006). Despite this acceptance, development practitioners, government agencies and funding institutions have continued to use sectoral and project-based, top-down approaches (MacMillan and Graham, 1978; Piel, 1992; Estes, 1993; Binns, Hill and Nel, 1997; Nikkhah and Redzunan, 2009; Saqalli, Gerald, Bielders and Defourny, 2011), with minimal or no success in rural development programming. Binns (1997) claims that the approaches have failed to significantly improve the living standards of the people they are intended to positively impact on.

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1.2 Global Efforts to Address Societal Development Challenges

The World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF) introduced various strategies and policies aiming to address the legacies of colonialism and also eradicating poverty in Third World countries and Africa, in particular (Adenisia, 2001; Baah, 2003; Easterly, 2009). Among the strategies tried are conditional loans, the unpopular Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) of the 1980s, Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs), privatization, liberalization, globalization and fiscal austerity measures (UNDP, 1992; Estes, 1993; Easterly, 2000; 2009; Baah, 2003). Baah (2003) and Easterly (2009) argue that these strategies and policies have, in general, failed to fulfil their intended objectives. According to these authors, the programmes and policies have left Africa poorer, in addition to worsening unemployment rates. Moreover, countries and communities have been left even more marginalized. As a result, rural communities in particular have become more vulnerable, powerless and voiceless. As Baah (2003) and Easterly (2009) point out, the failure to achieve the intended goals of these strategies emanates from implementation conditions that are often attached to each programme and lack of involvement by beneficiary nations in designing the development interventions.

A notable global intervention introduced to address the challenges stated above was the declaration by the United Nations Assembly in September 2000 to halve extreme poverty by 2015 and increase development efforts through implementing the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Although considerable progress has been made in the past, most developing countries especially in Africa lag far behind in meeting the set targets. It seems unlikely that Africa will achieve the MDGs by 2015 (Easterly, 2009). Easterly (2009) explains this by arguing that "the MDGs are poorly and arbitrarily designed - making Africa look worse than it really is". Any attempts to generate sustainable solutions to the challenges faced should recognize the centrality of involving the intended beneficiaries in the identification, design and implementation of own development initiatives (Oakley, 1991; Chambers, 1994 and 1995; de Campos, 2009), especially in rural areas. In support of this argument, Baah (2003) is of the view that sustainable development will only be achieved when Africa develops her own strategies and policies based on the needs of its people. When this happens, community strengths should be taken advantage of instead of entirely basing development practice on community needs or gaps (Swanepoel and DeBeer, 2006; Francis, Dube, Mokganyetji and Chitapa, 2010). However, lack of appropriate approaches that genuinely involve the target communities in decision-making,

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coupled with the stringent conditions (blueprints) attached to the intervention efforts as Easterly (2009) highlights, has resulted in the failure to achieve set goals.

1.3 Weaknesses of Current Development Approaches

In Third World countries, especially in Africa, there is dearth of relevant and holistic rural development models or approaches. It has already been pointed out in earlier parts of this thesis that over the years, development practice has remained sectoral, project-based and top-down (MacMillan and Graham, 1978; Piel, 1992; Estes, 1993; Binns et al., 1997; Shortall and Shucksmith, 2001; Saqalli *et al*, 2011). Quite often, a few selected members of the community are mobilized to participate in implementation processes (Devkota, 2001; Swanepoel and DeBeer, 2006). Whether such people know the full range of the development priorities of their communities remains an issue that can only be answered through scientific research. It is rare that a combination of social, cultural, economic, psychological and political factors which are critical to rural communities is taken into account when mounting development initiatives (WCED, 1987; Oakley, 1991; Devkota, 2000; Swanepoel and De Beer, 2006). There is need to highlight that the commonly used sectoral, project-based and/or top-down approaches do not adequately address divergent and systemic challenges that developing countries face, especially in the rural areas (WCED, 1987; Oakley, 1991; Piel, 1992; Seitz, 2008; Saqalli et al., 2011). Thus, these approaches are unlikely to yield sustainable rural development.

MacMillan and Graham (1978); Manzuri and Rao (2003a); United Nations Capital Development Fund (UNCDF, 2006); Ravishankar, Gubbin, Cooley, Leach-Kemon, Michaud, Jamison and Murray (2009); and Ahmed, Euler, Khattak, Morton and Tariq (2009) confirm that considerable investment has been made in rural area-focused programmes with the aim of reducing poverty and achieving the MDGs. However, there is little to show for this heavy investment because poverty and underdevelopment challenges continue to worsen within the rural communities. Worse still, most donor- and state-funded development initiatives often stall as soon as the promoters and/or funders pull out (Mansuri and Rao, 2003; Jang, Joo-ho and Dae-seob, 2009; Kang, 2010; Tshitangoni, Okorie and Francis, 2010). This emanates partly from lack of end user involvement in rural development programming. For any rural development investment to benefit communities, the end users must actively participate in making decisions that concern them. Active participation of communities' in the development processes helps them to assume control and play more meaningful roles in the improvement of their qualities of life. When the communities are involved in their own development programmes, they become empowered and

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have the necessary impetus to proceed with the initiatives even when donor agencies or promoters pull out.

Active involvement of the intended beneficiary population is one of the major indicators of sustainable rural development (Freire, 1993; Chambers, 1994; Shortal, 2008; de Campos 2009). Sectoral, project-based and top-down approaches ignore this fundamental tenet of democratizing development. As a result, most communities or beneficiaries find it difficult to manage the development initiatives. Thus, lack of involvement of communities in initiatives designed to improve their own livelihoods, coupled with insufficient funding, can only yield failure in development programming.

1.4 The Case for Genuine Multi-stakeholder Participation in Development

When identifying development challenges, planning, designing and implementing interventions that seek to yield sustainable development, involvement of a broad spectrum of stakeholders, starting at grassroots community level, is desirable (Friere, 1993; Oakley, 1991; Chambers, 1994; Shortal, 2008). Existence of a policy environment that is conducive, genuine community participation and involvement of Universities in finding practical solutions to societal challenges are some of the perceived factors that might help development interventions to succeed (Boyer, 1996; Soska and Butterfield, 2004; Naidoo, 2007; Badat, 2009). Judd and Adams (2008) contend that involvement of Universities in the development process creates room for inter-disciplinary collaboration and might lead to holistic and sustainable outcomes.

Genuine community involvement in own livelihood improvement activities is a major pillar of sustainable rural development, which practitioners have not yet sufficiently exploited (Oakley, 1990; Chambers, 1994; Devkota, 2000; Leeuwis, 2000; Dukeshire and Thurlow, 2002; Mathekga and Buccus, 2006; Buccus, Hemson, Hicks and Piper, 2008; Saqalli et. al., 2011). Why this is the case is not clear. Seeking clarity on this issue is crucial because when rural communities are genuinely involved in the planning processes (including analysing the prevailing situation, identifying their strengths and needs, prioritizing goals, developing the vision, mission, specific objectives and activities, prioritizing projects, monitoring and evaluation), they become empowered and usually play more meaningful roles in improving their own livelihoods (Chambers, 1994; Oakley, 1991; Devkota, 2000; de Campos, 2009). Freire (1993), in his book entitled “Pedagogy of the Oppressed”, alludes to the importance of ensuring that a community liberates itself from colonial oppression and takes charge of its own

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development through active participation in actions that empower them. This enhances the chances of nurturing sustainable development.

In South Africa, for example, although community participation is critical, local institutions, including Municipalities lack the capacity required to champion people-centered development, particularly in rural areas (Ntsebeza, 2004; Mathekga and Buccus, 2006; Van Donk, 2007). Linked to this is the fact that most decision makers seem to pay lip service to public participation because they tend to view it as a threat to their positions of power (Hemson, 2007). In light of all this, it is worth embracing the views of Schafft and Greenwood's (2003) that although participation may not eliminate power disparities, it is likely to level the playing field for sustainable development. Various authors such as Kulhnen (1978), Boyer (1996), Soska and Butterfield (2004), Judd and Adams (2008) and Altbach (2008) advocate that universities should lead efforts that seek to achieve this noble developmental goal.

1.5 The Role of Universities in Societal Transformation

Linked to the dearth of appropriate approaches and lack of capacities of local institutions to spearhead development processes, are the roles that universities should play in finding sustainable solutions to the challenges that societies face. Increasingly, the relevance of universities in society is being questioned (Boyer, 1996; Soska and Butterfield, 2004). This is mainly due to the fact that universities rarely play noticeable roles in finding practical solutions to the challenges of the ever-worsening social and economic situations that characterize communities (Boyer, 1996; Soska and Butterfield, 2004; Hansen and Lehmann, 2006; Naidoo, 2007; Badat, 2009), in particular those in rural areas.

Bridger and Alter (2006) argue that university academics are more concerned with their personal advancement than providing service to communities. This explains why the research that academics conduct does not respond to the needs and aspirations of the communities where the universities are located. As a result of this problem, a perception is often created that universities are ivory tower islands and profession-oriented in nature, which makes their contribution to the improvement of the livelihoods of people in rural areas continuously questionable (Bok, 1982; Boyer, 1996; Soska and Butterfield, 2004; Francis et al., 2010). This perception alienates universities from the larger community they are supposed to serve.

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According to Sawyerr (2004) and Ijaduola (2011), universities established in Africa after the attainment of political independence were mandated to develop capacities of their governments to manage resources, eradicate poverty and close the gap between them and the developed world. This took into account the fact that universities should serve as knowledge and innovation promotion hubs (Youtie and Shapira, 2008). It is widely recognized that for them to fulfil this expectation, the universities must transform into institutions that partner with rural communities to find practical solutions to the people-felt challenges (Bridger and Alter, 2006; Naidoo, 2007; Badat, 2009). As they implement their activities, universities must promote and contribute to programmes that enhance the capacities of local communities to improve their social wellbeing as well as serve the broader purpose of building a more just society (Boyer, 1996; Bridger and Alter, 2006; Ijaduola 2011). This approach has a huge potential for yielding sustainable development especially in rural areas, for example those in the former homelands of South Africa where Apartheid policies entrenched poverty. Even today, poverty remains a deeply-rooted headache in South African society.

1.6 Seeking Appropriate Solutions to South African Development Challenges

During his State of the Nation Addresses (SONA) in the years 1994 and 1995, former President Nelson Mandela underscored the need for a people-centred society. He called for the creation of a South African society that enjoyed freedom from want, hunger, deprivation and fear, and also one that guaranteed political and human rights of all citizens. Mandela argued that by working collectively, widespread poverty, breakdown of family life, deprivation and skewed distribution of wealth which characterized rural areas especially in the former homelands and provision of essential services would be addressed (Mandela, 1994; 1995). This clarion call sought to galvanize South Africans to define and shape their own future in the post-1994 era. In support of Mandela's vision, President Jacob Zuma also made the rallying call, "Working together we can do more" (Zuma, 2010). The latter refined policy position and created conducive environment for the communities to liberate themselves from poverty and underdevelopment through actively participating in development programming that has potential to improve their own livelihoods.

Efforts made to achieve the goals defined above must be made taking into account the fact that the Apartheid system destroyed the social fabric of the majority of the country's citizens, created fear and passivity, and also made people deeply dependent on government as opposed to being active participants (Munro, 1996; Binns, 1997; Galvin, 1999; Mathekga and Buccus,

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2006). This implies that there is need for social preparatory work that makes people rediscover the desire to be self-reliant. Only when this is achieved would the current lack of collective action within communities become less of an impediment to achieving sustainable development. In this regard, policies that enable sufficient free expression and compel deliberative engagement of the populace would help address this challenge. Thus, the extent to which the current South African policy environment helps precipitate collective action, especially in rural areas where poverty and underdevelopment are deeply entrenched is still not known. The next section attempts to explore this crucial question.

1.7 The South African Development-oriented Policy Imperatives

In response to the socio-economic challenges that the Apartheid system created, the South African government formulated various strategies and policies, and mandated many institutions to promote effective implementation. Examples of the policy interventions introduced include the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) of 1994, Rural Development Strategy (RDS) of 1995, White Paper on Transforming the Public Service of 1997, White Paper on Local Government of 1998, Local Government Municipal Structures Act of 1998, Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy (ISRDS) of 2000; Local Government Municipal Systems Act of 2000; Traditional Leadership and Governance Act of 2003; Development Facilitation Act of 2005; and the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP) of 2009, among others. These policies were formulated in order to create the environment required to address the various development challenges, improve the quality of life of the formerly disadvantaged communities and promote equality and social justice for all the country's citizens. However, implementation of these policies and strategies remains a major challenge for local Municipalities which are supposed to lead the realization of developmental local government (Ntsebeza, 2004; Mathekga and Buccus, 2006; Orthman and Sirnadhoo, 2009). Consequently, there is a massive deficit in implementing development policy which if ignored will continue to perpetuate the evils that Apartheid created.

The White Paper on Local Government of 1998 identifies developmental local government as a tool for democratizing societal transformation and growth. Central to this is the local Municipality's responsibility to promote active participation of communities in their development (Chapter 7 of the Constitution of South Africa Act 108 of 1996; Ntsebeza, 2004). Furthermore, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa and the White Paper on Local Government of 1998 dictate that all Municipalities should formulate holistic and integrated development plans

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(IDPs) with the full participation of grassroots communities. This calls for the active involvement of communities during identification, design and management of the development initiatives (Chambers, 1994; Leeuwis, 2000; Seitz, 2008), which leads to improved quality of life (Pycroft, 1998; Ntsebeza, 2004). However, it is still common to find most Municipalities hiring private consultants to develop IDPs (Mathekga and Buccus, 2006; van Donk, 2011). This might explain why the realities of the local communities are rarely well-articulated in the IDPs (Ntsebeza, 2004; Mathekga and Buccus, 2006). Reliance on consultants tends to undermine the people's constitutional right to participate in planning and implementing their own development aspirations.

Some of the underlying factors that make it difficult for Municipalities to coordinate the formulation and implementation of IDPs include limited skills and expertise, lack of access to relevant information, lack of clear terms of reference limited or lack of resources to contact their activities and poor working relationship between Councillors, and their Ward committees (Ntsebeza, 2004; Mathekga and Buccus, 2006; Buccus et al 2008; van Donk, 2007; Smith and de Visser 2009). Moreover, inherent tensions between elected and traditional leaders persist (Good Governance Learning Network: GGLN, 2008; 2011). The tensions commonly emanate from lack of clarity on their respective roles, responsibilities, functions and powers in spearheading rural development, and administration of land (Ntsebeza, 2004; Mathekga and Buccus, 2006; Smith and de Visser, 2009). Furthermore, Smith and de Visser (2009), and Greenberg and Mathoho (2010) argue that Ward Councillors are perceived as an extensions of their political affiliations. Given such challenges, it is almost inconceivable to expect them to drive holistic rural development processes with full participation of the communities. This situation undermines rural development programming and adversely affects active participation of the communities in defining their own development agenda. In this regard, there is a dire need to innovatively expose the leadership institutions on these realities and capacity develop them on policy imperatives that address their roles in rural development, the need for working together and the importance of involving communities in decision making, including implementation of development initiatives. As a knowledge and innovation hub, a rural based university in partnership with communities is best placed to address most of the challenges.

The Local Government Municipal Systems Act of 2000 directs Municipalities to promote a culture of participatory governance that inculcates a sense of responsibility and accountability among them and the communities. Also, it specifies the need for developing the capacities of

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communities to take charge of their own life improvement agenda. Taking into account the municipal challenges alluded to earlier, the White Paper on Municipal Service Partnership of 2000 provides a framework for municipal councils to identify and use appropriate partners to close the gap in service provision. However, clarity on the part of municipal councils as well as lack of appropriately crafted IDPs makes it difficult for them to identify the services that grassroots communities require and the relevant partners to engage. Given the fact that universities are supposed to serve as knowledge reservoirs and change agents, it can be argued that partnerships with Municipalities in particular those in rural areas have a huge potential of solving most of the challenges that grassroots communities face. Yet, rural-based Municipalities rarely engage local institutions of higher education in particular universities as partners in addressing inherent capacity gaps which hamper rural development programming.

In view of the discussion above, the need for a paradigm shift in the current rural development discourse cannot be over-emphasized. This argument reinforces the importance of ensuring that community members are fully involved in planning their own development initiatives. The use of trans-disciplinary approaches to address development challenges in a holistic manner and taking into account the myriad of factors (Devkota, 2000; Swanepoel, 2005) that communities' value is of paramount importance. In Vhembe District of Limpopo Province, for example, the rural-based University of Venda (UNIVEN) is already working with various grassroots communities through a programme called *Amplifying Community Voices* (Francis et al., 2010). One of the community development sites is the Masia Traditional Council area, which is found in Makhado Local Municipality.

The community development work in the Masia area was initiated in September 2009 through the signing of a memorandum of understanding (MoU) between Masia Development Trust (MDT) and UNIVEN. Through the UNIVEN-MDT collaborative initiative in the Masia area, the university sought to facilitate participatory rural development planning processes which involved a broad range of stakeholders. The ultimate goal of the UNIVEN-MDT partnership was to facilitate the crafting of a participatory and holistic rural development plan that encompassed the entire Masia Traditional Council area, out of which community-defined and run development projects would be distilled. Through a series of interrelated studies, a participatory and holistic university–community driven model for rural development planning was formulated through a collegial partnership with the 13 villages that comprised the Masia area.

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1.8 Statement of the Research Problem

The current study was necessitated by the realization that planning approaches used in South Africa and beyond aiming to achieve sustainable rural development, rarely meet the aspirations of the wide range of beneficiaries at grassroots community level. This emanates from the fact that there is inadequate, if any, involvement of children and youth in and out of school of both sexes, women, men and local leaders in the development planning process. Moreover, Universities are increasingly being challenged to help find sustainable solutions to such socio-economic development challenges. The issues highlighted above indicate that there is scope for formulating models of development planning that are university and community-driven. Therefore, this study sought to close this gap through producing a University-community driven social facilitation model for planning rural development.

1.9 Research Objectives and/or Questions

1.9.1 Specific research objectives

The aim of this study was to explore the perceptions of community members in order to develop a university and community-driven social facilitation model for rural development planning. A series of inter-related steps that showed how a university could facilitate the implementation of grassroots community-prioritized rural development was followed. The specific objectives of this study were to:

a) determine what the interest groups at village level perceived as relevant community development;
b) compare the perceptions of children, youth, men, women and community leaders with respect to relevant community development;
c) define the roles that University staff, students, community members and local leadership institutions should play in implementing community-driven development and,
d) distil the fundamental features of a university and community-driven model for rural development planning.

1.9.2 Research questions

In this study, the main research question was: how can a rural-based university and grassroots community collectively facilitate the formulation of people-desired community development agenda? The specific questions that the study answered were:

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a) What do the various interest groups within villages perceive as appropriate community development?
b) Do children, youth, men, women and community leaders have similar perceptions with respect to relevant local community development?
c) What roles should University staff, students, community members and local leadership institutions play in implementing rural community development?
d) What are the fundamental features of a university and community-driven model for rural development planning?

1.9.3 Research assumptions

The following assumptions were adopted in this study:

a) In South Africa, appropriate models of planning rural community development are lacking;
b) The roles that university staff, students, community members and local leadership institutions play in implementing development work in the Masia Traditional Council area are not clearly defined; and
c) The priorities for development of the villages that make up the Masia Traditional Council area are not known.

1.9.4 Research hypothesis

The study tested the hypothesis that there are significant differences among children, youth, men, women and community leaders in the perceived priorities for rural development of the village communities in the Masia Traditional Council area.

1.9.5 Justification of the study

Genuine involvement of rural communities in development planning has the potential to empower concerned and affected people to manage their own initiatives with little or no external input (Dongier, van Domelen, Ostrom, Ryan, Wakenman, Bebbington, Alkire and Polski, 2003; Swanepoel and De Beer, 2006; Nikkah and Redzuan, 2009). By so doing, excessive dependence on external support to solve local development issues would be reduced. A community-driven planning model might help strengthen the formulation of municipal IDPs. In this way, the true meaning of public participation as enshrined in the Municipal Systems Act of 2000 is demonstrated. Moreover, this provides ample evidence of the capacity of a rural-based

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university to facilitate development in partnership with the communities it serves. Success of this social experimentation could help demonstrate the university's relevance to its constituency.

1.9.4 Operational definitions of key terms and concepts

In this study and based on the work of Axelroth and Dubb (2010), *University-driven* is a concept that refers to facilitating and leading rural development efforts in the Masia Traditional Council Area by the Institute for Rural Development (IRD). The IRD worked together with the Masia community, serving as a convener to establish partnerships with relevant stakeholders. Students and staff at UNIVEN participated as colleagues of the local community representatives. In all this work the MDT was the collegial partner that represented the Masia community.

For the purposes of this study, a *model* refers to a conceptual or social framework that guides planning and implementation of the Masia community development initiatives.

De Beer (2006) defines *community* as a "grouping of people who reside in a specific locality and exercise some degree of local autonomy in organizing their social life in such a way that they can, from that locality, satisfy the full range of their daily needs". According to Roberts (1979), a community exists when a group of people perceives common needs and problems, acquires a sense of identity, and has a common set of objectives". All this views community in terms of shared interests and concerns. In this study, rural community referred to the 13 villages that made up the Masia Traditional Council area. Specific attention was placed on the central role that the interest groups in each village played.

For purposes of this study, *interest group* referred to all the constituent cohorts involved in rural development. The interest groups included children (7-10 year old boys and girls; 11-14 year old boys and girls); youth (boys and girls still in secondary or high schools; males and females no longer attending school); women (both middle-aged and the elderly); men (both middle-aged and the elderly); and community leaders.

Community-driven development (CDD) is a livelihood improvement process that recognizes local people and their institutions as assets and crucial partners. It "gives control of decisions and resources to community groups. These groups often work in partnership with demand-responsive support organizations and service providers, including governments, the private sector, NGOs and central government agencies" (Dongier et al., 2003:3). In the current study,

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CDD means a process that recognized people at village level and their institutions as partners when identifying challenges, planning, designing and implementing development initiatives. In line with the views of Dongier et al. (2003), the process is meant to a) enhance community and individuals' capacity to spearhead development initiatives; b) increase community members' effectiveness and efficiency; c) enable community members to become more responsive to their development priorities; d) enhance the sustainability of community projects; e) deepen democracy; f) strengthen governance; and g) improve social cohesion among community members.

1.9.7 Outline of the Thesis

This thesis is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the study, provides the background and articulates the research problem, in addition to stating the research objectives and questions. Justification of the need for the study is given and the assumptions and research hypotheses presented. Space is also devoted to presentation of the operational definitions of key terms and concepts.

In Chapter 2, the focus shifts towards the theoretical underpinnings of the study. Pertinent literature on the roles of Universities in societal transformation and CDD is reviewed. Relevant knowledge on case studies and models of university-community partnerships and community-driven rural development is explored and discussed. The last part of this chapter articulates the conceptual framework of the study.

Chapter 3 describes the area where the study was carried out. It provides a detailed description of the step by step approach followed during rural development planning in the Masia community.

In Chapter 4, a full scientific paper on development planning is presented. This is the only chapter which presents and discusses the results of the rural development planning. The specific hypothesis is tested and conclusions drawn. Also worth noting are the major components of the community development plan for the Masia area that was formulated using the research findings.

Chapter 5 is a synthesis of the entire research and development work. The main features of the university-community driven model for rural development planning are explained. Each component of the model is explained, highlighting its significance in the context of the literature on rural development planning that is available. The recommendations for policy, development

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practice and research are presented separately. References used in the study and appendices that support some aspects of the dissertation are presented at the end of the dissertation.

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CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

Worldwide, there is a growing demand for universities to form partnerships with communities and contribute more towards combating poverty and underdevelopment (Bok, 1982; Boucher, Conway and Van Der Meer, 2003; Kaufman, 2004; Hansen and Lehmann, 2006; Naidoo, 2007). Historically, universities have been known to maintain an 'ivory tower' island culture that promoted research for personal advancement and rarely gave attention to addressing the challenges facing communities around them (Kuhnen, 1978; Boyer, 1996; Soska and Butterfield, 2004; Martin, Smith and Phillips, 2005; Bridger and Alter, 2006; Naidoo, 2007). Such perception alienated universities from the larger community they were supposed to serve. Thus, to enable universities provide teaching that is informed by the realities on the ground, it is vital that they form partnerships with communities (Martin *et al.*, 2005; Altbach, 2008; Boulton and Lucas, 2011). This would enable universities to conduct research that is relevant to the needs of the community within its vicinity (Bridger and Alter, 2006; Martin *et al.*, 2005). Other benefits of establishing the university-community partnerships would include creating opportunities for students to gain practical experience (Martin *et al.*, 2005; Boulton and Lucas, 2011); leverage funding for further research (Martin *et al.*, 2005; Altbach, 2008), and improve the university's relevance to the communities it is supposed serves (Khuhnen, 1978; Martin *et al.*, 2005) within its jurisdiction.

In this chapter, the evolution of the thinking relating to the roles of universities in societal transformation is reviewed. Community participation or involvement in own development is examined. The nature of university-community partnerships and associated benefits are explained. Community-driven development is examined focusing on how it influences sustainable social change. Also unravelled in this chapter is the dense literature on community participation and how it affects rural development planning. Considerable space is dedicated to a critique of planning of rural development programmes. The entire review is articulated in such a way that it builds a case for constructing a university-community driven model for rural development planning.

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2.2 The Roles of a University in Society

"University" is a term derived from a Latin word "*universitas"* which refers to a community or corporation of teachers and scholars (Newman, 1952; Canton and Yuchtman, 2010). As reflected in the Academy of Plato, the term refers to degree-granting institutions of higher learning. Newman (1852: as quoted by Boulton and Lucas, 2011) labelled "university" a "school of universal learning" where universal knowledge is imparted. According to Newman, a university is, "*a place…., whither students come from every quarter for every kind of knowledge. …..a place for communication and circulation of thought by means of personal intercourse ……a place to which a thousand schools make contributions; in which the intellect may safely range and speculate, ...a place where inquiry is pushed forward and discoveries verified and perfected, and … error exposed by the collision of mind with mind, and knowledge with knowledge. …. university is a seat of wisdom.* The preceding description presents the term "university" as a place where multi-disciplinary higher learning and research. It is a place where undergraduate and postgraduate education in various subjects (Albach, 2008; Boulton and Lucas, 2011) can be attained. Although this definition provides a wide range of roles of a university, it does not make any reference to its connection with the society it is supposed to serve.

Literature indicates fundamental roles of universities as research aiming to create new opportunities and teaching to shape new people (Albach, 2008; Boulton and Lucas, 2011). Boulton and Lucas (2011) submit that research and teaching interact to generate relevant capacities needed to address societal challenges. The wide range of academic degrees offered in various fields and levels of study such as bachelors, honours, masters and doctoral qualifications as well as diplomas (Sawyerr, 2004; Albatch, 2008) attest to Boulton and Lucas's submission. At these levels, universities provide general and specific skills in addition to creating and transmitting useful knowledge to serve a wider purpose of the societal transformation (Boulton and Lucas, 2011; 2011). Newman description of universities create appropriate platforms "*where inquiry is pushed forward and discoveries verified and perfected, and error is exposed by the collision of mind with mind, and knowledge with knowledge"* to address every societal challenges. However, universities rarely promote teaching and research that address the challenges facing communities around them (Boyer, 1996; Soska and Butterfield, 2004; Martin, Smith and Phillips, 2005; Bridger and Alter, 2006). Graduates also

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move to towns and cities in search of professional advancement (Alam and Hoque, 2010) as soon as they have completed their degree courses especially in Third World countries. This situation often lead to professional and knowledge haemorrhage especially in the rural areas. It is no wonder that poverty and underdevelopment persists even in the communities surrounding universities especially those based in rural areas.

2.2.1 Historical evolution of the roles of universities in society

The concept of university originated in medieval times. Before the first formal university was established, universities were founded from pre-existing cathedral and monastic schools under the aegis of the western Christian church and later by kings and municipal administrations (Riché, 1978; Johnson, 2000; Altbach, 2008). The pre-existing schools were defined by guilds and run by nuns and monks as corporate bodies or groups with independent status, organized according to a specific trade (John, 1972; Riché, 1978; Cantoni and Yuchtman, 2010). Religion heavily influenced the curriculum, primarily focusing on improving logic, philosophy, legal education, medical and religious professions (Altbach, 2008; Cantoni and Yuchtman, 2010). Such coverage did not have rural development as part of its business.

Pre-existing schools were upgraded to universities in order to promote philosophy, logic and critical thinking with the aim of enhancing the interests of their religion and monarchy (Riché, 1978; Cantoni and Yuchtman, 2010). This happened through teaching, translation of manuscripts, organizing, copying and codifying sacred texts as well as materials from the classical period (Riché, 1978; Johnson, 2000; Altbach, 2008). According to Riché (1978), these forerunner institutions of the fifth and sixth centuries were upgraded to universities whenever they were considered as primary sites of higher education. Medieval universities broadened the scholarship to include the creation of knowledge through research and increased collaboration with industry (Kuhnen, 1978; Martin and Etzkowtz, 2000; Cantoni and Yuchtman, 2010). They translated scientific and other literature from Arabic to Latin (Altbach, 2008) before disseminating it and preserve the knowledge created in libraries.

The first formal university, namely the University of Bologna in Italy was founded by foreign students who were receiving training in law (Rüegg, 2003; Cantoni and Yuchtman, 2010). This was significantly influenced by sudden urbanization that emerged as a result of commercial revolution. Students from Europe and other parts of the world entered into formal contracts with the newly founded University of Bologna in order to gain legal knowledge. University knowledge

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at the time was critical because of the high demand for qualified law clerks and administrators. The clerks and administrators were required to address the sudden urbanization issues that emerged due to improved agricultural activities; the struggle of the church with kings and emperors; and the rights of emerging nations against the church and emperor (Kerr, 2001; Albach 2008; Cantoni and Yuchtman, 2010).

By 1500 AD, universities experienced remarkable growth, productivity and considerable innovation through research (Grendler, 2004; Cantoni and Yuchtman, 2010). By end of the eighteenth Century, many universities had been established in Europe and other parts of the world. This broadened scholarship to include creation of knowledge through research, advancement and transmission of knowledge via teaching and publication (Kuhnen, 1978; Martin and Etzkowtz, 2000; Sawyerr, 2004; Altbach, 2008; Cantoni and Yuchtman, 2010). Although the roles of traditional universities were teaching and research, students were trained to take up high level jobs and also to achieve personal development through research and publication (Martin *et al.,* 2005; Altbach, 2008). Martin *et al.* (2005: 3) submits that American universities between 1914 and late 1980s were located in "rural areas, far removed from economic and social problems of the broader society" due to geographical hostility. In contrast, African universities established by colonialists were located in major towns (Rimmington, 1965; Sawyerr, 2004). However, in both cases, education remained a preserve of members of the upper class in society who pursued self-centred goals and promoted themselves as "elite bastions of information and knowledge" (Martin *et al.,* 2005). Individuals' interests dictated the type of research to be carried out in universities. Yet, the challenges facing communities around them continued to challenge their very existence and relevance in the society (Martin *et al.*, 2005; Badat, 2009). This situation alienated universities from the broader society they were supposed to serve. Consequently, universities were regarded as 'ivory tower' islands (Kuhnen, 1978; Boyer, 1996; Soska and Butterfield, 2004; Martin *et.al.,* 2005; Altbach, 2008; Youtie and Shapira, 2008; Cantoni and Yuchtman, 2010). Such perception alienated communities from universities.

Although some universities existed before democratic dispensations, university education in developing world is largely regarded as a post-colonial phenomenon (Rimmington, 1965; Sawyerr 2004). It is widely believed that universities were part of post-colonial national development projects centred on Western problems, needs and conditions (Rimmington, 1965; Kuhnen, 1978; Sawyerr, 2004). In addition, universities were supported by governments using public resources to address societal development challenges (Sawyerr, 2004; Altbach, 2008).

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However, universities assumed different characteristics as they developed. Asian universities for example broke away from others and took advantage of academic research to build science parks and also established companies (Ma, 2007; Altbach, 2008) that became central to the development of the sub-continent.

The first university in Africa was established in Sierra Leone in 1816, among people (the Creoles) who were freed from slavery in Nova Scotia and England (Rimmington, 1965; Sawyerr, 2004; Altbach, 2008). As most African countries gained political independence, new governments embraced higher education and promoted the establishment of universities. This was designed to assist decolonized nations to "build the capacities of emerging governments to develop, manage resources, alleviate poverty of their people and close the gap between them and developed world" (Sawyerr, 2004:4-5). However, most African universities continued with traditional roles inherited from the West (Kuhnen, 1978; Geuna, 1998; Sawyerr, 2004; Altbach, 2008; Cantoni and Yuchtman, 2010) and failed to meet their initial objective. Also, education was not well aligned with societal development objectives which decolonized countries expected to be addressed (Geuna, 1998; Martin and Etzkowitz, 2000; Martin *et al.,* 2005). Thus, traditional universities have remained disconnected from society, particularly the rural communities.

2.2.3 The roles of modern universities in the society

Through the establishment of the University of Berlin in 1810, Humboldt von Wilhelm promoted the model for a modern university (Kuhnen, 1978; Altbach, 2008; Boulton and Lucas, 2011). Humboldt envisaged three underlying principles of a university, namely unity of research and teaching, freedom of teaching and academic self-governance. Humboldt and Newman's (1952) vision dominated the functions of universities in Europe, which eventually spread to other parts of the world (Boulton and Lucas, 2011). The European Commission (now European Union: EU) in 2007 advocated for the adoption of this thinking when they recognised the roles of universities as exploiting the so-called "knowledge triangle" of research, education and innovation. In addition to instilling critical thinking among learners, Altbach (2008) views the central responsibility of modern university as teaching and provision of technical skills required to meet demands of current jobs and professions. Table 2.1 presents a summary of evolution of universities from historical perspectives, the roles they played as institutions and the gaps to date with regards to addressing societal challenges particularly in the rural areas.

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Table 2.1 A summarized version of the evolution of universities and their roles

Period/type of university	Brief Description of major milestones	Synthesis / Gaps
Historical/Pre-university	Pre-existing cathedral and monastic schools under the aegis of western church established to provide higher education for monks and nuns; Served the interests of western catholic church and monarchy; Roles: teaching, translation of manuscripts, organizing, copying, codifying sacred texts and materials from classical period.	Served the interests of the Catholic church and monarchies; no noticeable relationship with societal challenges
Medieval universities	Religion heavily influenced higher education curriculum; Nuns and monks run higher education as corporate bodies; Scholarship was broadened to include knowledge creation through research and preserved in libraries; Roles: translate literature from Arabic to Latin and disseminate it to church and monarchies; University of Bologna, first formal university was founded in 1088 in Italy to address legal challenges resulting sudden from urbanization;	Higher education institutions referred as Academy or University; minimal collaboration with industry through research; no noticeable economic intervention or relationship with society in particular the rural communities.
Traditional Universities	Based on Newman and Humboldt ideologies and natured nationalist ideologies; focused on professional education, intellectual and occasionally political life; provided professional knowledge for high-level jobs; Restricted to professionals and students from upper strata of society; Roles: research, teaching; specialized skills to the developed economy; Passive sources of scientific know-how; Supported knowledge- and technology-based industries; Specific emphasis on research, teaching, and academic self-governance	Promoted academic freedom and independence; inward looking; elite society as benefactors; collaborated with governments and industry for technology transfer; provided specialized skills for high-level jobs; local change agents but lacked understanding of the society
American Universities	Removed from societal needs as they were located in remote areas; Promoted themselves as elite bastions of information and knowledge; offered broad general first-degree to promote critical thinking for contemporary society needs; conducted research for personal advancement; Lost sense of civic purpose and became commercial enterprises; mainly established to teach, research and publish	Shunned away from communities around them between 1914–1980; Failed to work with surrounding communities; Later formed partnerships with communities but used sectoral approaches;
Universities in Developing Countries	Mainly regarded as post-colonial national development projects to build capacities of decolonized government to manage resources, alleviate poverty and close the gap between them and developed world; Research and methods centred on western problems, needs and conditions; Asian universities established companies to take advantage of research and build science parks; State financed and supported; depended mainly on expatriates, increased enrolment and reduced local and external support; Professors became pre-occupied with budgetary issues; classes burgeoned without facilities and supplies; administrators focused on budgetary matters and schemes of generating revenue instead of curriculum improvement, pedagogy and research	Continued with the Western traditional roles; failed to address local realities ; promoted traditional roles of Western universities; Brain drain due to economic, social or political issues; most failed to involve rural communities.
Modern Universities	Expected to translate research into economic intervention through technology transfer; expand its mission beyond traditional responsibilities and act as engines of knowledge creation and diffusion; provide technical skills needed for a growing number of jobs and professions that require sophisticated knowledge and an education that instils ability to think critically; introduced Triple helix thesis; become more entrepreneurial by working closely with industry; formed partnerships with communities.	Entrepreneurial in nature to address funding gap and the pressure from private institutions; improved working relationship with government and the industry; formed sector-based partnerships with communities mainly in USA and Israel; lack of involvement with rural communities in Africa.

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The roles of modern universities must continue to evolve as new challenges facing nations emerge and improved technology becomes available. Also, universities are often challenged to translate research into development interventions through transfer of knowledge and technology (Etzkowitz, Webster, Gebhardt and Terra, 2000). These challenges led to the introduction of the 'Triple helix' strategy. The strategy emphasizes collaboration of university, industry and government as key to innovation which might ultimately lead to improved livelihoods (Etzkowitz and Leydesdorff, 1997; Geoghegan and Pontikakis, 2008). The collaboration is expected to improve regional and or national economic performance and also address universities' financial challenges (Etzkowitz et al., 2000). Also collaboration with rural communities which is critical to the national development can potentially make universities more innovative and entrepreneurial as it addresses the multidimensional challenges facing the rural communities.

Universities as engines of knowledge creation and diffusion are expected to promote innovation and economic development to improve the communities' livelihoods and social justice (Kuhnen, 1978; Gunasekara, 2006; Boulton and Lucas, 2011; Youtie and Shapira, 2008). They are expected to function as knowledge hubs where knowledge's, skills, and new capabilities are developed, as well as resources for social cohesion and competitiveness are built (Boucher *et al.*, 2003; Altbach, 2008; Youtie and Shapira, 2008). Taking this into account, Kuhnen (1978:79) states that the "ultimate yardstick for measuring the success of a university is the improvement in the life of the people it serves". Kuhnen (1978:79) further asserts that "the needs of the society have to be at the centre of the university's activities". However, universities are rarely flexible enough to adapt to the changing needs of the society (Kuhnen, 1978; Martin *et al.*, 2005; Altbach, 2008; Boulton and Lucas, 2011). As a result, poverty and underdevelopment continue to ravage communities especially those in the rural areas.

Governments also view universities as "vital sources of knowledge and innovative thinking, contributors to innovation, attractors of --- business investment ----, and as agents of social justice" (Boulton and Lucas, 2011:4). Although the corporate world is promoting this drive, it does not seem to be translating into improved livelihoods, particularly in rural areas. Thus, it is questionable whom the knowledge is generated for and for what purpose. On-going knowledge generation efforts mainly promote personal/career advancement and provide avenues for connecting with peers. Rarely is the knowledge relevant to the researched communities, which mainly serve as mere research laboratories. For this reason, universities remain predominantly irrelevant to rural communities. This justifies the need to develop an improved social contract between universities and communities through strategic partnerships that clearly define the roles, responsibilities and obligations of each party.

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The need for universities to work with communities in order to generate relevant knowledge that addresses their challenges (Freire, 1993; Hunter, Mai, Hollister and Jankey, 2011) is beyond the debating platform. The same is true for universities to use their expertise to address the multiple issues of communities in question as this might help slow down the brain drain of trained professionals. Alan and Hoque (2010) argue that professional tend to leave rural areas or even the country for better life among host of other issues. The situation often strips rural areas of potential expertise that can assist in solving local development challenge.

As already highlighted, one of the major reasons for establishing most universities in Africa was to develop the capacities of decolonized governments to manage resources, eradicate poverty and close the gap between them and the developed world (Sawyerr, 2004). The fact that most universities continue to play this designated roles implies that there is need for transformation and forge partnerships with communities to find solutions to prevailing social and economic challenges (Bok, 1982; Boucher *et al.*, 2003; Hansen and Lehmann, 2006; Naidoo, 2007). In this way, the universities would help combat poverty and underdevelopment better (IFAD, 2011) especially in rural areas.

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2.3 University-community Partnership for Sustainable rural Development

Universities are increasingly being called upon to partner with communities and contribute more towards combating poverty and underdevelopment (Bok, 1982; Boucher *et al.*, 2003; Hansen and Lehmann, 2006; Naidoo, 2007). Literature reveals that few universities have risen to this challenge in order to address community development related issues (Kaufman, 2004; Brown, Reed, Bates, Knaggs, Casey and Barnes, 2006). However, most universities continue to serve their own interests without much consideration to societal challenges (Kuhnen, 1978). Communities are still being used as an experimental laboratory where research is carried out that does not necessarily respond to the real needs of the community (Bridger and Alter, 2006). As such they fail to contribute in improving the livelihoods of communities around them especially those in the rural areas (Kuhnen, 1978; Boyer, 1996; Butterfield and Soska, 2004; Martin *et. al,* 2005). As argued by Kuhnen (1978) the activities of universities should be central to the needs of the communities where research is carried out to meet community identified challenges. This centrality however does not exist unless a genuine and innovative university-community partnership (Martin *et al..*, 2005; Bridger and Alter, 2006) has been formed for mutual benefit.

University-community partnerships exist as a response to the complex societal challenges that require critical thinking and innovative methods (Brown *et al.,* 2006 Hunter *et al.*, 2011).

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Judd and Adams (2008:117) argue that university-community partnerships are "powerful organizations that spur interaction among key partners and serve to focus tasks, guide decision-making, facilitate communication, undergird cohesiveness and support leadership". This interaction is critical to meeting developmental challenges that face rural communities in particular. In this study, university-community partnerships are reviewed with a view to establish the role they play in enhancing sustainable development in rural areas. Attention is given to the type of partnership, how *they were formed? Why they were formed? Who are the beneficiaries and what roles the beneficiaries play*? Following are some of the university-community partnerships reviewed. Table 2.2 presents the summary of reviewed university-community partnerships.

2.3.1 University of Utah and the Pebble creek community partnership

This partnership was initiated by the university of Utah and Pebble Creek Community. The college of social work spearheaded implementation of the partnership. The partnership emerged as a result of extensive interviews with local residents, representatives of community organization, faith-based organization and university faculty, students and staff. The residents of Pebble Creek community were facing challenges of rapidly diversification of its population as a result of influx of immigrants and refugees. The local public offices were also not equipped to handle the situation. The university community partnership was then established to develop necessary language and social cultural skills and capacities of the new immigrants and refugees to access social services and health care facilities. The partnership was also formed to enable these immigrants to settle, access social facilities and education opportunities. University faculty, students, community agencies and residents worked together to co-design and implement programs with families in the community. The residents who participated in the partnership were one thousand and five hundred (1 500) from three hundred (300) apartment units. The partnership emphasized the need for active involvement of families in the project. The role of university was to provide financial support and expertise. Also, it facilitated co-designing and implementation of the programs with the communities. The partnership focused on intensifying and integrating institutions and community engagement activities in underserved and high poverty areas. It also sought to broaden the institutions mission towards civically engaged scholarship by expanding opportunities for faculty and students to learn with and alongside residents and community organizations. It also needed to increase the opportunities for underrepresented populations to pursue higher education and also to increase diversity within the institution's student body and future faculty.

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Table 2.2 Summary of the university-community partnerships case studies reviewed

Case Study	Brief summary Description of Partnership	Synthesis, including gaps
Hunter, Mai, Hollister and Jankey, 2011.	Partnership of University of Utah and Seasons community at Pebble Creek. Emerged as a result of extensive interviews with local community and institutions within it. Social work spearheaded implementation of the partnership; Partnership addressed rapid diversification of the population due to influx of new immigrants and refugees. Purpose was to capacitate new immigrants and refugees to access social facilities and services, health care facilities, settle them and education opportunities. University provided financial support, expertise, and facilitated co-designing and implementation of programs with the communities.	Capacity development model was more successful; community leaders were incentivised for work done; constitution of residents/community is not defined; silent on how the project was designed and by who; Not holistic; sector-based partnership.
Judd and Adams, 2008.	Partnership of University of Alabama and Bibb County communities to meet health-related needs of rural children through the Bibb Child Caring Project (BCCP); Various institutions participated and benefited; university provided teaching, research skills, skilled faculty and creative energetic students to provide practical application of knowledge and offer opportunity for a community classroom in which teaching and learning become real; integrated community service, taught civic responsibility, planning and efficient intervention; Research team of faculty and students assisted in the design and implementation of the school-based health fairs.	Students and teachers incentivised to encourage full participation; success factors anchored on commitment, communication, collaboration, flexibility, trusts and maintenance of mutually beneficial relationship; targeted children and not the entire community; no community involvement in the design of the project; Sector-based partnership.
Harnish and Bridges, 2004.	Partnership of Pennsylvania State University and Lower Burrell community; faculty and students of Advanced Psychology spearheaded it; Addressed problem of aging population, limited undeveloped areas, retail businesses relocating to other places and young professionals leaving to more economically promising areas; community leader appointed to develop strategic plan; Community leaders approached and engaged university to assist with financing and research; faculty and students conceptualized, outlined objectives and executed the project;	Project conceptualized and executed by faculty and students in consultation with community leaders; Emphasis given to small business owners involvement; No clear indication of young people and young professionals participation; faculty, students and community leaders incentivised.
Kaufman, 2004.	Ben-Gurion University in partnership with community service agencies and social advocacy organizations. University initiated the partnership change the professional, public and public discourse on right to food security, raise awareness, activate university, community agencies and organizations, and pressure policy makers to address food insecurity among low income and vulnerable people in the Negev area in Israel. Eighteen (18) local community service agencies and two (2) national social advocacy organizations collaborated. Survey was conducted to measure the levels of food security conducted with involvement of community members and service organizations; University facilitated preparatory stage, fostered commitment, developed skills, provided expertise and community legitimacy, and created necessary frameworks for intervention.	Formal and informal tactics and survey methods used for mobilization. . Commitment, legitimacy, individual and organizational competency used as preconditions for involvement. Project activities integrated into the existing curricula framework for students; graduate students in the service encouraged to act as bridge between academia and community; Not clear whether feedback were presented to the community.; Decision to implement programme was made without the community; No clarity on youth participation.

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The communities shared their strengths and resources, and provided diverse cultural knowledge, communal support systems and commitment to cultural preservation.

Among the partnerships forged by University of Utah, capacity building models were more successful in promoting social development and healthcare for the underserved communities (Roussos and Fawcett, 2000; Minkler and Wallerstein, 2003 in Hunter et.al, 2011). The University of Utah partnership is however, silent on other development challenges within the community which may be critical to its existence. The community leaders involved in the partnership process were incentivised (paid stipend) for work done. While this may incentivise the local leaders to faithfully participate, it might also be a potential recipe for compromised outcomes of the community's social development process. The study alludes to participation of the community agencies and residents, however, it is not clear who constitutes the residents. Also, it is not clear whether the members of Seasons community were involved in the engagement or it involved only the immigrants and the refugees. The fact that partnership focused on capacity development of the immigrants and refugees, is a clear indication that it used sectoral approach to addressing community challenges to the disadvantage of other community related development priorities.

2.3.2 University of Alabama and Bibb County community Partnership

University of Alabama and Bibb County communities formed partnership to address health-related needs of rural children through the Bibb Child Caring Project (BCCP). BCCP was created by the University to examine health disparities in rural children and develop interventions for promoting access to insurance, medical care and health. The College of Community Health Sciences (CCHS) and Capstone College of Nursing (CCN) spearheaded the project implementation. A research team from both colleges (CCHS and CCN) was authorized by the university to assist in the design and implementation of school-based health fairs and promotion of the partnership. The major roles of the university in this partnership was to provide creative and energetic students who are able to provide practical application of knowledge and offer opportunity for a community classroom in which teaching and learning become real. The partnership integrated meaningful community service with instruction and taught civic responsibility. Through local structures and organizations, the community provided support in planning and efficient intervention. The factors of success in this partnership include commitment, collaboration, and mutually beneficial relationship. Participation of teachers and students was highly incentivised. It is also not clear who or what informed implementation of this project. Also, the partnership applied sector-based approach.

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2.3.4 Ben-Gurion University in collaboration with community service and social advocacy organizations

After becoming aware of a growing severity of the problem of food insecurity, hunger and increased poverty among low income and vulnerable people in the Negev area, the Ben-Gurion University initiated a partnership to promote the government's policy on food insecurity in Israel. The university worked in collaboration with eighteen (18) local community service agencies, two (2) national social advocacy organizations and the community members. The collaboration aimed to change the professional and public discourse on the right to food security; raise awareness; activate university, community agencies and organizations; and pressure policy makers to address the problem of food insecurity in the country. Formal and informal tactics were used to mobilize agencies to promote food security for their clients. A survey to measure the levels of food security was conducted with involvement of community members and service organizations within the communities to define the problem. The project activities were integrated into the existing curricula framework to ease the burden of the project from faculty and students (i.e. in the course, field practice, and research).

The university facilitated the preparatory stage (preconditions), fostered commitment, developed skills, expertise and community legitimacy. It also created the necessary frameworks for intervention. The frameworks included: Academic (for action research course, and other community practice courses) and an organizational (forum for social justice). It also played the role of a catalyst in research and public activities designed to expose the extent of the problem and thereby change the community discourse. The the organiser, the Department of Social Work encouraged various organizations in the community to participate in defining the problem, developed alternatives and demanded solutions from policy-makers. Although the University emphasized community involvement and problem definition, the decision that food security was a problem that needed attention was made elsewhere without the community. The project idea was developed elsewhere without the community. The constitution of the community members is not clearly defined. The findings and implications of the survey were presented and discussed in a conference but there were no defined feedback to the communities who were involved in the process.

2.3.5 Pennsylvania State University at New Kensington and Lower Burrell, a nearby community

A community near the Lower Burrell City initiated a mutually beneficial partnership with Pennsylvania State University. The community was characterized by aging population, retail

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businesses relocating to other places and young professionals leaving to more economically promising areas. The community formed a committee to develop strategic plan aiming at addressing the situation. However, the committee lacked required financial resources and expertise to conduct a research leading to a community strategic plan for development. The committee approached and engaged the University on the matter. The University assessed the perceptions of the community, determined its strengths and weaknesses, and conducted the research. This was done with respect to reversing the troubling trends of economic and social factors experienced by the community.

The community project was conceptualised by the faculty and students of Advanced Psychology at Pennsylvania State University and the community leaders. The also outlined the objectives and how the project would be executed. The perceptions of small business owners and residents were enlisted using focus group discussion. The mayor of the city, the strategic planning committee and the community leaders provided background and demographic information on the city. They also provided background of the major events impacting the quality of life and the city's economic and social realities. Students and staff facilitated the engagements and provided the requisite expertise to conduct professional research. The students and staff consolidated information collected, distilled themes, wrote and presented reports to the community for validation and confirmation.

In this partnership, it is not clear what constituted the residents or the community members. It is also not clear whether the young professionals were involved in the strategic planning process as the situation in the community directly affected them. Emphasis was made towards small business owner's participation but not the community as a whole. It is clear in this case study that the voice of all community members was not included in the strategic planning process. It was not clear whether the young people, young professionals and children participated in the planning process.

In conclusion, the literature reviewed reveals that both the university and the community have enormous benefits through partnership. Universities undertake teaching that is informed by the realities on the ground (Harnish and Bridges, 2004; Martin *et al.*, 2005; Altbach, 2008; Boulton and Lucas, 2011). The research is undertaken to address existing societal challenges faced by the communities (Harnish and Bridges, 2004; Kaufman, 2004; Martin *et al.*, 2005 Bridger and Alter, 2006; Judd and Adams, 2008). As universities implement development projects that are informed by research, it creates opportunities for students to gain practical experience in their area of expertise (Kaufman, 2004; Martin *et al.*, 2005; Boulton and Lucas, 2011; Hunter et.al, 2011). , Universities have the opportunity to

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leverage funding for further research as they work in partnership with communities (Martin *et al.*, 2005; Altbach, 2008). Also, university involvement as strategic partner and their relevance among communities around them is improved as they work with communities (Khuhnen, 1978; Martin *et al.*, 2005). In general, university-community partnerships bring to bear many positive and mutual benefits. Although this is the case, implementation of development interventions undertaken use sectoral/project-based approach which rarely addresses societal challenges in a holistic manner. A few people, often the community leaders and the elite of the society who may not appropriately represent the priorities of the community were involved in project implementation. . In all partnerships reviewed except the Pennsylvania State University and Lower Burrell community partnership, projects implemented were identified elsewhere and not the community concerned. . Often, the conceptualisation of the project idea and the project design was done without the communities. Decisions to implement such project/programme were also taken without the involvement of the target community. Although the identified development challenge may be the community reality, it may not necessarily be their priority challenge. Hence, the need to give the community chance to define and prioritise their development challenges for implementation. Constitution of the community members were also not clearly defined as well as the specific roles they played during implementation. Important to note was the absence of children and youth involvement in all reviewed case studies. It is also mind boggling to note that there were no university-community partnerships in Africa which could be reviewed.

2.4 Participation in Rural Development

Participation is widely accepted as critical to addressing development challenges facing rural communities. Although the gap between rhetoric and realities of participation in rural development remain wide (Chambers, 1994), there is no doubt with regards to the pivotal role it plays in rural development planning processes (Chambers, 1994; Cohen and Uphoff, 1977; Oakley, 1990; Swanepoel and DeBeer, 2006; Nikkhah, 2009). Devkota (2000), Swanepoel (2005), de Campos (2009) and Nikkhah (2009) point out the ability of participation to unearth critical local or indigenous knowledge-base and its empowering effect it has on communities involved particularly. The underlying principle is that rural communities understand the realities on the ground that buttress poverty and underdevelopment (Adesina, 2001; Swanepoel, 2005; Swanepoel and DeBeer, 2006). The community involvement in defining their development agenda remains extremely critical. In line with the views of Cohen and Uphoff (1977), Oakley (1990) and de Campos (2009), it is imperative that communities actively participate in making decisions that relate to their own development.

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2.4.1 Evolution of participation as a concept

De Campos (2009) traces participation back to colonial times when E. R Chadwick in the late 1940 and early 1950s refused to deliver development to the Nigerian communities. Chadwick advocated that Nigerians should "identify their own needs and through self-help development, transform their capacities to improve their own communities". In line with Chadwick's views, Warren (1963) gave meaning to participation as "the deliberate attempt by community people to work together to guide the future of their communities". In the 1950s, participatory development thinking was experienced with the emergence of cooperative movement (Raper, 1956) and the Gandhian concept of village self-reliance (Gandhi, 1962) which led to community-based development. According to de Campos (2009), people's participation as a concept was formulated in the 1970s as a response to increased concern that approaches applied in rural development did not lead to significant rural development. In 1979, the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (WCARRD) in Rome declared that: "if rural development was to realize its potential, disadvantaged rural people had to be organized and actively involved in designing policies and programmes, and in controlling social and economic institutions" (WCARRD, 1979). This required development practitioners to involve target beneficiaries in the development processes (de Campos, 2009). Based on the WCARRD resolution in 1979, de Campos (2009) and Zadeh and Ahmad (2010), the communities must be allowed to actively play key roles in their own development processes. They also need to be enabled to actively and genuinely identify and define their own development challenges, plan and design development initiatives, and implement actions that bring change in their own communities.

2.4.2 Definitions of participation

As diverse people and institutions such as consultants, academics, national and international NGOs, bilateral organizations among others acknowledged participation as critical in development appropriate interpretation of the term became fundamental. Some of the key definitions were then formulated. Cohen and Uphoff (1979) defines participation in rural development as "people's involvement in decision-making process in implementing programmes, their sharing in the benefits of development programmes and their involvement in efforts to evaluate such programmes". In this definition, the author emphasizes people's involvement in all aspects of the development intervention. Arnstein (1969) defines participation as distribution of power that enables the have-not citizens, presently excluded from political and economic process to be deliberately included in the future". This implies that the have-not citizens are enabled to share in the benefits of the affluent. The World Bank (1994, 2004) defines participation as a "process through which stakeholders influence

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and share control over development initiatives and the decisions and resources which affect them". Orkley, (1990), defines participation as a "way of harnessing the existing physical, economic and social resources of rural people in order to achieve the objectives of development programmes and projects". Orkley introduces the physical aspect which Swanepoel (2005) refers to as people's dignity. Swanepoel (2005) states that people's participation is decision-making, thus empowering them to take charge of their own development. According to Jennings (2000) participation refers to "involvement of local population in the creation, content and conduct of a programme or policy designed to change their lives". Jennings indicates that "participation requires recognition and use of local capacities and avoids the imposition of priorities from outside". Jennings stresses the use of local people's decision-making and capacities to define the nature of intervention.

Although various people agree with the WCARRD (1979) declaration that it is imperative that people participate in their own development, development agencies and many practitioners rarely involve grassroots communities in their own development processes. In this study, participation in development will refer to rural communities or people's involvement in the entire development planning processes, decision-making, and implementation of own development agenda. In doing this, rural communities will be enabled to identify and prioritize their own development issues; develop the vision, mission, specific objectives and the activities for implementation. Such involvement will also assist communities to discover their own potential, develop confidence and capabilities that empower them (Nikkhah and Redzuan, 2009; Zadeh and Ahmend, 2010) to effectively and efficiently implement projects with limited external support.

2.4.3 The participation continuum

Development practitioners have used participation to represent diverse levels of community involvement in development activities. These levels have however not always been effective. On the one hand, development agents have used the term participation to refer to a situation where people are being informed of what has already been decided, being consulted to provide answers, as an incentive for material gains or when the agent wants to achieve a certain goal (Arnstein 1969, Pretty, 1995). On the other hand, Arnstein (1969), Pretty (1995), Nikkhah and Redzuan (2009) maintain that participation has been represented as peoples involvement in making decisions and being in control of actions that affect them, as well as the process that lead to people's empowerment. However, the later has been more of rhetoric than reality as many development practitioners have often applied the former as participatory. This argument is clearly presented on Figure 2. 1 and Table 2.3 adapted from Arnstein (1969), Pretty (1994) and Leksakundilok (2006) respectively.

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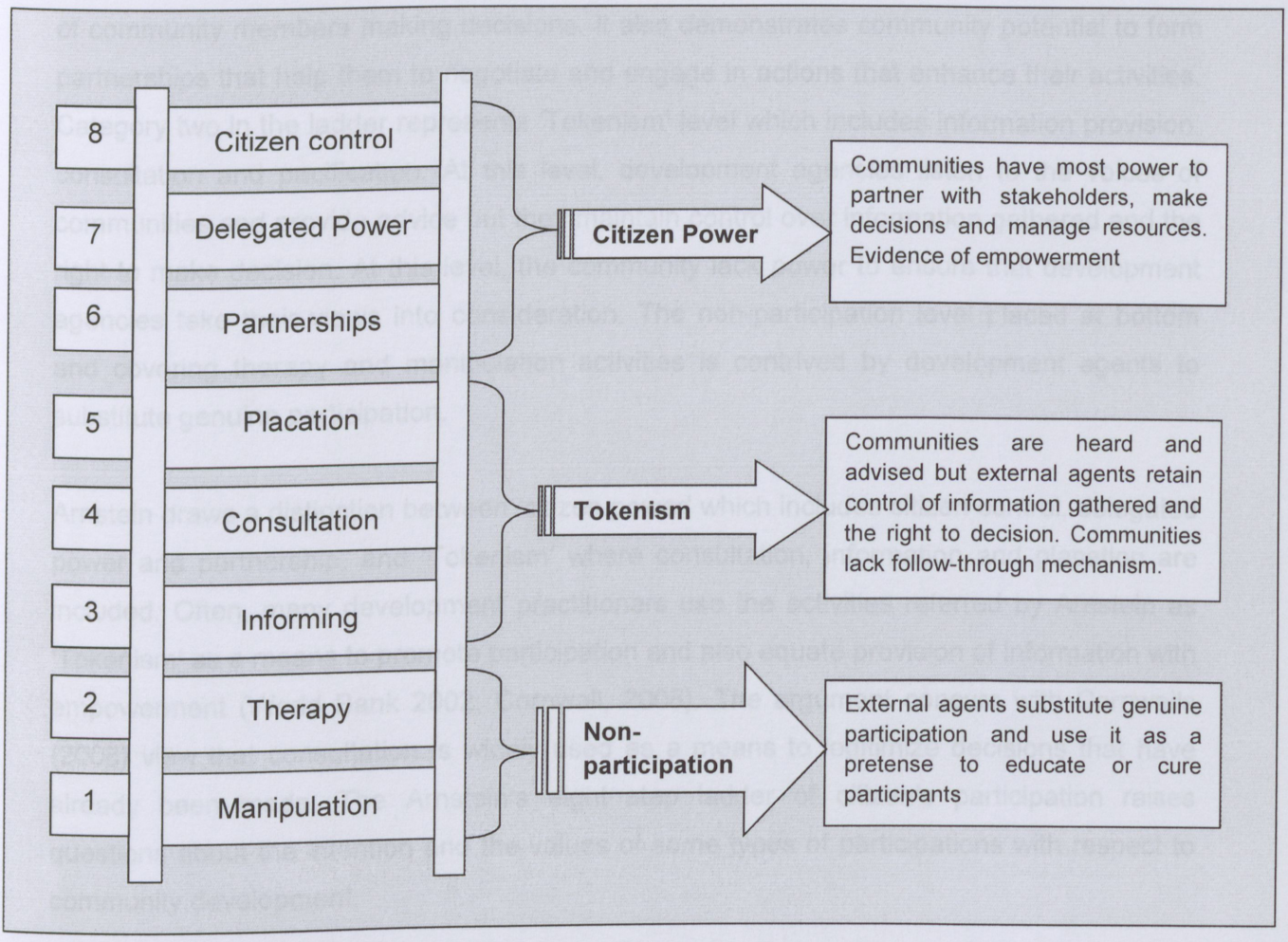


Figure 2.1: Typology of Participation (adapted from Arnstein, 1996)

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Arnstein (1969) developed a ladder of citizen participation (figure 2.1) to describe various forms of community participation. Arnstein's ladder is one of the most known participation continuum. It depicts citizen control at the top of the ladder where there is an increased level of community members making decisions. It also demonstrates community potential to form partnerships that help them to negotiate and engage in actions that enhance their activities. Category two in the ladder represents 'Tokenism' level which includes information provision, consultation and pacification. At this level, development agencies listen to the voices of communities and provide advice but they maintain control over information gathered and the right to make decision. At this level, the community lack power to ensure that development agencies take their views into consideration. The non-participation level placed at bottom and covering therapy and manipulation activities is contrived by development agents to substitute genuine participation.

Arnstein draws a distinction between 'citizen power' which includes citizen control, delegated power and partnership, and 'Tokenism' where consultation, information and placation are included. Often, many development practitioners use the activities referred by Arnstein as 'Tokenism' as a means to promote participation and also equate provision of information with empowerment (World Bank 2002; Cornwall, 2008). The argument concurs with Cornwalls (2008) view that consultation is widely used as a means to legitimize decisions that have already been made. The Arnstein's eight step ladder of citizen's participation raises questions about the intention and the values of some types of participations with respect to community development.

Table 2.3 presents seven levels of participation adapted from Pretty (1995) and Leksakundilok (2006). These are more directed to those involved in facilitation of participatory approaches in community development. The table outlines three levels of participation. The first level represents a non-participatory and top-down approach where target communities are simply informed of what had been decided. Level two represents a symbolic participation where target communities are coaxed and enticed to provide answers to questions made to achieve a predetermined project goal. Level three represents genuine participation where the target communities are involved in the development process to ultimately empower them to take charge of their development process.

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Table 2.3: Typology of participation adapted from Pretty, 1995 and Leksakundilok, 2006

Levels	Types	Characteristics
Non-participation	1. Manipulative	Programmes/projects are developed by some powerful individuals or government without discussion with the people (top-down approach). Community representatives who have no power over decisions taken are brought on board
	2. Passive/informing	People participate by being informed of what has been decided or already done. This involves unilateral announcement by external agent without listening to the people's responses. The information shared belongs to the external agent.
Symbolic Participation	3. consultation	People participate by being consulted or answering questions. External agents define the problem and control information gathering and analysis. They are often under no obligation to take on board the views of the people.
	4. Material incentives	People participate in return for food, money or other material incentives. Communities do not get involved in the learning taking place and have no stake in the prolonged technologies or practices when the incentives end.
	5. Functional	Participation is seen as a means to achieve project goals. People participate by forming groups to meet predetermined objectives related to the project. Although the process may be interactive and involve shared decisions, it only happens when major decisions have already been made.
Genuine participation	6. Interactive	People participate in joint analysis, development of action plans and formation of or strengthening of local groups and institutions. Community participation is seen as a right and not a means to achieve set objectives. The process involves interdisciplinary methodologies that seek multiple perspectives and make use of systemic and structured learning processes. Community groups take control over decisions and determine how available resources are used.
	7. Self-mobilization	People participate by taking initiatives independently of external agents or institutions to change systems. They develop contacts with external agents or institutions for resources mobilization and access technical advice they may need, but retain control of over how resources are to be used. This type of participation requires an enabling environment in order to spread.

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The characteristics of each type of participation are described to dissipate any form of misconceptions. The seven levels of participation ladder are organized in a progressive manner that spells out the appropriate type participation necessary for self-driven development. The non-participation level begins with people being manipulated and informed of what has already been decided. This involves unilateral pronouncements being made by external agents which take the form of top-down approach. At this level, the external agents do not listen to the responses of the community members or their views on the planned development activity.

The symbolic level of participation begins with people being manipulated to simply provide answers to predefined questions. However, the information provided remains under the control of the facilitator or the promoter. The people are also incentivized to provide information. In this type of participation, the people or community rarely learn from the process. In this case, the communities continue to participate without learning as long as the incentives are available. At this level, the people are also allowed to form groups carefully choreographed to meet predetermined project goals.

The genuine participation level is involves community interaction and self-mobilization. At this level of participation, the community members participate in the entire development process. The ultimate aim at this type of participation is to empower communities to take charge of their own development programming and ultimately implement their development interventions with little or no external support. To ascertain that this happens, the community members take part in joint analysis of their development challenges and develop plans of action. These enable them to take control of their own decisions. Empowered community members have the potential to mobilize themselves in order to undertake actions that are independent of external change agents, mobilize resources for implementation and seek any requisite technical from relevant individuals or institutions.

2.4.4 Implications of participation in rural development

The philosophy behind sustainable development is that, if it is to occur it must be holistic and involving all target community members (Swanepoel, 2005). This implies that communities are involved in the development process from the onset. These include participatory identification and definition of development challenge, planning, implementation development interventions and evaluation of the development process (Arnstein, 1994; Pretty, 1995; Seitz, 2008). However, most development practitioners rarely involve all community members in their development planning process. Only a few selected individuals are involved in sector or project-based approach to rural development (Seitz, 2008; Saqalli

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et al., 2011). This situation may shed some light on why there is lack of clarity on who actually participates in the development projects/programmes initiated in the rural areas. Thus, the situation remains a recipe for disempowered and disenfranchised community members (Chambers, 1994; Mathekga and Buccus, 2006; Buccus *et.al*, 2007; Seitz, 2008) who are unable to take charge of their own development initiatives without external support.

2.4.5 The concept of rural community development

Rural community development is often described as a process where community members come together and collectively find solutions to issues that concern them (Frank and Smith, 1999). It often takes place when community members genuinely participate in the process (Zadeh and Ahmad, 2010). According to Nikkhah and Redzuan (2009), community development is "an approach in development programmes that aims to improve the living condition of a particular area". The authors further state that it is "a strategy for reaching and involving village and communities in the process of building their own life which would consequently result to national progress". According to Frank and Smith (1999), community development is a "process whereby community members come together to take collective action and generate solutions to common problems". In this study, rural community development is defined as a process where community members genuinely come together and collectively find solutions to development issues that improve their living standards and ultimately result to national economic growth.

2.4.6 Definition of community

Efforts to come up with a universal definition of a community have not born much fruit despite robust debates on the concept. However, in most definitions, community is thought of in geographical terms such as location, and common interest such as common culture, language or beliefs or in terms of a particular neighbourhood. According to Hillary (1955), and Wilkinson (1991), the term community is conventionally defined in terms of three elements namely: a physical place, a local society, and collective actions. Based on this line of reasoning, a community is seen to be a specific physical space or territory where people meet most of their daily needs, interact with others in a variety of organizations, and express common interests through various actions and activities.

Interaction is central to the definition of community because the local community and the interactions that occur significantly affect individuals and their social wellbeing. This implies that the community is the main point of contact between an individual and the society. Wilkinson (1979 in Summers (1986) states that "community refers to certain social relationships in the life space of a person, which, is argued, serves both as a means of

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achieving social wellbeing and as a definition, or end of its realization". The Author views community as social relationships that lead to the realization of its wellbeing.

Edwards and Jones (1976) in Swanepoel and De Beer (2006), define community as a "grouping of people who reside in a specific locality and who exercise some degree of local autonomy in organizing their social life in such a way that they can, from that locality base, satisfy the full range of their daily needs". Roberts (1979) in Swanepoel and De Beer (2006), defines community as "the community that exists when a group of people perceives common needs and problems, acquires a sense of identity, and has a common set of objective". The authors view the concept of community in terms of shared interests and concerns. In this study, community is defined as a group(s) of people found in a physical location where they interact with each other, fostering collective responsibility, expressing common interests and concerns through various actions and activities leading to the realization of its social and economic wellbeing.

2.4.7 Approaches to rural community development

Over the years, development practitioners or actors have approached community development in diverse ways. Various approaches to rural community development have been applied. They include sectoral or project-based (MacMillan and Graham, 1978; Piel, 1992; Estes, 1993; Hite, 1999; Shortall and Shucksmith, 2001; Seitz, 2008; Saqalli et al, 2011); Top-down or imposed (Conyers 1986; Mathekga and Buccus, 2009); self-help (de Campos, 2009); grassroots or bottom-up (Strad, Toje, Jerve and Samset, 2003; Nikkhah and Redzunan, 2009) among others.

Conyers (1986) in Nikkhah and Redzunan (2009) classified community development approaches into three, namely: "top-down", "bottom-up" and "partnership". The top-down approach to community development takes place when government or authorities, or any other organization besides the community or the target beneficiary initiates development activity. In this approach, the community or the target beneficiary does not participate in decision making. Decisions are taken for the community without them. Communities are told what to do while everything else is managed by government or the promoter (Arnstein, 1994; Pretty, 1995). The Government or the promoters of the development initiative emphasizes planning as central while the community members remain passive as explained by Pretty (1995) and Leksakundilok (2006) in the typology of participation.

The bottom-up or grassroots approach implies that development activity is initiated and managed by the community for the community. It emphasizes community involvement as central in the development processes (Pretty, 1995; Dongier *et al.*, 2003; Mansuri and Rao,

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2003; Saqalli *et al..,* 2011). The third approach is partnerships where external stakeholders including government play a supportive role as facilitators and or consultants (Bok, 1982; Martin *et al..*, 2005; Bridger and Alter, 2006; Hansen and Lehmann, 2006; Naidoo, 2007). In this approach, community members initiate and also play active role in the development process. In this study, the bottom-up and partnership approaches are applied. The community is involved in the entire development planning processes and in partnership with the university and other strategic stakeholders playing facilitative and supportive roles respectively.

2.5 Community-Driven Development

Rural people are often viewed as victims or targets of development intervention programmes. However, rural communities understand the divergent and systemic challenges which include poverty, deprivation, social, economic, political, cultural and environmental issues that daily confront them (Swanepoel, 2005; Seitz, 2008; Saqalli *et al.,* 2011). In this respect, community's involvement in making decisions that relate to their own development is vitally important. Thus, community-driven or people-centered development is promoted with the aim of empowering rural communities to take charge of their own development process and also allowthem to make decisions and control resources (Dongier *et al..*, 2003; Arcand and Bassole, 2006; Baird, McIntosh and Ozler, 2009) that relate to their own development.

2.5.1 Origin of the concept of community-driven development

The term Community-Driven Development (CDD) was initially coined by the World Bank referring to Community-Based Projects as an umbrella term for projects that actively involve communities in their design and management (Manzuri and Rao, 2003; Dongier *et al.*, 2003). According to Manzuri and Rao (2003), a long history of community-based development existed in developing countries long before the World Bank coined the term. These include community-based projects/programmes emanating from the cooperative movement and the Gandhian concept of village self-reliance (Gandhi 1962). Freire's (1970) notion of "dialogical action" and "theory of revolutionary action" argued that the "oppressed" needed to come together and find ways of improving their livelihoods (Freire, 1970 and 2000; Manzuri and Rao, 3003). In defining CDD, the World Bank states that "CDD gives control of decisions and resources to community groups. These community groups often work in partnership with demand-responsive support organizations and service providers such as elected local governments officials, the private sector, NGOs, and central government agencies. Dongier *et al.* (2003) views CDD as a way to provide social and

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infrastructural services, organize economic activity and resource management, empower poor people, improve governance and enhance security of the poor.

Divergent views have however emerged from critics of CDD and participatory approaches to development. They argue that CDDs are not as "bottom up" as they are believed to be or as "community-driven or –based" at all (Manzuri and Rao, 2003; Platteau and Gaspart, 2003). They claim that the "local elites" or "opportunistic entrepreneurs" use CDD approaches as a disguise to divert resources intended for communities to themselves (Platteau and Gaspart, 2003; Mansuri and Rao, 2004; Ensminger, 2004). They further claim that there is no existing evaluations of CDD programs that confirms its success as well as the participatory roles of the rural communities (Platteau and Gaspart, 2003; Mansuri and Rao, 2004). While these claims may be true due to the way development agents have implemented participatory development, Dongier *et al,* (2003) provides evidence of programmes which have succeeded. Furthermore, Dongier *et al,* (2003), Swanepoel and De Beer (2006), and Nikkah and Redzuan (2009) confirm that CDD empowers communities to take control of their decisions and resources. Also, poverty has been reduced as the poor and vulnerable people get opportunity to participate in the design and management of their development programmes. The authors confirm that projects were sustainable and costeffective than when sectoral and top-down approaches are used.

In this study, various community-driven development programmes were reviewed in order to establish how CDDs are initiated, how interventions are identified and designed, the stakeholders involved, who and how the partnerships were formed in order to champion the development process, the presence or absence of universities and their contribution to its realization or lack of it.

2.5.2 Analysis of case studies of community-driven development (CDD) community-driven development

Dongier *et al.*, 2003 analysed twelve (12) large and successful case studies based on the World Bank's Community-Driven Development framework. The case studies highlight the need to treat poor people and their institutions as assets and partners in their own development initiatives. The studies revealed that when the poor are appropriately guided, supported, accorded access to information and linked with relevant institutions, they have potential to effectively meet their development priorities. The authors synthesized lessons learned from accumulated and demonstrable experiences of improved sustainability of investments in Benin, Bolivia, Honduras, Indonesia and Pakistan; improved effectiveness and efficiency of services in sectors such as infrastructure in Asia and in Zambia, education

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in Philippines; Group based microfinance; natural resource management where communities manage forests India; empowerment of poor people through education and participation in public debates; social capital build through joint decisions-making and controlling of resources and strengthened governance by strengthening poor people's inclusive institutions that enhanced their voice in local, political and governance processes.

The CDD advocated for partnership between community-based organizations (CBOs) and local governments where the communities support was decentralized to elected local governments. Partnerships between CBOs and private support organizations with responsibility to help reach communities, form and support CBOs in the process of CDD and direct partnership between CBOs and central government or central fund where all support and technical services required for project planning and implementation are purchased directly by the CBO. According to the World Bank, a diversified strategy that engages local government and also works directly with NGOs or private firms, or provides CBOs direct access to resources could be appropriate. The authors concluded that CDD/CBO projects were best undertaken in a context specific manner, for a long period and a well-designed monitoring and evaluation system.

The World Banks-based case studies failed to consider higher institutions of learning as potential partners in rural development. There were no indications as to who identified the projects for implementation, where the decision to implement was made and who actually designed them. In There is also an assumption that local government had carried out development planning before implementation of the projects. However, there was no indication of development planning undertaken prior to the implementation of development projects.

Arcand and Bassole (2006) carried out impact assessment which highlights the importance of the World Bank place on Community-Driven Development programme and the funds to the tune of $7 billion invested (Dongier *et.al*, 2003). The Authors claim that solid empirical evidence on CDD impact was relatively scarce, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa. The Authors also had in mind the criticisms levelled against CDD and participatory approaches. The CDD projects impact assessment was implemented as a joint venture between the Senegalese government and Civil Society using the National Rural Infrastructures Program (PNIR), an initiative of The World Bank and IFAD that operated in rural areas of Senegal in 1996. The impact assessment was based on a unique panel dataset to find out whether CDD programmes works. Three projects were implemented based on expressed opinion of the village chief. These include improved access roads, drinking water, and access to health and education services. In theory, the project's participatory processes were designed to

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ensure that the infrastructures to be funded corresponded to the highest priorities of each rural community; and that it would benefit the majority of its population. Empirical results of the PNIR-CDD program revealed that it:

(i) significantly improved village access to clean water and health facilities,

(ii) significantly reduced the prevalence of underweight and stunted children, with this effect being particularly pronounced for children residing in poor households, But,

(iii) did not significantly affect household expenditures per capita.

The authors also concludes that if sub-regional government does not give adequate voice to the villages it is meant to represent, there may be "village-capture" in terms of the allocation of projects, and this phenomenon may well be just as important as the elite capture which is a major focus of many critiques of the CDD.

Mansuri and Rao (2003) viewed community-based and community-driven development programme as a mechanism which can among other things: (i) Enhance sustainability; (ii) Improve efficiency and effectiveness; (iii) Allow poverty reduction efforts to be taken to scale; (iv) Make development more inclusive; (v) Empower poor people, build social capital, and strengthen governance; and (vi) Complement market and public sector activities. The authors also viewed CDD as a programme with ability to reverse existing power relations in order to create opportunity for the poor people to have more control over their development process. Mclean, Mokoli, Ryan and Williams (2001), Narayan (2002) and Dongier *et al.* (2003) points out that the CDD has become the World Banks cornerstone for comprehensive development framework for empowerment. However, Summers (2001) argue that the emphasis World Bank places on empowerment has potential to create parallel structures which may compete with elected local or national governments. Harris (2001), Platteau and Abraham (2001), Mosse (2001), Cooke and Kothari (2002) focused on issues that arise when concepts such as “community”, “empowerment” and “participation for collective action” are applied on large development projects with tight time lines. To do this, the authors examined the history of participatory development and how CBD became a key channel for development assistance; examined literature on “participation” and “social capital” and what constitutes a “community” and potential constraints of community participation; reviewed the evidence of effectiveness and the possibility of scaling up of CBD/CDD. The following set of question anchored the assessment: Does community participation improve the targeting of private benefits, like welfare or relief? Are public goods created by CBD/CDD projects better target the poor? Are they of higher quality, or better managed than similar public goods provided by the government? Does participation lead to the empowerment of marginalized groups? In particular, does it lessen exclusion, increase the capacity for collective action, or

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reduce the possibility that project benefits are 'captured' by locally powerful elites? Are the characteristics of 'external agents' (donors, governments, NGO's and project facilitators) relevant for the quality of participation induced and/or for project success/failure? And finally, can CBD/CDD projects be sustainably scaled up? The result of the assessment revealed that decentralized targeting of poverty programs may be constrained by information gaps and political economic concerns. Although little evidence existed that decentralization is better than centralization of poverty targeting. It did not suggest CDD/CBD projects were well targeted. Although most projects lack such evidence. The authors confirmed that CBD/CDD projects created effective community infrastructure and improved welfare of outcomes. Also the success of CDD may be affected by how well heterogeneity is facilitated in order to bring communities together and how effectively differences are addressed and solutions arrived at. It was agree that the World Bank's framework that large CDD initiatives are usually designed by a central authority which sets the basic parameters of the project and creates the mechanisms of funding. However, this argument raises the question as to how the so called large development projects are identified and by whom? If a project is designed by the central authority without the target community, it is not a community driven development.

Although there are many positives in the World Bank's CDD Model, its rural development approach remains sectoral or project-based. The development process begins with identification of projects but does not clearly explain how thes projects are actually identified and by whom. The World Bank's CDD model does not clearly explain what constitutes community as well as the role they play in the development process. Capacity development is a fundamental pillar in the World Bank's model for rural development but it does include institutions of higher learning such as universities as critical stakeholder.

Ahmed, Euler, Khattak, Morton and Tariq (2009) conducted a third party impact assessment that focused on 26 years of community-driven development work in Pakistan. The work based on Pakistanis Rural Support Network (RSPN) that brought together nine organizations sharing a common rural development approach. The Rural Support Programme's (RSPs) work is founded on a social mobilization work which sought to organize the poor people for development. The RSP believed that the people were willing to work to improve their community's welfare. The RSP approach combined institutional model, social mobilization and community organization. The first RSP was the Agha Khan Rural Support Programme (AKRSP) which adapted the RSP approach in various ways. RSP that were established later replicated the AKRSP model.

The model assumes that: (1) the poor especially landless and asset-less are willing to work together to improve themselves and the community, and ultimately realize their potential; (2)

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people can be organized through social mobilization, providing human resource development and forming capital through the discipline of savings as capital power; and (3) for poor people to succeed they should be willing to help themselves, be honest and competent, and support the organization. This CDD programme focuses only on microcredit activities and support services being provided by RSPs. The RSP approach was a community driven development model with designed activities to increase incomes and improve livelihoods and social welfare. The model made important contribution to poverty reduction in one of the poorest areas in Pakistani. However, the model does not clearly explain what informed implementation of microfinance activities as the most appropriate poverty targeting project. The provincial government was identified as partner with particular role to provide funding for the establishment of the RSPs and the community organizations. In the entire period (26 years) of CDD project implementation in Pakistani, there was no mention of university's involvement was mentioned despite its ability to provide capacity development which is fundamental to sustainable project implementation.

Baird, McIntosh and Ozler (2009) brought together various poverty maps and administrative records to study the targeting of a major community-driven development program of the Tanzania's $150M Social Action Fund (TASAF). The fund focus was on interventions that target services for poor communities, food insecure households and vulnerable groups such as the elderly, people with disabilities, widows, orphans and those affected with HIV/AIDs. Donors channel funds through TASAF for the implementation of projects. The fund presents a menu of projects to the local officials to choose, and then the district officials' vet the village applications before the funds are approved for disbursements. In some cases, communities actually apply for projects in order to be considered for funding. Applications go through an elaborate screening process in order to guard against elite capture. In the project selection process, TASAP calls the village to a meeting. They are organized into demographic groups to identify and prioritize projects. This helps TASAF to know whether the project applied for by the village is indeed the one desired by the village. Then the sub-project application form is filled and forwarded to TASAF Management for further review and approval.

The study established lack of consistency in terms of set global poverty targeting procedures. The fund had not carried out any household census or poverty audit before commencement of funds provision. The poor are also disproportionately engaged in the village meeting. The process was also open to abuse by elites and politically connected individuals across the districts who could submit numerous applications for funding given the manner in which sub-projects were selected and funded. The process allows the villages to first summit their application. TASAF would then bring the community together to establish

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whether the project was actually the village priority. This was done to curb the high probability of manipulation. The programme was supposed to be community-driven, however, TASAF made decisions on every action starting from the type of project to be implemented, to which village and for how much funds. Given that TASAF lacks any form of partnership, the process may pose transparency and accountability challenges.

2.6 Planning for Rural Community Development

Kennedy and Mead (1996) defined rural development planning as the process of helping people to increase control over decisions that affect their lives, developing capacity to intervene in own environment and bring justice to their lives. As opposed to conventional development planning whre communities are rarely involved in effective decision–making (Kennedy, Tilly and Arce, 2009), they are the centre piece in rural development planning. In rural development planning, people or the community are involvement in the identification and definition of their development challenge, planning, prioritization development projects and implementation of development initiatives (Swanepoel, 2005; de Campos, 2009; Zadeh and Ahmad, 2010). Such involvement promotes community empowerment and confidence to implement development initiatives.

The top-down approaches impose on the community's development processes does not promote empowerment harness local resources (Kennedy and Mead, 1996; Nemes, 2005; Kennedy, Tilly and Arce, 2009). As earlier explained, some form of participation is promoted which rarely promote genuine involvement of communities such as 'Tokenism', manipulation and therapy (Arnstein, 1996; Pretty, 1995). Others equate provision of information with empowerment (World Bank 2002; Cornwall, 2008). This type of participation, denies communities the right to define the type of development they really require and make decisions that relate to their own development agenda. If development is to fulfil the needs and aspirations of the community, it should not be imposed on the community but it should be an indigenous process (Devkota, 2000) that involves all community members at all levels, ages and gender.

The development planning that is participatory applies bottom-up approach where communities have control over decisions that affect their lives, develop their capacity to intervene in their own development process and bring justice to their lives (Kennedy and Mead, 1996; Swanepoel, 2005; Nikkhah and Redzunan, 2009). As earlier pointed out, development agents use sectoral approaches and often top-down approaches that involve a few selected individuals who are not likely to represent the development needs and

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aspirations of grassroots communities. In this study, a critique of planning dimensions of rural development programming has been done. The critique aims to establish how rural development planning processes have or have not been implemented. Various models for rural development planning summarized in table 2.4 have been critiqued.

Saqalli, Gerald, Bielders and Defourny (2011) developed an agent- or individual-based model in their research work. The model was implemented by development specialists in Nigeria to establish the cause of recurrent failure experienced in meeting set goals for development interventions on rural societies in Sahelian Africa. As a result of the research, development practitioners were urged to improve the relevance and efficiency of their interventions. An individual based model of study was mounted to analyse the impact of development interventions on the population of three Nigerian villages that were different in terms of agro-ecological, social and economic characteristics. Agent-based model was found useful for simulating multi-disciplinary and multi-purpose reality of rural areas. This was based on interactive process between field investigations, discussions with local experts, and modelling. The model involved a 2 year field investigations and participatory observation in several groups of villages and local organizations. Interviews and cross checking between sources were used as criteria for validation.

The results of the study revealed that the impact of both development interventions was conditioned by local biophysical conditions. It also revealed that only a maximum of 25% of the population engaged in the simulated development interventions. Involvement in inventory credit and inorganic fertilizer projects occurred only at sites where millet savings were possible. In some parts, it was successful only when sufficient manpower was available.

Development projects focused solely on the costs or the advantages of a development intervention. A detailed modelling of the target societies showed that the size of the target groups for intervention was fairly limited and strongly dependent on the biophysical constraints of the project site. The development model focused on land and agricultural activities of communities in the three areas. In essence, Saqalli *et al.* (2011) applied sector-based approach to rural development. This implies that only those population groups involved in agricultural activities would potentially benefit from the interventions.

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Table 2.4 Critique of planning dimensions of development programming from various parts of the world

Author (s), Country	Brief description of Problem	Methodology	Key results	Gaps
Saqalli, Gerald, Bielders and Defourny, 2011.	Low impact on development interventions on rural societies; recurrent failure to meet set goals of the development interventions; need to improve the relevance and efficiency of interventions	Agent-based model; field investigations; discussions with experts; participatory observations; validation of information through repletion along interviews and cross-checking between sources	Impact was conditioned by local physical conditions; 25% of population participated in the simulation development interventions; Involvement in inventory credit and inorganic fertilizer projects was conditional; Projects solely focused on advantages of intervention; Groups dependent on biophysical constraints of project site.	Sectoral and project-based approach to rural development; Development interventions were based on land agricultural related activities; Target groups to benefit from the interventions are those involved in agriculture
Adinarayana, Ammi, Tewari and Sudharsan, 2008.	Prescriptive rural development planning; Lack of coordination and interconnectivity of line departments at District and sub-District levels; high performance server model built to process all clients & for mutual decision-making.	A technology-based model; An open source management content (CMS) and geographic information systems (GIS) to take advantage of redundancy in database and installing costly database analysis system in the user-end machines.	Enables users to learn basic cutting edge technologies, development issues and policy; get feedback; store and share spatial and non-spatial data; serves as an effective communication system; allows to incorporate local knowledge-bases	Sector-based; It benefits rural extension community policy makers and local level e-governance; it is land and agriculture related; for those who can read write; professional driven; lack community involvement
Seitz, 2008.	Approaches for development and growth management are often one dimensional; stakeholders have differences in the control of resources for effective decision-making.	Participatory Rural Appraisal techniques applied; appointed community learning/planning teams; Facilitation; Prioritization of development needs	Need for communities decision-making processes based on understanding, linkages and trade-off existing in their community's quality of life in order to make use of their limited resources	Constitution of community and roe are not defined. No community entry process; grassroots community not involved in identification and prioritization of needs; reports are given to sponsoring agent; No feedback to community;
MacMillan and Graham, 1978.	Low incomes and lack of job opportunities.	Simulation procedures; feasibility studies;	Increased feedlot activities; incomes of production enterprises increased; employment improved.	Project based development planning Lack of rural community involvement; local, provincial and federal participation; beef producers as key benefactor.

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Adinarayana, Azmi, Tewari and Sudharsan (2008) developed a distributed collaboration model for Rural Development Planning known as *GramyaVikas* which means rural development. This was as a result of the India's chronic prescriptive planning through mandated schemes and top down approaches by extension to community from the line departments. The approach lacked coordination and interconnectivity among the line departments or the government agencies at district and sub-district levels, represented by various ministries. In this case, the rural development planning remains prescriptive and top-down. Lack of inclusive planning and increased demand for information, communication and technology applicable in the rural areas, a prototype tool (*GramyaVika)* was developed to assist rural extension communities in decision-making. *GramyaVikas* is a technology-oriented and web-based initiative for the rural land use planning designed to assist the rural extension communities (policy maker or district /sub-district level officers), for local level e-governance. The model is built on a high performance server to process all clients and for a shared or mutual decision-making environment. It is designed with an open source content management (SCM) and GIS to take advantage of redundancy in database and installing costly database analysis system in the user-end machines.

GramyaVikas is an attempt towards shifting Geographical-information and Communication Technology (Geo-ICT) from doer to user, with a motto of 'do it yourself' and improving the informatics culture in the districts. This model allows storing and sharing spatial and non-spatial data from different user agencies; served as an effective communication system for mutual decision-making; helped in reducing data redundancy; it assists in the implementation of mutual schemes; it allows incorporating local knowledge-bases from different stakeholders for effective rural development planning and gives increases flexibility/autonomy in decision-making, interconnectivity, new coordination or interaction styles between rural extension community or organizations. However, *GramyaVikas* model is an online system where only the identified users such as rural extension community, policy makers or district /sub-district level officers and local level e-governance would log on to share or retrieve data/information freely. They would also carry out simple queries on spatial/non-spatial databases for better decision-making. The model was also mainly designed for those involved in agricultural and land related issues - spatial or non-spatial.

Seitz (2008) developed a participatory planning model for sustainable community development. The author believes that the citizens are impoverished as decision makers; they want to

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participate but feel disaffected and discouraged. Current approaches for development and growth management tend to be one dimensional. They address only one step of the decision process (visioning) or provide tools for information gathering but not for decision-making. These approaches also tend to minimize the differences among community stakeholders in access to and control of resources for effective decision-making as well as the place-based and social variables that affect decision-making.

Implementers used participatory rural appraisal techniques. The community learning/planning teams (CL/PT) were formed by 8-16 members representing a broad cross-section of the community and stakeholder groups. They were formed to provide leadership and accountability for the planning process and also monitor outcomes. The facilitator/researcher served as a resource person of the team to integrate social, economic and environmental data, models and methods from the scientific community. Community learning/planning teams identifies members' priorities and those of unrepresented stakeholders. They also identify members' understanding of current and historical context, core community values and knowledge of social, economic and environmental systems, and preference for policy and monitoring approaches.

Community learning/planning teams had a coordinator and working groups. The coordinator was a community member with leadership qualities, small group management skills, and communication ability. The coordinator recruits core team members and assists in recruiting members of working groups, facilitates and leads the team activities. The team also brings in additional members of working groups. In order to make use of the community's limited resources, the model is expected to provide required decision-making processes that are based on understanding, linkages and trade-offs existing in their community's quality of life.

Seitz (2008) model is participatory and involved representatives from the community. However, it does not define the role played by the community members. It is not clear whether the entire community members were involved at any one time in the planning activities. In the model, the constitution of the community and the stakeholders is not defined. The facilitator's entry to the community which is fundamental to the success and sustainability rural development programming is also not explained.. The identification and prioritization of development needs was done by selected community representatives and facilitators from outside the community. The model does not involve the grassroots village communities during the planning process.

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Reporting is made to the sponsoring organization or agency. There was no feedback to the communities targeted by the intended development process. .

MacMillan and Graham (1978) presented a planning model based on simulation procedures. The model targeted low incomes and lack of job opportunities identified as development challenges in many rural areas of Canada. Exorbitant amounts of funds had been directed to overcoming such problems without much change. This was partly because the planning process started after many years were spent on feasibility studies before development goals were specified. The planning process used simulation procedures to test effectiveness of rural development planning. Objectives of the development were identified and the model constructed with capacity to simulate estimates of aggregate regional indicators of development. The feasibility studies were undertaken to assess proposed projects with relation to income distribution and an in-depth study of development projects. Substantial amount of funds allocated to the development projects were directed to a small number of beef producers. Results of the programmed development reveal that there were increased feedlot activities in the project area. Incomes associated with three beef production enterprises were increased and employment improved. Although the results of development programme were positive, the communities were not involved in the development planning process besides the beef producers. The funder's attention was mainly focused on funding specific rural development projects. The stakeholders who participated in the planning process were the local, provincial and federal government. This development planning model was project-based that targeted a specific production enterprises. Thus, it did not address other challenges facing the communities in the area.

Several gaps have been identified in the development planning models reviewed It was established that communities are rarely involved in identifying, defining their development challenges and prioritizing and designing their own development interventions. The term community is often used in each model but its constitution is not clearly defined as well as the roles that the community is supposed to play in the planning process. Planning is often done by a few individuals selected to represent the target communities. The community is not given any feedback regarding the planning process. In all models reviewed, children and youth are not involved in rural development activities. Added to this is lack of clear explanation on how decisions to implement certain projects are reached. All rural development planning models reviewed were sector or project-based in nature. Often reports are presented to the funding

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agents but not the communities who are custodian of their own knowledge. Lack of community participation in decision-making on issues that affect them perpetuate dependency, disempowered and unable to take charge of their development agenda.

The gaps identified in the literature review shed light on some fundamental factors that perpetuate poverty and underdevelopment. It also revealed the underlying factors that perpetuate inability to address divergent and systemic challenges that developing countries face. In order to close the identified gaps, this study produced a University and community-driven social facilitation model for rural development planning. The model enables rural communities to jointly work with a broad range of stakeholders in making decisions on how to address their local development issues. Critical stakeholders are also involved throughout the planning process to ensure that rural development plan translates into actions. Involving grassroots communities from the start to finish provide self-introspection and mind-set change leading to empowerment them. Also, involvement helped the Masia communities realise their potential to improve their livelihood as opposed to excessive dependence on external support to solve local development issues. Thus, through the community-driven planning, the formulation of municipal IDPs has been strengthened. In this way, the true meaning of public participation as enshrined in the Municipal Systems Act of 2000 has been demonstrated.

2.7 Conceptual Framework of the Study on Rural Development Planning

Figure 2.3 presents a summary of the conceptual framework that anchored this study. This study harnessed the strengths of community participation and expertise resident within the University of Venda to develop a candidate model for facilitating rural development planning. The Centre for Rural Development and Poverty Alleviation (CRDPA), now the Institute for Rural Development (IRD) spearheaded the process, working closely with the Masia Development Trust (MDT). All the 13 villages in Masia community were engaged through facilitated reflection circles of interest groups at village level. Community-selected Village Development Champions served as local paraprofessional researchers who engaged their respective communities.

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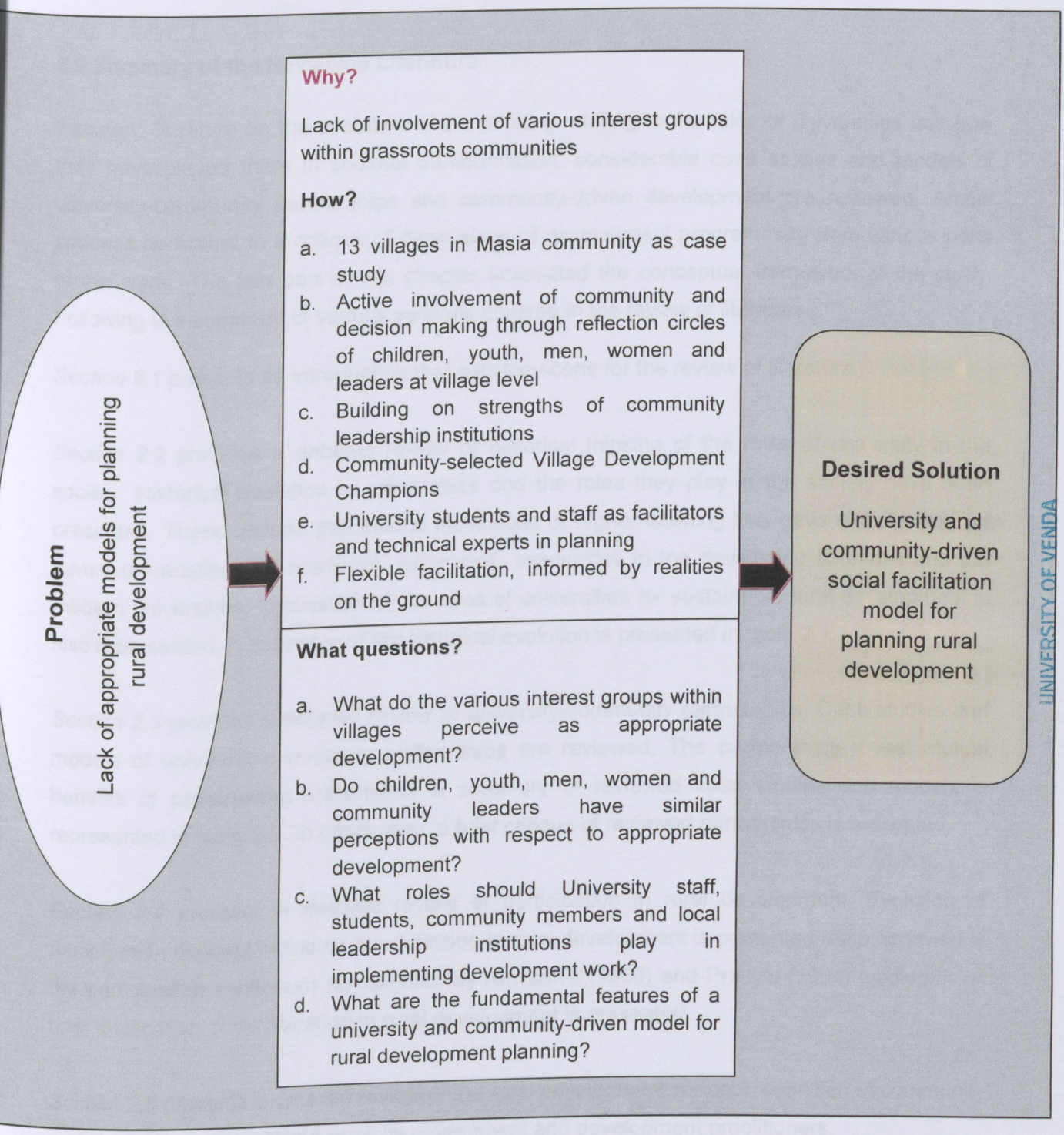


Figure 2.2 Conceptual framework of the study

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2.8 Summary of the Reviewed Literature

Pertinent literature on the evolution of the thinking relating to the roles of universities and how they have played them in societal transformation; considerable case studies and models of university-community partnerships and community-driven development are reviewed. Ample space is dedicated to a critique of dimensions of development programming from various parts of the world. The last part of this chapter articulated the conceptual framework of the study. Following is a summary of various sections covered in the review of literature.

Section 2.1 presents an introduction that sets the scene for the review of literature.

Section 2.2 provides a detailed review of historical thinking of the roles of university in the society. Historical evolution of universities and the roles they play in the society have been presented. These include pre-historic institutions of higher learning that gave birth to the first formal universities, the medieval universities, universities in the developing countries and the modern universities. Implication of the roles of universities for sustainable rural development is also represented. A summary of the historical evolution is presented in table 2.1.

Section 2.3 provides a detailed review of university-community partnerships. Case studies and models of university-community partnerships are reviewed. The partnerships reveal mutual benefits of participating institutions. A summary of reviewed case studies and models is represented in table 2.2. In conclusion, a brief critique of reviewed partnerships is presented.

Section 2.4 presents a detailed review of participation in rural development. Evolution of participation concept including the definition in rural development is presented. Also reviewed is the participation continuum represented by Arnstein's (1969) and Pretty's (1994) typologies. A brief implication of participation in rural development is presented.

Section 2.5 presents a detailed review of the rural development concept, definition of community and the various approaches used by government and development practitioners.

Section 2.6 presents a detailed review of community-driven development (CDD), its origin and how the World Bank has promoted it as the most ideal for rural development process. Various case studies and models of community-Driven development are reviewed.

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Section 2.7 presents a detailed critique of planning dimensions of rural development programming from various parts of the world. This was done to establish how rural development planning processes have or have not been implemented globally. A summary of the critique is presented in Table 2.4.

Section 2.8 presents the conceptual framework of the study.

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CHAPTER 3 A ROADMAP FOR NURTURING COMMUNITY-DRIVEN PLANNING FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

3.1 Introduction

Rural development thinking can be traced back in the late 1950s with the promotion of community development (Ellis and Biggs, 2001; FAO and UNESCO-IIEP, 2003). However, since late 1970s, the need for marginalized communities to drive their own development has continued to be a major issue. This is evidenced by the rallying call by various authors including Freire (1970), Chambers (1983, 1994 and 1995), Swanepoel (2005), Swanepoel and DeBeer (2006) and Zadeh and Ahmad (2010) to make the nature of rural development participatory and holistic. Despite the author's clarion call for participatory and holistic development, development practice has over the years used sectoral and or project-based approaches for implementing rural development (WCED, 1987; Piel, 1992; Swanepoel, 2005). Such approaches have not adequately addressed the diverse and systemic challenges that face rural communities particularly in sub-Saharan Africa (Chapter 1). Added to this is the fact that decisions relating to development are often taken from outside the target communities as revealed in the literature (Manzuri and Rao, 2003; Swanepoel and DeBeer, 2006, Nikkhah and Redzunan, 2009). As a result, communities remain disempowered to drive their own development initiatives. Thus, poverty and underdevelopment is perpetuated. .

Although much has been said on participatory rural development, its theories, themes and policy thrusts have remained heavily influenced by the agricultural sector. In particular, it focuses on growth, based on small farms particularly in low-income countries (Ashley and Maxwel, 2001; Ellis and Biggs, 2001). Governments and donor agencies have supported small farms through research and subsidies because they are often considered as the engine of growth and development (Ellis and Biggs, 2001). Such an assumption limits external support for non-farm activities as well as other factors that are critical for sustainable rural livelihoods (Devkota, 2000; Ellis and Biggs, 2001; Kelly, Rau and Stern, 2010). Despite governments and donor agency's support to agriculture related activities, poverty and underdevelopment continue unabated, especially in the rural areas. Thus, there is dire need for rural development models that are participatory and holistic, which take into account all factors that perpetuate poverty and underdevelopment especially in the rural areas.

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The call for increased participation has been promoted as a rural development process that promise inclusion of all stakeholders and has potential to empower rural communities to take charge of their own development (Ellis and Biggs, 2001; FAO and UNESCO-IIEP, 2003; de Campos, 2009; Kelly et.al. 2010; Zadeh and Ahmad, 2010). The participation subject generated considerable interest among rural development practitioners (WCARRD, 1979; Chambers 1983; de Campos, 2009). As a result, there was a resurgence of various terminologies being used to acknowledge the need for active participation of communities in the development processes (Warren, 1963; WCARRD, 1979; Orkley, 1990; Swanepoel, 2005). Such actions were an admission that community involvement in decisions-making in own development programming was critical if development goals were to be realized as espoused by Freire (1970), Chambers (1995), Devkota (2000), and Leksakundilok (2006). Although many development practitioners claimed to apply participation principles, they rarely involved all community members in decision-making process. Also, the control of decisions and information gathered remained with the development practitioners as highlighted by Arnstein (1994), Pretty (1995), and Leksakundilok (2006).

The significance of universities in the fight against poverty and underdevelopment is another major concern (Boyer, 1996, Soska and Butterfield, 2004). This is because they rarely play noticeable roles in finding practical solutions to the challenges of the changing social and economic situations especially in the rural communities around them (as discussed in Chapter 1 and Chapter 2). As engines of knowledge creation, universities are well placed to nurture rural community self-drive that can potentially improve community's livelihoods and result to development. Kuhnen (1978) asserts that the "ultimate yardstick for measuring the success of a university is the improvement in the life of the people it serves". Kuhnen further states that "the needs of the society have to be at the centre of university's activities". However, this remains a major challenge for many universities due to their philosophical underpinnings and practices (Martin et al., 2005) that differ with those of communities. In this respect, Daly (2003) and Newland (2002) recommends for universities and communities to enter into mutually beneficial partnerships that would harness their strengths in order to innovatively address complex social and economic issues.

As a key role of universities, knowledge generation and application have potential to engender social and economic transformation among communities. However, Bridger and Alter (2006) claim that most of the research conducted by academics does not often respond to the needs and aspirations of communities around them. Thus, it is not clear to whom such knowledge is

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generated and for what purpose. In this regards, Etzkowitz *et al.*, (2000) advocate that results of research conducted should be translated into actions that help communities to address social and economic issues. This rarely happens, and as such perpetuates the perception that universities are ivory tower islands (Bok, 1982; Boyer, 1996; Soska and Butterfield, 2004; Francis *et al.,* 2010). Based on this reality, the need for universities to partner with communities in order to contribute more towards combating poverty and underdevelopment cannot be overemphasised. Substantial number of universities paid attention to Kuhnen (1978) and Martin *et al.* (2005) challenge to transform. This led to a resurgence of innovative university-community partnerships (Martin *et al.*, 2005; Brown *et al.*, 2006) in the last almost two decades.

The formation of university-community partnerships was upheld to respond to the existing and complex societal challenges that required critical thinking and innovative methods to address them (Martin *et.al*, 2005; Brown *et al.,* 2006; Hunter *et al.*, 2011). However, the university-community partnerships reviewed in Chapter 2 showed that sectoral and or project-based approaches which are rarely participatory or holistic were applied. As detailed in Chapter 1and 2, these approaches do not address the complex challenges faced by rural communities. The community and the role they was not defined. Also, all stakeholders in the community were not involved in decision-making in the development programming, especially the young people, the children, the very poor and vulnerable in the society. Often, these programmes or project(s) were conceptualized without the target communities. Based on this reality, the community voice was excluded from the development process which is likely to undermine its potential for sustainability. In this chapter, a step by step approach is presented on how the University of Venda nurtured a community-driven planning for rural development.

3.2 Step-by-Step Social Preparation for Planning to Plan for Rural Development

Rural development has been the focus of many nations of the world and South Africa in particular. This has been partly due to the fact that majority of the population live in the rural areas where poverty is more concentrated (Chapter 1). Although rural sector is pivotal to economic growth, social and political development, it continues to be inundated by poverty, low incomes, low productivity, low education and skills, lack of basic infrastructure, lack of economic opportunities and market imperfections among others (Arshard and Shamsudin, 1997; Word Bank, 2004; Seekings, 2007; Van Donk, 2007; Shucksmith, 2010; IFAD, 2011). If rural development is to be sustainable, its planning and implementation of intervention must be holistic and participatory throughout the entire development process as espoused by Devkota

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(2000) and Leksakundilok (2006). For this to happen, development facilitator(s) must ensure that strategic offices and all relevant structures are contacted before any activity is undertaken in the community.

This rather delicate process should be cautiously undertaken to ensure relevant offices such as government, traditional council and other local structure (Swanepoel and DeBeer, 2006, Francis et al, 2010) are contacted and brought on board before the intended activities are undertaken. This initial process is often referred as social preparation or community entry (Tareen and Omar, 1997; Swanepoel and DeBeer, 2006). This critical piece of rural development puzzle requires careful negotiations that lead to successful working relationship with the communities. Although participatory development has been highly emphasized, preparatory phase or community entry has not attracted much attention from development practitioners, researchers and funding institutions (Tareen and Omar, 1997). Yet, how one enters the community determines the future of implementation and sustainability of the intended programme, particularly when the development facilitator is from outside the community. Community entry is defined as a gradual and time-consuming (and I add, very costly) exercise that forms the largest part of participatory community development process (Tareen and Omar, 1997). Thus, how community entry is negotiated determines the success or failure of the process.

Community entry introduces and prepares communities for development programming intended to take place in true partnership with communities. Contacts are made with wider communities through engagements with relevant leadership structures, local community members and other community organizations or institutions that relate with activities to be undertaken in the area. The main aim is to build relationships and trusts with communities targeted for development programming. During this time, the facilitators' presence in the community is clearly articulated. The roles and responsibilities of all involved stakeholders are also clarified. Important to keep in mind is that respect has to be displayed towards the community members and their time. This phase prepares all relevant stakeholders to actively participate in the development process. In the Masia community development work, pre-community entry activities involved institutional leaders of UNIVEN and MDT. Figure 3.1 presents a summary of eight steps that formed the social preparation or the community entry phase. The pre- and community entry engagements summarised in figure 3.1 aimed to bring all village communities and their institutions on board to plan for their own development.

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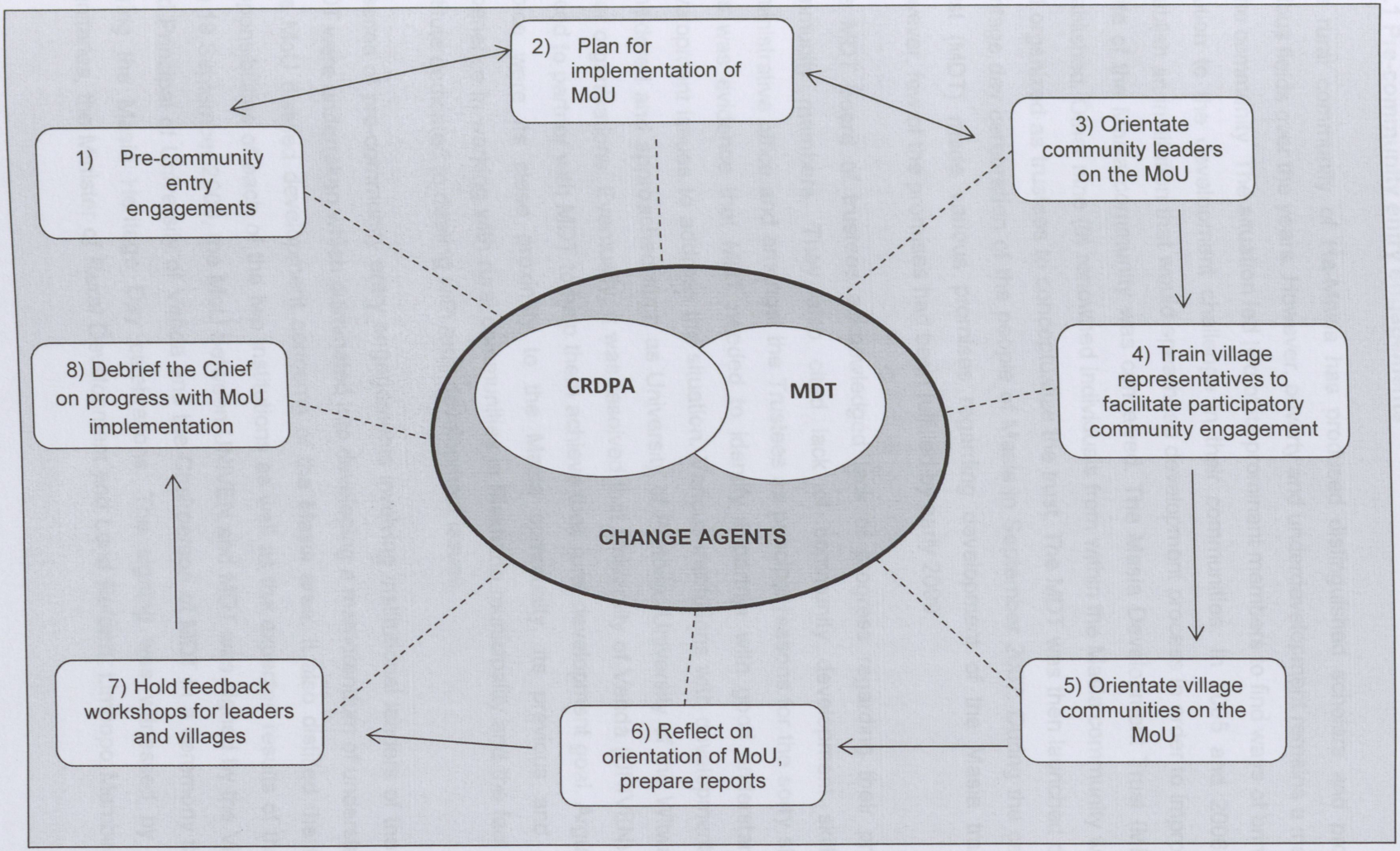


Figure 3.1 Step by step social preparations for planning to plan for rural development

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3.2.1 Pre-community entry engagements

The rural community of Ha-Masia has produced distinguished scholars and professionals in various fields over the years. However, poverty and underdevelopment remains a major challenge in the community. The situation led two of its prominent members to find ways of bringing a lasting solution to the development challenge in their communities. In 2005 and 2006, the idea to establish an institution that would spearhead development process in order to improve the quality of life of the Masia community was conceived. The Masia Development Trust (MDT) was then established. Other nine (9) renowned individuals from within the Masia community were mobilized and organized as trustees to conceptualize the trust. The MDT was then launched during the first Heritage day cerebration of the people of Masia in September 2007. During the celebration, the Trust (MDT) made various promises regarding development of the Masia traditional area. However, few of the promises had been fulfilled by early 2009.

The MDT board of trustees acknowledged lack of progress regarding their promise to the community members. They also cited lack of community development skills within the administrative office and amongst the Trustees as principal reasons for the sorry state of affairs. This was evidence that MDT needed to identify a partner with good understanding of rural development issues to address the situation. Various institutions with developmental focus were considered and approached such as University of Pretoria, University of the Witwatersrand and other organisations. Eventually, it was resolved that University of Venda (UNIVEN) was the best placed to partner with MDT to help them achieve their rural development goal. Arguments for this choice were its close proximity to the Masia community, its previous and demonstrable experience in working with rural communities in Makhado municipality and the fact that it has an institute dedicated to dealing with rural development issues.

A series of pre-community entry engagements involving institutional leaders of the UNIVEN and MDT were undertaken which culminated into developing a memorandum of understanding (MoU). The MoU distilled development concerns of the Masia area. It also distilled the key roles and responsibilities of each of the two institutions as well as the expected results of the partnership. On 19 September 2009, the MoU between UNIVEN and MDT was signed by the Vice Chancellor and Principal of University of Venda and the Chairperson of MDT in a ceremony that took place during the Masia Heritage Day celebrations. The signing was witnessed by among other dignitaries, the Minister of Rural Development and Land Reform, Limpopo Member of Executive

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Committee (MEC) for Public Works, Mayor of Makhado Local Municipality, leaders of various community leadership structures, the Masia communities and the surrounding communities.

In the presence of all those present in the signing ceremony, the Vice Chancellor of UNIVEN mandated the then Centre for Rural Development and Poverty Alleviation (CRDPA) to spearhead implementation of the MoU and the partnership on behalf of UNIVEN. The main goal of this partnership was to jointly facilitate processes that seek to improve the quality of life of the Masia population. Through this partnership UNIVEN would mobilize and organize its wealth of knowledge and expertise for use when planning for and implementing rural community-owned and driven development initiatives.

3.2.2 Planning for the implementation of the UNIVEN-MDT partnership

Institutions often sign MoUs but few of them tend to be implemented. However, the signed MoU between UNIVEN-MDT presented a grand opportunity for CRDPA to demonstrate a university-community partnership that works and has potential to empower communities to drive their own development. This way, the MoU was not going to gather dust in the shelves. To ensure this happens, a conscious decision was made to orientate all community members and leaders on the contents of the MoU, create awareness among the Masia community on the intended development planning process and secure their commitment to participate. This decision was reached after realizing that all community members and leaders in Masia areas were not privy to the signed MoU. Added to this was the need to ensure that all stakeholders understood the MoU and are fully involved in making decisions and planning their own development. The presence of all stakeholders in the signing of the MoU formed the basis for initiating community entry processes. The CRDPA's role was to facilitate development work in the Masia development area. The MDT also appointed an implementation committee, the Masia Development Initiative Committee (MDIC) was appointed to oversee the implementation process.

The CRDPA and MDIC teams held the first partners planning engagement on 16 October 2009.The purpose of the engagement was to familiarize and jointly agree on how to roll out implementation of the partnership. The MDIC Chairperson outlined the key issues that MDT wanted UNIVEN to address in broad terms. These included capacity development of the leadership (in all spheres of traditional leadership; School Governing Bodies (SGBs); School Principals). Also highlighted was the need for the School principals to be trained on how to manage schools, finances and labour relations. It was also pointed out that the administrative personnel in various community institutions needed training in client/customer relations and

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resource mobilization. Other requests included research on Mining opportunities; Agricultural development (value addition of agricultural products; food security, appropriate storage facilities, soil water management); Cooperative-anchored development (priority areas of livestock; vegetable farming; orchards); Environmental management; and Urban and regional planning (business and residential area demarcation).

Although MDT appeared to be a well-organized institution and clear on what it wanted to see happening, the grassroots communities' voice was lacking from its rural development proposal to UNIVEN. In order to address the situation, the grassroots communities' had to be engaged to ensure their voice is heard and included in the Masia community development plan. This begged for MDTs' paradigm shift on how a community-owned and sustained development process is facilitated. Thus, knowledge and experience on how to engage communities and their leaders was fundamental for joint facilitation of development planning in Masia. Initially there was a wide difference in opinion between CRDPA and MDIC on how to kick-start implementation of the MoU. But, CRDPA as the key development facilitator identified the problem and facilitated an intense and open discussion between the parties, and reached an agreement. The Programme implementation and Coordination Team (PMCT) constituted by the CRDPA and MDIC teams resolved that orientation workshops to educate all critical stakeholders on the key imperatives of the MoU and create awareness on intended development activities would be held. The engagement culminated into a mutually developed and adopted initial plan of action with clear activities and deliverable.

3.2.3 Orientation workshops for all stakeholders in Masia areas

The UNIVEN-MDT MoU was developed by MDT traditional leadership without the knowledge of other leaders and the community as a whole. Most of the community leaders and members learned about the MoU at the signing ceremony but were not aware of its content and intent. This led to a decision by the implementation team to convene a series of orientation workshops. The orientation workshops were fivefold: to educate the Masia leadership and the communities on the MoU content and intent; to create awareness on the intended development activities; provide a platform for the grassroots communities to include their voice in the MoU; and to secure their commitment and participation in its implementation. The fivefold purpose of the orientation workshops aimed to promote a people-centered development in Masia as envisioned by Nelson Mandela in his first and second State of the Nation post-apartheid era (Mandela, 1994; 1995). The CRDPA also promotes a people-centred rural development programme through a philosophy coined "Amplifying Community Voices". In this philosophy, all-inclusive members of the

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community's' voice is amplifies. This was done by providing ample space for communities to identify and define their development challenge and plan the type of development they want to see taking place in their own community. In that way, all members of the community at village level were to be involved in the development process from the onset. It was fundamental for the community members and their leaders to understand their roles and responsibilities in the development process and committed to participate in formulating their own development agenda. The decision to involve them was also to empower them by allowing them to make decisions, contribute to the implementation of the MoU, and take charge in their own development process as espoused by Dongier *et al* (2003), Arcand and Bassole (2006) and Baird et.al (2009).

The MoU content was summarized into seven key features for easier used during the orientation (Appendix 3.1). They included a clear and concise introduction of the MoU; specific objectives; nature of the relationship; responsibilities of each partner; activities covered by the agreement; the results expected from the partnership; and how long the MoU would remain active. The summarized version of the MoU was translated into Tshivenda, the language predominantly spoken in Masia. This was done to enable communities to comprehend the MoU, analyse it, contribute to it and commit to the implementation process. All who participated in the orientation workshops were given a copy of the summarised MoU. An attendance register (Appendix 3.2) for all participants was maintained for each engagement. The purpose of the register was to enable the researcher to know the participants in each engagement. An in depth explanation of the MoU features was provided to all participants to ensure that they all understood what constituted the MoU. The roles of each stakeholder as defined by the MoU were explained. The orientation workshops in all the 13 villages of the Masia area were uniformly carried out.

The first orientation workshop focused on the local leaders who served in the traditional and royal councils of the Masia community. A brief introduction and the purpose of the workshop were presented. The aim of holding this workshop first was to acquaint the Masia leaders with the MoU content in order to enable them respond to communities appropriately. It also served enable them mobilise communities from their jurisdictions to participate in the orientation workshops. The workshop provided opportunity for the leaders to comment on the MoU and have their voice included. It was also made to clarify that the development was for the entire community and not for a few people. This was necessary because it enabled the leaders to mobilise all their community member to participate and have their voices included in the Masia development agenda. The CRDPA facilitated the process and provided professional guidance to the development process. The role of a facilitator is to provide support, encourage and raise the right

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questions that help the people of Masia generate the necessary knowledge (Phumal, 2006). Phumal (2006) holds the view that facilitation makes the process simple and encourages marginalized people to speak out about their development issues, analyse the situation, think and plan for the social change (Phumal, 2006). The CRDPA as the development facilitators promoted an all-inclusive community involvement, ordinary community members and leaders alike, to analyse their situation, deliberate freely and contribute without fear through reflection circles organized per interest groups.

During the orientation workshop, the key features of the MoU were explained to participants. Ample time was accorded for clarity seeking questions. Organizing community into four reflection circle groups followed. Reflection circles involved people sitting in a circular set up to deliberate on issues concerning their own development. Reed and Kobila (2003) view reflection circles as a way of providing space for each participant to have the right and opportunity to speak. In this study, reflection circles were organised per specific interest groups.The four reflection circles formed in this workshop constituted two groups of the royal council members together with the members of MDIC. The other two groups were constituted by members of the traditional council.

The second orientation workshop was convened to orientate other local community leaders. They included Civic Associations, Ward Committee members, Community Policing Forum members and Community-Based structures among others. Some of the loyal and traditional leaders also participated in this workshop. Participants were also organized into four groups. Two groups constituted the Civic Association members, Community Policing Forum (CPF) constituted one group and Ward Committees members constituted one group.

In each engagement, brief introduction, the purpose, and a detailed explanation of the key features of the MoU was given to the participants. A set of questions developed earlier was given to each group to guide the facilitation of participatory engagement. The facilitation questions were:

1. Does the UNIVEN-MDT MoU meet your expectations?
2. What else would you want implemented in addition to what the MoU is covering?
3. What roles do you think you should play to make sure that the MoU is successfully implemented?
4. What do you think will be the major challenges to implementing the MoU?
5. How do you think each of the challenges should be addressed?

A flip chart and a marker pen were handed to each group to record group responses on each of the five questions. Ample time was allocated to enable groups understand the questions and

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effectively respond to them. Facilitators ensured that domineering individuals, the shy ones and those who tend to keep quiet during discussions were appropriately managed. The groups analysed and discussed the questions developed to guide participatory engagement as earlier explained. By doing this, the true voice of each community leader was heard and included in the Masia development plan.

In a plenary session, each group presented mutually discuses and agreed responses. An open session was allocated for discussions after all groups completed their presentations. As part of the way forward, the community leadership institutions represented in the two separate engagements indicated their willingness and commitment to fully support and participate in the implementation of the MoU. The leaders greatly appreciated the Chief's initiative to bring UNIVEN on board to spearhead development process in Masia. Also, the leaders expressed concern over their three elected Ward Councillors (Ward 3, 7 and 8) that cover the Masia areas. The leadership argued that the councillors rarely participated in their community development meetings. However, Masia leadership structures resolved that they would not to be deterred by non-participation of the Ward Councillors in developing their community. They also promised to mobilize and organize their respective communities to participate in the orientation workshops.

3.2.4 Training of Village representatives to facilitate participatory community engagement

The following orientation workshops were to involve all thirteen (13) villages constituting the Masia traditional council area. All village level orientation workshops were planned to take place the same day. This required that the number of facilitators be increased in order to achieve maximum results. Representatives were then identified and invited from each village to participate in a training workshop to equip them with community engagement facilitation skills and tools. Also students especially those from the Masia area UNIVEN were trained together the village community representatives. The students were particularly encouraged to participate in order to assist their own villages with implementation of the MoU. Students from Masia area but studying in other universities were encouraged to participate in the training workshop and in the village engagements. The village community representatives together with UNIVEN staff and students were taken through an extensive training session. They were first reoriented on the key imperatives of the MoU to ensure that they all understood and were able to explain it appropriately to the community members at village level. The training equipped participants with knowledge on various participatory techniques including rural community mobilization, how to facilitate participatory engagements, and how to use participatory engagement techniques and tools. The

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participants were all trained on facilitation skills training, participatory village engagement and how to facilitate village engagement using PRA tools and techniques.

In order to ensure that the training objectives had been achieved, participants were taken through a mock session. They were given opportunity to facilitate an engagement using participatory engagement techniques and tools they had been trained on. The purpose of the mock exercise was to ascertain that participants understood the key features of the MoU and were able to correctly explain it to the village community members and also appropriately facilitate the engagements. Two (2) UNIVEN students were assigned to co-facilitate the engagements at village community level with the village representatives. Participants were given a set of questions prepared to taste whether participants understood the MoU content, whether they were able to facilitate the engagements and also assist them in planning for the village community engagement. The set of questions were:

1) Would you confidently say you understood the MOU and are able to take the process to your village community members?
2) What is your plan of action?
3) What challenges do you anticipate as you engage village communities?
4) What are the possible solutions to address these challenges?

Each group was given a flip chart and marker pen to capture responses of each question. In a plenary session, each group presented their findings. After each presentation, ample time was allowed for open discussion. After the mock exercise, participants were organized into groups per village they represented. They were given sufficient time to reflect on the training and prepare action plans for activities to be undertaken before and on the day of the village engagement. Groups deliberated and agreed on the activities to be undertaken before and during the village engagement. The final plan of action to be used during the village level engagements was consolidated and adopted by all village representatives. Some of the critical activities to be undertaken by the village representatives before the village engagement were mobilization and organization of communities to attend and actively participate in their village engagement.

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Community representatives in a reflection circle discussing before prioritizing issues



Community representatives in a reflection circle prioritizing issues using stones

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3.2.5 Orientation of village or grassroots communities on the MoU

The Village community workshops were convened to orientate the Masia communities at grassroots level. The workshops aimed to orientate all the Masia communities at village level on the key imperatives of the MoU between UNIVEN_MDT, secure buy-in and commitment of the Masia people to participate in its implementation. The trained village representatives together with two UNIVEN students per each village community were deployed to co-facilitate the orientation workshop in each of the 13 villages of Masia.

The orientation workshops started with brief introduction and description of intended development work in Masia area.. Key features of the MoU was then presented, explained and thoroughly discussed as earlier explained. Participants were given sufficient time to ask clarity seeking questions and responses were provided accordingly. Participants (village community members) were the organized into reflection circles per interest groups. The thirteen (13) sets of interest groups which constitutes the community in this study were: 7 – 10 year old boys; 7 – 10 year old girls; 11 – 14 year old boys; 11 – 14 year old girls; Boys in secondary or high school; Girls in secondary or high school; Male youth no longer attending school; Female youth no longer attending school; Women (middle aged and elderly, separately); Men (middle aged and elderly, separately); and Village community leaders. The National Youth Commission Act 1996 and the National Youth Policy, 2000 define youth as young people falling within the age group of 14-35 years. In this study, youth in school and out of school refers to young people falling within the age group 15-35 years. A copy of the key features of the MoU and a set of questions were handed to each interest group as explained earlier. The two engagement tools (key features of the MoU and the questions) had been translated into the local language to ensure that all participants understood and carefully deliberated.

Instructions on the activities to be undertaken in the reflection circles were explicitly explained. Clarity seeking questions and responses provided accordingly. Each group was given a flip chart and marker pens to capture jointly discussed and agreed perceptions. . Ample time was allocated for groups to deeply interrogate each question in a relaxed atmosphere. Each interest group presented outcomes of their deliberations in the plenary. Ample time was accorded for participant to present their groups outcomes. Participants in plenary session deliberated on each groups presentation, made additions and strengthen what they felt needed strengthening.

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In the orientation workshops, the Masia village communities and their leaders were educated on the key features of the MoU content. They were also made aware of development work expected to take place in the Masia area. All the Masia communities were accorded opportunity to discuss the MoU and make inputs. By so doing, the voice of the grassroots communities was heard, included in the MoU and ultimately in the development agenda of the Masia community. The Masia village communities explicitly made commitment to actively participate in the MoU implementation. The level of participation in the village engagement implied that the leaders understood the MoU content and mobilized their community members to participate. The enthusiasm displayed in the orientation workshops also showed that as knowledge was imparted on them which enabled them to commit in playing a more active role in the development process made to ultimately improve their livelihoods. The Village community engagements were deliberately carried out concurrently to ensure that each individual community's views were presented independently.

3.2.6 Preparation of orientation workshop reports

The project implementation team convened a workshop to consolidate the outcomes of all orientation workshops held and write a village-based report. The village representatives, students who co-facilitated the engagements and the project implementation team participated in this engagement. The workshop accorded the programme management and coordination team (PMCT) opportunity to get first hand experiences from the village representatives and the students who co-facilitated the grassroots community engagements. Village-based reflection circle groups were formed which constituted the village representatives and UNIVEN students who co-facilitated the village orientation workshops. The purpose of forming village-based teams was to create room for them to reflect on their own experiences and write a village-based report of what actually happed during in their engagement.

The Masia village communities raised pertinent issues that reflected their perceived development needs. Although not all villages were represented, those who were present actively participated in the construction of their village-based community reports. Reports for all the 13 villages of Masia were written with inputs from those who participated. All development issues/needs identified during the orientation workshops were all consolidated into a village report. The village reports from the 13 villages of Masia together with the Masia local leadership orientation reports were all consolidated into a Masia community report. The consolidated Masia community report provided details of what the Masia people perceived as their development needs. The report reflected the

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development dream of the Masia community. The report spelt out the type of development the Masia People wanted to see happen in their community. The Masia communities and their leaders identified potential challenges and fears which may adversely affect implementation of their development dream. They also pledged what they would do to achieve their set goals. The Masia community report of their perceived development need, potential challenges and fears, and perceived solution to the challenges and fears were a pointer to the direction the Masia area development work was likely to take.

The facilitation team analysed each development issue presented as statements in the Masia community report. All related statements were grouped together to form a strategic goal. Eight (8) strategic goals were constructed from the Masia community report. Each strategic goal constituted relevant statements that were stated as development issues/felt need by the Masia community members. The eight goals constructed were as follows:

1) To improve social cohesion to promote collective action against poverty and underdevelopment;
2) To improve utilisation of economic opportunities to enhance people's centred development;
3) To facilitate the construction or establishment of relevant infrastructure;
4) To improve the provision of basic services to Ha-Masia community;
5) To strengthen leadership and governance to achieve people-centred development;
6) To mobilize resources for local development;
7) To improve health and wellness of the Ha-Masia community; and
8) To improve human capacity through better education and more effective skills development.

3.2.7 Feedback and reflection session on orientation workshops

Facilitation team made it a mandatory that after every milestone achieved, feedback and reflection sessions would be held to report back and reflect on successes and address the challenges faced. Feedback sessions were also used as a platform for stakeholders to once again hear their own contributions presented in form of a report. Effective feedback is seen as information that is heard by the receiver without getting defensive (Porter, 1982). Feedback keeps relationship intact, open and healthy regardless of conflict and pain, and it validates future feedback interaction process (Porter, 1982). Poertner and Miller (1997) views the power of feedback as focusing on

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actions and not attitude, it is directed towards the future, it is goal oriented, multidirectional, supportive and continual. Branch and Paranjape (2002) categorizes feedback into brief, formal and major feedback. Brief feedback is provided liberally. , In formal feedback, a period of time is set aside for it after an engagement. In the major feedback, sessions are scheduled and receivers of the message are informed to prepare for the feedback. In this study, the brief and formal feedback sessions were implemented. They were considered as critical component of the development process where outcomes or reports of the previous engagements were presented and challenges addressed. The formal feedback sessions were undertaken after every major milestone was realised.

The first feedback and reflection workshop was convened to table the consolidated Masia community report to the local leadership institutions. However, the leader's turnout was not encouraging. Decision was reached that feedback would be given to leaders together with the communities at village level. Unfortunately, the same problem of low turnout, particularly the leaders was encountered at village level. Although it was most disappointing for leaders not to attend such engagement, the situation did not deter the feedback workshop from taking place. The report was presented to all who turned up for the session at the village level. Community members were given opportunity to discuss their inputs and make appropriate amendments (if any). After this, they confirmed the contents of the report as a true picture of what they had said during the orientation workshops.

In attempt to establish the cause of low attendance, a few issues were identifies. Some of the main reasons highlighted were that people were already in festive mood, communities were not properly mobilized and the leaders generally lacked commitment. The level of participation in the feedback session was an indication that community leaders had not honoured their commitment to mobilize and organize communities for the feedback sessions as they had previously committed to do. However, this did not come as total surprise to the facilitation team because most of the interest groups, particularly children, had identified lack of commitment from leaders as a hindrance to taking forward the development process. Another major challenge was constant changes in the engagements attendance by leaders and their communities. In each engagement, over half of the attendees were first time comers. This always forced the facilitators to not only reflect on previous engagements but to explain the development process from the beginning. This tendency caused delays in the development process, making it take longer that initially expected. The situation also begged the question "why people do not return to the engagement?" Although this was not considered entirely bad because it meant that more people were getting acquainted

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with the process (Warren, 1963), there was need to address the mobilization and low participation challenge by leaders.

Reflections sessions in this study played an integral role throughout the development planning process. In the views of Branch and paranjape (2003) reflection integrates a concept or combination of skills, knowledge, attitudes and values with the participant's cognitive framework. It also allows assimilation and re-ordering or reworking of concepts and values into pre-existing knowledge structure (Branch and paranjape, 2003). In order to enable participants and facilitators review previous engagements, three uniform questions were answered by participants throughout the reflection session in this study. These were: *what actually happened, what could have been done better and what challenges were encountered?* Reflection sessions helped to bring out potential bottlenecks faced and find remedial measures for planed engagements. It also helped in providing direction for subsequent engagements. Reflection sessions were also critical for benchmarking results from the communities against what had been planned.

3.2.8 Debriefing session on MoU implementation progress

A high profile meeting was held to give feedback and present the progress report on the the MoU implementation process to the Chief of the Masia community and some of the MDT members. Reflection on the milestones achieved was also undertaken during the meeting. The progress report highlighted the key milestones achieved and the challenges encountered during the engagements. The main challenges were highlighted which include inherent tensions among the local leaders, (especially civic and traditional) and between the leaders and ordinary community members. Poor participation of the community leaders was particularly highlighted as critical to the Masia development process. The facilitation team emphasized the need to address highlighted challenges because they had potential to derail the development process.

In response to the presented progress report, the Chief acknowledged with gratitude the milestones achieved and the commitment of CRDPA on behalf of UNIVEN to the Masia development process. The Chief confessed that he was dismayed when he saw that UNIVEN had initiated the development activities in Masia. He acknowledged that as a community, they were not used to the kind of development processes led by institutions, especially a university. He admitted that to them, it was a culture shock, to see UNVEN engage in activities that emphasized involvement of communities identifying and defining their own development agenda. This observation had been highlighted by other members of the community in one of the reflection

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sessions earlier. The Chief promised not to take any headmen seriously who failed to make development activities a priority.

The Chief and his team observed that there was need to introduce leadership programmes to nurture good leadership and address inherent tensions. The need to develop appropriate strategies for mobilizing and organizing the communities to participate in the development process was identified. Development of a communication strategy was singled out as one of the key strategies with potential to address participation challenge. The need to change development engagement time from afternoon hours to morning hours was raised and discussed. Morning hours were preferred because afternoon hours conflicted with individuals social activities particularly on weekends.

In conclusion, the social preparation process formed critical part of the rural development process in the Masia area. The community entry engagements build a solid foundation for the rural development process. The social preparation process (Figure 3.1) was carefully planned and implemented. Through orientation workshops, the local leadership institutions and the 13 villages of the Masia communities were made fully aware of what the UNIVEN-MDT partnership entailed. They also contributed to the MoU content during the orientation workshops. By so doing, their voices were heard and included in the MoU. The community buy-in and commitment to participate in the development process was secured. Building capacities of the communities in Masia proved critical for securing their buy-in and commitment to participate. This helped not only the leaders but the communities to mobilize and organize themselves to collectively participate in defining their development.

3.3 Step-by- Step Approach for Planning Rural Community Development

The community entry process prepared the Masia leadership and all communities at grassroots level to play active roles in planning for their development. Active participation of communities in identifying, defining development issues and planning for development plays a critical role in achieving sustainable rural development as espoused by Devkota (2000), Swanepoel and DeBeer (2006), and Shucksmith (2010). Rural development planning approaches in Third World countries, especially in Africa, have not adequately addressed the development challenges they face. This indicates that there is dearth of relevant and holistic rural development approaches.

Although principle number 5 of the United Nations (UN) Sustainable Development Agenda 21 advocates for people's working together to eradicate poverty (United Nations: UN, 1992; 2002),

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this has rarely been the case as development agents continue to use sectoral and or project-based approaches implement rural development interventions as revealed in Chapter 1 and 2. Development agents rarely promote genuine community participation aimed at empowering communities as well as helping them harness locally available resources (Kennedy and Mead, 1996; Arshad, and Shamsudin, 1997; Nemes, 2005; Kennedy, Tilly and Arce, 2009; Shucksmith, 2010). They also rarely take into account the social, cultural, economic, psychological and political factors which are critical to rural communities (WCED, 1987; Devkota, 2000; Swanepoel and DeBeer, 2006; Shortall, 2008). Communities are rarely involved in making decisions on actions that concern them. . Thus, given these realities on the ground, sectoral approaches do not adequately address divergent and systemic challenges that developing countries face especially in the rural areas.

The thrust for this study was to ensure that communities fully participate in their own development process. The community members should be involved in the process from the identification of development challenge, designing and implementation of community development projects. This was demonstrated during the community entry engagements which created a platform for a holistic and participatory process. The process allows all community members and their leaders to contribute in their development process. Figure 3.2 presents a step by step approach for planning a people-centered rural community development in the Masia traditional council area.

3.3.1 Planning facilitation of all-inclusive rural development planning

The Masia development planning process started with an all Masia community leadership workshop convened to reflect on previous activities, engage and plan the way forward. This included how to facilitate an all-inclusive development planning process. As earlier discussed, reflection remained a critical component of the development planning process. There was a deliberate attempt to in-cooperate it in every engagement because it helped to remind participants on what transpired in the previous engagements. In this workshop, participants reflected on the orientation workshops, consolidation of orientation results, report writing and feedback workshops. Reflection was done using three questions as earlier highlighted: What was actually done; 2) what could have been done better; and, 3) what lessons were learned.

The following are some of the key lessons learned during the past engagements, that:

1) people as young as 7 years old can participate in championing their own development;
2) engagements were crucial learning platforms;

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3) community members know their development needs and ways of solving them;
4) development was broader than service delivery and should be integrated;
5) there were still some pockets of tension and conflicts that required serious attention;
6) when planning the festive season should be take avoided; and finally,
7) there was need to find ways of mobilizing the local Municipality representatives to participate in the development processes.

Participants identified the major challenges as: the need to mobilize local leaders to actively participate; determine pockets of tensions and conflicts so that people move in one direction; develop a comprehensive communication strategy to help in mobilizing leaders and communities for active participation; improve and sensitize UNIVEN and Masia communities to participate.

Participants felt that identified challenges needed to be address because they had potential to derail the development process. The mobilization of leaders and communities to participate in their own rural development planning engagement featured prominently during reflection session. In order to address the mobilization question, participants agreed that they needed to identify "Social Consultants" from each village and have them trained to adequately represent the village community in the engagements and spearhead rural development planning processes at village level. It was also decided that the Misanda (traditional leaders), the local leaders and the village communities should be re-educated on the key features of the MoU. A roadmap was then developed to address the issues identified.

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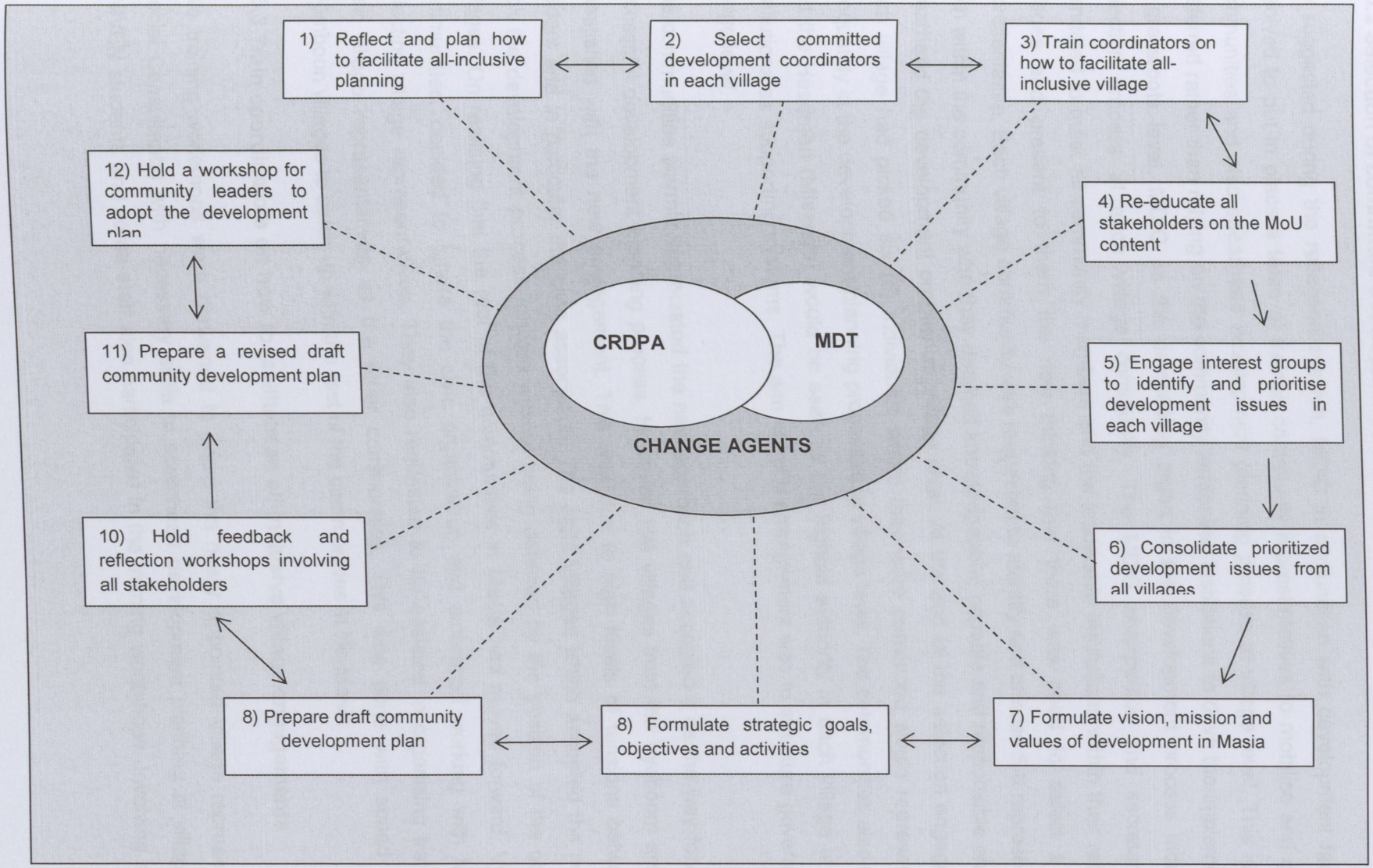


Figure 3.2 Step-by-step approach for planning rural community development

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3.3.2 Selection of committed development coordinators in each village

As suggested during the reflection session, MDIC in conjunction with development facilitators resolved to put in place a team of trained community representatives to mobilise and organize communities and also spearhead development planning process at village level. This idea was preferred rather than relying on the community leadership institutions to drive the implementation at grassroots level. MDIC as the overseeing organ in the development process mounted a selection process at each village community. The MDIC chairperson and secretary were mandated to meet all community members and the leadership institutions within their respective villages and present to them the new thinking that there was need to select a village representative. Each village community was requested to identify and choose 5-6 representatives from within the community who they deemed knowledgeable, capable and responsible enough to spearhead the development process at village level. At the end of the selection engagements, each village had picked six (6) individuals whom they were convinced would represent them adequately in the development planning processes at village level. The communities also decided that the Headmen (Misanda) would be seen as the highest authority in each village and other institutions as supporting systems. The aim of such arrangement was to structure governance at village level.

The communities warmly appreciated the new approach and accepted it as the way forward for successful development planning process. However, five villages from the Vyeboom area were dissatisfied with the new arrangement. This was due to high levels of tensions between the leaders and in particular the civic association. The eight villages which accepted the new plan took the development process forward without being deterred by the position of the other five villages. On realising that the rest of the communities in Masia had moved forward, Vyeboom communities, decided to ignore the civic organization and embraced working with MDIC in selecting village representatives. They also requested to be assisted in organising training for their village representatives as the other communities. This was done with speed to help Vyemboon villages to catch up with the rest of the communities in Ha-Masia.

3.3.3 Train coordinators on how to facilitate an all-inclusive village engagements

Two training workshops were convened to equip the newly appointed village representatives (Social Consultants) with necessary skills to spearhead development planning at village level. UNIVEN students and some staff also participated in the training workshops. Involving students

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and staff in the Masia community development planning helped them to gain real time experience on real life issues. The UNIVEN staff who participated in the training provided practical application of knowledge gained from research as part of their technical expertise support. Participation of UNIVEN students and staff did not only have individual benefits but also collective. This is because they were able to learn how to facilitate village engagements. The UNIVEN staff and students face one major challenge. The community development work did not form part of the student's regular coursework as wel as the academic staff workload at the time. This posed considerable difficulties particularly for the academic staff with other competing university core business such as teaching, research and other administrative activities. It is in this regard that Kaufman (2004) and Martin *et al* (2005) argues that universities should incorporate community development work in their curriculum. Such an arrangement would enable students and staff to commit to the community development work instead of giving it spare time only when it is available.

In the first training workshop, the newly appointed social consultants were further educated on the contents of the MoU. This was done to ensure that they were all fully aware of their specific roles and responsibilities as community representatives. Through a facilitated engagement, they defined their roles and responsibilities as well as their terms of reference for period of the development planning process. The principle responsibilities of the village representatives were to mobilize and organize village communities to actively participate and facilitate development planning process at village level.

The second workshop trained the village representatives together with UNIVEN students and some staff on how to facilitate participatory village engagement using some of the relevant PRA tools and techniques. At the end of the workshop, the village representatives felt that they had graduated and requested to be referred as Village Development Champions (VDCs). The choice of such title was as a result of the mandate given to them to spearhead development planning processes at village level. The two workshops fully equipped the VDCs with skills required to engage the village communities in planning for their own development.

3.3.4 Re-orientation workshops for all Masia stakeholders

The feedback and reflection workshop identified various challenges that required redress. In particular, the leadership and the communities requested for re-education on the content of the MoU. A full day workshop was convened to take place in each of the 13 village communities in Masia together with their leaders to honour their request. Equipped with newly acquired skills, the

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VDCs made sure that all community members and their leaders were fully mobilized and prepared to participate in the reorientation workshop. The VDCs and UNIVEN students were deployed to co-facilitate in the engagements. The decision to re-education the village communities and their leaders was to ensure that all community members and leaders of the Masia traditional council area were fully aware of the MoU, their roles and responsibilities as stated in the MoU and that they were fully committed to participate in its implementation. Where some of the VDCs and students faced challenges during the village engagement, the facilitation team and other trained UNIVEN staff were on hand to provide guidance until the task was completed. The levels of participation in the engagements were a clear testimony that the decision to appoint and thoroughly train village representatives was a success story.

3.3.5 Engaging village communities to prioritise development Issues

During orientation workshop at the community entry phase, the people of the Masia area had their voice heard and included in the MoU. In these workshops, the communities and their leaders were encouraged to state "What they wanted implemented in addition to what the MoU had covered" Various issues were identified in response to this question. What communities identified as their development challenges/issues or need were consolidated into a Masia development issues. The Masia communities contributed more than was anticipated during the orientation workshops. The outcomes of the orientation workshop simplified the planning process because the Masia communities identified most of their development issues.

The facilitation team further processed and analysed the development issues under each strategic goal and organized them into specific thematic areas. This aimed to assist the communities when prioritizing development initiatives at village level. A template was developed to enable communities to clearly see the strategic goals and thematic areas under each strategic goal. The template consisted of the eight strategic goals. Under each strategic goal were the relevant and corresponding thematic areas. Under each thematic area were the relevant and corresponding community-identified and defined development issues.

A one day orientation workshop was convened to orientate the VDCs and UNIVEN students on how to facilitate the prioritization process. The workshop equipped participants on how to facilitate participatory village community prioritization of development issues using PRA tools and techniques and how to administer the prioritization template.

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Another one day workshop for all 13 village communities of Masia was convened to prioritize their community-identified and defined development issues per village. The well-trained VDCs and UNIVEN students were deployed to co-facilitate the prioritization process in each of the 13 villages of Masia. All protocols were observed as was done in all previous engagements. These included all participants entering their details in the attendance register, stating the purpose and introducing the engagement to the participants and then facilitating the prioritization process.

The village community members were organized into reflection circles per social interest groups as earlier explained. The template with consolidated views of all stakeholders in Masia was handed to each interest group. Participants were encouraged to add any other issues they found not reflected in the template. In their reflection circles, groups were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with the statement (development issue). Three levels of perception were provided in the template. These were: *strongly agree; agree; somewhat agree; disagree; and strongly disagree.* The exercise helped to prioritize rural development issues per interest group and per village. Each interest group prioritized all development issues per strategic goal based on the importance they placed on it. Groups were then asked to tally all development issues and rank them in order of priority per each interest group. The totals of the village community tallies were calculated. The lowest digit tally was ranked as the priority development issue per village.

Another one day workshop was convened with all those who facilitated participatory village community prioritization process engagements. In this workshop, participants consolidated the results of the village community engagements. All village community tally rankings per strategic goal were consolidated in order to provide the entire Masia Community picture of the development priorities.

3.3.6 Formulation of the Masia values, vision and mission statements

With strategic goals, thematic areas and objectives in place, formulation of the Masia vision, mission and values was required. When the VDCs were selected, each village mandated their representatives to undertake activities that did not necessarily require their presence. The villages also made it clear to the VDCs that they have to report back to them on what transpired in the said meeting for them to give it a go ahead. Based on this understanding, a one day workshop for the VDCs, MDIC and some UNIVEN staff and students was convened to formulation the vision, mission and values that would govern rural development process in Masia. The engagement was expedited by the facilitation team.

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After all protocols were observed, the process of formulating the vision and mission statements was explained to participants. In their reflection circles, participants were asked to respond to the following questions that guided formulation of the Masia Vision for development: "how would you like to see Masia in five years' time in terms of development?" The second question that guided the formulation of the mission statement was "what should be done to achieve the vision we have formulated?" Responses from participants on the two questions were captured in form of statements on a flip chart. In this engagement, participants learned how to develop a vision and mission statements and community values. Participants also identified and agreed on values that would guide their rural development process. The VDCs from each village had to report back the outcome (statements) of the engagement to their community members. The report back session to the village communities was necessary because it provided opportunity for them to contribute to the formulation and agree on the vision and mission statements, and values for their rural development. The communities adopted the vision, mission and the values and gave a go ahead to finalize them. A fewer individuals selected from among the VDCs and the MDIC members were tasked to further process the vision and mission statements and the values. The engagement confirmed that local communities have potential to spearhead their own development process if they are properly guided.

3.3.7 Formulation of objectives, activities, and writing draft Masia community development roadmap

The strategic goals, thematic areas, development issues, the vision and mission statements, and the values for rural development in the Masia area were in place. However, development planning would not be complete without specific objectives and activities. A one day workshop with the VDCs, MDIC and some UNIVEN student and staff was convened to formulate objectives and activities. The facilitation team explained and demonstrated to participants the process of formulating objectives and activities for development. Participants were then organized into reflection circles. Each reflection circle was given one strategic goal to match it with thematic areas and the statements relevant under the thematic area. Groups were asked to deliberate on the goal, thematic area and the community-defined development issues. They were also asked deliberate and then convert the community–defined development issues or the statements into objectives and also formulate activities to address each objective.

At the end of the engagement, participants formulated draft objectives and activities. The exercise yielded substantial results that would be further processed and finalised by a smaller group of

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people with guidance from the facilitation team. Participants learned how to develop and formulate objectives and activities. The VDCs from each village took the outcome of the engagement back to their village communities. The report back session served to create opportunity for the village communities to keep informed and part of what was taking place. They were also accorded opportunity for them to agree with the objectives and the activities to achieve the objectives and also adopt the outcome. The communities adopted the objectives and the activities for the implementation of their development plan and also gave a go ahead to finalize the process.

A team of four (4) individuals selected from among the VDC's and Chaired by the MDT's Chief Executive Officer who was also the secretary to MDIC was appointed to produce a draft roadmap for the development of Masia. The team was selected based on their abilities and previous performance in the development activities of their specific villages. The writing team was tasked to consolidate the Masia community development dream. The facilitation team guided the team on how to consolidate the Masia community development dream. The team also revised the Masia community development values, re-constructed the vision and mission statements and then prepared a draft Masia community development roadmap and submitted it to the facilitation team for finalization.

The facilitation team further analysed and reprocessed the draft objectives and activities, the vision and mission, and the values. The facilitation team revised the entire draft Masia community development roadmap and developed the action plan. The Masia Community development Action plan (Appendix 3.5) clearly stated the strategic goals, specific objectives, actions/activities, inputs/resources required, the outputs, outcomes and potential impact expected on the communities. The facilitation team re-worked the consolidated plan, edited it, and prepared a final draft Masia community development plan.

3.3.8 Feedback and reflection workshop involving all stakeholders

A one day workshop was convened to give feedback to all critical stakeholders in the Masia community, reflect and plan the next course of action. In this engagement, the final draft Masia community development plan was presented. Participants were given ample time to make comments or raise any issue(s) they deemed necessary for the plan. The stakeholders who participated in this engagement highly appreciated the work done and the fact that they now had a plan in place for the development of their community. All Masia village community members were particularly applauded for their commitment and active participation in the planning process from the start to the finish. A few comments were made on the draft development plan. Participants

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requested that a popular launch of the plan be planned to give them chance to celebrate their achievement. The comments raised during the feedback session were incorporated and the Masia community development plane finalised.

3.3.9 Workshop for community leaders to adopt the Masia community development plan

The type of development the Masia communities wanted to see happen was clearly stated and packaged. The community views which represented the community voice was consolidated and packaged into a Masia community development plan. In order for them to put a seal to all what they said should happen for the development to take place in the Masia area, all representatives of community leaders were invited to converge at Tshirunzanani Primary School in Vyeboom A, in Makhado Municipality on 31 July 2010. On this day, the Masia community leaders adopted the masia community development plan as the roadmap for the development of the Masia area. This day remains a major milestone in the history of Ha-Masia.

Now that the Masia community development plan was in place and leaders had adopted it as their roadmap for development, the Masia Development Trust requested for a report back session with the UNIVEN and MDT leaders who are the signatories of the MoU. The meeting brought together the UNIVEN Senior management, the MDT management and the facilitation team. A brief presentation of the MoU implementation progress was made to the participants. The two institutions were highly appreciative of the speed at which the work had been carried out and the way in which the plan had been prepared and presented. The need for a popular launch of the Masia Community Development plan was strategically discussed in this meeting. The Vice Chancellor and Principal of University of Venda tasked the Communication and Marketing Department (CMD) to Chair the planning of the Masia Community Development plan launch. This responsibility was given as part of the institutionalization of the UNIVE-MDT partnership for rural development.

3.4 Step-by-Step Approach for Planning for Implementation of Community-Identified and Defined Development Projects

Development programmes/projects, especially in the rural areas are often designed outside the community or by few individuals who might not necessarily be from within the community (Devkota, 2000; Swanepoel and DeBeer, 2006; de Campos, 2009). Such an approach makes it difficult for the rural communities to play a significant role in making-decisions on the implementation of the development projects (Swanepoel, 2005; Swanepoel and DeBeer, 2006;

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Campos, 2009). The situation often gives room for the development agents to fall for the elites in the community to design and implement community programmes/projects instead of the communities themselves (Manzuri and Rao, 2003; Platteau and Gaspart, 2003; Jean-Louis and Bassole 2006). Where the communities are said to be involved, their role is simply to provide relevant information (Arnstein, 1996; Pretty, 1995; World Bank 2002; Cornwall, 2008) that is required about the community. The situation results to the communities remaining disempowered (Mansuri and Rao 2003), and the donor-funded projects ultimately stall as soon as the promoters and/or funders pull out (Mansuri and Rao 2003; Jang, Joo-ho, and Dae-seob, 2009; Kang, 2010).

The thrust of this study is to create a platform for rural communities to identify and define their development challenges, plan how the development challenges should be addressed, design community-defined and prioritised programmes/projects as earlier explained and implement prioritised programmes/projects with relevant support from strategic stakeholders. By so doing, the rural communities are empowered to implement their programmes/projects in a sustainable manner with little support from external sources. A step-by-step approach for planning for implementation of the community-identified and defined development projects is presented (Figure 3.3).

3.4.1 Plan to plan Implementation of community development projects

The draft Masia development plan was adopted by the Masia community leaders. It was also presented to the signatories of the UNIVEM-MDT partnership. High expectation was generated after the adoption of the development plan among the Masia communities and also the signatories of the partnership after the briefing. The engagement with the UNIVEN management and the MDT leaders propelled the facilitation team to kick-starting the second phase of planning implementation of the community-identified and defined development projects.

A one day workshop was convened with all critical stakeholders, particularly the leaders of all structures in the Masia area together with the VDCs. The purpose of this engagement was to obtain their views on how to kick-start implementation phase of the community development plan. Ample time was accorded for participants to reflect on the milestone achieved during the development planning process. The reflection focused on the milestones achieved since the signing of the MoU to the launch of the Masia Community Development plan. A participatory engagement tool which had been developed to guide the engagement was explained to the participants.

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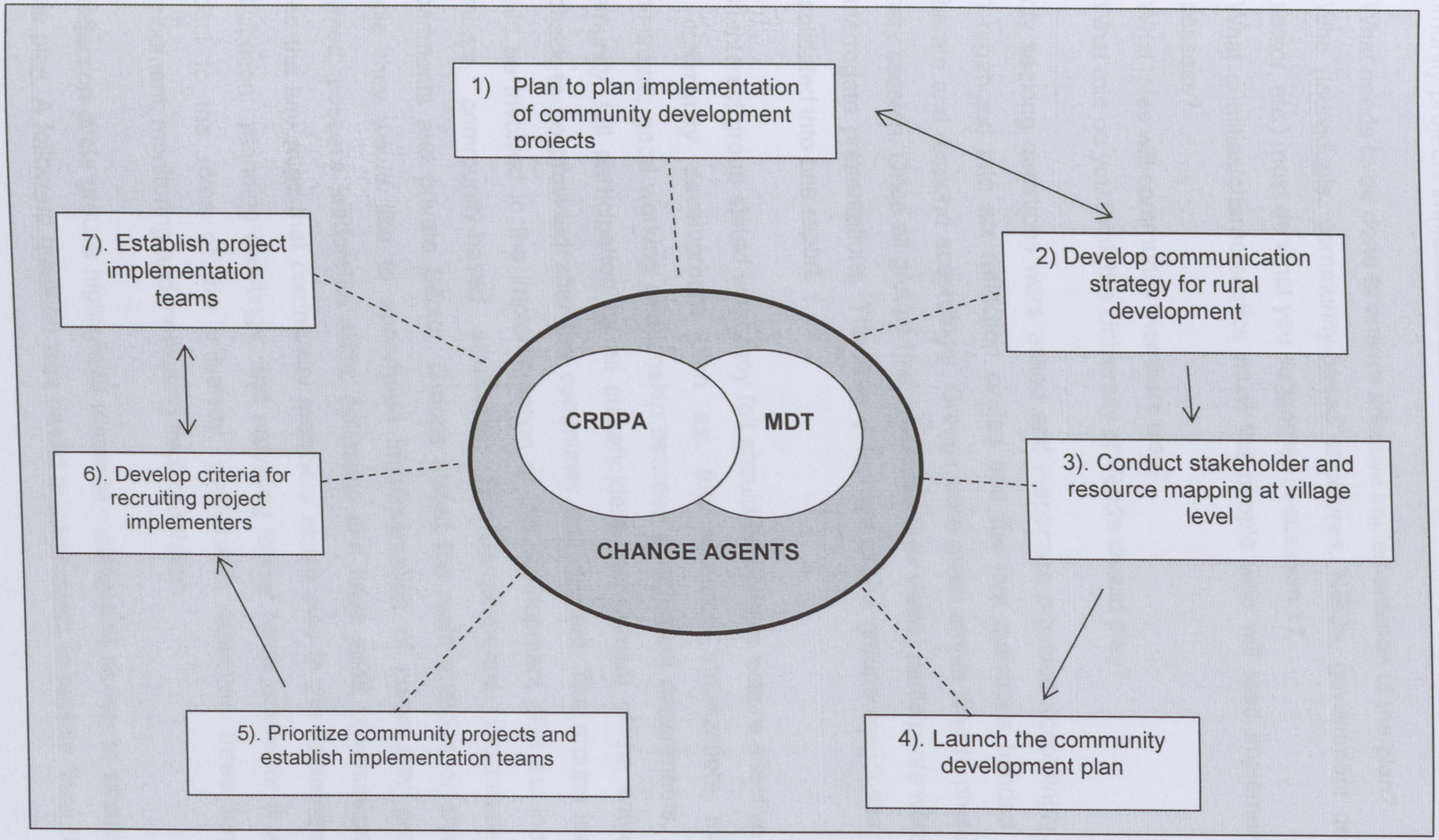


Figure 3.3 Step-by-step approach for planning for implementation of community-identified development projects

A set of five questions (the participatory tool) prepared to guide the planning process of community projects implementation. These were:

1) What needs to be done to ensure effective implementation of the plan?
2) Who (individuals, community-based structures, NGOs, government departments, private sector, etc.) must do what you suggested in question 1?
3) What qualities/characteristics must the people who will lead implementation of the plan possess?
4) What roles will community members play?
5) What role do you think the University of Venda should play?

Clarity seeking questions were asked and responses provided accordingly. Participants were then organized into six reflection circles and the five questions handed to each group to deliberate and respond accordingly. Groups were given ample time to present their views in a plenary session. Once all groups had presented their views, participants were given opportunity to interrogate presentations. The final outcomes of the groups responses to questions were consolidated into one report.

Each interest group stated what they felt should be done to ensure effective implementation of the community development plan as: the resource mobilization; skills development; commitment; good working relationship between government departments, private sector and community; full participation by all stakeholders; involvement of the entire community; and feedback to be provided after the community engagement. The groups identified those who should be involved in the implementation of the development plan as: individual community members, community-based structures; Non-Governmental Organisations; Government Departments and private Sector. Groups stated the main qualities or characteristics of the people they would like to spearhead implementation of community projects as: honest; informed; possess leadership skills; optimistic and have good communication skills. Groups stated the key roles that community members would play in the implementation process as: participation, attending meetings, and providing labour force whenever it was required. With respect to the roles of the university, participants identified three key roles as: skills development; monitoring and motivating implementation

All reflection circle groups highlighted resource mobilization as key to effective implementation of the plan. A follow-up question was posed to participants to explain "how the resources were

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to be mobilized". Their response was that proposals would be developed and submitted to various funding institutions. They also stated that relevant expertise for developing funding proposal and implementation of funded proposal would be sought from UNIVEN.

The participants were clearly spelt out what they believed should be done to ensure effective implementation of community development projects, by who, what roles and what qualities such an individual or institution should possess.

3.4.2 Stakeholder and resource mapping at village level

As a multidisciplinary and multifaceted process, rural development requires involvement and collaboration of a wide range of stakeholders and use of various resources. This made stakeholder analysis and resource mapping vital for sustainable implementation of the Masia community-identified and defined development programmes/projects.

Stakeholder analysis is a critical tool that is able to generate knowledge with regards to relevant actors who have potential to influence decision making process (Brugha and Varvasovszky, 2000; Allen and Kilvington, 2010). It helps to identify available stakeholders in given community, their interests, intentions, interrelations and potential resources they may have which can positively impact on the community development programming (Varvasovszky and Brugha, 2000; Schmeer, 2005; Allen and Kilvington, 2010). According to Olson, Prepscius and Baddache (2011), participatory stakeholder mapping and analysis is a "collaborative process of research, debate, and discussions that draws from multiple perspectives to determine a key list of stakeholders across the entire stakeholder spectrum". Varvasovszky and Brugha (2000) states that, "stakeholder analysis is an approach, a tool or a set of tools for generating knowledge about actors to understand their behaviour, intentions, interrelations and interests; and for assessing the influence and resources they bring to bear". Thus, there was need to conduct stakeholder analysis in the Masia communities to bring to bear those available and the roles they may play in the implementation of the Masia community development projects.

A one day training workshop was convened to train the MDIC, VDCs and UNIVEN students on how to conduct participatory community engagement on stakeholder analysis and resource mapping. Stakeholder analysis was required to identify, analyse and prioritize internal and external stakeholders to Masia area for rural development. Participants were trained on how to use PRA tools and techniques to conduct stakeholder analysis and resource mapping.

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The facilitation team conducted a mock stakeholder analysis for the participants. They were assisted to identify stakeholders relevant to Masia area for potential collaboration during implementation of the Masia community development projects. Participants were also requested to align objectives with identified stakeholders. A comprehensive list of identified key internal and external stakeholders was prepared. In general terms, identified stakeholders included Government departments, State owned enterprises, NGOs, CBOs, Private organizations and foundations. The list helped development facilitation team to develop two participatory tools for engaging village communities in stakeholder identification and analysis at village level.

A one day workshop was convened to engage communities at village level on stakeholder analysis. Two participatory village stakeholder analysis tools were prepared for engaging communities at village level. The first tool was used to analyse stakeholders in terms of service provision, accessibility and reliability, and levels of importance in the implementation of community projects, potential challenges and their coping strategies. The second tool was prepared constituting the internal and external stakeholders identified and four statements to guide facilitation. The interest groups at village level were asked to state whether the stakeholders presented on the engagement tool *were able to provide services that meet the community's expectations*: *in a transparent manner; it consults and communicates well with the community; and whether the work they do in community was visible*. The tool also provided ample space to include any other stakeholder participants felt was vital to the community which may have been left out. The VDCs and two UNIVEN students co-facilitated the stakeholder analysis engagements at each of the 13 villages of Ha-Masia. Results of the village level stakeholder analysis engagement were then consolidated by a smaller group consisted of MDIC, VDCs, and the facilitation team. Consolidation was done per village and per interest group for all the 13 villages of Masia and then into a Masia-wide report in order to provide a clear picture of the stakeholders in Masia area.

In order to understand the Masia resource base, a half day workshop was convened. The VDCs, MDIC, some community leaders and members from all 13 village communities of Masia participated. The purpose of the workshop was to identify resources available in the community which can be optimized in implementing community development programmes/projects. Mbile, DeGrande, and Okon (2003) define resource mapping as a participatory tool or method used by practitioners to acquire a systematic and graphic understanding of a village layout and resources available. Participants were organized into reflection circle groups per village. Flip charts and assorted marker pens were handed to each group. In a reflection circles per village,

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participants were asked to draw a sketch map that is as close to the reality possible. The sketch map should indicate all natural, physical, financial and human capital resources available in their respective villages. The participants were also asked to indicate where such resources were found within the village. Each group presented their village map in a plenary session. Resources identified in the Masia area were for use during implementation of community programmes/projects.

3.4.3 Communication strategy for rural development

The need to establish better channels of communication became apparent during the reflection workshops. Communities expressed concerns that low participation of leaders and village communities were a major challenge to the development process. Often communities claimed not to have been informed or the information reached them late. A one day engagement with local community leaders together with the VDCs was convened to address lack of leadership participation in meeting challenge. . The engagement helped to identify appropriate communication channels. It also with what they believed as an appropriate plan for effective communication. Five keys objectives were identified for the development of the communication strategy. These were to:

1) provide community leaders with information and tools needed for successful communicate;
2) promote participation in the implementation of development initiatives;
3) provide community members with attractive, easy-to-read, easy to understand printed materials that motivated them to actively participate in the community development programmes;
4) appropriately use both print and electronic media for promoting community participation in the development work; and
5) develop and distribute timely and effective publicity, news and feature articles (including branding materials) relating to the community development work.

The communication strategy target audience constitutes internal and external stakeholders, and strategic partners. The internal stakeholder constitutes ordinary community members irrespective of age, colour or status, Community-based Organizations and local leadership institutions. The external stakeholders constitute Government Departments (Including Makhado Local and Vhembe District Municipalities); parastatals or State-owned enterprises; Private Sector; Non-governmental Organizations; and Donor agencies. The University of Venda though

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external to the Masia community remains a strategic partner. As the current driver of the development programming in the Masia area, university of Venda holds a different level of communication within Masia area. Participants agreed that the flow of information in Masia area would be as indicated in Figure 3.4.

3.4.4 Launch of the Masia community development plan

The people of Ha-Masia worked tirelessly to construct their own community development plan. All interest groups in Masia actively participated in the planning process. This indicates that their voices were heard and included in the Masia community development planning process. The involvement of all leadership institutions and the grassroots communities made it possible to construct a people-centered development agenda. The Masia community leadership adopted the community development plan. During the briefing session with the signatories of the UNIVEN-MDT partnership, the idea to launch the Masia community development plan was mooted. The purpose of the launch was threefold: to cerebrate completion of the Masia community development plan; to mobilize communities for continuous involvement; and to market the development plan to strategic stakeholders.

The UNIVEN Communication and Marketing Department together with the MDIC representative and the development facilitation team met and put together a comprehensive plan of action for the launch. This included setting up various sub-committees to address different aspects of the launch. A detailed list of guests to be invited was drawn. Also the roles and responsibilities of various sub-committees were defined. Activities of the launch were assigned to various sub-committees to be undertaken before, during and after the launch.

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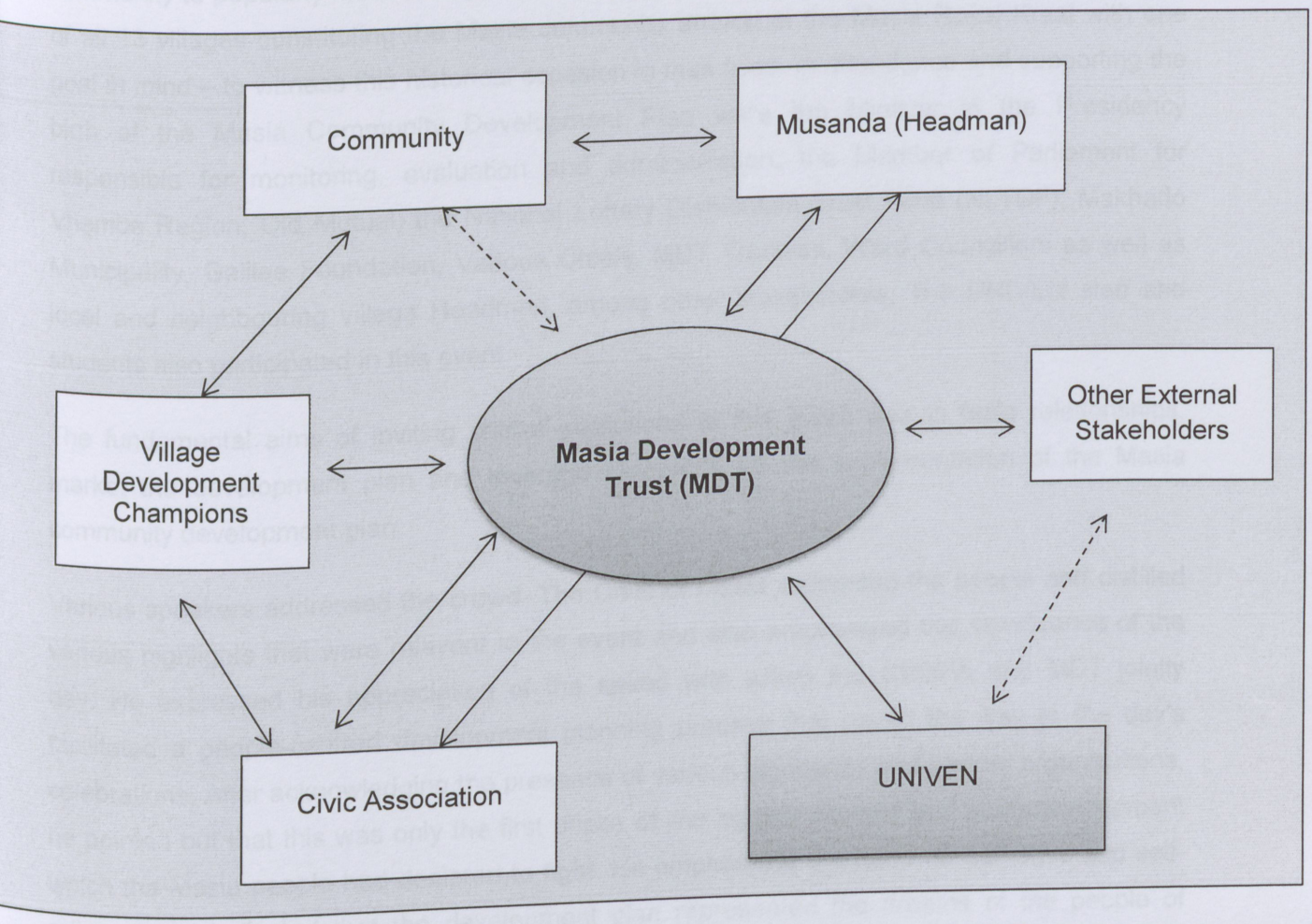


Figure 3.4: Masia communication and marketing strategy for development's flow of information

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On 16 December 2010, at the Masia Royal Kraal, the Masia Development Trust in partnership with the CRDPA on behalf of UNIVEN held the torch of rural development in the Masia community to popularly launch the jointly constructed Community Development Plan. Residents of all 13 villages constituting the Masia community arrived at the Masia Royal Kraal with one goal in mind – to witness this historical occasion in their lives. In attendance and supporting the birth of the Masia Community Development Plan were the Minister in the Presidency responsible for monitoring, evaluation and administration, the Member of Parliament for Vhembe Region, Old Mutual, the National Lottery Distribution Trust Fund (NLTDF), Makhado Municipality, Galilee Foundation, Various Chiefs, MDT Trustees, Ward Councillors as well as local and neighbouring village Headmen, among other stakeholders. The UNIVEN staff and students also participated in this event.

The fundamental aims of inviting critical institutions to this event was to build relationships, market the development plan and leverage resources for the implementation of the Masia community development plan.

Various speakers addressed the crowd. The Chief of Masia welcomed the people and distilled various highlights that were relevant to the event and also emphasized the significance of the day. He expressed his appreciation of the speed with which the CRDPA and MDT jointly facilitated a people-centred development planning process that paved the way to the day's celebrations. After acknowledging the presence of various dignitaries and partner organizations, he pointed out that this was only the first phase of war against poverty and underdevelopment which the Masia people had declared to fight. He emphasized the need for self-drive and self-reliance and indicated that the development plan represented the dreams of the people of Masia, irrespective of age and status. As such the legacy that the current generation would leave behind was to ensure that the people's dreams were realized. In this regard, it was crucial to harness whatever resources that could be mobilized in order to deploy them for this course.

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Youth celebrate with song and dance during public launch of Development Plan



Women celebrate with song and dance during public launch of development plan

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A month after the Launch of the Masia Community Development plan, the facilitation team, the MDIC secretary and the UNIVEN Communication and Marketing Department held a reflection session to reflect on the launch and come up with a report on the launch. In this meeting, participants reflected on all aspects of the launch planned activities. This included reflection on how the event was planned, how it was managed, and whether its purpose was achieved. This was done to identify areas of strength and weaknesses that were experienced. The entire process was thoroughly critiqued and a detailed reflection report produced.

3.4.5 Prioritize community development projects and establish implementation teams

The Masia community development plan was now in the public domain and a number of potential funders had been identified during the launch. This propelled the facilitation team and MDIC to act with speed in planning for implementation of the community projects. The facilitation team further analysed the strategic goals and objectives. The process helped to further link closely related objectives into one thematic area for effective management of the implementation process. The purpose of this exercise was to enable one technical expert to spearhead implementation each thematic area and also lead the development of funding proposals. Each theme has potential to be developed into one or more independent proposals. This process became a pointer to the type of technical expertise that would be mobilized from various schools and department of the University of Venda to spearhead implementation of community projects.

A one day training workshop was convened to train the UNIVEN students and staff on how to facilitate prioritization of project themes and the selection of people from within the village to spearhead project implementation at village level. The trained UNIVEN students and some staff were deployed in each of the 13 villages to co-facilitate selection of project implementation teams from within the village. This village engagement took place in one day for all 13 villages of Masia. Copies of the eight constructed thematic areas and project themes per each thematic area were handed to participants. A detailed explanation was provided to all participants. Ample time was accorded for clarity seeking questions and responses provided accordingly. Participants were then organized into reflection circle per interest group. Where some of the interest groups were more than 15 members, the group was further split into subgroups of 8 to 15 people.

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Participants were asked to pick 40 small stones for use when prioritising projects themes. Using a flip chart, groups were asked to collect 40 small stones and distribute them to each thematic area. They distributed the stones depending on how much they preferred each thematic area and the project themes to be implemented. After all groups distributed the 40 stones, what they believed was most important was allocated the most number of stones and the least important project received least number of stones. Groups ranked each project taking into account the number of stones allocated. Where there was a tie, groups agreed and chose the best so that at the end they do not have any projects that shared the rank. Groups presented their rankings in a plenary session. As each group presented their rankings, their findings were captured on a flip chart. The rankings were added for each thematic area. The thematic area that had the lowest total ranking was the top priority for implementation in that village. The village community members including children, youth, women, men and community leaders were given opportunity to select projects they preferred to be implemented in their own community using the criteria given to them.

The second session was used to select people from within the village to spearhead implementation of the prioritized project themes. A ten point criteria for selecting project implementation teams developed by the VDCs and MDIC members as earlier explained was presented and explained to participants in details. It was made clear that people were allowed to serve only in one project and cannot be selected by proxy. It was also clarified that only a maximum of five (5) candidates per thematic area per village would be selected. Candidates were also not allowed to participate in group discussions after they are already nominated to a particular project.

Participants were then organized into reflection circles per interest group. Where interest groups were more than 15 members, the group was further split into sub-groups of 8 – 15 people. Participants were asked to take one thematic area at a time and use the 10 point selection criteria to rank the candidates for the chosen thematic area. Taking one selection criterion at a time, each group ranked the nominated candidates per thematic areas. The best candidate was ranked number one; with the second best one ranked two up to the least ranked assigned rank of five. Thanking process was repeated for all candidates required per project using the 10 point criteria. The total number of candidates who met the criterion was added. Where there was a tie, groups were asked to choose the best so that at the end of the exercise, there was no shared rank. The findings were presented in a plenary session. Taking each project at a time, ranks for each nominated person were added. The individual who had the lowest total rank was

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the most preferred one (top priority) candidate. The top three ranked individuals were the Village Project Implementation Team (VPIT) members for that project at village level. Each person selected as part of the VPIT completed a personal profile and submitted to the Masia Development Trust for ratification.

3.4.6 Conclusion

This chapter provides a chronology of events undertaken to develop a people-centred model that is holistic, with all community members of Masia being involved planning their own development. At the community entry or social preparation phase, a solid foundation was built through affording all members of Masia communities an equal opportunity to participate in their own development planning process. The community entry phase empowered the Masia people to make decisions and take charge of their own development process. This was achieved by educating all the Masia communities (7 – 10 year old boys; 7 – 10 year old girls; 11 – 14 year old boys; 11 – 14 year old girls; Boys in secondary or high school; Girls in secondary or high school; Male youth no longer attending school; Female youth no longer attending school; Women (middle aged and elderly, separately); Men (middle aged and elderly, separately); and Village community leaders) the UNIVEN-MDT partnership, creating awareness on development activities expected to take place, securing buy-in and commitment from the community members to participate in their own development process.

Continuous training to equip communities and the selected village development champions (VDCs) with relevant skills punctuated each engagement. This aimed to empower them to mobilise and organize themselves for collective action. Importantly, they were specifically empowered to manage their own development initiatives with little external input. The VDCs were particularly empowered and equipped so that they are prepared to drive the planning process and eventually take over the baton stick of development in Masia area. This would particularly reduce over-dependency on outside support.

Through facilitated engagements, all interest groups in the Masia community identified, defined and prioritized what they perceived to be the relevant development. They also defined the roles which various institutions (the university government, local institution and the community) should play in the implementation of the development plan. The Masia community identified relevant stakeholders and resources that may contribute to the implementation on the community-defined and prioritized development projects.

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CHAPTER 4 THE RURAL DEVELOPMENT CHALLENGE IN THE MASIA COMMUNITY

4.1 Introduction

As explained in Chapters 1 and 2, poverty and rural development has often been inappropriately conceptualized (Piel, 1992; Estes, 1993; Devkota, 2000; Ashley and Maxwell, 2001; Swanepoel and DeBeer, 2006). Rarely has development been approached in a holistic manner, where a broad range of grassroots community interest groups in a given residential area are afforded an equal opportunity to participate in planning development interventions. This implies that they rarely contribute to improving their own livelihoods. As a result, they remain in poverty and underdeveloped.

In this study, intensive and all-inclusive awareness creation workshops were mounted to mobilize and organize grassroots community members to participate in analysing development challenges and crafting interventions perceived to be appropriate (refer to Chapter 3). Through facilitated participatory village community engagements using reflection circles, platforms were created to ensure that all-inclusive interest groups in each village freely defined the development they wanted. In this chapter, the conceptual framework for the study is presented and the results of what the community members perceived to be their development needs are discussed.

4.2 Conceptual Framework

In Chapter 2, it was highlighted that appropriate models of planning rural development were lacking. Also, there was limited involvement of universities in providing informed direction with respect to rural development planning and implementation. In addition, this study departed from the premise that various interest groups within villages in the rural areas of South Africa did not inform the community development agenda. It was argued that this was the case in spite of the existence of sound policy and legal frameworks designed to promote public participation in development planning at grassroots community level. This study harnessed the technical skills and expertise resident within the University of Venda to develop a rural development planning model. The Centre for Rural Development and Poverty Alleviation (CRDPA) spearheaded the process, working closely with the Masia Development Trust (MDT). All the 13 villages in Masia community were engaged through facilitated reflection circles of interest groups. Community-selected Village Development Champions served as local paraprofessional researchers who

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engaged the residents of their communities in the identification and prioritization of development issues.

4.3 Methodology

This study was conducted in the Masia Traditional Council area, which is located in Makhado Municipality of Vhembe District in Limpopo Province. Limpopo is one of the nine Provinces that make up South Africa. There are more than 5.5 million people (about 11% of the total population in South Africa) in the Province (Statistics South Africa: STATSA, 2011). The Province is made up of Capricorn, Mopani, Sekhukhune, Waterberg and Vhembe Districts. It is ranked the second poorest Province in the country (STATSA, 2001). Vhembe District was officially declared a biosphere reserve in 2011 covering the Blouberg Range, the Kruger National Park, the Makgabeng Plateau, the Makuleke Wetlands, the Mapungubwe Cultural Landscape and the Soutpansberg. It houses the former Venda homeland created by the Apartheid system. It is the second poorest in the Province. Makhado, where the Masia community is found, is one of the four local Municipalities that constitute Vhembe District. The other Municipalities are Musina, Mutale and Thulamela.

Makhado Municipality covers a geographical area of about 8 527.5 km². According to STATSA (2001), there are approximately 495 300 people in the Municipality. The local Municipality's headquarters is found in Makhado, formerly known as Louis Trichardt, through which the N1 national road passes. The town is situated about 100 km south of the Beitbridge border post that connects South Africa and Zimbabwe. The municipal area is a vital part of the Maputo sub-corridor and the Trans-Limpopo Spatial Development area. There are five formal towns in the Municipality, namely Dzanani, Makhado, Vleifontein, Vuwani and Waterval. The Municipality is subdivided into Dzanani, Makhado, Vuwani and Waterval administrative regions. There are 37 Wards in Makhado Municipality, within which are 279 villages. The most commonly spoken languages are Afrikaans, English, Sepedi, Tshivenda and Xitsonga.

The Masia Traditional Council Area is located in the Vuwani region of Makhado Municipality. Community members in this area commonly speak Xitsonga and Tshivenda. Figure 4.1 shows three Wards (3, 7 and 8) in Makhado Local Municipality that cover the Masia Traditional Council Area. The area is made up of 13 villages, which form parts of Wards 3, 7 and 8. According to STATSA (2007), the Masia community covers a surface area of approximately 120.31 km² and is home to about 38 734 people.

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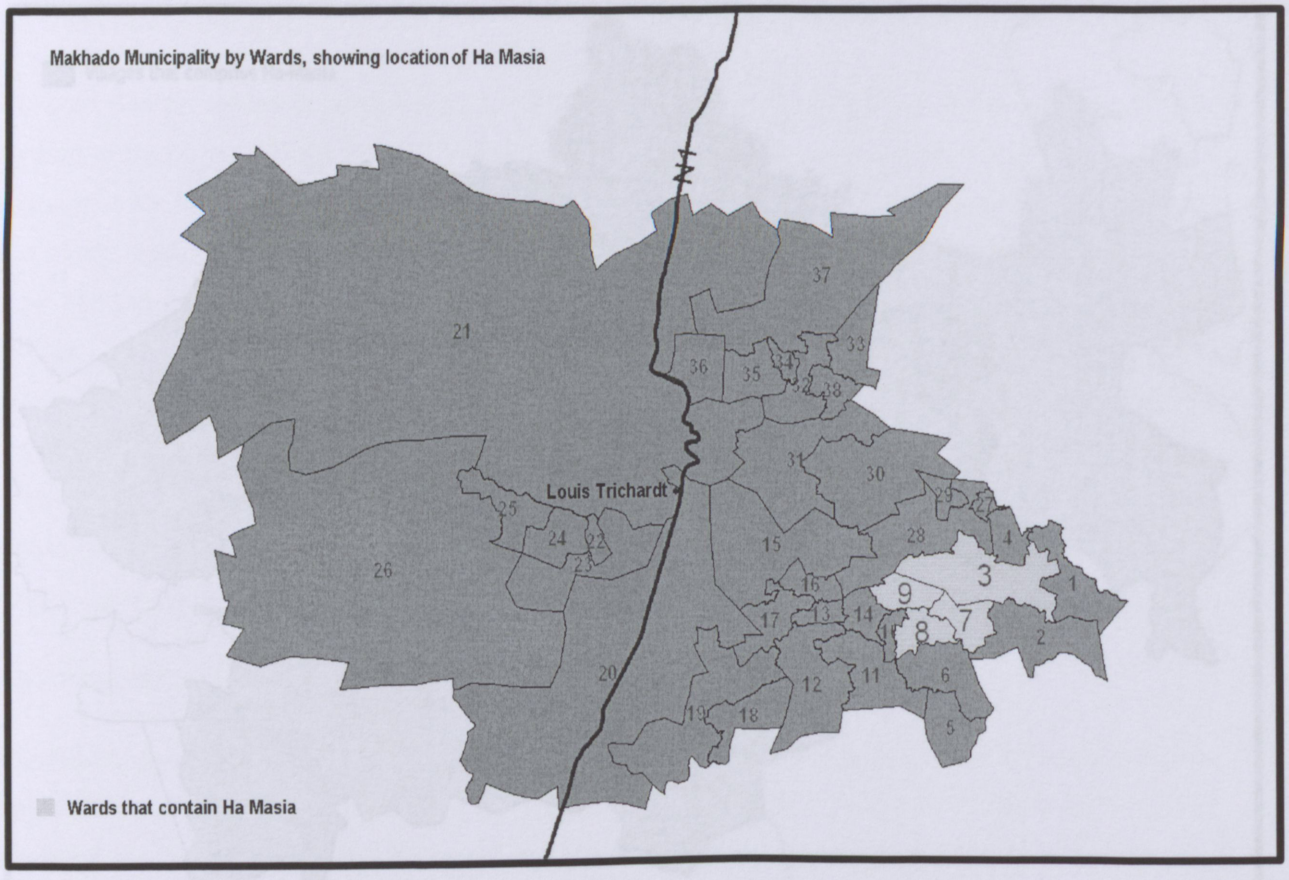


Figure 4.1A The Map of Makhado Municipality showing location of the Masia Traditional Area (Wards 3, 7 and 8). Source: South African Municipal Demarcation Board (Boundary Data for Limpopo, http://demarcation.org.za/pages/downloads/maps/Limpopo/Lim344.zip

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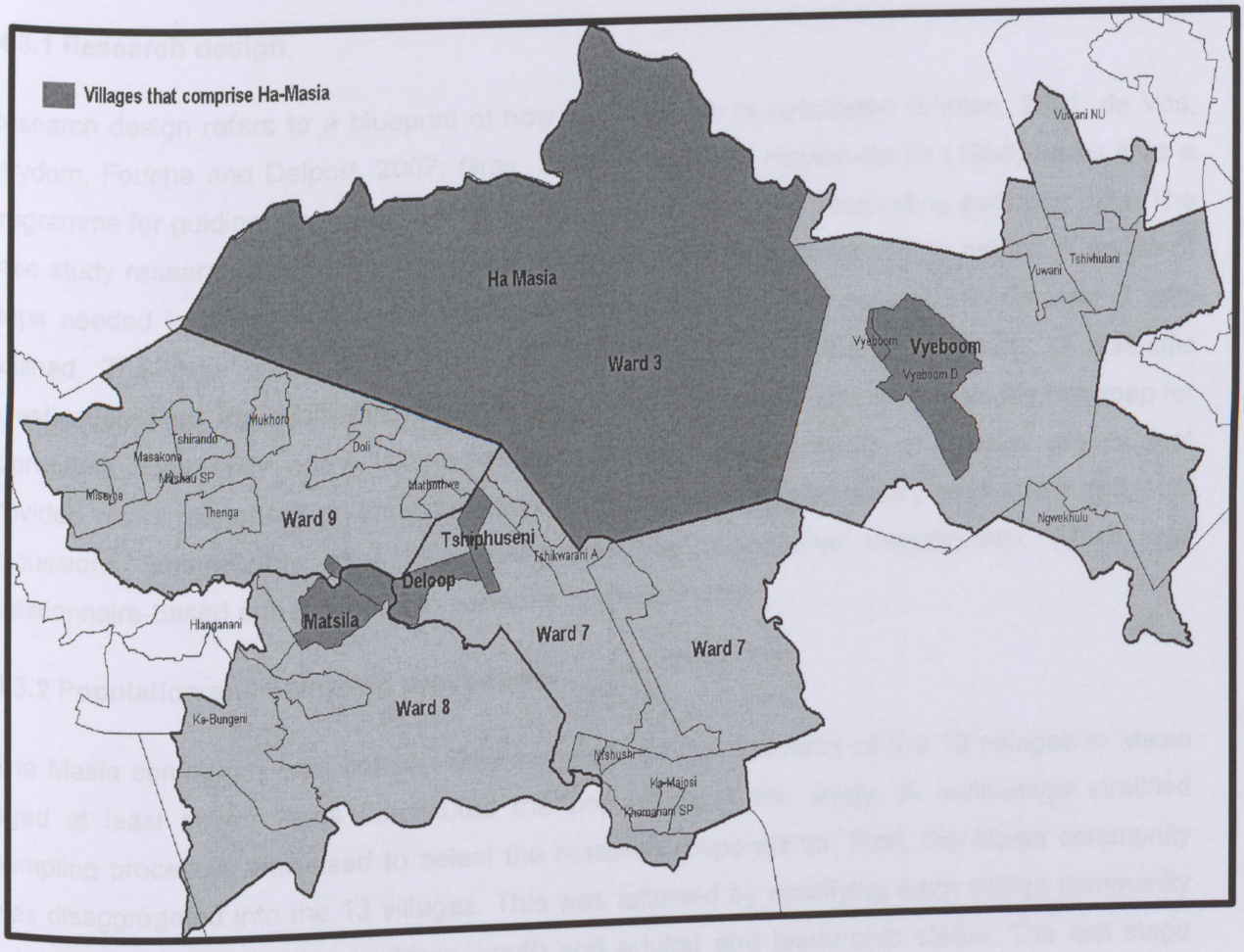


Figure 4.1B Map showing Wards and some of the villages constituting the Masia Traditional Area. *Source: STATSSA Map data, 2001*

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4.3.1 Research design

Research design refers to a blueprint of how the research is conducted (Molton, 2001; de Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport, 2007; Gray, 2009). Bless and Higson-Smith (1995) views it as a programme for guiding the researcher in collecting, analysing and interpreting gathered data. The case study research design was regarded as appropriate for a study of this nature. A series of steps needed in order to achieve the objectives of the study as reported in Chapter 3 was outlined. The case study combined both qualitative and quantitative methods of scientific investigation. First, the qualitative research component addressed issues such as the roadmap for appropriate community entry, village-based exploratory engagements of interest groups that provided verbal responses on local development issues and supplementary semi-structured focal discussions. Immediately after this phase was the quantitative investigation, which was questionnaire-based and designed to generate numerical data.

4.3.2 Population and sampling procedures

The Masia community was conveniently sampled. All the residents of the 13 villages in Masia aged at least seven years constituted the population of the study. A multi-stage stratified sampling procedure was used to select the research respondents. First, the Masia community was disaggregated into the 13 villages. This was followed by stratifying each village community on the bases of age group (children, youth and adults) and leadership status. The last stage involved stratifying community based on interest groups as follows:

1) Children (7-10 year old boys and girls; and 11-14 year old boys and girls);
2) Youth (boys and girls still attending secondary or high schools; and male and females no longer attending school);
3) Women (both middle-aged and the elderly);
4) Men (both middle-aged and the elderly); and
5) Community leaders, including traditional, Civic, Ward Committee in particular.

4.3.3 Ethical considerations

The signing of the UNIVEN-MDT MoU or partnership on 19 September 2009 opened the way for the study as part of the on-going community development initiative. This meant that permission to implement the action research did not require further clearance by the Masia Traditional Council, Royal Council and MDT. The UNIVEN Ethics Committee granted ethical clearance to conduct the study.

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Taking into account the arguments of Babbie and Mouton (2009) that it is not enough to get permission from respondents, it was explained to community members what the study and their participation meant. This enabled the participants to make informed decisions. During the social preparatory phase, the Masia community and other stakeholders were given the opportunity to have their say, buy-in to the process and commit to play mutually agreed roles. This was done through educating and analysing the MoU with the local leadership institutions (in particular, Royal and Traditional Councils, Civic Associations, Ward Committees), ordinary community members (represented by all interest groups as defined above) and other community-based structures. The purpose of this exercise was to create awareness, secure buy-in of the MoU by community members. Furthermore, the exercise sought to ensure that the Masia community members' voices were appropriately used to strengthen the MoU, and consequently included in the Masia development plan. By so doing, the research participants at village-level were given a chance to engage and make informed decisions regarding whether or not to participate in the local development work.

Participants were informed that they were free to withdraw their participation at any time during the course of the study. The number of participants was not restricted because such a decision could have violated the principles of participatory community development (Warren, 1963; Phumal, 2006; Walsh, Hewson, Shier and Morales, 2008; Francis *et al.*, 2010). Ethics of volunteerism in participatory development were taken into account. Confidentiality and anonymity of sources of data were observed. All the sources of information were appropriately acknowledged. The researcher guaranteed the privacy of respondents and made a commitment not to link their answers with personal details. Parental permission was sought when children were expected to participate. Such opening of space for children to participate was desirable so as to ensure that their rights were observed and respected. Selecting and commissioning the VDCs to anchor grassroots-based development work was the prerogative of the MDT Initiative Committee and members of each village. The researcher ensured that feedback to the Masia communities and their leadership institutions were provided in time and appropriately.

4.3.4 Data collection methods and techniques

The data collection methods and techniques used in this case study were exploratory and descriptive. Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected. This action research was undertaken to support implementation of the partnership between the University of Venda (UNIVEN) and Masia Development Trust (MDT). Conventional development practice tends to

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rely on decision making by community leaders, which this study aimed to correct in order to achieve people-centered planning for rural development. Thus, each village selected 5-6 representatives commonly referred to as Village Development Champions (VDCs). The VDCs co-facilitated planning processes with the UNIVEN team of staff and students. Selection of VDCs was based on community-defined and prioritized criteria. The communities selected representatives who they deemed knowledgeable, capable and responsible enough to spearhead the local development processes. The VDCs were trained in participatory approaches and development facilitation tools before being deployed to lead the planning activities.

The VDCs jointly facilitated data collection with well-trained university staff and students. Interest group-based reflection circles at village level served as data collection platforms. Participant registers (Appendix 3) were maintained for each data collection session in each village. A uniform semi-structured interview guide, comprising open-ended questions (Appendix 4), was used to facilitate discussions within each reflection circle. Flipcharts and marker pens were used to capture the perceptions per interest group. Plenary presentations of the results from the reflection circles took place before discussion and consolidation of consensus per village engagement. The Masia-wide feedback sessions were organized for community leaders and then village-based community forums as revealed in Figure 3.2.

The results obtained through the planning engagements were presented and discussed with all the interest groups in each village and then at a Masia-wide community forum. Once the feedback sessions endorsed the results of the engagements, a consolidated Masia development plan was produced. An all-stakeholder workshop was held to consider whether to adopt the draft development plan or not. After the plan was adopted, a series of community engagements were held to deliberate on issues relating to preparing for implementing the plan. The engagements considered, among other issues, the ideal criteria to use when selecting individuals in each village to spearhead project implementation (Figure 3.3). The roles and responsibilities of key role players such as ordinary community members, leaders, university and other development agents were defined.

4.3.5 Data analysis

In this study, both qualitative and quantitative data were collected. Processing of the qualitative data involved describing processes and approaches adhered to in the study. The results of the

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village and interest group-based reflection circles and semi-structured interviews were subjected to Thematic Content Analysis (Creswell, 2006). The community perceptions were organized into common themes, ensuring that the sources (children, youth, men, women, community leaders) were not lost. This provided pointers with respect to the strategic goals for the community development plan and related activities that addressed the community development issues.

The quantitative data derived from questionnaire surveys that required responses on a Likert scale where 1 (the minimum level of the scale was strongly agree) and 5 (the highest level, was strongly disagree) were appropriately coded, cleaned and stored as MS Excel spread sheets. Use of the questionnaire requiring responses on a Likert-type scale to solicit quantitative data helped to control the amount of data received from all the interest groups in the 13 villages in Masia. Descriptive statistics were computed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 19.0. Means and standard deviations for numeric variables were calculated and used for ranking the various perceptions per theme.

Differences in perceptions among the interest groups were tested using nonparametric techniques such as the Kruskal-Wallis test. The Kruskal-Wallis independent samples test is a non-parametric (normal distribution-free) procedure used to establish if three or more sample datasets are significantly different from each other or not (Easton and McColl, 2010). It is conducted to make conclusions through either accepting or rejecting a null hypothesis (H_0). For example, the hypothesis tested in this study was: "There are no differences among children, youth, men, women and community leaders in the perceived priorities for development of village communities in the Masia Traditional Council area". Where statistically significant differences ($P < 0.05$) were detected, follow up (post hoc) tests were conducted using the Mann-Whitney U technique. This helped to isolate the specific interest groups whose perceptions differed significantly. The Mann-Whitney test compared the order of the data of two interest groups using an ordinal scale of measurement, aiming to establish whether the differences could be explained taking into account chance factors.

4.4 Results and Discussion

The results presented in Table 4.1 indicate that the Masia community strongly agreed that their greatest challenge was that "People in the community have a serious dependency syndrome, especially expecting government to do things for them". Dependency syndrome as defined by Bartle (2007) is "an attitude and belief that a group cannot solve its own problems without outside

help". The author further claims that dependency is a weakness that is made worse by availability of charity. Bartle (2007) dissuades donor agencies that tend to entrench the dependency syndrome through simply providing what the people need instead of helping them to identify their challenges and craft ways of solving them. The claim that some agencies tent to entrench dependency is confirmed by a blogger known as Mina in 2008 after his experience with communities in Zambia. Mina (2008) concluded that "many non-governmental organizations (NGO's) are in the business of giving things because that is what donors want". Such NGOs perpetuate poverty and underdevelopment because communities do not become self-reliant and are never involved in making decisions, planning and management of their development initiatives. Although the South African Government (Mandela, 1994, 1995; Zuma, 2010) as explained in Chapter 1 urges communities to work together in order to rebuild their social fabric destroyed by the apartheid system, there is need for a deliberate move towards addressing dependency if people-centred development is to be achieved. Linked to this is priority issue 2, viz. "Some people in this village always criticize everything that is done here yet they do not do anything themselves" which revealed that initiatives needed to improve their own livelihoods was lacking. Consequently, apathy and despondency are perpetuated in the community. This may result in communities blaming the government for their lack of development, hence, protestations which are often a product of lack of community participation and engagement at local government level (Mathekga and Buccus, 2005; Nyalunga, 2006). These issues have the potential to derail development initiatives if not consciously and appropriately addressed.

Although all issues identified by the Masia communities in Table 4.1 revels some level of lack of social cohesion, they perceived issues 4 (There are tensions and conflicts within the community, involving leaders especially), issue 7 (Possible breakdown in communication between community leaders and local residents), issue 9 (Unnecessary postponement of meetings might make people less motivated) and issue 10 (Our community is not united at all) as the issues that are directly perpetuating lack of social cohesion. Social cohesion has been defined as the "affective bonds between citizens" (Chipkin and Ngqulunga 2008), "local patterns of cooperation" (Fearon, Humphreys and Weinstein, 2009) and "the glue that bonds society together, promoting harmony, a sense of community, and a degree of commitment to promoting the common good" (Colletta, Lim and Kelles-Viitanen, 2001). It is an indigenous process which gives communities the ability to act collectively (Fearon et al., 2009) to meet their development goals. This implies that without such a bond, sustainable rural development is unlikely to be achieved.

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Table 4.1 Community perceptions on issues relating to social cohesion (n = 144)

Perception	Mean	Standard deviation
1) People in the community have a serious dependency syndrome, especially expecting government to do things for them	4.16	3.207
2) Some people in this village always criticize everything that is done here yet they do not do anything themselves	4.89	2.617
3) Villages in Ha-Masia are too scattered, which makes coordination of development work very difficult	5.5	2.925
4) There are tensions and conflicts within the community, involving leaders especially	5.62	2.944
5) Poor communication among stakeholders will make it difficult to share important information	5.69	2.454
6) Some parents do not want their children to participate in local development activities	5.86	3.288
7) Possible breakdown in communication between community leaders and local residents	5.86	2.781
8) Community members might not be interested, dedicated and committed to the success of the partnership between MDT and UNIVEN	5.88	2.969
9) Unnecessary postponement of meetings might make people less motivated	6.33	3.12
10) Our community is not united at all	6.36	9.225

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As highlighted above, issues 4 and 10 "There are tensions and conflicts within the community, involving leaders especially" and "Our community is not united at all" respectively confirm that such a bond does not exist. These and other perceptions relating to social cohesion for rural development lend support to the results of various studies undertaken by the World Bank (2005), Easterly *et al.* (2006), Ferroni *et al.* (2008), Hayami (2009) and King, Samii and Snilstveit (2010), which demonstrates a strong connection between social cohesion and development outcomes.

The view that "some parents do not want their children to participate in local development activities" (Table 4.1) reflected that social exclusion was a priority development issue. Linked to this was the concern that "community members might not be interested, dedicated and or committed to the success of the partnership between MDT and UNIVEN". Fearon et al. (2009) are of the view that a brief exposure to participate in community-driven development can help local people to meet their needs. A breakdown in and or poor communication between community leaders, local residents and other stakeholders was highlighted as a major issue that might contribute to ineffective rural development. No significant differences ($P > 0.05$) in perceptions relating to social cohesion issues were observed among the interest groups.

Table 4.2 shows 16 physical infrastructure-related issues that the community identified. Better streets, tarred roads, a community hall and bridges were regarded as the priority needs. Other issues were sports Centre and recreational facilities, crèches, schools, clinics, multipurpose centre, fencing graveyards, construction of a taxi rank, fencing of schools, stadium, shopping complex, railway line and funeral parlour.

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Table 4.2 Community perceptions on issues relating to infrastructure (n = 144)

Perception	Mean	Standard deviation
1) Better streets	4.03	3.344
2) Tarred road	4.87	3.832
3) Community hall	5.59	3.939
4) Bridges	6.18	3.138
5) Sports centre and recreational facilities	6.35	3.829
6) Crèches	6.35	3.824
7) Schools	6.41	3.955
8) Clinic	6.61	4.314
9) Multi-purpose centre	6.65	3.989
10) Fence graveyards	7.33	4.157
11) Taxi rank	7.35	4.424
12) Fence our schools	7.41	4.415
13) Stadium	7.51	4.373
14) Shopping complex/mall	7.98	3.99
15) Railway line	8.87	4.84
16) Funeral parlour	9.84	5.392

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Rural development emphasizes on facilitating change that enable people to improve their livelihoods. Mishra, Akhtar and Tarika (2011) view infrastructure as a key measure of rural development. This is because improved infrastructure has potential create employment, raise workers' productivity and spur economic growth (Hemson, Meyer and Maphunye, 2004; Mishra et al., 2011). This argument is strengthened by the views of Hemson *et al.*, 2004 that there is a link between provision of infrastructure, income growth and human development. Also, one of the key strategic goals of the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development (ISRD) Strategy of 2000 was to increase investment in physical infrastructure. This implies that access to infrastructure play a pivotal role in poverty eradication and development of the rural communities. Significant differences ($P < 0.05$) were detected among the interest groups with respect to the perception, "there is need for a tarred road".

The mean rank for the perceptions of 11-14 year old girls was higher than those for women ($P < 0.05$), and elderly women and men ($P < 0.01$). Also, it was observed that the mean rank for the perceptions of in-school girls was higher than those for out of school boys, elderly women and men ($P < 0.01$) and women ($P < 0.05$). Mean ranks for the same perception for elderly women ($P < 0.01$) and men ($P < 0.05$) were lower than that for 11-14 year old girls. Lastly, it was found that the mean rank for the perceptions of 11-14 year old boys was higher compared to out of school boys and elderly women ($P < 0.05$). Although it was not very clear why there was such a difference in perception, school going children and youth may have felt the need for tarred road because they use the roads to school always or they lack transport due to bad roads. However, there were no significant differences with respect to all the other perceptions on infrastructure needs among the interest groups ($P > 0.05$).

It is shown in Table 4.3 that the Masia community faced numerous basic service-related challenges. There were no differences in perceptions on basic services among interest groups ($P > 0.05$). The residents of Masia strongly agreed that the top priority issues were "supply of water is very poor for most members of our community" and lack of access to potable water to most members of the community. As one of the areas of inequality between races during the Apartheid system, the post-apartheid governments made access to potable water for all the people a critical intervention area (Calfucoy, Cibuka, Davidson, Hinds and Park, 2009). This led to the enactment of the Water Service Act of 1997.

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Table 4.3 Community perceptions on issues relating to basic services (n = 144)

Perception	Mean	Standard deviation
1) Supply of water is very poor for most members of our community	4.78	2.93
2) Most members of our community do not have access to clean water	5.15	3.208
3) Our roads are of poor quality and are not regularly maintained	5.36	3.334
4) We do not have proper sanitation, e.g. better designs of toilets	5.61	2.956
5) Security and support at social grant pay points for the blind and illiterate pensioners is poor	5.7	3.09
6) Most members of our community do not have access to electricity	6.38	3.943
7) Transport services to our community are not reliable	6.56	3.232
8) There is poor safety and security in schools	6.67	3.348
9) Some deserving people in our community do not have access to social grants	6.72	3.277
10) In general, safety and security within the community is very poor	6.74	3.512
11) Supply of electricity is very poor for most members of our community	6.86	3.505
12) Educators are not dedicated and competent	7.58	3.467

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The Act provides that all people should have access to minimum quality and benefit from the use of water resources. In this study, this was closely linked to "lack of proper sanitation such as better and dignified toilets." This would ensure that community members do not use water contaminated by human waste. As indicated in the ISRD strategy (2000), and Hemson *et al.* (2004) most communities in rural areas, including those in the Masia area lack access to this critical resource and services.

The South Africa government has consistently shown its commitment to providing basic services such as electricity and energy, water and sanitation, refuse and waste removal (ISRDS, 2000; Hemson et al., 2004; GGLN, 2012). All these are critical services required to improve communities' livelihoods. Although much has been achieved since the adoption of the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) of 1994 which emphasised service delivery to meet community's basic service needs, there is still a huge backlog at grassroots community level (Krugell, Otto and van der Marwe, 2009; Hemson et al., 2004). The nations of the world including South Africa also made a promise to halve by 2015 the proportion of the population without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation (MD Goal 7, target 2). This promise seem not have been attained and it is likely not d before 2015. This situation is partly attributed to the endemic problem of weak financial management capacity of municipalities (Hollands and Mageza, 2010). The "delivery" question has also created a sense of entitlement on the part of communities, thereby entrenching a dependency syndrome among communities. The mindset has considerably contributed to lack of self-drive and civil protests that have characterized the South African landscape since 2004. Through reflection circles, this study facilitated social change among the Masia communities to participate and contribute in their development.

Access to electricity for most community members and poor supply of electricity were identified as important basic services for the Masia community. The third major issue was "Our roads are of poor quality and are not regularly maintained," which is also related to "Transport services to our community are not reliable." Priority issues 1 and 3 (Table 4.3) are critical to development as they provide easy access to commercial centres. The provision of quality and affordable transport system is a critical precondition for the rural communities to participate in development activities, in particular for those living in remote areas. Other priority issues closely related to this matter were issue 5 (Security and support at social grant pay points for the blind and illiterate pensioners is poor), Issue 8 (There is poor safety and security in schools) and issue 10 (In general, safety and security within the community is very poor). Abraham Maslow recognises

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safety and security as the second most important human need after food. In this study, affected community members required protection from physical harm as they carried out their daily routine tasks. Lack of electricity was singled out as a major priority issue which might also bring about insecurity.

Eight issues relating to utilization of economic opportunities were identified (Table 4.4). No significant differences in perceptions on utilization of economic opportunities were observed among interest groups ($P > 0.05$). The people of Masia agreed that the top priority issue was "We are not sure of the types of crops that can be produced on our land/soil". The Masia communities view growing diverse crops as an important step to food insecurity and improved income. In support of this view, a study done by Faber, Witten and Drimie (2010) concluded that diversified household food production improves food security and increase household earnings. Also, the study underscored the importance of investing in social natural, physical, financial and human capital for improved agricultural intervention. Although Chapter 2 section 27(b) of the South Africa Constitution, Act 108 of 1996 states that "Everyone has the right to have access to sufficient food and water", the nutrition rate of the adults and children in South Africa has been deteriorating especially among the rural poor (Faber et al., 2010). It is likely that this reality is part of the reason why the Masia people poised the need to know types of crops that can be produced in their land. The Masia community also expressed desire to know farming methods and techniques applicable as indicated by priority issue 6 (We do not know which improved farming methods and techniques we should use in this area). As a result of this, there is need for increased efficacy of skills development in order to enlighten the Masia people on the appropriate methods and techniques of production (Daniels, 2007; Koch 2012) which may result to improved food security and incomes. Related to this is issue 5 (We do not know whether we have enough underground water to sustain farming activities). Although water is a scarce resource among developing countries and South Africa in particular (Molobela and Sinha, 2011), it remains a critical resource to improved agricultural activities with potential to improve the Masia peoples food security and incomes. The Masia communities agreed the second priority issue as "people do not view farming as a business". Farming is considered to be a critical economic opportunity with potential to reduce poverty (Faber et al., 2010) and increased household incomes. This can be achieved if farming interventions are transformed into viable business ventures (Longenecker, More, Pretty, Leslie and Polich, 2006). Lack of entrepreneurial culture among most the community members (Parker, 2003) make it difficult for them to turn their farming initiatives into commercially viable businesses (Longenecker et al., 2006).

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Table 4.4 Community perceptions on issues relating to utilization of economic opportunities (n = 144)

Perception	Mean	Standard deviation
1) We are not sure of the types of crops that can best be produced on our land/soil	6.17	2.498
2) People do not view farming as a business	6.75	2.422
3) Grazing land for our livestock, e.g. for our cattle and goats is poor and we do not know how to improve it	6.77	2.832
4) Agricultural facilities such as irrigation no longer work and we do not know how to make them work again	6.92	2.266
5) We do not know whether we have enough underground water to sustain farming activities	7.07	3.109
6) We do not know which improved farming methods and techniques we should use in this area	7.12	4.392
7) Some projects introduced in the past are no longer operating	7.51	2.883
8) Lack of jobs in the community is forcing our youth to migrate to bigger towns	8.63	3.765

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This reality is confirmed what the Masia people stated as priority issue 4 (Agricultural facilities such as irrigation no longer work and we do not know how to make them work again) and priority issue 7 (Some projects introduced in the past are no longer operating). However, in order to establish why these projects failed, there is need for further probing on priority issue 7.

Eleven issues relating to human capacity and skills development were identified in Table 4.5. There were no significant differences ($P > 0.05$) in perceptions relating to the human capital issues were found among the interest groups. The Masia community strongly agreed that the top priority was that "Administrators of the Traditional Council Office lack skills on office administration and how best to relate with clients". Related to this is priority issue 2 (Members of MDT Initiative Committee do not have enough skills in strategic planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation). The Masia communities were of the view that these leaders lacked skills in strategic planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. The views of the Masia communities may be justified to some extent given the task of implementing the MoU and the community development plan ahead. Linked to this are priority issues 6 (Most people in our community do not have adequate skills to manage the environment agricultural projects, raise livestock, other agricultural activities and funds), issue 7 (Most people in our community do not have skills to lead development programmes), issue10 (Most members of Masia Traditional Council do not understand government legislation, relevant laws and lack skills to handle cases brought to them by the community) and issue 11 (Many people in Masia never went to school and cannot read or write). The human capacity concern among the traditional office and the capacity of the community at large bring to light issue 4 (Educational standards in local schools are very low and often lead to poor passes at Matric) that the quality of education offered in the Masia schools to positively contribute to their development. Human capacity and skills development are critical ingredients for sustainable rural development.

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Table 4.5 Community perceptions on issues relating to human capacity and skills development (n = 144)

Perception	Mean	Standard deviation
1) Administrators of the Traditional Council Office lack skills on office administration and how best to relate with clients	4.86	3.454
2) Members of MDT Initiative Committee do not have enough skills in strategic planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation	4.89	4.027
3) Many community members do not know much about the MoU between MDT and UNIVEN	4.93	3.074
4) Educational standards in local schools are very low and often lead to poor passes at Matric	4.93	2.712
5) Most people in our area do not know the history of the people of Ha-Masia	5.02	2.894
6) Most people in our community do not have adequate skills to manage the environment agricultural projects, raise livestock, other agricultural activities and funds	5.14	3.624
7) Most people in our community do not have skills to lead development programmes	5.23	2.847
8) Most members of our community do not participate actively in their own development	5.45	3.153
9) We do not know how to demarcate our land for housing, business, recreational facilities, churches, shops, etc.	5.57	3.722
10) Most members of Masia Traditional Council do not understand government legislation, relevant laws and lack skills to handle cases brought to them by the community	5.6	3.458
11) Many people in Masia never went to school and cannot read or write	5.64	4.434

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Capacity development has been defined in diverse ways depending on its focus. However, definition by Bolger (2000) captures the capacity development which is preferred in this study. Bolger (2000), Daniels (2007) and Koch (2012) view capacity development as including various approaches, strategies and methodologies which seek to improve performance at different social levels. This may be at individual, group, organizational or system levels. Such capacity development requires a long-term capacity development plan in order to achieve sustainable impact. In line with Bolger's argument, it is unlikely that donor-led projects have the ability to provide diverse long-term investment in on-going learning and adaptation. A long-term capacity development programme is possible where there is partnership and or involvement of local learning institution which has potential to continuously provide appropriate capacity requirements.

In the case of the Masia community, University of Venda has committed to a long term relationship where long-term capacity development is guaranteed to the Masia communities in an on-going basis to address various issued raised as challenges currently faced. Also, the university has potential to commit to addressing new capacity challenges that may arise as development process progresses that might potentially hinder sustainable development. This would also address other capacity issues raised in Table 4.4.

Table 4.6 shows six resource mobilization-related issues that the Masia community identified as key to rural development. There were no significant differences ($P > 0.05$) among the interest groups with respect to all the perceptions relating to resource mobilization. The Masia communities strongly agreed that the top priority issue was "We do not know how to access the mineral resources available in this community to improve our local economy". Priority issue 1 indicates that the Masia people are aware of minerals available and would like to use access them to develop their communities. Priority issue 2 (there are few income-generating projects in the villages) is closely related to priority issue 2 Table 4.4. These two issues indicates the need to inculcate entrepreneurial culture (Parker, 2003) among the Masia people to Masia people to start and run successful business (Longenecker et al., 2006). There is also need to further probe this issue to establish the underlying factors for lack of many income generating projects. Priority issue 5 (We do not know how to develop proposals for funding our projects) may partially shed light to why there are few projects and why projects and irrigation facilities previously started fail (refer to issue 2 and Table 4.4, issues 4 and 7). Successful projects and income generating projects requires clear and detailed business plan addressing all aspects of the business or project such as human resource, financial implication, management and customers or users of

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the products (Parker, 2003). Priority issue 3 (Our village does not have a culture of raising funds to support our own initiatives) has a bearing on priority issue 1 and 2 in Table 4.1 (dependency syndrome and people who sit and criticize everyone while they do not do anything themselves) which have been explained in detail. This is an indication that the Masia communities understand the challenges at hand and require support in order to mobilize resources for implementation of community projects. To successfully implement sustainable rural development initiatives, there is need for resource mobilization. The Venture for Fund Raising (VFR, 2010) defines resource mobilization as "a management process that involves identifying people who share the same values as your organization, and taking steps to manage that relationship". In Chiam's (2011) view, resource mobilization includes building valuable contacts and networks, and garnering the interest, support, and in-kind contributions of people important to your organization.

Although Chiam views resource mobilization as different from fund raising, Boachie-Danquah (2007) maintains that financial resource, whether internally generated or externally transferred is the organization's existence.. In order for the Masia communities to achieves sustainable rural development, it is imperative that resources such as natural, financial, human, physical and social capitals advocated by Bebbington (1999), Schreiner (2004), Nkala, Mango, Corbeels, Veldwisch and Huising (2011), which are often referred as livelihood assets are mobilized. Of all the resources highlighted, Boachie-Danquah (2007), View human resource to be the most important. This is because human resource includes knowledge, skills and experience. Although finance is very important, human resource or capital, if appropriately deployed has potential to provide the most craved sustainable community development.

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Table 4.6 Community perceptions on issues relating to resource mobilization (n = 144)

Perception	Mean	Standard deviation
1) We do not know how to access the mineral resources available in this community to improve our local economy	7.88	3.527
2) There are very few income-generating projects in this villages	8.28	4.832
3) Our village does not have a culture of raising funds to support our own initiatives	8.5	4.39
4) It is taking too long to resolve the land claims we made	8.58	4.595
5) We do not know how to develop proposals for funding our projects	8.62	4.144
6) Venues for meetings are too small to accommodate large numbers of people	9.17	4.975

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Table 4.7 shows eight (8) health and wellness-related issues that the Masia communities identified. . Significant inter-interest group differences ($P < 0.05$) in perceptions regarding priority issue 5 (Care for children and persons with disabilities is poor) were observed. In numerical terms, the top three mean ranks for this perception were those for 7-10 year old boys (75.78), in-school girls (59.57) and out of school girls (58.86) respectively. The three lowest mean ranks for this perception in descending order of magnitude were those for elderly women (44.63), men (29.39) and out of School girls (18.57). It was observed that the mean rank for the perceptions of 7-10 year old girls was higher than those for elderly women and men ($P < 0.01$) and out of school boys ($P < 0.05$). Also, the mean ranks for the same perception for elderly women and men ($P < 0.01$) and ($P < 0.05$) were lower than that for 7-10 year old boys. Lastly, it was found that the mean rank for the perceptions of out of school girls was higher compared to elderly women, men and out of school boys ($P < 0.05$). However, there were no significant differences among all the remaining interest groups with respect to all the other perceptions on health and wellness.

The Masia Community strongly agreed the top priority issue as (feeding schemes do not include secondary schools where children experience hunger). Linked to priority issues 1 is priority issue 2 (some deserving people and most vulnerable were not receiving food parcels). The two top priority issues highlight potential challenge in assessing hunger situation in the area as well as lack of proper targeting of those who actually require food supply. Abraham Maslow's theory of hierarchy of needs placed food at the very bottom level of the hierarchy indicating that it is a critical metabolic requirement for human survival. The South Africa's antipoverty strategy of 2008 provided a framework which if appropriately employed would help to establish vulnerable people to be targeted for food supply.

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Table 4.7 Community Perception on issues relating health and wellness (n = 144)

Perception	Mean	Standard deviation
1) Feeding schemes do not include secondary schools which also experience hunger problem	6.1	3.235
2) Some deserving poor and most vulnerable people are not receiving food parcels	6.47	3.189
3) Our community is not committed to caring for the orphans	6.92	3.221
4) There are no local strategies for preventing abuse of disadvantaged and marginalized, in particular women and children	7.04	3.476
5) Care for children and other persons with disabilities is poor	7.1	3.123
6) We do not have a health Centre or clinic	7.47	4.476
7) Most people in our community are not participating in sporting activities	7.48	4.275
8) The local clinic is poorly equipped with medicines, especially for patients with chronic diseases	8.42	4.405

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Masia area being rural, some children may come from poor households where food provided at the school may be the only meal a child gets (Faber et al., 2010). Lack of proper nutrition affects child's performance may impedes child's ability to involve in physical activities as it requires energy. The situation has potential to perpetuate health related complications on the children. Priority issue 7 (most people in our community are not participating in sporting activities) may has direct relationship with priority issue 1 and 2 and may also be as a result of lack of sports Centre and recreational facilities as indicated in Table 4.2, priority issues 5. Priority issues 3 (Our community is not committed to caring for the orphans) and issue 5 (Care for children and other persons with disabilities is poor) may be as a result of priority issue 4 (There are no local strategies for preventing abuse of disadvantaged and marginalized, in particular women and children). Lack of laid down strategies on how to address issues relating to children, orphans and people with disabilities may be a challenge to the community as a whole. This may require the communities in Masia to develop strategies to address such issues. Priority issues 6 (We do not have a health Centre or clinic) and issue 8 (The local clinic is poorly equipped with medicines, especially for patients with chronic diseases), also highlighted in Table 4.2 are basic requirement for the communities. Although Chapter 7 section 153 (a) of the South African Constitution Act 108 of 1996 instructs local municipalities to prioritise provision of basic services, it is not clear how municipalities determine those who deserve the basic need (Bhorat, and van der Westhuizen, 2010). This may partly be the causal factor to the Masia community perceptions.

The Masia community identified fourteen leadership and governance-related issues as shown in Table 4.8. There were no significant differences ($P > 0.05$) among the interest groups with respect to all the perceptions relating to leadership and governance. The Masia communities strongly agreed the top priority issue was that "Civic and Traditional Leaders do not normally facilitate community activities or events together as a team". This priority issue confirms lack of cohesion (Chipkin and Ngqulunga, 2008) among community leaders which has potential to derail development initiatives within the community as earlier explained. Related to this is the priority issue 2 (Most of our leaders lack leadership skills and need relevant training). This has already been addressed in Table 4.5. Lack of capacity among the local leaders has negative impact not only on the governance system but also in the implementation of the development initiatives.

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Table 4.8 Community perceptions on issues relating to leadership and governance (n = 144)

Perception	Mean	Standard deviation
1) Civic and Traditional Leaders do not normally facilitate community activities or events together as a team	4.71	2.983
2) Most of our leaders lack leadership skills and need relevant training	4.92	2.723
3) Important decisions are usually made and implement without involving us	4.95	3.042
4) There are no development or working committees in our village	5.05	2.834
5) Most of the time our leaders do not give feedback to us after attending meetings or development workshops	5.12	3.231
6) Decision making processes are usually too slow	5.22	3.411
7) Community leaders are not respected	5.24	3.438
8) Most people in this village come to meetings late	5.24	3.154
9) Principals and School Governing Bodies (SGBs) lack skills in policy making and implementation	5.26	3.613
10) It is difficult to coordinate development work in Ha-Masia because the villages are in different Wards of the Municipality	5.31	3.203
11) Many leaders think about themselves only and not about the people	5.32	3.293
12) We are not involved in monitoring and evaluation of projects implemented here	5.42	3.151
13) There is no Civic Association that covers the whole of Ha-Masia	5.54	3.28
14) Our Councillor does not seem to be interested in participating in local development work	5.82	3.874

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Lack of capacity among leaders is likely to result to failure in involving communities in making decisions that concern them (Issue 3), hence, confirming the views of Zadeh and Ahmend (2010)., This situation may also have resulted to leaders taking too long to make decisions (issue 6), failure to provide feedback to communities after attending meetings (issue 5), unable to organize, coordinate (issue 10) and manage development or working committees (issue 4) in their relevant constituencies, communities attending meetings late (issue 8) perhaps due to lack of respect towards their leaders (issue 7) and the feeling that their leaders are selfish (issue 11).

Although the South African constitution (Act 108 of 1996: Chapter 7) provides that the purpose of local government is to promote involvement of communities and their institutions in their development, this has proved to be a major challenge due to lack of leadership and governance skills (Nyalunga, 2006). Based on this reality, there is need to prioritise leadership training with the involvement of communities if sustainable development is to be achieved. Also, the reality on the ground is an indication that existing and well written policy frameworks, institutions and programme interventions strategies in place may not be complying with the government's constitutional and statutory obligations as espoused by Buccus et al. (2008). Traditional leaders, the Councillors and their Ward committees in particular are some of the institutions that are close to rural communities. These leadership institutions have a clear mandate to promote socio-economic development and good governance in rural areas as articulated in the Traditional leadership and governance Act of 2003 and the Local Government Municipal Systems Act of 2000. Although such policy imperatives are in place, the communities are rarely involved in decision making or feedback is provided. Given the level of human capacity and leadership quality gap indicated the need for addressing this capacity cannot be overemphasised.

4.5 The Masia Community Development Plan

Conventional rural development planning approaches that are applied worldwide suffer from a community participation deficit. Rarely are communities allowed to inform their development agenda. Government systems often impose top-down approaches where the views of communities are not solicited through a participatory process. In addition, such an approach not likely to promote a development process that is able to empower as well as harness local resources (Kennedy and Mead, 1996; Nemes, 2005; Kennedy, Tilly and Arce, 2009). Often, external development agents including governments use the activities referred by Arnstein as 'Tokenism', manipulation and therapy in place of genuine participation and also equate provision of information with empowerment (Arnstein, 1996; Pretty, 1995; World Bank 2002; Cornwall,

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2008). However, this type of participation, denies right of the communities to make decisions that relate to their own development issues.

The community development planning that is participatory applies a bottom-up approach where communities have control over decisions that affect their lives, develop their capacities to intervene in their own development process, and bring justice to their lives and society as a whole (Kennedy & Mead, 1996). As revealed in Chapter 2, development agents use sectoral approaches that involve a few selected individuals who are not likely to represent the grassroots community development needs. They also do not give feedback to the target community. Added to this is that there is no clear process on how the decision to implement a certain projects is arrived at. Important to note is the general lack of children and youth participation in development programming. Thus, this study endeavoured to close this gap by producing a University and community-driven planning model as presented in chapter 3 that enable rural communities to jointly work with a broad range of stakeholders in making decisions on how to address their local development challenges. By so doing, communities were capacitated to identify, define and prioritise their development needs which would ultimately reduce excessive dependence on external support to solve local issues. The capacity development of rural community members also created a pool of paraprofessionals who can be deployed to address similar challenges. Also through the community-driven planning pointers to municipal IDPs formulation are identified. In this way, the true meaning of public participation as enshrined in the Municipal Systems Act of 2000 was demonstrated. Chapter 3 elucidates involvement of communities in making decision that inform their development agenda.

Chapter 3 sections 3.2 and 3.3 reveals that all interest groups in the 13 villages of Masia Traditional Council area actively participated in identifying, defining and prioritizing their development issues/challenges. The community development issues were organized into eight strategic goals which constituted the Masia development dream. The dream was consolidated and a development plan constructed from all what they said. Each strategic goal is made up of a set of inter-related development issues.

In order to facilitate effective implementation of each project, facilitation team further analysed strategic goals, thematic areas and objectives in order to further link closely related objectives to one thematic area. This process resulted to four broad development goals (Table 4.9) which will be spearheaded by one technical expert. Each development goal was aligned with closely related project themes.

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Table 4.9 The fundamental components of the Masia Community Development Plan

Development Goal	The project theme are to:
1. To improve social cohesion for collective action against poverty and underdevelopment in Ha-Masia	1) Campaign for incorporation of Ha-Masia villages into one municipal ward 2) Develop a communication plan to improve the flow of information on local development initiatives 3) Facilitate the development of teamwork among community leaders 4) Reduce tensions among community members to improve participation in development work 5) Revive adherence to cultural traditions, values and morals 6) Promote competitions for rural development among community members 7) Promote competitions for rural development among community members
2. To improve the utilisation of economic opportunities in order to enhance the livelihoods of people in Ha-Masia	1) Enhance utilization of water resources for local economic development 2) Improve agricultural productivity 3) Identify and revitalise dilapidated agricultural facilitie 4) Identify and revive failed income generation projects 5) Facilitate the establishment and nurture growth and development of relevant cooperatives 6) Develop local businesses into commercially viable enterprises 7) Facilitate improvement or establishment of savings mobilization schemes or institutions for economic development
3. To enhance provision of basic services to the Ha-Masia community	1) Improve access and availability of clean and affordable energy 2) Improve provision of clean water and sanitation 3) Improve reliability of transport services 4) Improve safety and security 5) Promote provision of better education and acquisition of skills for people-centred development 6) Strengthen health and wellbeing
4. To mobilise resources for the effective implementation of people-centred development Initiatives in Ha-Masia	1) Strengthen working relationships with national, provincial and local governments, NGOs, private sector and donors for effective implementation of the Masia development plan 2) Develop capacity of MDT to implement the Masia development plan

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Each project theme has potential to be developed into a full pledged project proposal. This was done to make it possible for one technical expert to spearhead implementation of relevant projects themes and also provide guidance to the project implementation team in the development of funding proposals. Each technical expert is expected to lead project implementation teams. Each project implementation team constitutes village project implementation team and experts from the university. Table 4.9 shows the development goals and project themes which the facilitation team with some technical expertise from UNIVEN constructed in order to enable them identify and mobilise technical staff to effectively manage implementation of community-defined project.

4.6 Conclusions

In conclusion, the Masia communities, through a UNIVEN facilitated participatory and holistic process identified, defined and prioritized their own local development agenda. The process created a solid ground for effective rural development planning. The Masia communities through continuous training were empowered to construct their own development plan with a clear plan of action. Although all development issues raised by the Masia communities were obligatory, some of the issues were deemed more critical if development is to be achieved under each strategic goal as indicated in Table 4.1 all the way through to Table 4.8. The communities were involved in the construction of the development goals, thematic areas, objectives, values, and vision and mission statements. The communities also defined the criteria for the type of people thy wanted to implement their projects. Using the 10-point criteria, communities selected project implementation teams per village and also prioritised projects in order of importance. The Masia development process confirmed that rural communities have potential to develop themselves if they are appropriately guided.

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CHAPTER 5 SYNTHESIS OF THE RURAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING MODEL

5.1 Introduction

Conventional planning approaches used in South Africa and beyond to achieve sustainable rural development rarely yield the desired results. As highlighted in Chapters 1 and 2, development practice remains largely sectoral, project-based and top-down (Conyers, 1986; Piel, 1992; Estes, 1993; Mathekga and Buccus, 2009). Considerable financial resources have also been invested in implementing rural development through such approaches (MacMillan and Graham, 1978; Manzuri and Rao, 2003; UNCDF, 2006; Ahmed et al., 2009). However, poverty and underdevelopment persist where these projects are implemented. Throughout the world, people are materially deprived; have low incomes, low levels of education and poor health care; are voiceless and powerless in addition to being vulnerable (World Bank, 2000; International Fund for Agriculture and Development: IFAD, 2011). This situation justifies the argument that the approaches that development practitioners and government systems use are not appropriate for rural development (Devkota, 2000; Leksakundilok, 2006; Nikkhah and Redzunan, 2009; Shucksmith, 2010). In this respect, there is need to formulate relevant, holistic and participatory models or approaches that address rural development challenges in a sustainable manner.

Principle number 5 of the United Nations (UN) Sustainable Development Agenda 21 emphasizes the importance of all the people to work together in order to eradicate poverty as an indispensable ingredient for sustainable development (United Nations: UN, 1992; 2002). The need for full implementation of Agenda 21 was reaffirmed during the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD), often referred to as Rio+5, held in Johannesburg in 2002. This world policy imperative emphasizes holistic and participatory development with the potential to empower the grassroots communities to take charge of their own socio-economic emancipation. Although all the countries embraced Agenda 21, communities in particular those in rural areas where poverty rates are highest, rarely participate in making decisions on issues that hamper the realization of their dreams and aspirations of community development as espoused by Freire (1970, 1993), Chambers (1994), Devkota (2000) and de Campos (2009). Thus, they remain poor, materially deprived, voiceless and disempowered.

In addition to the issues described above, the relevance of universities in societal transformation and development is increasingly coming under intense scrutiny. It is increasingly being argued that universities are not playing their roles in finding practical solutions to the challenges that

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rural communities in developing countries face (Boyer, 1996; Soska and Butterfield, 2004; Hansen and Lehmann, 2006; Naidoo, 2007; Badat, 2009). As engines of knowledge creation and diffusion, universities are expected to promote knowledge and innovations that can potentially improve the livelihoods of communities and yield social justice (Kuhnen, 1978; Gunasekara, 2006; Boulton and Lucas, 2011; Youtie and Shapira, 2008). However, the knowledge that universities generate rarely responds to the real needs of the researched communities. For this reason, universities must transform and form partnerships with rural communities (Bridger and Alter, 2006; Naidoo, 2007; Badat, 2009) in the struggle for sustainable solutions to societal challenges. According to Judd and Adams (2008:117-118), university-community partnerships should form "powerful organizations that spur interaction among key partners and serve to focus tasks, guide decision-making, facilitate communication, undergird cohesiveness and support leadership". The partnerships must create opportunities that help to understand the needs of communities and facilitate participatory development through programmes that enhance people's capacities to improve their social wellbeing and serve the larger purpose of building a more just society (Boyer, 1996; Bridger and Alter, 2006; Ijaduola 2011). Given South Africa's apartheid history, for example, such approaches are likely to be most needed to address the dependency syndrome it created.

Since the advent of democracy in 1994, successive South African governments have formulated various policies with the aim of creating an enabling environment that might help entrench participatory democracy and promote sustainable rural development programming. However, implementation of these policies and strategies remains inadequate and unsatisfactory (Buccus et al., 2008; Orthman and Sirnadhoo, 2009; Skenjana and Afesis-corpla, 2011). The Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998 and Municipal Systems Act of 2000 are some of the policies that mandate each Local Municipality to craft a holistic and integrated development plan (IDP) with the full participation of the people who reside in it. However, Municipalities face huge implementation bottlenecks due to inadequate human resource capacity and limited funding (Ntsebeza, 2004; Mathekga and Buccus, 2006; Van Donk, 2007). Also important to note are the inherent tensions that exist between elected and traditional leaders. The tensions emanate from the lack of clarity of the respective institutional roles, functions and powers with respect to spearheading development and administration of land (Ntsebeza, 2004; Mathekga and Buccus, 2006). Also, there are tensions between Ward Committees and Community Development Workers (CDWs), which originate mainly from the salaries paid to CDWs compared to the low stipends, if any, that Ward committees receive (Nyalunga, 2006; Skenjana and Afesis-corpla,

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2011). This situation makes it difficult for local Municipalities to adhere to the dictates of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act of 2000 which requires them to promote and sustain a culture of participatory governance.

The White Paper on Municipal Service Partnership of 2000 provides for collaboration between local Municipalities and relevant institutions, aiming to close the capacity gap in development programming. Partnerships with local universities might help Municipalities to apply trans-disciplinary approaches as they aim to address the development challenges in a holistic manner and take into account all the issues relating to community life (Devkota, 2000; Swanepoel, 2005). Functional partnerships involving stakeholders such as grassroots communities, universities, government departments, private organizations, international and national NGOs might bring a rich tapestry of ideas and resources needed to plan and implement sustainable development.

In order to demonstrate its relevance and play a more meaningful role in improving the quality of life of people in its primary constituency, the University of Venda (UNIVEN), a rural–based higher education institution has over the last six years established various partnerships with rural communities (Francis et al., 2010). One such successful partnership is with the Masia Traditional Council area located in Makhado Municipality of Vhembe District in Limpopo Province. In 2009, Masia Development Trust (MDT) representing the local Traditional Council successfully established a partnership with UNIVEN. The partnership was concretized through the signing of a memorandum of understanding (MoU). The ultimate goal of the partnership was to facilitate the formulation of a participatory and holistic development plan aiming to yield community-defined and run development initiatives. Through the UNIVEN-MDT collaborative work in the Masia area, UNIVEN facilitated participatory rural development planning processes that involved various stakeholders. This chapter synthesises the major features of the study that sought to demonstrate how a University and Community, in this case, UNIVEN-MDT partnership guided various interest groups within the 13 villages in the Masia Traditional Council area in crafting an integrated community development plan.

The central challenge this research aimed to address was that conventional rural development planning approaches were not satisfactory. For this reason, the need for developing a more appropriate rural development planning model that was community-driven was not in question. Community-driven development entails involvement of a wide range of interest groups within rural communities in the planning process. This is done in order to empower them to take charge

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and manage their own livelihood improvement initiatives. Such planning models must be context-specific and people-centred. Taking this argument into account, the specific objectives that guided this study were to:

a) determine what the interest groups at village level perceived to be relevant development;
b) assess whether children, youth, men, women and community leaders had similar perceptions on what they regarded as appropriate development; and
c) define the roles that University staff, students, community members and local leadership institutions should play when implementing community-driven development.

5.2 Synthesis of the Study

As reported above, the aim of the study was to formulate a university and community-driven model for rural development planning. Ample evidence on how a rural-based university facilitated social change working together with the communities it served is provided in Chapter 3. The three components of the model presented below illustrate how a participatory and holistic university and community-driven model for rural development planning was formulated.

A synthesis of this study is provided aiming to spell out how a university and community-driven model for rural development planning was constructed in the Masia Traditional Council area. The synthesis highlights the theoretical underpinnings, research questions and methodological issues of the thesis. The synthesis includes the main components of the rural development planning model. Facts relating to the model are sequentially presented and described in order to enable possible replication in other areas within South Africa and beyond. The three main components of the model reveal the efforts made to inculcate and entrench genuine community involvement in the rural development planning process. There is a huge potential that this might enhance social cohesion through the application of appropriate methodologies and result in collective action. It is vital to empower communities to an extent that they implement their own development initiatives with little or no external input, in line with the recommendations of Dongier et al., 2003; Swanepoel and De Beer (2006); Nikkah and Redzuan (2009); and, Francis et al., (2010). In this work, UNIVEN deployed the Centre for Rural Development and Poverty Alleviation (CRDPA) to serve as a development facilitator, convener and leader in rural development efforts in the Masia area. Students and staff participated in the development process in a collegial relationship with appointed local community members who represented MDT.

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5.3 Methodological Issues

An exploratory, descriptive research design was adopted in this study. Both qualitative and quantitative techniques were applied. The qualitative approach addressed issues such as the social preparation or community entry, facilitated participatory village-based exploratory engagements involving children, youth, women, men and community leaders as interest groups that provided narrative insights on local development issues. This was done through reflection circles and supplementary semi-structured focal discussions. On the other hand, the quantitative investigation was questionnaire-based and aimed to generate numerical data on the community-identified and defined development issues. At the centre of all this social experimentation on rural development planning were facilitated reflection circles as depicted in Figure 5.1. This built on the preliminary work of Francis et al. (2010) and women empowerment studies by Moyo (2011).

During reflection circles, representatives of interest groups regularly sat in a circular set up to deliberate on issues pertaining to their development. Reed and Kobila (2003) describe reflection circles as a way of providing space for each participant to have the right and opportunity to speak. Branch and Paranjape (2002) view reflection as a process of allowing individuals to assimilate and rework learned skills, knowledge and values into pre-existing knowledge structures. In addition to these authors, Leong and Yew (2010) also point out that every thought, idea or opinion formed as a result of reflection has value and ensures that each individual's contribution is recognised. This makes reflection circles critical when defining development issues since they provide the opportunity to take into account the ideas of all the people being engaged.

In this study, facilitated reflection circles proved effective because community members had the opportunity to raise, discuss and prioritise development issues in an open and democratic way. In the process of discussing the development issues, the community members shared their knowledge and experiences, and suggested solutions to the challenges faced. The reflection circles provided a platform for community members to express their views on development and also suggested ways of addressing the issues. The community members included boys and girls as young as seven (7) years old up to the oldest individuals in each village, irrespective of their social status. Within each interest group, they shared and discussed their development challenges as they knew them.

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The CRDPA served as the main facilitator, using appropriate questions, tools and techniques that enabled community members in the reflection circles to think and interact, share experiences and learn from each other. Engaging communities at village level provided a platform for all the interest groups to contribute to their own development. Reflection circles also enhanced collective thinking. The latter has the potential to enhance social cohesion within communities and promote working together. The feedback sessions indicated that participants could define and dictate the pace and nature of their own learning as they engaged in the reflection circles.

Application of reflection circle outcomes expanded the work of Branch and Paranjape (2002) and the Pamoja Africa Reflect Network (PARN), 2008). In the work of Branch and Paranjape (2002), reflection was used as a basic teaching method in a clinical setting. Its main purpose was to enhance the assimilation of concepts, skills, knowledge and values into pre-existing knowledge. With respect to the PARN activities, reflection was used to facilitate critical analysis of the group's environment as well as identification and discussion of problems faced during project implementation. By organizing reflection sessions, PARN aimed to produce practical solutions for successful project implementation. Its reflection methodology combined Paulo Freire's adult learning theories and Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) tools whilst engaging women groups during evaluation of development projects. The PARN activities focused on HIV/AIDs, conflict resolution education and governance. The PARN reflection used is relevant to this study as it provided opportunity for all interest groups in the community to discuss development issues that they faced, share knowledge and experiences, and suggest possible solutions to the challenges they faced in a democratic way.

In this study, the rural community in question was made up of the 13 villages that constituted the Masia Traditional Council area. The community was disaggregated into interest groups as follows: children (7-10 year old boys and girls; 11-14 year old boys and girls); youth (boys and girls still in secondary or high schools; males and females no longer attending school); women (both middle-aged and the elderly); men (both middle-aged and the elderly); and community leaders. Only Moyo (2011) has ever similarly disaggregated the community in a practical research platform. However, as she investigated the extent of women empowerment in some Wards of Makhado Municipality, she did not use her results to develop an intervention plan. This makes the current study in Masia ground breaking and of very significant practical relevance in

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rural development planning. In the following sections, this issue is explored further within the broader context of the rural development planning model that this study yielded.

5.4 Key Components of the Proposed Rural Development Planning Model

Various inter-related steps that guided how a university could facilitate implementation of grassroots community-prioritized development were followed in this study. This culminated in the formulation of the proposed university-community driven rural development planning model depicted in Figure 5.1. The major pillars of this model are planning to plan; rural development planning; and planning to implement the rural development plan. Although Figure 5.1 presents a comprehensive, all-inclusive summary of the key components of the rural development planning model, they are articulated in the proceeding sections.

5.4.1 Planning to plan rural development

Planning to plan is the first phase and is designed to lay a solid foundation for rural development programming. As already reported in Chapter 3, social preparation was desirable because it set the tone for achieving the goals of the UNIVEN-MDT partnership. Various pre-community entry engagements involving institutional leaders at UNIVEN and MDT levels were organized. The engagements culminated in the development of a MoU, which was signed on 19 September 2009 at a public function. Representatives of all the 13 villages in Masia, their leaders and invited external dignitaries were present.

After the formalization of the partnership between UNIVEN and MDT, a series of activities was implemented. All of them were designed to create awareness and secure commitment of the village-based communities and their institutions to play active roles in its implementation. In an effort to obtain community perceptions on the aspects that could enrich the MoU, children, youth, women, men and community leaders in all the 13 villages of the Masia Traditional Council were engaged.

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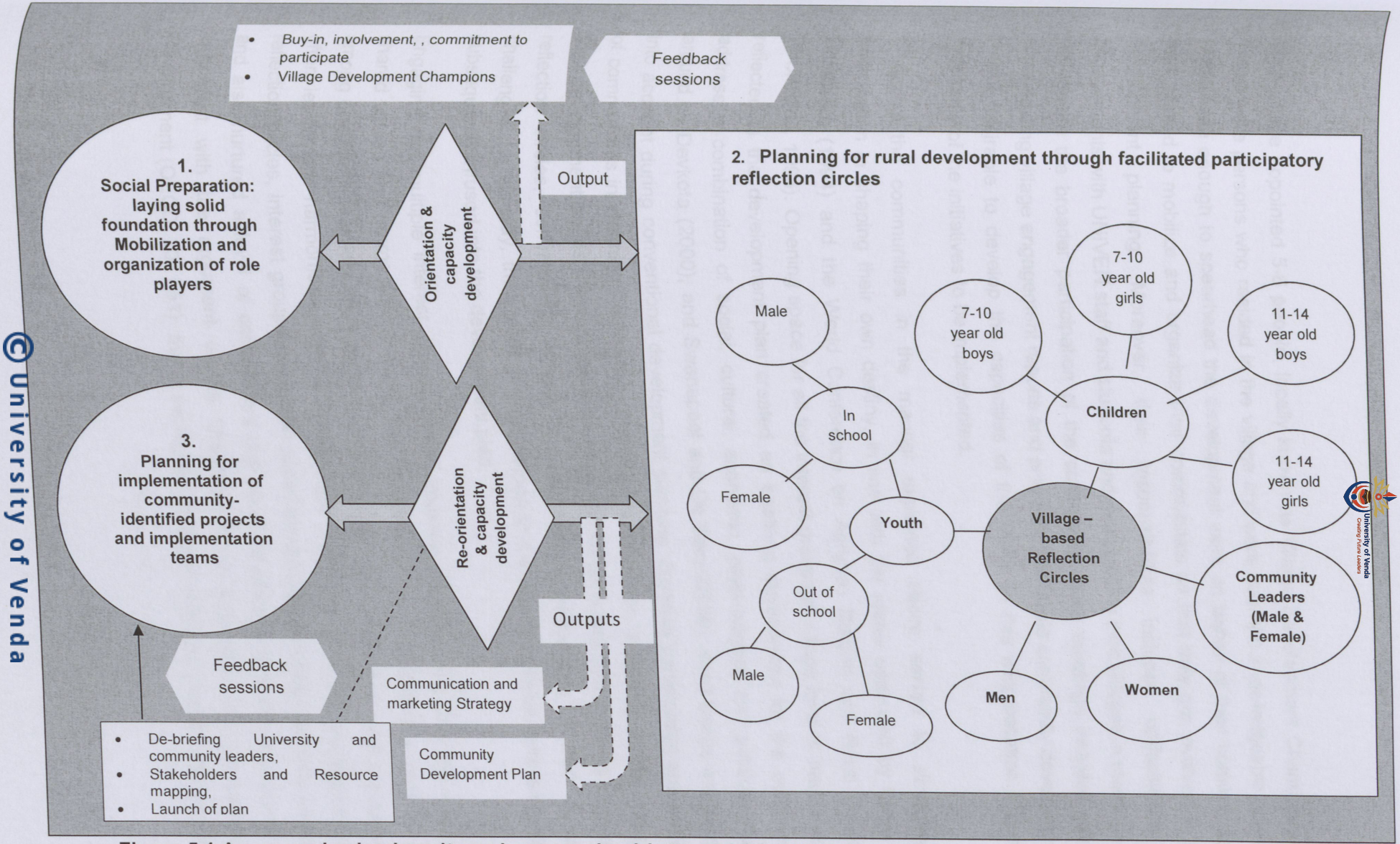


Figure 5.1 A summarized university and community-driven social facilitation model for rural development planning

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Each village appointed 5-6 people, locally known as Village Development Champions (VDCs). These were persons who resided in the village and were deemed knowledgeable, capable and responsible enough to spearhead the development work on behalf of their communities. They were tasked to mobilize and organize their communities so that they got involved in the rural development planning. Moreover, their responsibilities included co-facilitating village engagements with UNIVEN staff and students and representing their villages in meetings that did not require the broader participation of the community. Such meetings included writing and consolidating village engagement reports and preparing the Masia community development plan. It was desirable to develop the capacities of the VDCs in this way because it guaranteed ownership of the initiatives to be implemented.

Engaging the communities in the manner explained above served to strengthen their participation in shaping their own destiny, in line with the ideals espoused by Freire (1970), Chambers (1994) and the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (WCARRD, 1998). Opening space for all the interest groups at village level to have their voices reflected in the development plan created an enabling environment for the communities to address a combination of social, cultural, economic, psychological and political issues. As argued by Devkota (2000), and Swanepoel and De Beer (2006), such issues are rarely taken into account during conventional development planning. Genuine participation and involvement of communities in planning helped the concerned communities to identify, define and prioritise their development needs. Through participating in discussions and open sharing of ideas in the reflection circles, communities arrived at a common understanding of their development challenges. In this way, the voices of each person in the interest groups were articulated and subsequently infused into the development plan.

Engaging the multiple interest groups helped improve understanding and the realization of shared values and norms among them. The reflection circles eliminated the question of class among communities where each person contributed and their views were taken seriously which often lead more harmonious working relationships. As a result of the engagements in the reflection circles, interest groups developed social bonds that promoted harmony among them and also nurtured a level of commitment that could advance their common interest. This is consistent with the argument of the Organisation for Economic and Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2011:51) that a society is "cohesive" if it works towards the well-being of

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all its members, fights exclusion and marginalisation, creates a sense of belonging, promotes trust, and offers its members the opportunity of upward social mobility".

Social cohesion is rarely considered in development programming. Yet it featured prominently as an impediment to rural development in the Masia area. In Chapter 4, the Masia communities stated that there were "lack of unity", "tensions" and "conflicts" involving leaders within the communities. This confirms lack of cohesion as defined by Colletta et al. (2001), Chipkin and Ngqulunga (2008) and Fearon et al. (2009) in Chapter 4 which is necessary to meet their development goals. In this study, engaging the various interest groups through reflection circles enhanced inter-stakeholder understanding of local issues and each other's views, thereby strengthening social cohesion. Of particular concern to the local population was the excessive dependency syndrome (refer to Chapter 4), which manifested itself through people always expecting the government to do things for them. As espoused by ideals of Dongier *et al.* (2003) Mansuri and Rao (2003), Bartle (2007) Nikkhah and Redzunan (2009) and Saqalli *et al.* (2011), there is need to fully involve all interest groups in the communities in decision making, empower them to take charge and contribute to their development interventions.

As reported in Chapter 1, since the advent of democracy in 1994 former President Nelson Mandela's rallying call for the creation of a "people-centered society" (Mandela 1994; 1995) has consistently guided the formulation of various policies. This thinking is consistent with what the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996 (Chapter 7) espouses. The White Paper on Local Government of 1998 also highlights the centrality of participation of communities in their own development. The Zuma slogan, namely "Working together we can do more" (Zuma, 2010) is a refreshing implementation framework of the Mandela rallying cry. Both strengthen the world call through the UN Agenda 21 for people to work together and make collective decisions on matters that concern them. This promotes the empowerment of people at grassroots level through continuous capacity development.

Capacity development of all stakeholders was central role to building a solid foundation for 'planning to plan'. This confirms the views of Reid and Gibb (2004) and Aref, Redzuan and Gill (2010). Furthermore, it assisted the communities in the Masia area to identify and solve most of the challenges they faced during the planning process. Studies undertaken by Bopp, GermAnn, LittleJohn and Smith (2000), Labonte and Laverack (2001), Laverack (2005) and Maclellan, Anderson, Smith, Cantin and Felix (2007) regard community participation, leadership, social networks, community control as well as the potential for resource mobilization as the most

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important empowerment primers for sustainable development in rural communities. This study confirmed the importance of these empowerment primers because the capacities of the communities and leadership institutions were continuously developed. As a result, they were able to collectively identify, define and prioritise their needs when planning the Masia development agenda.

The orientation workshops orientated various community institutions, particularly traditional leaders and civic associations on their specific roles and responsibilities in development. Mobilizing these institutions helped create enabling environments for engaging village-based interest groups. This lent support to the views held by Maclellan et al. (2007) that when the people's capacities are improved, their confidence is boosted and a sense of responsibility is instilled in them. One major feature of the current study was protracted community engagements and use of participatory tools and techniques, which helped to gain deeper knowledge of the 'community psychology' (Montero, 2012). Montero (2004) define community psychology as a "branch of psychology whose object is the study of psychosocial factors allowing the development, promotion and placement of control and power exercised by the people on their individual and social environment, in order to solve the problems affecting them and achieve changes within their environment and in the social structure. It increased the communities' commitment for transformation (Montero, 2012). Worth noting was identification of opinion leaders and other influential people within the 13 villages in Masia. If not properly identified and managed, such people might disable successful rural development planning. This understanding helped formulate a community mobilization strategy, which was crucial for completing the rural development planning.

Engaging various interest groups within the villages on their roles in development planning through reflection circles equipped them to participate in mobilizing and organizing themselves for collective action. This was necessary because it provided a favourable environment for all the community members to freely contribute through sharing and learning from practical experiences. Similar views are expressed in the work of PARN (2010), which highlights the importance of using a reflective evaluation framework to evaluate development projects to achieve sustainable results.

The model proposed in this study (summarised in Figure 5.1 and Table 5.1) highlights the fact that the capacity challenge relating to participatory development planning which is plaguing local municipalities in rural areas of South Africa (Mathekga and Buccus, 2006; Skenjana and Afesis-

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corpla, 2011) can be addressed. Moreover, the rural development planning model might help reduce the role conflicts existing among Ward committees, Community Development Workers (CDWs), civic associations and traditional leaders. In this study, the capacity development workshops organised for all the local leaders, including Ward Committees, Civic Associations and CDWs to discuss their roles in rural development were a conscious effort to address this challenge. This should never be ignored when planning with grassroots communities. Also worth noting is the centrality of the public university in mobilizing and deploying multidisciplinary expertise to help address the multifaceted and systemic challenges faced by rural communities.

The Municipality serves as the main strategic partner by virtue of its statutory mandate of ensuring that the IDP, which is the supreme roadmap for development is in place. Taking rural communities into consideration, the White paper on Local Government of 1998 gives the Ward Committee under the leadership of an elected Councillor the mandate to drive implementation of municipal programmes. Skenjana and Afesis-corpla (2011) support this fact. The Ward Councillor reports directly to the Speaker's Office, which coordinates implementation of Councillors' programmes of action.

The White paper on Traditional Leadership and Governance of 2003 recognizes traditional leaders as special advisors to the government on issues concerning grassroots communities. Also, it directs the traditional councils to support local municipalities in facilitating community involvement in development planning. However, due to role conflicts, this working relationship rarely takes place in most local municipalities. Through this study the specific roles of traditional and elected leaders in rural development were clarified, resulting in collective action and collegial relationships that helped the planning process. It was evident that active involvement of the Ward Committee and traditional leaders directly influenced municipal development programming. Table 5.1 presents a summary of the three major pillars of the university and community-driven rural development planning model.

The challenges and demands of grassroots community development planning are diverse and immense. In this study, there were incidences where some influential opinion leaders tried to hijack the planning process, in most cases with the motive being self-gain. Also, sometimes planned engagements failed to materialize because the target groups were not adequately mobilized to participate. On many occasions, engagements were cancelled at the last minute because of counter-attractions such as political campaign rallies, funerals, activities relating to local government elections or simply because invitations had not been sent in time. Such

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experiences might frustrate some development practitioners and or researchers. The desire to ensure that the study was completed and the research team's drive, prior working experience and passion for grassroots community development proved to be crucial attributes in shepherding the planning process to its completion.

Leaders of various local institutions were trained on how to mobilize their communities to work collectively on a sustained basis. Village Development Champions (VDCs) received training on how to apply participatory research techniques and tools when carrying out situational analysis in their areas. Through simulation of the realities at village level, the VDCs and university students were trained on how to facilitate the application of a set of participatory rural appraisal (PRA) techniques to be used during development planning.

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Table 5.1 Synthesis of the key components of the rural development planning model

Parameters/ Variable	Components / Phases Social Preparation	Planning for Rural Development	Planning to Implement
Rationale	Build a solid foundation for rural development planning through creating awareness, mobilizing and organizing communities for collective action against commonly felt challenges	Identify, define and prioritise development issues	Define thematic areas for effective management of projects, facilitate setting criteria for selecting implementation teams, prioritise projects to implement
Success Factors			
At University Level	a) Support by management (financial & other resources); b) Experienced and passionate academics who serve as role models, mentors and coaches; c) Availability of policies, systems and procedures that create a conducive environment for academics to carry out community-based work; d) Creation of platforms for collective decision making; e) Developing capacities of role players; f) Facilitated student-staff interaction and students' active learning;	a) Participatory community engagement techniques,; b) Facilitation, excellent communication including report writing and event management skills; c) Prioritization of development issues; d) Demonstrating exemplary leadership; e) Effective 'thinking on one's feet'; and f) Regular feedback to all stakeholders.	a) Relevant experience, expertise and skills; b) Effective formulation of project themes; c) Development of criteria for use in selecting project implementation teams (PMTs); and d) Prioritization of projects per village.
At Community Level	a) Commitment to participate in own development work; b) Effective mobilization and organization for collective action; c) Community-appointed village-based volunteers to spearhead development process at village level; d) Shared set of values that govern engaged development practice and scholarship; e) Reduced tensions and conflicts; f) Availability of visionary leaders; and g) Existence of a commonly felt challenge.	a) Identification of community-felt development needs at village level; b) Use of participatory techniques to identify and prioritize development needs and/or issues; c) Shared vision, including relevant mission and values to achieve it; and d) Effective mobilization skills and ability to sustain grassroots community interest and action.	a) Selection criteria for project implementation teams (PMT); b) Involvement of village community in prioritization and selection of projects and PMTs; and c) Dedicated volunteers making up PMTs.
The still missing piece (of the rural development puzzle)	a) How to manage expectations; b) Effective strategies to mobilize and organize academics to implement community development projects; c) How best to transform university systems and procedures to support community-based development work; d) What are the indicators of commitment of communities and their leaders to participate? e) How long does it realistically take to prepare a community for sustained engagement over a long period?	a) What roles should traditional leaders play in community development given the existence of elected leaders? b) What stakeholder mobilization approaches can effectively ensure that they play more active roles in implementing community-developed projects?	a) How can funding proposals be developed with the active involvement of grassroots communities; b) What approaches can be effective used to implement community-defined projects?

The rural development promise: Adoption of the recommended model is most likely to yield the following:

1) Active involvement of rural communities in development planning to such an extent that they assume responsibility for improving the quality of their own lives;
2) Roles and responsibilities of various local leadership institutions in development become clearer and tensions among them lessened, with considerable benefits accruing to the community in the form of improved social cohesion;
3) The voices of the often marginalized segments of society such as children and women find space in the community development roadmap;
4) Reduction in dependence on external support to solve grassroots community issues;
5) Communities define and champion implementation of development they want;
6) Capacity development of rural community members creates a pool of paraprofessionals who can be deployed to address similar local challenges;
7) Creating all-inclusive deliberation platforms on development issues 'awakens the soul of the community';
8) When applying the model, there is always need for local context to be taken into account; and
9) A new layer of leaders for development emerges over time.

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Village-based situational analysis-focused engagements were facilitated in such a way that children, youth, women, men and community leaders identified, defined, prioritized and consolidated development issues through reflection circles. As espoused by the ideals of Dongier et al. (2003) on community-driven development and Nikkhah and Redzuan (2009) on participation for empowerment, equipping the VDCs with facilitation skills sought to prepare them to take over the baton stick for spearheading development. This was crucial because it sought to reduce excessive dependence on outside support.

In addition to the issues presented in the preceding paragraph, holding regular feedback sessions (refer to Chapter 3) with interested parties was adopted to ensure that there was continuous reflection and re-strategizing during planning. During the feedback sessions, consolidated results of previous engagements were discussed before being confirmed or appropriately modified. This lent weight to the views of Branch and Paranjape (2002) who argue that feedback should be provided informally during an engagement or formally where both the provider and the beneficiaries are prepared for the session. In this study, feedback sessions were in-built as part of the continuous engagement process. This was done in order to ensure that participants remained focused throughout the process. Feedback sessions or workshops were also formally organized to report back to critical stakeholders on milestones achieved and also renegotiate a new course of action that might yield better results. The feedback sessions proved educational and useful in building the confidence of all involved in development planning.

5.4.2 Planning for rural development

The activities described in section 5.4.1 laid a solid foundation for the rural development planning. Such 'soft landing' was made possible by aggressive mobilization, organization, commitment, training and collective action. The knowledge imparted to grassroots community members empowered them to actively participate in identifying and defining their own development challenges. Thereafter, they prioritized the issues, constructed the vision, mission statement and defined the values that would guide implementation of planned development work. It also made them look forward to implementing community development projects. The entire process culminated in the production of the Masia community development plan, which was regarded as the compass for dictating how the quality of life of people would be realised. All this helped deepen and impart better meaning to participatory democracy.

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As argued in Chapter 2, participation of communities is a critical requirement for sustainable rural development-inclined programming. According to WCARRD (1979) and de Campos (2009), the potential for rural development can only be realized if disadvantaged people are mobilized, organized and are active participate in defining, designing, prioritizing and implementing programmes. It has already been highlighted that in South Africa, there are various policies and strategies that create an enabling environment for holistic and participatory integrated development planning. For example, Chapter 7 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996 and White Paper on Local Government of 1998 place the responsibility for realizing this dream under the local Municipality. In addition, as spelt out in the Traditional Leadership and Governance Act of 2003, traditional leaders are expected to participate in local government committees that make decisions on rural development issues. They are also mandated to support Municipalities through facilitating involvement of their communities in development planning.

Although the constitution singles out community participation as a critical ingredient for rural development planning, rarely is this fulfilled. One of the major features of The White Paper on Local Government of 1998 is its expression of the need for strong commitment to people-centred development. It is believed that this would transform local communities' livelihoods, contribute to their empowerment, unlock sustainable ways to meet the social, economic and material needs of people and improve the quality of their lives. Nyalunga (2006), and Skenjana and Afesis-corpla, (2011) believe that lack of community involvement in planning breeds frustration among the people. Quite often, this manifests itself in the form of the violent protests, petitions and demonstrations against the government commonly witnessed today.

The fact that this study generated a village-anchored and driven framework revolving around application of reflection circles per interest group in each village (Figure 5.1) is significant as a potential solution to the challenges highlighted above. Of particular note is the all-inclusive nature of the model for rural development planning. Community members at least seven years and their leaders actively participated from the beginning. In the process, they identified, defined and prioritized the issues relating to development which they believed should be addressed.

As pointed out by Ntsebeza (2004), Mathekga and Buccus (2006), Nyalunga (2006), van Donk (2007) and Skenjana and Afesis-corpla (2011), another issue deserving attention is the fact that both local Municipalities and leadership institutions suffer from limited human resource capacity and inadequate funding needed to effectively implement their programmes and projects. In

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particular, as highlighted by, they lack the technical capacities and leadership skills required to engage communities in a truly participatory manner (McEwan, 2002; Muller, 2008; Buhlungu et al., 2007). Thus, it is questionable whether development plans and other decisions they make are consistent with people's aspirations. In an effort to comply with statutory requirements relating to their roles and responsibilities, quite often Municipalities hire private consultants to develop IDPs (Mathekga and Buccus, 2006; Skenjana and Afesis-corpla, 2011). Probably, this explains why the realities of the local communities are rarely well-articulated in municipal IDPs (Ntsebeza, 2004; Mathekga and Buccus, 2006). Clearly, this undermines the community's constitutional right to participate in making decisions on local development. In an effort to find a possible solution to this problem, reflection circles were adopted as the engagement approach. The partnership that UNIVEN, a rural-based university established with the Masia community and effectively bridged the capacity gap that has continued to cripple local municipalities in achieving their mandate is commendable and ground breaking. The planning process was empowering as it equipped individuals and community institutions with various skills and nurtured their confidence resulting from their participation in decision-making that shaped their own roadmap for development.

5.4.3 Planning to implement the community development plan

The fact that this study facilitated the formulation of the Masia community development plan did not guarantee that it would be implemented. In order to ensure that implementation took place, various activities were undertaken. In line with the principles of community-driven development, emphasis in this study was placed on the importance of nurturing local people's capacities to actively participate in action planning and future implementation of projects.

The need for developing a strategy that defined how to communicate with communities and other stakeholders such as potential funders was evident. This was one of the concerns identified during feedback sessions. Community members believed fewer than expected people were participating in decision making engagements. The frequent late coming, failure to turn up and postponement of planned engagements were attributed to poor communication. As a result, a communication and marketing strategy was developed using the same approach applied during development planning.

Another critical requirement for implementing community projects was the need to know the stakeholders and resources available within the Masia community. This was necessary because

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as a multi-disciplinary and multi-faceted process, rural development requires involvement and collaboration of multiple stakeholders and resources in implementing projects. Stakeholder analysis was conducted (as detailed in Chapter 3) to establish available stakeholders and potential roles they may play during implementation of the Masia community development projects. The communities also sketched their resource maps, showing what was available in each one of the 13 villages in Masia.

During a de-briefing session with the partners, the need for launching the Masia community development plan was mooted. This was necessary as it helped to harness resources required to implement the development plan. The launch of the development plan (refer to Chapter 3) created opportunities for the Masia community to celebrate the successful completion of planning and mobilize them for continuous involvement. It was necessary to market the development plan to potential funders who might support implementation of the community projects. Thus, various influential people and strategic institutions were invited to the launch ceremony for the development plan.

In order to provide effective management of implementation of community projects, the objectives of the Masia development plan were analysed again. Eight thematic areas for project implementation, namely: enterprise development; community health and wellbeing; education and training for rural development; governance for rural development; non-enterprise development; renewable energy technologies; rural transport; and water resource development and management were identified from it (Table 5.2). Organizing the contents of the development plan made it possible to identify and involve professionals from UNIVEN departments to provide technical expertise and leadership in the development of funding proposals and implementation of community projects.

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Table 5.2: A Summary of the sub-projects derived from the Masia community development plan

Thematic area	Community Projects
1. Enterprise development	a) Improve agricultural productivity; b) Identify and rehabilitate dilapidated agricultural facilities; c) Identify and revive failed income-generation projects; d) Facilitate establishment and nurture growth and development of relevant cooperatives; and e) Develop local businesses into commercially viable enterprises.
2. Non-farm enterprise development	a) Identify and revive failed income generation projects; b) Facilitate establishment and nurture growth and development of relevant cooperatives; c) Develop local businesses into commercially viable enterprises; and d) Facilitate improvement and/or establishment of savings mobilization schemes or institutions for economic development.
3. Community health and welfare	a) Revive adherence to cultural traditions, values and morals; b) Promote competitions for rural development among community members; c) Improve human safety and security; d) Strengthen health and wellbeing; and e) Improve the quality of social grant service provision. f) Improve sanitation
4. Education and training for rural development	a) Promote provision of better education and acquisition of skills for people-centred development; and b) Strengthen the capacity of MDT and other community structures to implement the Masia community development plan.
5. Governance	a) Establish an Apex Civic Association for the entire Masia community; b) Develop a communication plan to improve the flow of information on local development initiatives; c) Facilitate the development of teamwork among community leaders; d) Reduce tensions among community members to improve participation in development work; and e) Strengthen working relationships with national, provincial and local governments, Civic associations, NGOs, private sector and donors for effective implementation of the development plan.
6. Renewable energy technologies	a) Improve access and availability of clean and affordable energy
7. Rural transport	a) Improve the quality and reliability of transport services
8. Water resources development and management	a) Enhance utilization of water resources for development; and b) Improve provision of clean water.

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In order to continuously involve the people in implementing the community development plan, a workshop was convened. It served as a platform for representatives of the villages in Masia to develop the criteria needed to select project implementation teams (see Figure 3.3). Students and staff at UNIVEN were trained to facilitate the engagements on how to prioritize projects and also select project implementation teams per village. Participatory tools such as brainstorming and ranking were used. The adopted selection criteria were applied uniformly in each village. Three persons were selected per village to spearhead implementation of each community development project.

5.5 General Conclusion and Recommendations

A carefully mapped process of social preparation of the communities and their leaders was used to achieve collective action. Provision of relevant training helped create a solid platform for rural development planning. Use of facilitated reflection circles involving all interest groups enabled the communities to discuss and distil development issues perceived to be important for planning rural development. Through various facilitated community engagements, reflections and feedback sessions, a model for championing a people-centred rural development planning in partnership with UNIVEN, a rural-based higher education institution, was formulated. Its key facets are summarized in Figure 5.1.

The model presented in this thesis is earmarked for possible use by local government and other practitioners so as to generate community-owned and holistic integrated development plans. In addition, the empowering nature of the approach should be assessed in the context of its ability to yield community-based researchers who can be mobilized to undertake similar studies after minimum training is offered. The fact that it took almost a year of intensive engagement of a diverse range of interest groups demonstrated that it would not be possible to produce similar results without committing financial resources, expertise and time. All this requires considerable commitment and the preparedness to work beyond the call of the clock.

The model generated in this study holds considerable promise with respect to strengthening the formulation of municipal IDPs. Furthermore, the study demonstrated and provided evidence of the true meaning of public participation as enshrined in the Municipal Systems Act of 2000. The partnership effectively bridged the capacity gap that hampers local municipalities to achieve

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their mandate. Apart from equipping individuals and community leaders with various skills, their confidence to participate in making decisions that shaped their own development was boosted.

Although universities are knowledge and innovation hubs for rural development programming, rarely are most academics keen to be involved (Martin et al., 2005; Bridger and Alter, 2006. Presumably, this explains why it was so difficult to mobilize academics for rural development work compared to the interest and self-drive that students demonstrated. Spearheading off-campus work amidst other competing core business of the university such as teaching as well as usual university/academic research and administration was a major challenge. However, the study demonstrated that local people had confidence in the university's ability to contribute to development work in rural areas.

The study highlighted the significance of the social preparatory or community entry phase with respect to conventional funding models for community-based work (refer to Chapter 3). Funders rarely provide resources for the preparatory work (Tareen and Omar, 1997; Swanepoel and DeBeer, 2006). Yet, this foundation phase determines the sustainability of any development programming. The model demonstrated the importance of handing over the baton stick to the affected communities from the outset as a critical pillar of the exit strategy of development initiatives. Also, it provided some pointers regarding the roles that traditional leaders can play amidst elected leadership institutions.

The study revealed the importance of identifying and appropriately managing persons and institutions with potential to take advantage of development work for selfish ends. Usually, limited time is budgeted for building an understanding of such critical community dynamics as well as community psychology (Montero, 2012) required for the planning process and implementing development initiatives.

The value of sufficiently mobilizing the support of existing leadership institutions was highlighted. Furthermore, it confirmed the difficulty of connecting on-going work with the government machinery for development. It was revealed that rural communities could lead their own social emancipation if equipped with the appropriately capacity and facilitation tools. That the study unearthed the knowledge, ideas and/or experiences resident within the often marginalized segments of community such as children, youth, people with disabilities and the senior citizens have cannot be questioned.

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5.5.1 Recommendations for policy, development practice and further research

Rural development planning with the potential to yield sustainable results must be people-centered or community-driven. This ensures that the communities concerned understand the development challenges they face and also make decisions on how to address them. In this section, the various issues that emerged from developing a university and community-driven model for rural development planning are presented. Thus, the following recommendations are made taking into consideration development practitioners, policy makers, academics and the general research community.

5.5.2 Recommendations for policy and development practice

a) Intensive social preparatory engagements that capacitate role players are needed because they help build a solid foundation for development planning. This is critical because it involves understanding community psychology and changing negative mind sets of the communities and leadership institutions with respect to implementing their own development;
b) Rural development cannot be delivered to people. Rather, the affected communities must be fully be involved in making decisions and taking actions on their own development programming;
c) Rural development cannot be sustainable unless multiple layers of cross-generational community leaders of development are not appropriately nurtured as critical development resources at village level;
d) Appropriate training should be offered to enable communities and their leaders to mobilise and organize themselves effectively for collective action;
e) Right from the outset, communities must be guided to identify, define and prioritize their felt development needs and contribute to making decisions on how these should be achieved;
f) All residents of the villages, namely seven (7) year old boys and girls up to the oldest persons and local leaders should be involved in the entire development planning process;
g) Development facilitator(s) must be competent and should ensure that all the people in each interest group participate so as to ensure that their voices are heard and included in the development plan;
h) There is need to identify and appropriately manage persons and institutions that might want to take advantage of the community development planning for selfish ends;

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i) Feedback on past engagements and milestones achieved must always be provided to participants in the development planning for them to confirm or reject the views as their true voice;

j) It seems advisable for universities to include community development work as part of students' training. This would help the students to apply the knowledge they acquire in class and gain experience in working with communities, managing events and programmes, life skills such as leadership, team work and communication, among others.

5.5.3 Recommendations for further research

Although this study cleared a number of research questions, the following aspects still need attention.

a) What appropriate strategies can be used to involve government machinery and funding institutions for immediate uptake of community-defined projects? Resolving this question would help meet the heightened expectations of communities after the development plan has been adopted and launched in public;
b) What roles should traditional leaders play in local government given the fact that elected leaders such as Ward Committees are mandated to spearhead community development?
c) What stakeholder mobilization approaches can be used to ensure that they play more active roles in implementing community-defined projects?
d) How long does it realistically take to socially prepare a community for involvement in participatory development work?
e) What strategies might be effective in mobilizing and organizing academic staff to implement development projects since community engagement is a core business of universities;
f) How best can university systems and support structures be transformed in order to promote community engagement for rural development;
g) What criteria can be used to determine the level of commitment of members of rural communities and their leaders to participate in their own development work?
h) How can funding proposals be developed with active involvement of grassroots communities?
i) What approaches can be effectively used to implement community-defined and implemented projects?
j) How can community development work be used as a job creation endeavour for graduates and community members?

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k) What appropriate strategies can effectively promote the sustainable involvement of academic staff in interdisciplinary action research that solves complex rural development challenges?

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7 APPENDICES

APPENDIX 3.1 Summary of Key Features of the Memorandum of Understanding Between University of Venda and Masia Development Trust

1. Introduction

The roles of any University, University of Venda (UNIVEN) included, are teaching and learning, research and community engagement that focuses on the socio-economic development challenges that people face. In this regard, one of the strategic objectives of UNIVEN is to enter into partnerships that seek to strengthen the capacity of local leaders, community organizations and rural communities. On the other hand, Masia Development Trust (MDT) has the mandate to promote social and economic growth of the Masia community and its surrounding areas. Currently, MDT is implementing various developmental initiatives. This situation presented a perfect opportunity for UNIVEN and MDT to establish a strategic partnership designed to address the developmental needs of the Masia community in an integrated and holistic manner. Thus, on 19 September 2009, the two institutions signed a memorandum of understanding (MoU). Below, some key features of the MoU are summarized.

2. What are the objectives of the MoU?

The objectives and principles which underpin the planned activities and operations are to:-

1) ensure that the agreement benefits both parties;
2) mobilize and share relevant knowledge within UNIVEN;
3) ensure that UNIVEN, through its human capital base, complements MDT's capacity in poverty eradication, wealth creation and empowerment of marginalized and vulnerable people;
4) jointly develop models for improved provision of services to communities;
5) ensure that UNIVEN provides guidance on best practice relating to development practice;
6) engage in multi-disciplinary participatory action research focusing on improving the livelihoods of the community;
7) leveraging MDT's access to communal resources in order to enhance the capacity of UNIVEN to deliver on vital community-based programmes; and

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8) ensure that UNIVEN's expertise is used to facilitate smooth implementation of MDT projects.

3. What is the nature of the relationship?

The Parties:

1) will jointly promote economic development and community empowerment;
2) acknowledge and agree that their relationship will be underpinned by the aspirations and vision of the wider community and guided by National, Provincial and Local Government development imperatives; and
3) acknowledge that when implementing initiatives falling within this agreement, they will stick to the principles of participatory community engagement and good corporate governance.

4. What are the responsibilities of each party?

The responsibilities of each party are as follows:

UNIVEN

1) Support the MDT and share knowledge on rural development practice;
2) Provide students and lecturers to undertake various community-based assignments as specified in jointly developed project plans;
3) Contribute through its different Schools or student bodies towards the MDT's mandate;
4) Develop, in collaboration with the MDT, a comprehensive people-centred Development Programme and Strategy; and
5) Facilitate and or provide all the training necessary for efficient implementation of the Development Programme.

MDT

1) Host staff and students working on mutually defined projects;
2) Provide communal resources to students assigned to projects;
3) Provide a platform for students to gain practical experience on projects and development work;
4) Provide access to community development networks;
5) Mobilize relevant stakeholders to support implementation of jointly defined initiatives;
6) Co-manage with UNIVEN implementation of jointly-designed initiatives; and

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7) Give any other general assistance as it may be able to provide in order to facilitate effective implementation of development initiatives.

5. What activities are covered by this agreement?

1) Joint initiatives such as projects and programmes contained in operational plans;
2) Knowledge sharing interventions including co-hosting of structured deliberations such as conferences, seminars, debates and conferences; and
3) Joint exploration of funding opportunities to support implementation of development initiatives.

6. What results are expected from this partnership?

The following are the expected outputs of the partnership:

1) Poverty eradication;
2) Joint action research projects;
3) Advisory/counselling services;
4) Staff and student development;
5) Participatory community development
6) Improved models of service delivery;
7) Stronger, sustainable community and community-based organizations; and
8) Better reputation of both parties.

9. For how long will this MoU remain active?

This is a long-term partnership for development, starting from 19 September 2009. It may be cancelled at any time by either Party giving thirty (30) days prior written notice to the other.

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APPENDIX 3.2 Attendance Register

Surname & Initials	Male or Female (F/M)	Youth or Adult	Highest level of Education attained: 1. None 2. Primary 3. Sec. Sch 4. Matric 5. Tertiary	Name of Structures you are representing	What Position do you hold in Structure?	Contact Details	
						Cell Number	Email
1.							
2.							
3.							
4.							
5.							
6.							
7.							
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15.							
16.							

Attendance Register: **Event:** ..... **Date:**

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APPENDIX 3.3 The Masia community development plan

STRATEGIC GOAL 1: To improve social cohesion for collective action against poverty and underdevelopment in Ha-Masia

Specific Objective	Actions / Activities	Inputs / Resources	Outputs	Outcomes	Impact
1. To campaign for incorporation of Ha-Masia villages into one municipal ward	• Seek legal advice • Hold meetings with local leaders to discuss way forward • Hold meetings with relevant government departments and Makhado Municipality	• Legal expertise • Meetings • Community leaders • Stationery • Funds	• Legal opinion; Municipality aware of community desire; Reports of meetings; Decision on Municipal ward demarcation	• Enhanced negotiation and advocacy skills	• More cohesive community • More coordinated, integrated development in Masia
2. To establish a unified or Apex Civic Association for the entire Masia community	• Hold meetings and workshops with Village Civic Associations and village communication • Orientate members of Civic Association and village communities on the roles and responsibilities of various community leadership institutions • Elect office bearers of the Apex Civic Association	• Meetings • Stationery • Community leaders • Training facilitators • Training materials • Venues • Transport • Funds	• Engagement reports • Apex Civic Association • Training workshops	• Effective Civic Association • Reduced tensions between Civic Association and traditional leaders/other community institutions	• Harmonious relations in communities
3. Develop a communication plan to improve the flow of information on local development initiatives	• Orientate Village Development Champions (VDC) on the communication planning process • Develop a communication strategy for each village • Hold workshops per village to give feedback and secure adoption of the communication plan • Develop consolidated Masia communication plan • Hold workshop with Masia community	• Facilitators • Workshops • Village Development Champions • Training materials • Venues • Travel • Catering/food • Funds • Stationery	• Engagement reports • Adopted communication plans for Masia Villages and Masia-wide plan • Step by step procedure for developing communication	• VDCs are able to facilitate communication planning • Communication plan implemented	• Improved flow of information within Masia and with external stakeholders • Increased community

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	leaders, VDCs, MDIC, MDT to give feedback and secure adoption of communication plan		plan involving village communities		participation in development work
4. Facilitate the development of teamwork among community leaders	• Hold team building workshops for leaders of community-based organizations • Orientate leaders on development initiatives being implemented in Masia • Train leaders in the roles and responsibilities of community-based organizations • Coach and mentor local communities to lead implementation of development initiatives • Assign specific development activities to relevant leaders • Establish platforms for leaders to collectively discuss community development issues	• Training workshops • Facilitators • Community leaders • Training materials • Workshop venues • Transport and catering • Funds • Stationery	• Community leaders working as teams • Involvement in development activities • Reports • Workshops	• Leaders with adequate capacity to facilitate community development • Improved teamwork • Less tensions and conflicts	• More integrated development • Better harmony
5. Reduce tensions among community members to improve participation in development work	• Hold regular community meetings at village level to address community issues • Establish village-level and Masia-wide platforms to discuss community issues • Hold periodical meetings with community leaders to report and evaluate progress	• Facilitators • Community members and leaders • Meeting/workshop materials, Travel, Venues, Catering, Funds, Stationery • Communication plan	• Reports • Community discussion platforms	• Reduced tensions/ conflicts	• Stronger, more united Masia community
6. Revive adherence to cultural traditions, values and morals	• Showcase cultural diversity and uniqueness of Masia community through heritage day cerebrations • Establish a cultural village to showcase traditional foods, dances, music, craft, etc. • Hold inter-village culture-focused competitions	• Community members and leaders • Unique dimensions of the Masia people and culture • Promoters of the cultural village	• Engagement reports • Cultural village • Competitions • Heritage day celebrations • Certificates	• Improved knowledge and adherence to Masia culture	• Improved unity and spirit of working together

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	• Introduce culture-focused advocacy campaigns in schools • Establish culture-focused community discussion platforms	• Space/land • Designers of a cultural village, Construction materials, stationery, Funds, Communication and marketing skills			
7. Promote competitions for rural development among community members	• Identify themes for competitions • Mobilize funds for running competitions • Run community-identified inter-village competitions for development • Develop competitions programme with village communities • Award prizes to best performers	• Village Development Champions • Stationery, Venues • Discussion guide for competitions • Prizes: trophies, medals, certificates • Expertise (adjudicators, referees)	• Competition events • Winners • Reports • Mobilized resources	• Improved physical health • Event management skills • Better teamwork	• Stronger, more cohesive communities

STRATEGIC GOAL 2: To improve the utilisation of economic opportunities in order to enhance the livelihoods of people in Ha-Masia

Specific Objectives	Actions/ Activities	Inputs / Resources	Outputs	Outcomes	Impact
1. Enhance utilization of water resources for local economic development	• Develop a proposal • Identify and commission experts to carry out the study • Carry out situational analysis on water resource availability and utilization • Implement recommendations of situational analysis	• Water resources and environmental management experts • Researchers • Venues, Transport • Catering, Funds • Stationery	• Reports • Knowledge of how to address the water problem	Water resources used for economic activities	Economic development
2. Improve agricultural productivity	• Develop a proposal • Carry out situational analysis on crop and livestock farming in all villages • Carry out feasibility study of crop farming • Give feedback to community • Implement recommendations of situational analysis	• Technical experts in farm business development • Community members and leaders • Training facilitators • Agricultural equipment	• Reports • Grazing and Farming land • Increased crop farming • Appropriate crop and livestock farming	• Well-informed community members • Higher yields and incomes	• Improved livelihoods • More realistic or informed decision making

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Specific Objectives	Actions/ Activities	Inputs / Resources	Outputs	Outcomes	Impact
	• Develop and implement strategy for improving farming as a business • Implement strategy for improving farming as a business	• Skilled and experienced researchers • Land • Venues, Transport, Catering, Funds	methods used • Knowledge of crops suited to the Masia area	• Improved economic activities	
3. Identify and revitalise dilapidated agricultural facilities	• Carry out an audit of available agricultural facilities • Give feedback to community members • Train community members on how to implement the audit report • Train technicians to manage available facilities; Revitalize the facilities • Manage the facilities	• Training facilitators • Technicians • Training materials • Community members and leaders • Venues, Transport • Catering, Land, Funds	• Reports • Working agricultural facilities • Better-informed community members	• Revitalised agricultural facilities • Improved incomes	Increased contribution of agriculture to household economies
4. Identify and revive failed income generation projects	• Develop a proposal • Carry out a comprehensive audit of income generation projects • Give feedback to community • Develop strategy for reviving failed income generation projects • Implement recommended strategy for reviving failed income generation projects	• Business skills facilitators • Business owners, or managers • Venues, Land, Funds • Training materials • Data collection tools • Research skills	• Proposal, Reports • Database of business people • Database of income generating projects • Turnaround strategy for income generation projects	More viable income generation projects	• Sustainable income generation projects • Employment creation • Reduced poverty rates
5. Facilitate the establishment and nurture growth and development of relevant cooperatives	• Develop a proposal • Carry out a cooperative feasibility study and needs analysis • Give feedback to community • Identify potential cooperatives to be established • Formally register the cooperatives • Develop curriculum and training materials for cooperative development • Train community members in cooperative management skills • Identify markets for products of	• Expertise in cooperative development • Researchers • Training facilitators • Community members and leaders • Venues • Training materials • Transport • Accommodation • Catering/food	• Proposal • Reports • Training manuals • Trained community members • Certificates • Managers of established cooperatives • Markets • Certification ceremonies	Sustainable cooperatives	• Self-sustaining cooperatives • Reduced poverty rates

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Specific Objectives	Actions/ Activities	Inputs / Resources	Outputs	Outcomes	Impact
	cooperatives • Develop the cooperative business • Introduce exposure or look and learn programmes	• Funds			
6. Develop local businesses into commerciall y viable enterprises	• Develop a proposal • Carry out a situational analysis of existing businesses/projects • Carryout skills audit of the business owners/managers • Develop appropriate capacity development strategies • Pilot-test developed strategies • Train facilitators to implement capacity development strategies • Deploy training facilitators • Implement capacity development strategies focusing on owners/managers/leaders of business/projects • Develop monitoring and evaluation systems • Monitor and evaluate pilot-tested strategies • Up-scale implementation of business development strategies • Organize exposure or look and learn visits • Mobilize strategic partners to provide resources for implementing business development strategies • Organize business persons of the year award ceremonies	• Expertise in business development • Researchers • Facilitators • Training materials • Transport • Accommodation • Venues • Catering/food • Funds • Stationery • M and E system • Business awards • Judges and judging criteria	• Proposal • Reports • Database of local economic opportunities • Capacity development strategies • Training manuals • Business development rollout plan • Monitoring and evaluation manual • M and E system • Annual business award ceremonies • Winners	• Viable businesses • Business developmen t model • More skilled local business owners and managers	• Business expansion • Increased employme nt creation

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Specific Objectives	Actions/ Activities	Inputs / Resources	Outputs	Outcomes	Impact
7. Facilitate improvement or establishment of savings mobilization schemes or institutions for economic development	• Develop a proposal; Carry out situational analysis; Conduct feasibility study • Give feedback to community • Orientate community members and leaders on savings for rural development • Establish and or strengthen existing savings schemes • Train community members on management skills for savings schemes • Formally register the savings schemes • Recruit and train potential managers • Introduce exposure or look and learn visits	• Expertise in savings mobilization • Researchers • Training facilitators • Community members and leaders • Transport • Accommodation • Venues • Training materials • Catering/food • Funds	• Proposal • Reports • Operational savings schemes • Better informed community members and leaders • Better informed managers of established schemes • Training Manuals	Improved financial management	Reduced poverty rates

STRATEGIC GOAL3: To enhance provision of basic services to the Ha-Masia community

Specific Objectives	Actions / Activities	Inputs / Resources	Outputs	Outcomes	Impact
1. Improve access and availability of clean and affordable energy	• Mobilise strategic partners to provide needed services • Carry out situational analysis of access and availability of energy • Give feedback to community • Provide information on alternative energy sources • Introduce appropriate energy sources or technologies • Assist indigent households to access free basic electricity	• Funds • Stationery • Information sheets • Skilled researchers	• Increased electrification • Reports • Indigent households accessing free basic electricity • Knowledge of alternative sources of energy	• Improved uptake of energy technologies • Reduced workloads of women and children • Establishment of businesses	• Improved livelihoods • Economic growth of Masia community • Cleaner environment • Reduced environmental degradation
2. Improve provision of clean water and sanitation	• Mobilise strategic partners to provide need-based services • Carryout situational analysis on availability, access and utilization of potable water • Carryout situational analysis on sanitation	• Skilled and experienced researchers • Technicians. • Funds • Contractors • Appropriate	• More reliable, clean water supply. • Improved sanitation system • Partners • Indigents receiving free basic water	• Community satisfaction: fewer complaints • Reduced probability of violent	• Reduction of water-borne diseases e.g. cholera • Reduced workloads for women and

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Specific Objectives	Actions / Activities	Inputs / Resources	Outputs	Outcomes	Impact
	• Give feedback to community • Provide information on appropriate water harvesting, treatment and storage technologies • Provide information on potentially suitable sanitation technologies • Assist indigent households to access free basic water • Train community members on how to use water and sanitation technologies	• sanitation designs or technologies • Information packs or pamphlets • Training curricula	• Training materials • Certificates and certification ceremonies	• service delivery protests • Improved uptake of water and sanitation technologies	• children • Cleaner environment
3. Improve reliability of transport services	• Carry out comprehensive situational analysis of public transport service • Develop strategy for improving transport service • Negotiate with public transport providers for improved service • Liaise with Makhado municipality to improve maintenance of access roads • Promote adoption of and maintenance of sections of access roads by local communities • Introduce appropriate road construction technologies • Introduce a reward system for best community-maintained roads	• Transport providers • Mobilization and negotiation skills • Advocacy materials or messages on self-reliance • Research skills • Appropriate road maintenance technologies • Rural artisans • Incentives for excellent maintenance of roads by communities	• Partnership agreements • Strategy for improved public transport service • Increased number of public transport service providers plying Masia routes • Reduced waiting time for public transport	• More reliable transport • Rate of adoption of maintenance of roads by communities	• Improved livelihoods • Increased investment in Masia community
4. Improve safety and security	• Carry out situational analysis on human safety and security • Provide training on community policing • Run awareness campaigns • Introduce award for best community police • Maintain village-based human safety and security statistics	• Research skills • Training facilitators • Stationery • Venues • Trainees • Community Policing Forum (CPF)	• Reports • Partnership agreements • Trained community police • Database of human safety and security statistics, • Achiever awards	• Improved policing • Communities committed to improving own safety and security	Safer and more secure Masia community to live, work and run businesses in

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Specific Objectives	Actions / Activities	Inputs / Resources	Outputs	Outcomes	Impact
5. Promote provision of better education and acquisition of skills for people-centred development	• Carry out comprehensive situational analysis of education and skills development issues throughout Masia villages; Carryout skills audit of community-based organizations • Develop customised credit-bearing short courses ; Introduce exposure or look and learn visits; Mount leadership programme for people-centred development; Introduce ABET programme; Introduce a plough back programme involving students in schools and tertiary institutions • Organize village- and school based competitions for rural development • Organize information expos and career guidance workshops or seminars • Provide improved educational infrastructure and dedication of educators; Establish local skills development academy	• Expertise in education and training • Stationery • Awards and acknowledgements • Partnership agreements with external agents of development • ABET learners • Transport • Venues • Accommodation • Land	• Reports • Credit-bearing short courses • Better infrastructure in schools • Competitions • Best achiever award ceremonies • Strategy for improving education and skills development • Look and learn or exposure visits	• More informed decision making • Improved pass rates at all levels of schooling • Improved teaching • Increased literacy rates	• Competitive education and skills development in Masia community • Enhanced community-friendly development
6. Strengthen health and wellbeing	• Carry out situational analysis of health and wellbeing systems in Masia community • Promote participation in sporting activities • Construct relevant sporting facilities • Promote consumption of healthy foods • Reintroduce and market indigenous health systems • Improve availability of resources and management of local clinics • Introduce a green Masia programme • Run nutrition security programmes: community gardening and small livestock	• Sports equipment • Health infrastructure • Funds • Knowledge and expertise in indigenous health systems and nutrition • Facilitation and negotiation skills • Seeds or seedlings of suitable plant (tree, bush or grass) species,	• Participation in sports • Sporting events • Infrastructure constructed • Indigenous health systems introduced • Improved nutrition programmes • Tree plantations and nurseries in villages and local schools • Competitions • Prizes • Vegetables	• Better health service delivery • Improved personal and community hygiene • Robust reafforestation and general revegetation • Improved household nutrition • Improved	Improved, comprehensive health of community members and productivity

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Specific Objectives	Actions / Activities	Inputs / Resources	Outputs	Outcomes	Impact
	• Carry out workshops on taking care of orphans and vulnerable children • Launch village- and school-based personal and community hygiene advocacy campaigns	Agronomists and landscapers or horticulturists, Water • Judging criteria for competitions, Judges • Feeds for community gardens, Small livestock, Child care specialists	• Meat • Eggs • Drop in centres	care for orphans and vulnerable children	
7. Improve quality of social grant service provision	• Carry out customer satisfaction survey focusing on social grants service provision • Develop strategies for improved care and support for disadvantaged and marginalized groups • Implement developed strategies	• Research skills • Community support and involvement • Stationery	• Strategies for improved care and support for disadvantaged and marginalized groups Reports	Customer satisfaction with service	Improved care and support of the disadvantaged

STRATEGIC GOAL 4: To mobilise resources for the effective implementation of people-centred development Initiatives in Ha-Masia

Objectives	Actions / Activities	Inputs / Resources	Outputs	Outcomes	Impact
1. Strengthen working relationships with national, provincial and local governments, NGOs, private sector and donors for effective implementation of the Masia	• Launch Masia Development Plan • Develop resource mobilization strategy • Develop marketing plan for Masia Development • Develop funding proposals and business plans • Hold workshops or roundtables involving all the three spheres of government and other relevant organizations to share and market the Masia development plan and secure buy-in or	• Facilitators • Workshop materials • Venues • Funds • Transport • Catering/food • Expertise and experience in resource mobilization • Stationery • Communication plan	• Reports • Better informed Government officials • Communication and marketing plan • Resource mobilization strategy • Partnership agreements, e.g. MoUs, MoAs and service level agreements • Regularly updated	• Model for integrated, people-centred rural development • Responsible leadership for development • Ability to take responsibility • Funding for projects • Creative writing	• Developed Masia community • Improved livelihoods • Increased visibility of Masia community within Vhembe District and beyond

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Objectives	Actions / Activities	Inputs / Resources	Outputs	Outcomes	Impact
development plan	support for implementation • Prepare briefing reports • Hold regular debriefing meetings with the three spheres of government to ensure continued support • Secure support and participation of local Councillors, Community Development Workers (CDWs) in the development initiatives • Market the Masia Development Plan to potential funders and partners		website • Marketing materials, e.g. posters, brochures • Government support • Involvement of CDWs • Funding proposals. • Minutes of meetings • Meeting reports	skills • Improved presentation skills	
2. Develop capacity of MDT to implement the Masia development plan	• Carry out a skills audit • Carry out resource audit • Develop a human resource policy • Develop MDT resource mobilization strategy • Renovate existing offices or construct new MDT offices • Procure equipment for MDT office • Develop staff recruitment and retention strategy • Develop capacity of MDT staff • Recruit competent staff • Organize exposure visits for Executive Management and key staff • Facilitate implementation of the MDT Development Plan	• Facilitator • Researchers • Trainers • Office equipment (computers, printers, binders, photocopiers • Office furniture • Office rentals • Stationary • Construction material • Contractors • Funds • Transport • Accommodation	• Skills audit report • Resource audit report • HR Policy • Resource mobilization strategy • Staff recruitment and retention strategy • Staff • Well-resourced MDT office • Exposure visit plan	• Improved capacity to implement Masia development plan	• Development of Masia community • Improved harmony among Masia people

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