A PARTICIPATORY ACTION RESEARCH APPROACH TO PROGRAMME EVALUATION IN A RURAL SOCIETY

by

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Declaration

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this thesis is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.
SUMMARY

Recently, Participatory action research (PAR) has become a common approach to social programmes in South Africa. This tendency has created a need to evaluate this kind of programmes to determine if it really achieves what it sets out to do. The purpose of this study was to evaluate an entrepreneurial skills training programme in a rural community where a participatory action research approach was followed.

A literature review was undertaken to present an in-depth look into the body of literature that surrounds the study. Programme evaluation was discussed as a research design, including types and stages of evaluation. The concept of empowerment was investigated. The review also included a study of literature on PAR, especially the definitions, context and process of PAR. The role of entrepreneurship in rural development was also investigated as well as the evaluation of entrepreneurial skills training programmes.

An entrepreneurial skills training programme was implemented in the rural town of Darling on the West Coast of South Africa. The PAR approach was followed in the implementation of the study that was conducted over a period of 15 months. Participants joined the programme that included different projects, voluntarily. The participants were divided into three groups according to their period of participation in the programme. The researcher facilitated actions as well as reflection meetings with the group of participants before and after the entrepreneurial skills training course. The researcher made field notes during the implementation of the programme. The participants' empowerment status was measured with a standardized questionnaire using a pre-test-post-test design. The participants' application of the entrepreneurial skills that were taught in the course was measured during semi-structured interviews at the end of the research period. Four case studies document the extremes of the respective outcomes of the programme, namely empowerment and entrepreneurship.

Statistical analysis showed statistically significant improvements in the micro, macro and total empowerment scores of the total group. Looking at the three groups separately, group one showed statistically significant improvements on the micro and
interface levels and group two on the micro level. Even though group three showed small improvements on all three levels, none of them were statistically significant.

Data from the field notes were analyzed according to the PAR concepts of participation, action and reflection. Participation mostly had a collaborative nature; action was aimed at economical change and reflection aimed at practical problem solving. The interviews revealed that 20 of the 24 participants had micro baking businesses at the end of the research period and they succeeded in the short-term goal of applying the skills that were taught in the course. The case studies showed no correlation between the participants’ application of entrepreneurial skills and the changes in their empowerment status.

The findings of the study suggest that the longer participants participate in a PAR programme, the bigger the improvement in their empowerment status will be. Monitoring of the implementation revealed that the study fell short of the “ideal type” of PAR, since participation was not yet collegiate. Actions were only effective in economic change and not in social transformation. Reflection resulted in limited critical self-awareness among the participants. The PAR approach has proven to be successful in the attainment of the short-term goals of an entrepreneurial skills training programme. The long-term sustainability of the entrepreneurs’ businesses will have to be followed-up by further research.
OPSOMMING

Die afgelope tyd is deelnemende aksie navorsing (DAN)'n algemene benadering tot sosiale intervensie programme in Suid-Afrika. Hierdie tendens het 'n behoefte laat ontstaan om hierdie tipe programme te evalueer om te bepaal of dit werkelik die program doelwitte bereik. Die doel van hierdie studie was om 'n entrepreneursvaardighede opleidingsprogram in 'n landelike gemeenskap waar die DAN-benadering gevolg is, te evalueer.

'n Literatuuroorsig is onderneem om die konseptuele raamwerk wat vir die studie saamgestel is, te kan beredeneer. Programevaluering, insluitende tipes and stadia van evaluering, is bespreek as 'n navorsingsontwerp. Die konsep van bemagtiging is ook bestudeer. Die oorsig het 'n ook studie van literatuur oor DAN ingesluit, veral definisies, die konteks en die proses van DAN. Die rol van entrepreneur skap in landelike ontwikkeling is ook ondersoek sowel as die evaluering van opleidingsprogramme gemik op die ontwikkeling van entrepreneursvaardighede.

'n Entrepreneursvaardighede opleidingsprogram is in 'n landelike dorpie, Darling, aan die Weskus van Suid-Afrika geïmplementeer. Oor 'n periode van 15 maande is die DAN-benadering in die implementering van die program gevolg. Deelnemers het vrywillig by die program wat uit verskillende projekte bestaan het, aangesluit. Die deelnemers is na aanleiding van hul tydperk van deelname in die program in drie groepe verdeel. Die navorser het aksies sowel as refleksie byeenkomste met die groep deelnemers voor en na die entrepreneursvaardighede opleidingskursus gefasiliteer. Die navorser het veldnotas tydens die implementering van die program gemaak. Die deelnemers se bemagtigingstatus is gemeet met 'n gestandaardiseerde vraelys terwyl 'n voor-en-na-toets ontwerp gevolg is. Die deelnemers se toepassing van die entrepreneursvaardighede wat in die kursus geleer is, is tydens semi- gestruktureerde onderhonde aan die einde van die navorsingsperiode gemeet. Vier gevallestudies dokumenteer die uiterstes van die onderskeidelike uitkomste van die program, naamlik bemagtiging en entrepreneur skap.
Statistiese analise het statisties betekenisvolle verbeteringe in die mikro, makro en totale bemagtigingsvlakke van die totale groep getoon. Afsonderlik gesien, het groep een statisties betekenisvolle verbeteringe op die mikro en tussenvlak getoon en groep twee net op die mikrovlak. Alhoewel groep drie klein verbeteringe op al drie vlakke getoon het, was geen van die verbeteringe statisties betekenisvol nie. Data van die veldnotas is volgens DAN konsepte, naamlik deelname, aksie en refleksie geanaliseer. Die deelnemers en die fasiliteerder se deelname het meestal ‘n samewerkende aard gehad, aksie was gemik op ekonomiese verandering en refleksie was gemik op praktiese probleemoplossing. Die onderhoude het aangetoon dat 20 van die 24 deelnemers aan die einde van die navorsingsperiode ‘n mikro bakbesigheid gehad het en dat hulle daarin geslaag het om die korttermyn doelwit, naamlik die toepassing van die vaardighede wat in die kursus geleer is, te bereik. Die gevallenstudie het geen korrelasie getoon tussen die deelnemers se toepassing van entrepreneursvaardighede en die veranderinge in hulle bemagtigingstatus nie.

Die studie se bevindinge dui daarop dat hoe langer deelnemers aan ’n DAN-program deelneem, hoe groter sal die verbetering in hulle bemagtigingstatus wees. Die monitering van die implementering van die program het laat blyk dat die studie tekort skiet in vergelyking met die “ideaaltipe” van DAN, want die deelname was nog nie korporatief nie. Aksies was net suksesvol in ekonomiese verandering en nie in sosiale transformasie nie. Refleksie het tot beperkte kritiese “selfbewustheid” by die deelnemers geleli. Dit blyk dat die DAN-benadering suksesvol was om die korttermyn doelwitte van ’n entrepreneursvaardighede opleidingsprogram te bereik. Die langtermyn volhoubaarheid van die entrepreneurs se bakbesigheid sal met verdere navorsing opgevolg moet word.
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In loving memory of Tannie Rina van der Merwe
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CHAPTER 1
STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

1.1 Introduction

There is a strong emphasis on community development in South Africa today. The government's Reconstruction and Development Programme (ROP) is designed to bring about social development by means of a people-driven process. This process involves communities taking responsibility for their own development. Communities have to be empowered to take charge of their development for the development to be sustainable (ROP White Paper, 1994: paragraph 1.3.3).

But empowerment and competence do not come naturally. Communities must be assisted to develop their potential. Development agencies in South Africa are working with communities to bring about poverty reduction, employment creation, the provision of housing, recreational services, social security and welfare (Collins, 1999: 19).

Poverty and unemployment are big problems in the rural areas of South Africa (Mahlati, 2000: 46). Some 74% of rural residents are classified as poor with the youth and the elderly being especially vulnerable (Department of Land Affairs, 1997). Entrepreneurship is encouraged by the South African government as a means to address the problem of unemployment (ROP White Paper, 1994: paragraph 1.4.4). Social intervention programmes, specifically adult education programmes, are used in this regard as vehicles to transfer skills and knowledge. The emphasis is on an outcome of competence in life skills, rather than one based on pure academic knowledge and technical skills alone (Robinson, 1994: 38).

Recently, participatory action research (PAR) has become a common approach to social programmes in South Africa (Mouton, 1996: 37). This has been described as a process that combines three activities: research, education and action (Kerfoot & Winberg, 1997: 33). PAR has a double objective. One aim is to produce knowledge and action directly useful to a community. The second is to empower people through
the process of constructing and using their own knowledge (Swanepoel, 1997: 153). In keeping with the government’s people-centred approach towards development, PAR enables facilitators and communities to work together, to identify strengths in the community and to decide what action should be taken according to the community’s own frame of reference (Collins, 1999: 20). Unfortunately, PAR scholars have been criticised because their descriptions of actual PAR projects lack sufficient detail to make it possible for other development workers to use their methodology (Prozesky, 1998: 55). There exists a need for detailed descriptions of intervention programmes that follow the PAR approach (Prozesky, 1998: 23).

1.2 Problem Statement

Mtshali (2000: 67) argues that inappropriate programmes for extension work for rural women in South Africa will persist if they are not monitored and evaluated regularly. “Social programmes yield small gains. But resource limitations and more realistic expectations for social programmes only increase the need for evaluation efforts as societies attempt to cope with their human and social problems” (Rossi & Freeman, 1993: 6). In many instances, it is the taxpayers’ money that is used by the government to implement new programmes and policies. It becomes an issue of accountability to judge whether money is well spent and objectives are met efficiently (Mouton, 1999: v). The same applies to Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), Community-Based Organisations (CBOs) and their different stakeholders.

The Department of Consumer Science: Foods, Clothing and Housing, University of Stellenbosch, launched the Development and Advancement of Rural Entrepreneurship (DARE) programme to help communities to address their training needs. The intended outcomes of the programme are empowerment and entrepreneurship. More specifically, the DARE programme aims to equip entrepreneurs with the necessary entrepreneurial skills and knowledge to run sustainable businesses, and to empower them on the micro, interface and macro levels (Botha & Van der Merwe, 1999: 3). The PAR approach is followed in the facilitation of the programme. The programme consists of different components, namely the training of entrepreneurs (in this study through the Snowflake Bake for Profit entrepreneurial skills training course), providing access to resources and
supporting the entrepreneurs in the establishment of their businesses. The tendency to follow a PAR approach in social programmes, such as DARE, has created a need to evaluate this kind of programmes to find out if it really achieves what it sets out to do (Mouton, 1999: v).

In 1996, a Community-Based Organisation, Darling Focus, commissioned a needs assessment survey of the small town of Darling on the West Coast of South Africa. The needs assessment identified capacity building and the development of entrepreneurial skills as priority training needs (Van Aswegen-Janse van Vuuren, 1996: 10).

The DARE programme was implemented at the end of 1999 and this study focuses on the evaluation of the DARE programme as it was implemented in the small rural town, Darling, on the West Coast and the study covers a period of fifteen months, from March 2000 until June 2001.

This scenario has led to the formulation of the following problem statement:

How effective is an entrepreneurial skills training programme in a rural community when the participatory action research approach is followed?

This problem has led to the formulation of the following goal and objectives:

1.3 Goal and objectives

1.3.1 Goal

The goal of the study was to evaluate an entrepreneurial skills training programme in a rural community where the participatory action research approach was followed.

1.3.2 Objectives

To realise the above-mentioned goal, the following procedural objectives were formulated:
1.3.2.1 To evaluate the effect of the programme on the empowerment status of the participants by means of a standardised questionnaire with a pre-test-post-test design;

1.3.2.2 To monitor the implementation of the programme by means of participant observation;

1.3.2.3 To evaluate the effect of the programme on the participants' application of entrepreneurial skills by means of semi-structured interviews as a post-test;

1.3.2.4 To document the outcomes of the programme, namely empowerment and entrepreneurship, by means of selected case studies.

The following section contains a figure that describes the process followed during the research to reach the above-mentioned objectives.
1.4 Conceptual framework of the research

The conceptual framework provides a graphic representation of the design and methodology followed during the research.

![Diagram of the conceptual framework]

Figure 1: Conceptual framework of research
1.5 Operational definitions

1.5.1 Empowerment status

For the purpose of this study, *empowerment* is defined as "[T]he process of increasing people's power or potential at the personal, interpersonal or political level, to actively and meaningfully contribute in, and initiate programmes aimed at improving their environment, their lives and of those around them" Tamasane (1998: 67). The *empowerment status* of the participants are measured at the micro level, the interface level and the macro level with a pre-test and a post-test, using a standardised questionnaire (Albertyn, 2000).

1.5.2 Entrepreneurship

*Entrepreneurship* is the process of doing something new and something different for the purpose of creating wealth for the individual and adding value to society (Morrison, Rimmington & Williams, 1999: 10). For the purpose of this study, the development of *entrepreneurship* is measured according to the successful application of *entrepreneurial skills* in the establishment of a business, by means of a semi-structured interview.

1.6 Description of terms

1.6.1 Entrepreneurial skills training programme

For the purpose of this study, an *entrepreneurial skills training programme* is a systematic plan of action to help individuals become entrepreneurs. The programme includes the *Snowflake Bake for Profit* training course, action and reflection meetings between the facilitator and the participants and financial and technical support services offered to the participants. The researcher of the study also acts as the facilitator of the programme. The study covers a period of fifteen months of the DARE programme.
1.6.2 Entrepreneurial skills

*Entrepreneurial skills* are the skills needed for an entrepreneur to establish a business and its application serves as an indicator of success. For the purpose of this study, *entrepreneurial skills* encompass the application of business principles taught in the *Snowflake Bake for Profit*-course as found in the workbooks of the Trident Institute (1993).

1.6.3 Participatory action research (PAR)

*Participatory action research (PAR)* is the approach that is followed towards the implementation of the *Entrepreneurial skills training programme*. In other words, PAR is the theory on which the programme is built. It entails "the collective generation of knowledge which leads to the planning and achievement of jointly set objectives" (Collins, 1999: 2).

1.6.4 Snowflake Bake for Profit

*Bake for Profit* is an entrepreneurial skills training course, sponsored by Snowflake, a subsidiary of Genfood South Africa. It combines training in business skills and baking skills with the aim of equipping the participants to become profitable bakers.

1.7 Research report sequence

In this chapter, the problem statement of the study is presented and the motivation for the goal as well as the objectives stemming from it.

Chapter 2 takes an in-depth look at the literature related to the study. The aspects that are covered include programme evaluation, empowerment, the participatory action research (PAR) approach and rural entrepreneurship.

Chapter 3 contains a description of the research procedure followed throughout the study. It gives a detailed description of the different phases of the research, namely
gaining access to the field, data collection (Objectives 1.3.2.1, 1.3.2.2, 1.3.2.3 and 1.3.2.4) and data analysis.

Chapter 4 contains the results of the data collection phase of the research. This includes the statistically analysed data of the empowerment questionnaires (Objective 1.3.2.1), the participant observation (Objective 1.3.2.2), the qualitatively analysed data of the semi-structured interviews (Objective 1.3.2.3) and the case studies (Objective 1.3.2.4).

Chapter 5 presents the interpretation of the results of the study, relating the findings to the existing body of knowledge.

Chapter 6 presents the conclusions reached in the study, as well as recommendations for further research.
CHAPTER 2
A REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

In the previous chapter, the motivation and the problem statement of the study was presented, as well as the goal of the study and the objectives stemming from it.

In this chapter, a literature review is undertaken to present an overview of the literature framework that surrounds the study. Programme evaluation is discussed as a research design, including types and stages of evaluation. The review includes a study of literature on PAR, especially the definitions, context and process of PAR. Some literature on the concept of empowerment was also reviewed. The role of entrepreneurship in rural development is investigated as well as evaluation of entrepreneurial skills training programmes.

2.1 Programme evaluation

2.1.1 Introduction

Programme evaluation is a highly specialised area of applied social science research (Mouton, 1999: v). The purpose of this review is to assist the researcher in answering the research question, namely: How effective is an entrepreneurial skills training programme in a rural community where the participatory action research approach was followed?

In order to focus on the research question, the literature review will focus on evaluation as such and the two types of programme evaluation namely programme monitoring and outcome evaluation, considered suitable for the study. The focus of the review was further narrowed down to the evaluation of specifically rural development interventions, which concentrate on adult education and training.
2.1.2 Definitions in evaluation

People often are confused about what evaluation is, because of the different definitions of various authors. "People often mistake it for related but separate assessment tools such as monitoring or performance appraisal" (Ewang, 1998: 164). Evaluation is a term that covers judgements of many kinds (Weiss, 1998: 3). The word evaluation actually means to determine the value of something (Feuerstein, 1986: 2).

However, in this review a specific method of evaluation, namely evaluation research, is studied. "Evaluation research is the systematic application of social research procedures for assessing the conceptualisation, design, implementation and utility of social intervention programmes" (Rossi & Freeman, 1993: 5). Ewang (1998: 164) emphasizes the importance of the systematic approach of evaluation research, "If information obtained through the evaluation of a project is to be useful, it must be collected and interpreted in a credible way". Rossi and Freeman (1993: 32) see their outlook on evaluation as a pragmatic middle ground between the scientific perspective of evaluation and the view of evaluation as an art. Knowles (1980: 201) sees this spectrum of differing opinions as a conflict of values.

Evaluation can take place on four levels: policy evaluation, evaluation of a portfolio of programmes, programme evaluation and evaluation of individual projects (Evaluation Associates, 1997). Although the phenomena to be evaluated can also be diverse, this review focuses only on the evaluation of social intervention programmes and projects. Rural development projects are the basic instruments of intervention in rural development. Monitoring and evaluation are important aspects of any rural development project and are crucial to understanding the results of these interventions (Oakley, 1988: 3).

Evaluation differs from monitoring. Monitoring is an internal programme activity that determines the efficiency of resource use, the achievement of project goals (measuring performance) and the overall efficiency of the process of project implementation (Ewang, 1998: 164). According to Rossi and Freeman (1993: 35), monitoring is a managerial function that aims to avoid problems such as delays
because of unresolved conflict, going over the budget and poor quality control. It also provides accountability to sponsors and stakeholders.

Wickham (1998: 1) defines programme evaluation as: “the assessment of the value of a programme”. In his view, programme evaluation is ultimately a judgement of the value of that programme. In this definition of programme evaluation, he includes the judgement of the programme management and the programme workers – their knowledge, skills and expertise, as well as their choice of methodology for implementing the programme. It is evident from the literature that evaluation of a social programme is not a luxury to be done only when there is time for it, but an absolute necessity (Swanepoel, 1997: 174).

Evaluation is an integral part of a project. It supports five significant management needs: information, accountability, decision advice, learning about the programme and improving the programme (Evaluation Associates, 1997). Before moving ahead to the need for evaluation today, a brief history of evaluation is offered.

2.1.3 The history of evaluation

Evaluation emerged from the acceptance of the scientific method as a way of dealing with social problems (Rossi & Freeman, 1993: 9). Programme evaluation originated in the fields of education and public health. Before World War 1, efforts were directed at assessing educational programmes concerned with literacy, occupational training and public health programmes that aimed to reduce the mortality and morbidity of infectious diseases (Rossi & Freeman, 1993: 10).

In the 1960s, evaluation research developed rapidly in the USA when many new federal social programmes were created (Neumann, 1997: 27). Most of the researchers adopted a positivist approach and used cost-benefit analysis. By the 1970s, evaluation research was mandatory for most federal social programmes in the USA. The 1980s saw a growth of evaluation at state and local levels in that country.

According to Mouton (1999: v), only a few isolated evaluation studies were undertaken in South Africa during the 1980s. The big boom in evaluation research in
South Africa occurred from the early 1990s onwards. The current high levels of interest in programme evaluation originated from the birth of the democratic government in 1994.

Guba and Lincoln (1989) divide the evolution of evaluation into four generations. The first generation focused on measurement, the second on description, the third on judgement and the fourth generation focuses on the process of evaluation.

A recent trend in programme evaluation is the increasing use of qualitative methods in evaluation. Positivist researchers are on the one end of the spectrum and humanistic researchers are on the other end. Positivist researchers want control, precision, proof, hard data and their emphasis in evaluation is on efficiency and quantification. Humanistic researchers emphasize self-actualisation, free play of natural forces and creativity and their focus in evaluation is on involvement by all the stakeholders (Knowles, 1980: 201).

Positivist evaluation takes the form of experiments or quasi-experiments, and it is based on the belief that the scope of programme evaluation is limited to those aspects of social programmes that can be objectively observed and tested (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999: 211). Interpretive humanistic approaches to evaluation research make use of qualitative methods of data collection such as interviews and focus groups with stakeholders.

Out of these “paradigm wars”, there have emerged three methodological paradigms from which programme evaluation is practised today, namely the quantitative/positivist paradigm, the qualitative/interpretive paradigm and the participatory paradigm (Weiss, 1998: 3).

2.1.4 The need for evaluation

Whether it is at the national, provincial or community level, there is a need to assess whether social policies and programmes are helping the intended beneficiaries (Mouton, 1999: v). “Social programmes yield small gains. But resource limitations and more realistic expectations for social programmes only increase the need for
evaluation efforts as societies attempt to cope with their human and social problems" (Rossi & Freeman, 1993: 6). In many of the cases, it is the taxpayers' money that is used by the government to implement new programmes and policies. It becomes an issue of accountability to judge whether money is spent and objectives are met in an efficient manner (Mouton, 1999: v). The same principles apply to NGOs and their different stakeholders.

2.1.5 The purpose of evaluation

The purpose of evaluation is to test creative ideas (interventions) for solving problems (Rossi & Freeman, 1993: 34). Knowles (1980: 202) distinguishes between the purposes of the improvement of organisational performance and the improvement of the programme itself, including objectives (operational and educational), methods and techniques.

Posavac and Carey (1992: 6) identified six reasons for conducting programme evaluation:

- The fulfilment of the requirements for accreditation
- Accounting for the expenditure of funds to sponsors
- Answering requests for information
- Choosing among possible programmes
- Assisting staff in programme development and improvement
- Learning about unintended effects of programmes

Ewang (1998: 165) sees the purpose of evaluation as giving feedback on whether or not a project is achieving its goals, identifying problems at an early stage, assessing the efficiency of the project implementation (in terms of time and money) and to help with future project planning. Feuerstein (1986: 2) adds to this, saying that community workers evaluate their work, because it is a way to share their experiences, to compare their programmes with similar ones and to obtain a critical assessment of their own work. “Evaluation research can help direct future effort to where it will do
the most good and conserve scarce organisational resources" (Rubin & Rubin, 1986: 368).

As central to everything that has been said about the purpose of evaluation research, Rossi and Freeman (1993: 6) believe that the key goal remains to design and implement an evaluation that is reproducible by other evaluators.

2.1.6 Types of evaluation

Based on motivation, purposes and objectives, Rossi and Freeman (1993: 34) divide evaluation studies into three categories: analysis related to the conceptualisation and design of interventions, monitoring of programme implementation and assessment of programme utility.

Posavac and Carey's (1992: 7) classification does not differ much from the above. The four categories are:

• The evaluation of need – they emphasize the importance of assessing unmet needs before effective programme planning and implementation can take place.

• The evaluation of process – it is concerned with the way the programme is implemented and corresponds with Rossi and Freeman's programme monitoring mentioned above.

• The evaluation of outcome – the evaluator must access what the intended outcomes are and use valid and reliable measures to determine the success of the programme.

• The evaluation of efficiency – the cost of the intervention must be measured against the benefits it gives to the target population.

According to Evaluation Associates (1997), evaluation can be divided into four categories according to the different times at which it takes place:
- In-term evaluation: provides decision advice on the next phase
- Ex post: takes place after the programme is complete
- Real time: takes place throughout the course of the programme
- Backward look: focuses on impact and takes place a few years after completion of the programme

From the literature it was evident that different authors' classification of types of evaluation overlap. Table 1 is the researcher's summary of the different authors' classifications of the types of evaluation:

**Table 1: Different author's classification of the types of evaluation**

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<tr>
<td>1. Analysis of conceptualisation and design</td>
<td>1. Evaluation of need</td>
<td>1. In-term evaluation</td>
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A brief description of each type of evaluation is provided according to Rossi and Freeman (1993: 35)'s classification:

**2.1.6.1 Analysis of conceptualisation and design**

The question asked when doing an analysis relating to the conceptualisation and design of interventions is the following: Is the programme designed in such a way as to address identified social needs? A needs assessment study is an example of such an evaluation.
Social programmes are intended to address social problems. Social problems such as crime, violence, abuse, social inequality and poverty are social constructions and not objective phenomena (Rossi & Freeman, 1993: 60).

It is the role of evaluators to define the size, nature and distribution of the problem through the use of systematic, reproducible diagnostic procedures (Moris & Copestake, 1993: 16). To do this, evaluators can use existing data such as census data (Rossi & Freeman, 1993: 64). Evaluators can also collect new data by means of key person surveys, studies of existing records, surveys, quantitative needs assessments and qualitative needs assessments.

Appropriate definitions of the targets of interventions are also established as part of needs assessment studies. Programme evaluators should also identify the resources available to the target group (Iowa State University, 1999).

2.1.6.2 Monitoring of implementation

Monitoring of programme implementation means that once the programme is developed, it is crucial to check if it was implemented as prescribed (Iowa State University, 1999). Programme monitoring can also be called process evaluation. When conducting a process evaluation, evaluators must discriminate between the programme description and the programme as it was administered. Two types of information are collected. The first type of information describes the programme participants actually served to access the degree to which they match the original description of the target population. The second type of information focuses on the programme description itself (Iowa State University, 1999).

Programme monitoring provides the necessary conditions to assess programme outcome or possible impact and is used as a tool for accountability by management (Oakley, 1988: 7; Mouton, 1999: 5). According to Swanepoel (1997: 175), monitoring assesses the action group's ability to operationalise the plan. Moris and Copestake (1993: 21) makes a further distinction between types of information obtained through monitoring - information required for ongoing management and that required by funding organisations.


2.1.6.3 Assessment of programme utility

A programme's impact refers to the degree to which a programme produces the desired outcomes and its efficiency refers to its benefits in relation to its costs. Together, these two qualities refer to the programme's utility (Rossi & Freeman, 1993: 36). Programme evaluations also compare programmes to determine which particular programme produces the best outcomes and also provide information with which to improve programmes (Iowa State University, 1999). Cost-benefit analysis is an example of an efficiency assessment (Mouton, 1999: 5).

Posavac and Carey (1992: 11) state that there is a logical sequence in these different evaluation types. "Without measuring need, programs cannot be planned rationally; without effective implementation, successful outcomes cannot result from the program; and without valued outcomes, there is no reason to worry about cost-effectiveness".

In the literature, evaluation that covers the objectives of all four types of evaluation, is referred to as comprehensive evaluation. However, this can only be achieved if an evaluator becomes involved during the conceptualisation and design phase of a programme (Mouton, 1999: 8).

The programme's stage of development determines the level of effort and the technical procedures undertaken during the evaluation (Rossi & Freeman, 1993: 41). Depending on this, evaluation can be divided into three categories: evaluation of innovative programmes, evaluation for fine-tuning and evaluation of established programmes (Rossi & Freeman, 1993: 45).

Evaluation can be divided into five models, according to Iowa State University (1999):

- Participant-orientated: the focus is on programme processes and the perspectives of the stakeholders
- Objective-orientated: the focus is on the extent to which a programme meets its objectives
• Management-orientated: the focus is on providing information for programme managers to help in decision making

• Expertise-orientated: the focus is on the judgement of an expert

• Adversary-orientated: the focus is on incorporating negative and positive views in the evaluation

Mouton (1999: 13) quotes Scriven (1980: 6) as follows, "Evaluation may be done to provide feedback to people who are trying to improve something (formative evaluation); or to provide information for decision-makers who are wondering whether to fund, terminate or purchase something (summative evaluation)". The context of the programme determines whether formative or summative evaluation, or both are appropriate.

2.1.7 Factors that influence evaluation

In evaluation research, evaluators must modify their evaluation plan according to the context in which they are working (Rossi & Freeman, 1993: 27). The resources, priorities, and the influence of sponsors on social programmes change. The interests and influence of the various stakeholders change. The priorities and responsibilities of the organisations and agencies implementing the programmes may also change. Unanticipated problems may also require the evaluator to modify the programme and the evaluation plan.

When evaluation should take place, is determined by factors such as whether the programme has long-term or short-term objectives, when and for how long the external evaluator is available, if used, and what time best suits the people, the programme staff and the funding agencies (Feuerstein, 1986: 14).

How long the evaluation will take to complete depends on how long the programme has been running, the number of people involved, the size of the area covered, the time available to the evaluator, the preparation and testing of evaluation materials, the availability of material resources and the urgency with which the donors need the
information (Feuerstein, 1986: 17). The cost of the evaluation is determined by the amount of money available for evaluation and its source, the objectives and scope of the evaluation, material resources involved and whether external evaluators are involved.

Different variables can cause alternative explanations of why changes occur in the extent of a problem other than actions of the programme participants. Variables to consider are history, maturation, mortality, creaming and reactance (Rubin & Rubin, 1986: 383).

History is non-programme related changes in the environment that take place at the same time as the programme. Maturation refers to inevitable changes in the participants due to their natural maturation, while mortality refers to the dropout rate of programme participants (Rubin & Rubin, 1986: 382).

When a programme participant is chosen because they appear to be the most likely candidates for success, it is referred to as creaming. When people are temporarily responding to a programme without changing their behaviour in the long run, it is called reactance (Rubin & Rubin, 1986: 383).

2.1.8 Stages of programme evaluation

From the literature it was evident that different authors' stages of evaluation overlap. Table 2 is the researcher's summary of the stages of programme evaluation presented by different authors:
Table 2: Different authors' stages of programme evaluation

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<tr>
<td>1. Planning the evaluation</td>
<td>1. Establishing boundaries</td>
<td>1. Conceptualisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Initiating the evaluation</td>
<td>2. Selecting evaluation methods</td>
<td>2. Measurement</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Finalising the report</td>
<td>4. Reporting of findings</td>
<td>4. Design</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Using the report</td>
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<td>5. Data gathering</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>6. Data analysis and presentation</td>
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In the following section, the stages of programme evaluation will be discussed using a combination of the different authors' classifications mentioned above.

2.1.8.1 Conceptualisation

In the conceptualisation stage, organisation members and evaluators need to agree on the programme's objectives, the causes of the problem the programme is trying to address, a definition of programme success and the target population of the programme (Rubin & Rubin, 1986: 372). Establishing the boundaries of the evaluation involves determining the purpose of the evaluation and focusing the evaluation. Focusing an evaluation involves learning about the programme description, the staff, the participants; determining what tasks need to be accomplished; establishing specific objectives for the evaluation; and identifying any potential barriers to conducting the evaluation (Iowa State University, 1999).

Cloete, Groenewald and Van Wyk (1996: 18) distinguish between the process and task objectives of a programme. Task objectives refer to addressing basic human needs such as food and housing in a concrete manner, while process objectives are aimed at positive changes in attitudes and abilities. The success of task objectives can be measured in a more concrete way than process objectives, but it is important to remember that they are interdependent.
2.1.8.2 Planning and design

The decision to evaluate must be taken with mutual agreement between the donors, the programme staff and the participants. It is important for everyone to know exactly what is expected of each of them (Feuerstein, 1986: 20). Planning of evaluation involves an organised way of determining the methodology to eventually reach the objectives (Feuerstein, 1986: 20). An evaluation plan or design consists of the objectives, the scope, the context, the people and resources involved in the evaluation. Evaluation usually takes place while a programme is in progress and good evaluation plans cause the least disruption possible. Wickham (1998: 9) summarises the different designs as follows:

- Non-experimental designs
- Quasi-experimental designs
- Experimental designs
- Participatory designs

2.1.8.3 Measurement

Programme objectives must be stated specifically and be measurable with an instrument (Feuerstein, 1986: 23). Indicators are markers used in evaluation to measure change. In quantitative research, indicators consist of measurements such as percentage, rate or ratio. In qualitative research, abstract concepts such as quality, efficiency and impact act as indicators of change (Feuerstein, 1986: 27). An operating measure is a concept defined by describing how it will be measured. It can also be referred to as an operational definition. The purpose of defining operating measures is to have precise indicators of both the actions taken and the consequences of the actions (Rubin & Rubin, 1986: 374). Operating measures must be valid, that is, they must actually measure the underlying concept that they are supposed to measure (Rubin & Rubin, 1986: 377).

According to Wickham (1998: 7), the chief tools of evaluation are criteria, indicators and standards by which a judgement is formed. He defines them as follows:
• Criteria are statements, which pinpoint the characteristics by which the programme will be judged. Clearly, these need to be related to both the programme goals and objectives, as well as to the evaluation focus.

• Indicators are the concrete signs that indicate that a particular criterion has been met.

• Standards are the levels of performance that are needed in order to pronounce a programme as a success/good enough/marginal.

2.1.8.4 Data collection

Different evaluation methods are used to measure people, programme management and programme activities. These methods range from physical measurements, interviews and questionnaires to observations and the analysis of records and reports (Feuerstein, 1986: 29).

A thorough evaluation will triangulate data, that is, use different types of information provided by separate data gathering techniques to reinforce each other (Rubin & Rubin, 1986: 386). In Valla (2000), an evaluation of the impact of the Bergzicht Training Centre in Stellenbosch, data from questionnaires, interviews and focus groups were triangulated for validation of the findings.

There is consensus in the literature that one of the most common shortcomings of many social programmes is that they are seldom systematically recorded (Swanepoel, 1997: 185; Moris & Copestake, 1993: 21; Rossi & Freeman, 1993: 166). A complete set of records of planning meetings, assessments of activities and detailed planning documents is necessary for a complete picture of the programme implementation (Swanepoel, 1997: 185). This can be supplemented by reports from key persons about certain activities and field notes of observations and discussions. Honesty and verification are the two factors that are required for reliability and correctness of data (Swanepoel, 1997: 188).
2.1.8.5 Data analysis

Evaluation questions that measure specific behavioural changes in terms of educational objectives will require more or less elaborate quantification and statistical procedures (Knowles, 1980: 215). On the other hand, evaluation questions about operational objectives require analysis of a compilation of judgements of relevant parties, such as committee members, staff, participants, supervisors and community leaders.

2.1.8.6 The evaluation report

The criteria for success of an evaluation report are credibility, persuasiveness, neutrality of arguments, good organisation, readability and presentation (Evaluation Associates, 1997). Reports must be presented as objective findings posing problems to be solved, rather than accusations. Then they will be accepted by the leaders without defensiveness and will result in constructive action (Knowles, 1980: 215).

According to Rubin and Rubin (1986: 392), the single criterion for judging the success of an evaluation is whether it is used as the basis for future decisions. Project managers should not overlook follow-up on evaluation. The evaluation's recommendations must be implemented for evaluation to have the greater effect.

Feuerstein (1986: 5) and Ewang (1998: 165) agree that evaluation is not the solution to all problems – it is only one part of a holistic approach to project management. Evaluation must look at the programme as a whole – it should include both quantitative and qualitative aspects (Feuerstein, 1986: 7).

2.1.9 Trends in programme evaluation

According to Ewang (1998: 163), development agents are not up to date with the latest trends in programme evaluation. They do not know what it entails and they view it as a predominantly negative experience involving people observing your work and then reporting to donors. But with greater understanding of what it entails, project managers will realise that evaluation can be used to their advantage.
People have different reasons for evaluating a programme (Feuerstein, 1986: 14). In the past, evaluation was usually done by external evaluators with the purpose of assessing the feasibility of a project or the impact of a project on behalf of donors and has often not included the people at grassroots level (Feuerstein, 1986: 1; Ewang, 1998: 164).

"While traditionally the preserve of the experts, programme evaluation is now often conducted by the programme workers themselves and by other important stakeholders – such as the recipients of the programme" (Wickham, 1998: 5).

An external evaluator is less likely to be biased and more able to be objective, whereas an internal evaluator has insider knowledge about the programme and the participants (Feuerstein, 1986: 9). Programme staff and participants may not have the skills to conduct a formal evaluation, but they know the area, its people and their problems, abilities and beliefs (Feuerstein, 1986: 11). That is why it is important for the evaluator and the community to work together. Even in cases where people at community level do participate in the gathering of information, they usually are excluded from the analysis and dissemination of the results (Feuerstein, 1986: 8). Only when the people take part in decisions about the methods of gathering information and the analysis and use of the results, does their role shift from mere co-operation to real participation (Feuerstein, 1986: 12). Then they can see what changes are needed and why, and can plan how to implement those changes in the future (Feuerstein, 1986: 15). The results of evaluation belong to everyone who paid for it with their money, time, effort and those who carried it out (Feuerstein, 1986: 18).

Participatory self-evaluation is the latest trend in evaluation (Wickham, 1998: 9). Its objective is to enable action groups to get a better idea of their weaknesses and strengths. This type of evaluation is based on the assumption that, if an action group is evaluated, it is as good as an evaluation of the project. It is interested mainly in the process of a project, but it also looks at the product of a project (Swanepoel, 1997: 181). The action group meets regularly to reflect on their progress throughout the programme. The community worker/researcher facilitates this, and the group must identify their strengths and weaknesses. They must then decide on a plan of action to improve their weaknesses (Swanepoel, 1997: 184).
Participatory self-evaluation is also referred to as empowerment evaluation. According to Fetterman and Eiler (2000: 4), empowerment evaluation is “the use of evaluation concepts, techniques and findings to foster improvement” among citizens and the programmes intended to serve them. Emerging from community psychology and community development, this approach to evaluation is “attentive to empowering processes” and uses self-evaluation and reflection by programme participants to collectively help themselves and improve their programmes. Outside evaluators act as coaches or facilitators in these processes, in which training, advocacy, and action all are essential elements (Jackson & Kassam, 1998: 10).

In the largely illiterate rural environment of South Africa, the focus of researchers and extension agents should be on “demystifying” the evaluation process. This can be done by including participatory evaluation at all stages of the programme as a means for rural development. Involving the community in participatory evaluation helps them to recognise and understand their strengths, weaknesses and potential. They also improve their capacities and performance (Mtshali, 2000: 71).

The facilitator in a participatory evaluation process is both a learner and a researcher. In such a process, the task of the researcher is not to produce knowledge, but to facilitate the construction of knowledge by the community itself (Feuerstein, 1988: 23). The goal of monitoring and evaluation is to give the action group and the community worker an opportunity to learn. It is obvious that continuous evaluation will develop critical thinking and problem solving skills in the action group, which will enhance the learning process (Swanepoel, 1997: 188).

In 1988, Feuerstein wrote that evaluation was moving towards developing less costly, less expert-dependent and more self-reliant evaluation approaches. The trend was towards less but more usable data that are available to the whole community and not just the sponsors of the evaluation (Feuerstein, 1988: 16). Swanepoel (1997: 188) concluded that “the way forward lies in the construction of a practical evaluation that embodies many of the central concerns of an interpretative enquiry”.

It seems that there have been some constraints to the rapid inclusion of participatory evaluation methods on the conceptual level. “A conceptual framework is like a
system of values and attitudes, which result in specific view of reality" (Feuerstein, 1988: 240). Conventional evaluation approaches have been based largely on a positivistic, Western conceptual framework. Therefore, until now, others using sets of assumptions and value judgements, constructed very largely without their participation, have judged the powerless and poor (Chambers, 1997: 28).

Mtshali (2000: 67) argues that inappropriate programmes for extension work among rural women in South Africa will persist if they are not monitored and evaluated regularly. Rural women’s programmes and projects are not experiments but social development interventions and conventional positivistic monitoring and evaluation are therefore not appropriate. The conventional approach has not solved the problems of social development projects, because some qualitative factors, which are criteria for success, are not easily demonstrated by numbers or analysed quantitatively. Thus, a shift towards using appropriate evaluation methods for social development programmes is especially significant.

By participating in intervention programmes, one can expect participants to gain a sense of control over their lives and thus become empowered. Therefore it is necessary to explore this concept. The next section of the literature review looks at the concept of empowerment and what it entails.

2.2 Empowerment

Rubin and Rubin (1986: 12) define power as the ability to accomplish one’s will with or without opposition. Disempowered individuals experience a sense of hopelessness, of inferiority and a loss of power (Albertyn, 1995: 9). Feelings of powerlessness usually result from a lack of resources and the inability to make choices. This disempowered state is usually the starting point from where empowerment takes place. Albertyn (1995: 10) summarises the aim of empowerment as follows, "Empowerment aims ultimately to transform society based on the foundation in the individual’s empowerment. It should lead to emancipation or the power to act and choose".
2.2.1 Definitions of empowerment

The term "empowerment" has been central in the debates on community development since the 1960s (Tamasane, 1998: 63). Local people achieve true empowerment through participation in development projects. According to Tamasane (1998: 67) empowerment can be defined as "[T]he process of increasing people's power or potential at the personal, interpersonal or political level, to actively and meaningfully contribute in, and initiate programmes aimed at improving their environment, their lives and of those around them". This implies that empowerment involves both the concept of decentralised democracy and the increased capacity of individuals to make decisions that affect their lives (Rubin & Rubin, 1986: 20).

Empowerment is viewed as a process and an outcome (Tamasane, 1998: 82). It is a process by which people, organisations and communities gain control over their lives, and it is also an outcome that is achieved through participative action in development activities. Albertyn (1995: 11) and Kennedy (1996) agree that power is not a "thing" which people possess; it is a process. In other words, it is not correct to say a group has power, but that, through its conscious action, a group can empower itself by increasing its ability to achieve its own interests. This process to enable people to have greater control in their lives takes place on three different levels, namely the personal level (micro level), the interpersonal level (interface) and the political (macro) level.

2.2.2 Levels of empowerment

From the literature it is evident that the concept of empowerment can be divided into three levels, namely the micro, interface and macro levels.

2.2.2.1 Micro level of empowerment

Micro level empowerment refers to personal empowerment: the individual's sense or feelings of control over their specific environment, having control over the direction of their own lives (Albertyn, 1995: 13). "The aim should be to make people aware of the potential that is within them and to encourage them to use it fruitfully, while
supplementing it with skills through formal or non-formal training" (Tamasane, 1998: 70).

2.2.2.2 Interface level of empowerment

The community development process provides individuals with interaction skills that facilitate "togetherness" in a community (Swanepoel, 1997: 26). Interface level empowerment is characterised by an ability to act collectively to solve problems and influence conditions immediately affecting the individual (Albertyn, 1995: 14). In other words, people learn to work as a group and gain life skills in the process (Tamasane, 1998: 71).

2.2.2.3 Macro level of empowerment

This level of empowerment involves the increase of individuals’ power to effect political, economic or social changes in their immediate environment by means of consciousness-raising and participation, and the ability to manage these changes (Tamasane, 1998: 71). This means that individuals not only understand their society and their place in it, but they also undertake action towards social transformation (Albertyn, 1995: 14).

2.2.3 Empowerment indicators

Empowerment is a concept that is defined by individuals in a specific context. The results may therefore vary from context to context (Albertyn, 1995: 16). Indicators are the specific outcomes as a result of the empowerment process and consist of psychological, social, political and economical indicators.

For the purpose of this study, indicators applied by Albertyn (1995: 17) in her empowerment questionnaire that was used in this study, will be identified. During the development of the questionnaire, the indicators were categorised into sub-levels to correspond with the three levels of empowerment (Albertyn, 1995: 69).
2.2.3.1 Psychological indicators

Albertyn (1995: 17) summarises concepts used as psychological indicators: self esteem, confidence, dignity, self respect, self worth, self sufficiency, self efficacy, motivation, certainty of achievement of goals, ability to direct own choices, feeling of having power over one's own life, attitude change, behaviour change, individual determination, personal control, pro-activity, ability to accomplish tasks, command over events, competence, improved coping skills, upward mobility, individual assertiveness.

2.2.3.2 Social indicators

Albertyn (1995: 17) summarises concepts used as social indicators: leadership skills, able to make a difference in the world around us, collective group efficacy, group identity, community participation, evidence of change in the community, ability to affect the behaviour of others, to exercise influence, mutual support systems, community organisation.

2.2.3.3 Political indicators

Albertyn (1995: 17) summarises concepts used as political indicators amongst others: be ready to take action at all times, prepared to be involved in social change, undertake efforts to modify social relations.

2.2.3.4 Economic indicators

Albertyn (1995: 17) summarises concepts used as economic indicators: gain control over resource allocation at home and in the labour market, increased financial independence.
2.2.4 Models of empowerment

The process of empowerment intervention corresponds to a large degree with the processes of participatory community development and participatory research (as discussed later in the literature review). Therefore, the process of empowerment will not be discussed in much detail. Albertyn (1995: 25) cites various models proposed by different authors to indicate the stages in the process of empowerment and refers to Kieffer who developed a model of the empowerment process in 1984 that consists of four stages:

- **Era of entry:** the individual's participation in the process is of an exploratory nature, while at the same time power structures are being "demystified".

- **Era of advancement:** the individual participates in mutually supportive problem solving and action with a peer group and gains a critical understanding of the situation with help from the facilitator.

- **Era of incorporation:** the individual confronts institutional barriers to the achievement of goals and develops organisational and leadership skills in the process.

- **Era of commitment:** in this stage, the individual integrates the newly acquired knowledge into the reality of everyday life.

These stages often occur simultaneously or overlap. The process is never complete; it is a continual process of growth throughout an individual's life (Albertyn, 1995: 27).

2.2.5 Techniques for facilitating empowerment

The techniques, which facilitate empowerment, are consciousness-raising, education, skill building and collectivity.
Consciousness-raising is a process of making people aware of both external and internal problems, the root causes of the problems and of possible solutions (Tamasane, 1998: 77; Botchway, 2001: 139).

Empowerment through education (also referred to as transformative learning) can involve literacy, adult education, vocational training programmes, or workshops. "Through educational programmes people develop critical thinking, knowledge and skills that enhance the empowerment process" (Tamasane, 1998: 77). The empowerment process also recognises the value of people's indigenous knowledge (Singh, 1999: 471).

According to Rubin and Rubin (1986: 23), empowerment is achieved by building individual capacity through the mobilisation of resources. When people become involved in empowering development projects, they acquire skills that they can use to initiate other projects or work on a project that might have been initiated from the outside (Tamasane, 1998: 78).

The notion of collectivity or "togetherness" facilitates communicative action. In other words, the knowledge that is created through interactivity recognises both the private and the shared worlds of the individuals (Tamasane, 1998: 79). "Empowerment through knowledge means not only challenging expertise with expertise, but it means expanding who participates in the knowledge production process in the first place" (Gaventa & Cornwall, 2001: 71).

Empowerment is one of the goals the PAR approach aims to achieve. Therefore, in the next section of the literature review, participatory action research (PAR) is discussed as an approach to the implementation of social intervention programmes:
2.3 Participatory action research (PAR)

2.3.1 Definitions of PAR

In response to conventional, positivistic, top-down development research methods, a growing family of collaborative enquiry approaches and methods that share a basic humanistic ideology has emerged since the 1970s (Stadler, 1995: 305; Emmett, 2000: 506). Although there is no consensus over which research methods belong to this group, most authors' lists overlap. This family includes similar methodologies such as action research (AR), participatory research (PR), participatory action research (PAR), participatory learning and action (PLA), participatory observation, participatory rural appraisal (PRA), rapid rural appraisal (RRA), dialogical intervention strategy and enabling state assessment methodology (ESAM) (Wetmore & Theron, 1998: 30; Jackson, 2000: 347). Collins (1999: 4) elaborated on the list of labels by adding cooperative inquiry, collaborative research, action inquiry and appreciative inquiry.

To propose a comprehensive definition for this group is an almost impossible task, because there is so much conceptual confusion (Wadsworth, 1998: 1). Chambers (1992: 1) suggested that "all methods, approaches and attitudes used in helping people to share, analyse, enhance, act upon, and then once again analyse", falls into this broad family. For the purpose of this study, the focus will be on the label of PAR. However, the literature review was not limited to literature on PAR because Prozesky (1998: 22) suggests that distinction between the different terms relies on secondary interpretations by authors of what AR, PR and PAR are.

Kurt Lewin is generally known as the father of action research. He defined action research as a way to produce knowledge about a social system while trying to change it (Prozesky, 1998: 15). It is a cyclic process with an action phase followed by a reflection phase. It generates knowledge while it promotes practical problem solving (Prozesky, 1998: 7; Emmett, 2000: 506).

Wadsworth (1998: 1) views PAR not as a new technique or method, but as "one of the more inclusive descriptions of this new understanding of social science". In other
words, it is seen as a paradigm shift in the social sciences, contrasted with conventional positivistic research science. Mouton (2001: 141) agrees with the view that PAR is a new methodological approach within the epistemological paradigm of critical theory. PAR is seen as a new kind of action research. Some researchers feel it is unnecessary to add the term "participatory" to action research because they see action research as being impossible without participation. However, it is evident from the literature that PAR implies more participation and collaboration than action research. PAR reconceptualises participation as awarding co-researcher status to participants, rather than mere cooperation on their part (Prozesky, 1998: 16).

According to Fals-Borda as referred to by Prozesky (1998: 16), PAR can be distinguished from other kinds of action research that aim to maintain and defend the status quo rather than social change or transformation. The aim of PAR is empowerment (Emmett, 2000: 507). Prozesky (1998: 17) makes another distinction between PAR and action research. PAR is performed in grass roots work in Third World countries, outside of the mostly Anglo-American context of AR. However, some authors still use AR and PAR interchangeably (Reardon, Welsch, Kreiswirth & Forester, 1993: 71).

Participatory research (PR) can be described as research that integrates social investigation, educational work and action (Anyanwu, 1988: 11; Peterat, 1997: 102; Collins, 1999: 2; Stoecker, 1998: 3). It is the result of increased emphasis on participation in development work to make the knowledge process more democratic. Some researchers consider PAR as one of the trends in the participatory development movement (Prozesky, 1998: 18). Both PR and PAR developed from the approach of Paolo Freire who has been regarded as the father of the new participatory movement since the 1970s (Anyanwu, 1988: 12). A PR project only becomes PAR when it involves action initiatives (Prozesky, 1998: 19). Figure 2 presents the relationship between AR, PAR and PR schematically:
2.3.2 Origins of PAR

PAR has been the approach to development interventions in Third World countries since the 1970s (Prozesky, 1998: 4). Many researchers have claimed since then that they were using PAR. Meanwhile, because of a lack of methodological clarity about what PAR really is, they were actually not. PAR has been used and developed in Latin America, Asia and Africa. In Latin America and in Asia, the PAR projects have
had socio-political action as their goal and in Africa it was more in the line of socio-economic initiatives (McTaggart, 1991: 177).

Since the 1980s, the term PAR has been applied to work in Western organisations, for example the transformation of labour relations in the Xerox organisation (Prozesky, 1998: 4). Prozesky (1998: 7) refers to Brown, who divides PAR into two research traditions, namely the Northern Hemisphere or First World camp and the Southern Hemisphere or Third World camp. These two research traditions do not interact with each other because they are in two different social and geographical worlds.

According to McTaggart (1991: 169) and Seymour-Rolls and Hughes (1998: 1), the modern conceptualisation of PAR is a combination of theory and practice of many different fields including agriculture, social work, education, health, housing and community development. PAR was a response to conventional research and had political goals to empower those who were being studied (Prozesky, 1998: 4; Collins, 1999: 2). Wadsworth (1998: 2) however, sees all research as an attempt in the direction of PAR, because all research is more or less participatory, it more or less enables action during the process and it more or less promotes critical reflexive inquiry.

2.3.3 Context of PAR

Some research methodologies still undermine development today. The reason for this is that, for the researcher to remain academically correct, "one must substantiate one's findings within the context of structured, 'proper' testable research, founded in one or other 'school of thought', instead of within the realities of the resource-poor people themselves" (Wetmore & Theron, 1998: 32). Conventional development theories founded in positivism are not compatible with the process of human development and people's changing reality (Wetmore & Theron, 1998: 34). Hiebert and Swan (1999: 357) documented difficulties that the Pozfit-programme for people living with HIV / Aids experienced due to disagreement between stakeholders about the use of PAR techniques and processes versus traditional positivist research. "However, PAR is becoming quickly popularised and co-opted by many professionals
and institutions who have no intention of committing to its real emancipatory roots" (Hiebert & Swan, 1999: 363).

The ideology behind PAR correlates with the paradigm shift towards more participatory development interventions. It is a holistic and humanistic approach to community development (Swanepoel, 1997: 3).

2.3.3.1 Community development

Development can focus on physical (infrastructure), on economic or on social development (Tamasane, 1998: 12). Central to all of this is people. Community development aims to increase human capacity and to empower people by means of organised groups of people working together to control decisions, projects, programmes and policies that affect the community (Rubin & Rubin, 1986: 5; Anyanwu, 1988: 11; Albertyn, 1995: 20; Kennedy, 1996: 1). Korten (1990: 67) defines development as follows, "a process by which the members of a society increase their resources to produce sustainable and justly distributed improvements in the quality of life consistent with their own aspirations".

The practice of participatory development is many things to many people. The motivation to use participatory development methods and the approach to its practice depend on one's philosophy of development. Participatory development can be a manipulative tool to engage people in a pre-determined process, a suitable way to achieve results, or an attempt to support a democratic, empowering process (Keough, 1998: 187).

Different people interpret the concept of community differently. Restricting communities to specific geographic areas poses problems (Anyanwu, 1988: 11; Bell, 1997: 43; Emmett, 2000: 503). A community can be a specific geographic area, or a group of people with a common interest, which does not necessarily correspond with their geographic location (Rubin & Rubin, 1986: 7; Cloete, et al., 1996: 3). "The use of the term village or community involvement is silent about the fact that even poor rural communities are not homogenous and may be comprised of the poor, the very
poor and the not so poor who have differential access to resources" (Botchway, 2001: 147).

According to Anyanwu (1988: 11), community development occurs when people form their own organisations so that they have the capacity to solve their own problems in the long term. Community organisations are the vehicles through which community development is achieved (Rubin & Rubin, 1986: 7; Reardon et al., 1993: 72). The goal of a community organisation is to combat the people's sense of powerlessness by mobilising them to combat their shared problems. Rubin & Rubin (1986: 12) define power as the ability to accomplish one's will with or without opposition. Feelings of powerlessness usually result from a lack of resources. Kennedy (1996: 6) states that the underlying assumption of PAR is that the possession of knowledge is the critical basis of power and control.

According to Dotse (1997: 6), the four principles of development are capacity building, empowerment, equity and sustainability. Capacity building, including skills and knowledge, is needed to enhance participation and participation is needed for capacity building, and both are needed for sustainability.

There are two levels of development intervention. The first level is the assessment of needs and organising and mobilising resources. The second is the level of delivery and accountability. “At both levels, the real challenge is to adhere to the principles of empowerment and development while at the same time balancing NGO-agendas with genuine community needs and interfacing this with existing community structures along with the various political agendas” (Bell, 1997: 44).

2.3.3.2 Different role players

In PAR, the researcher plays the role of facilitator or “resource connector” (Peterat, 1997: 103; Wetmore & Theron, 1998: 42). Facilitators often play the role of mediator between sponsors and the community, advocating for the community (Keough, 1998: 194). A top-down approach to development, where the facilitator must report to the donors about everything, perpetuates the intellectual and economic dependence of the people (Wetmore & Theron, 1998: 32; Collins, 1999: 7).
According to Stoecker (1998: 6), the researcher has three roles in PAR, namely initiator, consultant and collaborator. As initiator, the researcher usually invites a community organisation to work with him/her or responds to a request from the community. As consultant, the community commissions a project and the researcher carries it out while being held accountable to the community. As collaborator, the ordinary people with problems to solve form a partnership with the researcher (Stoecker, 1998: 7).

The term change agent is also used to describe the facilitator of the development process, and the subjects of the research are called participants (Prozesky, 1998: 24; Wetmore & Theron, 1998: 40). The change agent usually is an outsider who initiates PAR, but the stimulus for action may also come from within the community (Prozesky, 1998: 25; Collins, 1999: 53). Prozesky (1998: 25) points to the characteristics of participants as the fact of their poverty, their disempowered status in society and their "cultural vulnerability" to colonization by the dominant culture. When working on international projects, development practitioners are confronted by a number of obstacles, namely distance, cultural difference, pressure from sponsors and the legacy of colonialism (Keough, 1998: 188; Emmett, 2000: 507).

"Development is contextually bound and therefore conceptualised by the members of a given society, sharing a particular dynamic environment and thus social reality" (Wetmore & Theron, 1998: 36). Rahman (1991: 13) states that the oppressed people who become "conscientisized" (self-aware) will progressively change their situation by their own praxis. The change agent only plays a catalytic and supportive role (Prozesky, 1998: 31; Wadsworth, 1998: 11). In PAR, all the relevant parties actively examine current action together in order to change and improve it. They do this in light of the historical, political, cultural, economic and geographic contexts in which it takes place (Wadsworth, 1998: 12). According to Wadsworth (1998: 13), PAR ironically is quite close to a common-sense way of "learning by doing", but at the same time it is very difficult to achieve the ideal conditions for practising it.
For development to be sustainable, people have to be involved. Community participation has been advocated because it has the potential for enhanced accountability and improved effectiveness of services. A greater emphasis has also been placed on institutional capacity building to further the process of participation (Cornwall, Lucas & Pasteur, 2000: 1). Participation must mean shared decision-making power (Stoecker, 1998: 4). Cornwall et al. (2000: 2) advocate institutional changes and particularly changes in decision-making power and control over resources, but also a focus on enhancing the capacity of communities to exercise their new rights and responsibilities.

Emmett (2000: 502) identified a large gap between theory and reality in implementation of community participation because of the lack of social methodology. "No matter how intense or loud, the advocacy for people's participation in development programmes remains empty rhetoric if it is not translated into a 'how to' social methodology for making popular participation real" (Cernea, 1992: 1). Participatory development lacks clear goals and objectives, and depends on practitioners' experience and intuition to conduct participatory development. This makes evaluation of participation in PR and PAR difficult. Further criticism of PAR focuses on lack of information and serious analysis of work done by PAR practitioners.

Reardon et al. (1993: 71) identified a concern that community-based planning projects are not implemented collaboratively. They believe that a PAR approach would improve the chances of it being taken more seriously. "The objectives are not to develop a set of programmes and initiatives that address basic concerns, but to do it in a participatory fashion so that folks can continue doing that kind of creative problem solving on their own" (Reardon et al., 1993: 78). The process is as important as the programme outcomes it produces. Successful community development must not only be measured in quantitative terms, for example the number of new jobs created. Rather, success must be measured in terms of increasing the numbers of empowered community members and the ability of people
involved in the planning process to use their skills in other situations (Keough, 1998: 193; Kennedy, 1996: 3).

Project partners and staff do not necessarily share the same understanding of what community participation means, as was evident in the Benue Health Fund (BHF) project in Nigeria. Some see participation as a means to an end. Following this interpretation, participation is only one of the many objectives of the project. On the other hand, some see participation as an end in itself, wherein it is understood that people participate because it is their right. These variations in interpretations are a problematic factor in achieving the project purpose (Unom, 2000: 85). Tamasane (1998: 36) argues that people's interests, time, attitudes and opinions about the possibility of success influence their decision to participate or not. In practice participation tends to be more narrowly based than in theory. Ideally, research subjects must at best be involved in all the stages of research from design to reporting. However, in practice, the context of the research might make this ideal difficult to realise (Walker, 1998: 242).

According to De Vos (1998: 417) and Prozesky (1998: 26), PAR involves the subjects of the study participating in the design of the study, through its implementation, and included in the actions during and after the research. PAR participants develop conceptual strategies for change in their situation, just like academic researchers develop hypotheses from their theories. Hypotheses are tested through systematic procedures. PAR researchers and participants conduct their tests through action, using the community as a laboratory. If an action test fails in a PAR study, the change strategy is disconfirmed. Repeated disconfirmations require both researchers and PAR participants to re-examine their theories (Whyte, 1995: 21).

Emmett (2000: 509) maintains that:

"The much lamented crisis of capacity building in Africa is more a crisis of institutional capacity (capacity utilisation) than a crisis of technical capacity (availability of skills, methods, systems and technology). This institutional crisis is essentially due to a structural and functional disconnect between informal and indigenous institutions built on the region's history and its culture, and formal institutions mostly transplanted from outside."
Many authors have tried to classify participation into categories to measure the nature of participation more easily. Prozesky (1998: 290), Loewenson (2000: 15) and Lenneiye (2000: 27) are three examples of different classifications of participation.

Prozesky (1998: 29) identifies degrees of participation, namely on the one end of the scale participants are consulted on central aspects of the research; in the middle of the scale there is a partnership between the change agent and participants with decision making and control shared among them; and on the other end of the scale participants are in control of the inquiry.

Table 3 gives an analysis of the levels and forms of community participation:

Table 3: Levels and forms of community participation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Community Participation</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>Has control</td>
<td>Organisation asks community to identify the problem and make all key decisions on goals and means. Willing to help community at each step to accomplish goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Has delegated power</td>
<td>Organisation identifies and presents a problem to the community, defines the limits and asks community to make a series of decisions that can be embodied in a plan that it will accept.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Plans jointly</td>
<td>Organisation presents tentative plan subject to change and open to change from those affected. Expect to change plan at least slightly and perhaps more, subsequently.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advises</td>
<td>Organisation presents a plan and invites questions. Prepared to modify plan only if necessary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Is consulted</td>
<td>Organisation tries to promote a plan. Seeks to develop support to facilitate acceptance or give sufficient sanction to plan so that administrative compliance can be expected.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Receives information</td>
<td>Organisation makes a plan and announces it. Community is convened for informational purposes. Compliance is expected.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Community told nothing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Loewenson, 2000: 15)
Lenneiye (2000: 27) distinguishes among three degrees of community participation. Community involvement refers to where external agencies primarily drive development initiatives and invite communities to become involved. Community participation comprises external agencies seeking a partnership with communities, but retaining control over resources. Community empowerment can be defined as a process in which communities, through their elected structures, control resources and it is these that define the terms under which external agencies can become involved.

Practitioners of participatory development recognise the power of local knowledge (Keough, 1998: 189; Singh, 1999: 469).

"Community empowerment is both the means and the end of community participation and development through social learning. When people participate in decision-making, and implementation efforts, they become empowered. Empowered people are best able to make a meaningful contribution. Therefore, for the community empowerment circle to be complete, people should participate in the process itself, and should be able to influence decisions made" (Tamasane, 1998: 5).

The more disempowered the people are, the less hope they may have about either the value of participating or even the chances of something good coming out of it. If they are radically disempowered, they may not even be able to envisage something better, when even a vague vision is a prerequisite for pursuing one at all (Stoecker, 1998: 11).

Cornwall and Jewkes, as referred to by Prozesky (1998: 20) classified participation according to four modes of participation, namely:

- Contractual: people are contracted into projects of researchers to take part in their enquiries or experiments
- Consultative: people are asked for their opinions and consulted by researchers before interventions are made
- Collaborative: researchers and local people work together on projects designed, initiated and managed by researchers

- Collegiate: researchers and local people work together as colleagues with different skills to offer, in a process of mutual learning where local people have control over the process

In PAR, participation has a collaborative or collegiate nature.

NGOs and CBOs have an important role to play in community development (Tamasane, 1998: 32). “Paralleling a transforming organisation with a transforming community in a context of a society in transformation, has produced a rich and challenging dimension to what is already a challenging time for NGOs” (Bell, 1997: 42).

In development research there usually exists three tensions, namely between science and practice, between individual and collective needs and between the researcher and the researched. To overcome these tensions, PAR aims to produce knowledge with the active participation of the people affected by the knowledge, with the purpose of improving their social, educational and material conditions (Terre Blanche and Durrheim, 1999: 228). The people play a part in planning projects, collecting and analysing data and controlling the dissemination of results (Prozesky, 1998: 11; Anyanwu, 1988: 15; Stadler, 1995: 307; Reardon et al., 1993: 76). Therefore, research becomes an interactive process between participants and facilitator throughout all its phases (Prozesky, 1998: 26).

Participation is not a guarantee for success, because participation is influenced by contextual factors such as culture, history, government policy and social, political and economic structures (Botchway, 2001: 148). Edwards (1989: 31) identified at least two prerequisites for successful participatory research: “strong local organisations that are capable of carrying out research effectively and continuous contact between the subjects of the research and the researcher”.

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2.3.4 Process of PAR

The family of collaborative enquiry approaches to development research of which PAR is part, was originally conceptualised by Kurt Lewin as consisting of a spiral of steps. Since then, many social researchers have attempted to propose a model for this cyclic process of planning, action and evaluation. Hodgkinson and Maree (1998: 58) made an analysis of the different models of action research that have been developed. Although some of the graphic representations of the models present the process more as a stage model, most of them show the steps or stages to be taken in a cyclic process. Some models have more stages than others and the stages have different names, but the basic nature of the process stays the same. Hodgkinson and Maree (1998: 58) recommended four steps to be followed in the action research process, namely planning, implementation, observation and evaluation. These are the same for PAR. The process is cyclic, overlapping and often iterative (Bailey, 1992: 73; Walker, 1998: 244).

Zuber-Skerritt (1991: 127) proposed the following four-moment action research model:

![Figure 3: Zuber-Skerritt's four-moment action research model](Source: Zuber-Skerritt, 1991: 127)
The stages of people-centred community development and PAR correspond with each other, namely awareness creation, fact-finding investigation, planning, action implementation and evaluation (Cloete et al., 1996: 9).

2.3.4.1 Needs assessment

The problem formulation for the research stems from a needs assessment in the community done by interacting with the people in the field (Prozesky, 1998: 26; Wetmore & Theron, 1998: 46; Collins, 1999: 42; Hughes & William, 2001: 1). The starting point for learning and transformation must be real issues that surface from the context of a community (Keough, 1998: 192). The concept of "conscientisation" or "consciousness-raising" means the stimulation of self-reflected critical awareness on the part of the oppressed people of their social reality and of their ability to transform it by their conscious action (Anyanwu, 1988: 12; Rahman, 1993: 81; Stadler, 1995: 307; Kerfoot & Winberg, 1997: 16; De Vos, 1998: 417). The people know what their real needs are, and what should be done to meet those needs (Swanepoel, 1997: 111; Dotse, 1997: 43). In PAR, it is important that the community must always have control over defining the research question (Stoecker, 1998: 14).

2.3.4.2 Planning the project

Since PAR is a relatively new approach to scholarship, published reports have been sparse, and the typical case study descriptions contain limited explications of design or procedures (Whyte, 1995: 21). Planning or designing the project involves the group setting action objectives for the first phase of the project (Keough, 1998: 193; Seymour-Rolls & Hughes, 1998: 2; Collins, 1999: 42; Hughes & William, 2001: 4). The participants' lives comprise the curriculum of the project (Kerfoot & Winberg, 1997: 27). The planning process must attempt to find the best possible fit between a community's needs and resources (Swanepoel, 1997: 175).

2.3.4.3 Implementing and monitoring the project

The process consists of action and reflection, or praxis (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999: 173; Walker, 1998: 240). Facilitators investigate the social conditions with participants in order to identify their concerns and goals (Kerfoot & Winberg, 1997: 27). "Community development emphasizes inclusive action at the grass-roots level",

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therefore in the implementation phase, PAR differs from other research because the action is happening in reality and not in an experimental setting (Seymour-Rolls & Hughes, 1998: 2; Tamasane, 1998: 16).

In PAR, the consequence of inquiry or research is action. The action can reproduce the status quo, but in PAR, the aim is to study something to change or improve it. This social change is referred to as transformation (Kerfoot & Winberg, 1997: 35). Change occurs throughout the research and not just at the end (Wadsworth, 1998: 7).

During the data collection phase, the effects of the action are observed, as well as the context of the study (Kerfoot & Winberg, 1997: 62). This is done in a collaborative manner and action and observation can therefore occur at the same time (Prozesky, 1998: 2; Seymour-Rolls & Hughes, 1998: 2).

2.3.4.4 Evaluation or reflection

The information obtained through observation or interviews must be evaluated (Swanepoel, 1997: 175). Without evaluation, PAR cannot be a learning experience. During the reflection phase, a critical analysis is made of the situation by means of discussions about participants' different interpretations of a situation (Wadsworth, 1998:3; Collins, 1999: 47). Mistakes are evaluated to see what caused them and what the consequences are. It actually assesses the action group's ability to operationalise the plan (Swanepoel, 1997: 174). The role of the facilitator in these discussions is to link related views and to identify underlying themes (Collins, 1999: 58).

Keough (1998: 193) feels that the human process as evident in PAR has its own pace and it defines efficiency in qualitative as well as quantitative terms.

2.3.4.5 Communication of results

Knowledge should not only be reported to academics and sponsors, but must also be imparted to the participants (Prozesky, 1998: 27). Communication of results occurs throughout the process, not only at the end.
2.3.5 Methods and techniques of PAR

PAR is seen as an emerging humanistic paradigm of development that is in contrast with positivism. Therefore it needs a new range of perceptions and methods for research planning, implementation and evaluation (Oakley, 1991: 6).

PAR is not distinguished from other conventional research methodologies by the methods that are used, but by the methodological contexts in which it is used (Prozesky, 1998: 47). Data collection methods that are used include group discussions, public meetings, research teams, open-ended surveys, community seminars, fact-finding tours, popular theatre, focus groups, semi-structured interviews, participatory mapping and participatory diagramming (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999: 211; De Vos, 1998: 417). Observations can be supplemented with maps, photographs, charts, stories, and interview responses (Kerfoot & Winberg, 1997: 45; Stoecker, 1998: 12).

PAR's basic tool is dialogue, which Burkey (1993: 62) defines as “an interchange and discussion of ideas based on a process of open and frank questioning and analysis in both directions between the investigators and the people, both individually and in small groups”. A convergence of perspectives between the facilitator and the community is possible only through a continual dialogical process, which is essentially action-based.

Triangulation of different data sources is used to increase the reliability of observations (Mouton, 1996: 156). In AR and PR, subjectivity is seen as a strength rather than a weakness and the term intersubjectivity refers to a process through which people exchange their perceptions to create shared meanings (Walker, 1998: 243; Quoss, Cooney & Longhurst, 2000: 53; Wadsworth, 2001: 420). The facilitator crosschecks the facts by means of triangulation for a higher standard of factual accuracy (Whyte, 1991: 41).

Kerfoot and Winberg (1997: 102) identified four questions to be answered to determine the validity of a PAR project:
• Democratic validity: To what extent is the research done in collaboration with all parties who have a stake in the problem under investigation?

• Outcome validity: To what extent does actions occur that lead to a resolution of the problem under study?

• Process validity: To what extent are we able to determine the adequacy of the process and are problems solved in a manner that permits ongoing learning of the group?

• Catalytic validity: To what degree does the research process reorient, focus and energise participants toward knowing reality in order to transform it?

2.3.6 Value of PAR for South Africa

Almost all donors and development agencies, whether government or NGOs, are now increasingly embracing an important paradigm shift towards participatory development (Wetmore & Theron, 1998: 39). The democratisation of South African society has opened the doors to participation for all people in all aspects of life, particularly development. The Reconstruction and Development Programme (ROP) is no exception.

People-centred development is central to the RDP philosophy and has been operationalised through the creation of RDP forums (Wetmore & Theron, 1998: 35). The people in the communities know their own social reality. Through conscientisation they can make choices regarding action to change their circumstances.

The socio-political context of transformation concentrates on the equalisation and integration of different racial groups. The strategies of PAR can capitalise on this freedom of participation. For a society to be transformed, its people have to be empowered. PAR uses individual differences as strengths and empowers participants in the process (Collins, 1999: 8).
In the next section of the literature review, the role of entrepreneurship in rural development will be discussed.

2.4 Entrepreneurship

In recent years, entrepreneurship has been promoted as a key force in rural development (Kotzé & Staude, 1996: 101). Eighty-one people in every one thousand are employed in the MSE (micro and small enterprises) sector in South Africa and forty-seven percent of all MSEs in South Africa are one-person enterprises (Mead & Liedholm, 1998: 63). It is now accepted that the entrepreneurial capacity of a rural area has a marked effect on the economic and social development potential of that area. Rural development agents now see entrepreneurship as a strategic development intervention that could accelerate the rural development process (Petrin, 1997a: 7).

The traditional top-down approach to rural development, which was based on financial support to the agricultural sector from outside a community with minimal investment in the community's own human capital, has led to low income per capita, poor living conditions, a semi-skilled labour force, the emigration of skilled labour and few employment opportunities. With the increasing globalisation of national economies, it has become clear that the critical factors for generating employment opportunities are primarily programmes and policies that encourage rural entrepreneurship. In other words, an environment that enables entrepreneurship is needed.

2.4.1 Definition of entrepreneurship

Many different definitions have been proposed for entrepreneurship, but all of them have their own strengths and weaknesses. For the purpose of this study, entrepreneurship for rural development is defined as follows:

"A force that mobilises other resources to meet unmet market demand, the ability to create and build something from practically nothing, the process of creating value by pulling together a unique package of resources to exploit an opportunity" (Petrin, 1997a: 9).
In other words, entrepreneurship is the process of opportunity recognition and implementation (Johnsrud, 1997: 22). According to Petrin (1997a: 9), dynamic entrepreneurs or “gazelles” look for growth, they think and act globally, they seek professional advice, they challenge competitors instead of avoiding them and they take risks. The economic development of a community invariably influences its social development. Without it, social services such as education, health and housing cannot be developed and sustained. External funds invested in a community for economic and social development perpetuate the dependence of the local people on outside expertise if they do not have the entrepreneurial capabilities themselves (Petrin, 1997a: 10). An entrepreneurial orientation to rural development, on the other hand, wants indigenous companies to grow through the stimulation of local entrepreneurial talent.

2.4.2 Sources of entrepreneurship

There is a lot of controversy about where entrepreneurship comes from. Some researchers believe that entrepreneurs share a specific personality type. According to this perception, entrepreneurs are born with traits such as the need to achieve, a risk-taking propensity, internal locus of control, creativity and innovative behaviour. This perception implies that the value of entrepreneurial training is limited, since these characteristics cannot be acquired through training.

Another perception is that some social aspects such as inheritance of entrepreneurial tradition, family tradition, social status and level of education are conductive to entrepreneurial behaviour (Petrin, 1997a: 11). Marginalized people also are a significant source of entrepreneurship. Other findings suggest that entrepreneurs who are better educated are more successful than the uneducated ones. There seems to be two things involved in successful entrepreneurship, namely the "propensity to start an entrepreneurial venture and skills to run the venture successfully" (Petrin, 1997a: 12).

The widely accepted view is that all of the above-mentioned aspects play a role but that entrepreneurship can also be developed through training. Therefore, policies and programmes for the promotion of entrepreneurship can affect the supply of
entrepreneurs and represent an important source of entrepreneurship (Petrin, 1997a: 12).

The first step of entrepreneurial development in a community is the development of an entrepreneurial culture (Petrin, 1997b: 123). This involves the development of a positive attitude towards new and unforeseen circumstances. However, this is not enough to guarantee successful entrepreneurship. What is needed is the development of institutions supporting entrepreneurial restructuring in rural areas (Petrin, 1997b: 124).

Behind all successful rural entrepreneurs, there is usually some sort of institutional support (Petrin, 1997a: 15). Entrepreneurs need an enabling environment to support their initiatives. For entrepreneurs to expand and sustain their businesses, they need access to resources such as capital, labour, markets and good management skills (Petrin, 1997a: 15). In rural areas, capital, technology, communication and transportation infrastructure and distribution channels are limited. The development of entrepreneurs in rural areas requires not only the development of local entrepreneurial capabilities but also a complementary local strategy. Rural development organisations have an important part to play in this regard. Entrepreneurship in rural areas can benefit much from strategic development alliances, such as partnerships among governments or non-profit organisations, universities and the private sector (Petrin, 1997a: 16).

Rural women are of the most disempowered people with their self-esteem and managerial skills being lower when compared to urban women and their access to external financial resources being more difficult than in urban areas. They encounter many constraints when trying to take part in entrepreneurship programmes. Rural areas tend to be more traditional with regard to gender issues. Therefore, special programmes of assistance (technical and financial) to overcome these constraints should be developed and designed to meet the needs of rural women who want to take part in entrepreneurship development (Petrin, 1997a: 17).

Johnsrud (1997: 26) advocates a more long-range but perhaps more promising educational approach to encourage development of these characteristics in young
people. Putting in place local opportunities, before young people seek better possibilities in cities and towns could change the future of some rural areas.

In this regard, Petrin (1997b: 124) developed a training programme on entrepreneurship development in a rural area that teaches community leaders and trainers about the following processes and aspects:

- Development of entrepreneurial culture
- Encouraging start-ups
- Setting up a new venture
- Business development and growth
- Institution building
- The role of trainers/facilitators in the entrepreneurial development process

2.4.3 Entrepreneurial skills training programmes

Understanding the entrepreneurship concept is the foundation for programmes and policies that want to create an enabling environment for an entrepreneurial culture. Training has been advocated as one of the ways to overcome the high failure rate of small businesses. Maliwichi (1998: 78) presented a model for a training programme for rural women who want to start small businesses in groups. The curriculum consisted of:

- Group problem solving
- Group participation and involvement
- Getting groups organised and group leadership
- Meetings
- Identifying alternative income-generating activities
- Marketing
- Production processes
- Profitability of the enterprise
- Profitability and financial feasibility
- Technical management of the enterprise
Income-generating activity as a business

Simanowitz (1999:175) has reported on the Tshomisano Credit Project (TCP) of the Small Enterprise Foundation. The project supports their members to develop successful businesses in three stages, namely motivation, business planning and ongoing support. They ensure that they only target the poorest of the poor. They help the members to develop business plans with the idea that “the role of the TCP fieldworker is not to instruct members but to facilitate a learning process whereby members share their experiences and learn from them, deal jointly with problems and support members who are experiencing difficulties” (Simanowitz, 1999: 176). This programme is evaluated by means of a monitoring system that measures indicators of social and economic development. The poverty indicators are income, expenditure, housing, food and education. The business success indicators are dropout rates, attendance, repayment of loans, savings, employee numbers and diversification. The social indicators are problem solving, self-confidence, responsibility for activities, control of business decisions and participation in village structures (Simanowitz, 1999: 180).

“Social development is as much a part of poverty alleviation as economic development. To make sustainable improvements, poor people need to gain confidence and acquire skills to take control of their lives. Lack of self-confidence hinders the initiative for improving one’s conditions. Business skills, as well as organisational, problem-solving and other skills gained through participating in TCP activities, are the key to lasting improvements in members’ lives” (Simanowitz, 1999: 180).

Kotzé and Staude (1996: 102) proposed a model for training, which they implemented with the training of Ciskeian retailers. See Figure 4:
Kotzé and Staude’s (1996: 107) study confirmed the hypotheses that if small retailers are effectively trained, their knowledge and skills will improve and their businesses would be more likely to survive and grow. Rogerson (2000: 687) investigated the extent to which education and training are core factors in the emergence of successful small and medium-sized enterprises (SME). Research conducted by the World Bank in Asia and Latin America showed that SMEs, which are led by educated managers, were performing better than other firms in all aspects of business achievement.
2.4.4 The evaluation of entrepreneurial skills training programmes

The evaluation of training programmes is necessary to ensure that the programmes reach their objectives. The above-mentioned programme of Kotzé and Staude (1996: 107) was evaluated as follows:

- Questionnaires on the delegates' responses to the programme
- Measurement of what delegates learnt through pre- and post-tests
- Interviews with customers on perceived changes in businesses
- Questionnaires on the delegates' responses to the programme after one year
- The survival rates of businesses

Gannon (1997: 117) pointed out specific aspects to be considered when evaluating the outcomes of an entrepreneurship-training programme. They are:

- Objectives set
- Progress made relative to the 'start event' and the 'end event'
- Impact of the change
- Available resources
- Future focus

"When the evaluator is considering the construction of outcome measures, an obvious place to start is with the program's official goals" (Weiss, 1998: 117). Success is a difficult concept to measure. When is an entrepreneur perceived to be successful?

The success of small, medium and micro-enterprises (SMMEs) is best understood in the light of longitudinal studies that seek to monitor the condition of individual SMMEs over time (Rogerson, 2000: 708). Rogerson (2000: 708) presented the profiles of successful SME entrepreneurs in the Witwatersrand garment industry in a case study format to illustrate different facets of the working history of successful entrepreneurs. Kotzé and Staude (1996: 107) also used case studies to document the outcomes of
their study on the effect of training on the likelihood of survival of small retail businesses.

Programmes have to be designed to produce certain short-term changes on the assumption that they are necessary conditions for achieving long-term ends (Weiss, 1998: 128). According to Kotzé and Staude (1996: 107), if small business owners are effectively trained, their knowledge and skills will improve and their businesses will be more likely to survive and grow. In a limited study of the determinants of success in a sample of black-owned manufacturing SMMEs in the Western Cape, Sawaya, as quoted by Rogerson (2000: 692), concluded that the “rate of success was highly correlated with the level of education obtained by the owner”. These findings are supported by World Bank (1993) research, referred to by Rogerson (2000: 693), which shows a direct correlation between education and turnover in South African SMMEs.

2.4.5 Snowflake Bake for Profit

For the purposes of this study, the Snowflake Bake for Profit course was taken as a model of an entrepreneurial skills training course in South Africa. The course consists of six daylong classes, one class every second week. The course combines training in business skills and baking skills with the aim to equip the participants to become profitable bakers. The course content is made up of theoretical lessons on business skills, alternated weekly with practical baking lessons. An average of two and a half hours are dedicated to each workbook and the rest of the time is spent baking.

The course uses the workbooks of the Trident Institute’s One-up Business Training course of which there are eight. Each workbook covers a different topic with regard to managing business activities. The participants are not allowed to take the workbooks home with them. A summary of the course layout follows:

- Lesson one: 9h45 – 12h30 Workbooks one (Market Investigation) and five (Selling)
  13h00 – 17h00 Baking

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• Lesson two: 10h15 – 17h00 Workbooks two (Using a calculator) and three (Buying), plus 30 minute talk on banking
• Lesson three: 9h45 – 17h00 Baking
• Lesson four: 9h45 – 17h00 Workbooks four (Costing and Pricing) and eight (Stock control)
• Lesson five: 9h45 – 12h30 Workbook seven (Money Management) 13h00 – 17h00 Baking
• Lesson six: 9h45 – 14h00 Workbook six (Business Plan) 14h00 – 17h00 Baking

The participants each receive a recipe book for low cost baked products. After every class, the participants have to go home and sell the products that they were taught how to make. At every meeting, the participants have to report to the trainer about their sales and expenses for the two weeks since the last meeting. They literally start to run a baking business from the end of the first lesson.

Workbook one discusses market investigation. While completing tasks in the workbook, the participants have to decide what they are going to sell, who will buy from them, where they will produce and sell their products and how they will sell their goods. The participants are encouraged to look for a gap in the market, in other words to sell something that others are not selling or sell something that is cheaper or of better quality than the competitors' products. Running a business from home has the advantages that the owner does not have to pay rent or pay for transport (Trident Institute, 1993).

In workbook two, the participants are taught to use a pocket calculator for mathematical computations to help with managing the businesses (Trident Institute, 1993).

Workbook three discusses the principles of buying stock for production. The choice of suppliers relies on where one can buy good quality items at the cheapest prices.
How much stock one buys, depends on how much one can afford and store (Trident Institute, 1993).

In workbook four, the participants learn about costing and pricing of products. They calculate the costs of their businesses, what their mark-up and selling prices should be and to set their sales targets (Trident Institute, 1993).

Workbook five teaches how to sell one’s products to customers. “Selling means everything that you do to get the customer to buy from you.” Different ways of advertising are discussed (Trident Institute, 1993).

In workbook six, the participants compile a complete business plan for starting or expanding their businesses. In workbook seven, the participants learn how to manage the finances of a business. Concepts such as working capital, income, expenses, debtors and creditors are explained. Workbook eight explains stock control (Trident Institute, 1993).

This chapter provided the theoretical background for the implementation of the research design of the study. The next chapter describes the procedure followed during the study in order to achieve the main goal of evaluating an entrepreneurial skills training programme in a rural community where the participatory action research (PAR) approach was followed.
CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH PROCEDURE

In the previous chapter, the literature related to the study was discussed to provide a theoretical framework for the study. This chapter describes the procedure followed during the study in order to achieve the main goal of evaluating an entrepreneurial skills training programme in a rural community where the participatory action research (PAR) approach was followed.

Firstly, the research design of the study is programme evaluation. Secondly, the research approach to the implementation of the programme is PAR. PAR falls into the category of applied research because it is based on solving problems in practice (Collins, 1999: 4). The study is evaluative in nature – the purpose of the study is to evaluate the effectiveness of the process of implementation, as well as the outcomes of the programme (Mouton, 2001: 54). The research design responds to the situation in its purposes and its constraints (Weiss, 1998: 323).

The procedure of the study is described according to the sequence of the different phases: gaining access to the field, procedure for data collection and data analysis.

3.1 Gaining access to the field

The Community-Based Organisation, Darling Focus, has worked in collaboration with the Department of Consumer Science: Foods, Clothing, Housing of the University of Stellenbosch since 1997. Every year, students from the Department go to Darling to present educational programmes related to their field of study to the women of Darling. At the end of 1999, the department launched the Development and Advancement of Rural Entrepreneurship (DARE) programme. The goal of this programme is to assist rural communities to address the problem of unemployment by providing training and support to potential local entrepreneurs. The chairperson of Darling Focus expressed his concern about unemployment among the youth of Darling and approached the Department to facilitate an entrepreneurial skills training programme in conjunction with Darling Focus. On 1 November 1999, the project managers of the DARE programme met with members of the management
committee of the Community-Based Organisation to discuss the possibility of collaboration between the two parties with regard to the goal mentioned above.

An agreement was reached to facilitate a programme in Darling, with the aim of training individuals in the practical as well as the business skills needed to start their own businesses. The agreement also provided for the PAR approach to be followed during the implementation of the programme. According to the agreement, the participants would share their experiences during the programme with the facilitator and the group would plan actions and solve problems together. The management of Darling Focus acted as gatekeepers to the community and provided permission to do the research. This is in accordance with Hammersley and Atkinson (1995: 34), Bailey (1996: 50) as well as Sapsford and Jupp (1996: 66) who advise that a researcher should gain permission from gatekeepers before entering a community for research.

3.2 Procedure for data collection

"We know that rigour in our work can be gained by combining quantitative measures, when needed, with relevant, well-made qualitative and/or ethnographic descriptions and critique; that validity is not an autistic exercise nor just an internal discursive experience" (Fals-Borda, 2001: 33).

According to McTaggart (1991: 179), systematic data collection is part of PAR. Although PAR differs from traditional research, the approach still applies the same discipline when collecting and analysing data (Prozesky, 1998: 47). Prozesky (1998: 48) also states that PAR utilises a variety of qualitative and quantitative methods, but prefers qualitative methods because they have the advantage that they promote an in-depth understanding of a situation. Kerfoot and Winberg (1997: 18) agree that qualitative methods focus on understanding and interpreting social processes, responses and contexts.

To contextualise the study clearly, the researcher decided to discuss the context analysis, the identification of priority needs and the selection of the study group.
separately from the rest of the implementation of the programme. For the purpose of this study, data collection was divided into the following:

3.2.1 Context analysis

Document analysis was used as the technique for data collection during the context analysis. Different documents pertaining to the town of Darling and the Community-Based Organisation, Darling Focus, were used to compile a comprehensive overview of the context in which the participants found themselves. Prozesky (1998: 50) refers to the importance of secondary data in PAR to provide the researcher with the necessary information on the social, political, historical and economic aspects of the community under study.

The documents analysed include the annual report of Darling Focus (Darling Focus, 1999), different documents from the Darling Tourism Bureau (Darling Tourism Bureau, 2000; WESGRO, 1999) and the 1998 Integrated Development Framework of the Malmesbury Representative Transitional Council (Malmesbury Representative Transitional Council, 1998).

The document analysis was further supplemented with field notes on informal discussions with different role players in the town. See Addendum 3 for field notes on discussions.

3.2.2 Identification of priority needs

Darling Focus contracted a social worker in 1996 to conduct a complete needs assessment of the Darling community using the focus group technique (Van Aswegen-Janse van Vuuren, 1996). The document dealing with this assessment was analysed and information from the analysis was discussed with community members to identify priority training needs in Darling. Field notes on discussions with community members are included as data sources. The literature emphasizes that qualitative methods of data collection are especially important during the early contact of the facilitator with the community for learning from the people what their
problems and needs are (Prozesky, 1998: 49). See Addendum 3 for field notes on discussions.

3.2.3 Selection of the study group

The study group, also referred to as the action group by Swanepoel (1997: 32), consisted of individuals from the small rural town of Darling. They reacted positively to an invitation via Darling Focus to participate in the Snowflake Bake for Profit entrepreneurial skills training course.

The individuals who registered for the course became participants by choice. In other words, the group members were self-selected. This method of selection is known as a sample of availability or convenience (Collins, 1999: 98). The study is a description of a unique experience and context, and the idea is not to generalise the findings of the research to other populations. No attempt was made to avoid bias by using this method of selection. All PAR studies share a case study methodological approach (Prozesky, 1998: 47). Mouton (2001: 149) describes a case study as an in-depth description of a small number (less than fifty) of cases.

The Snowflake Bake for Profit course consists of six daylong classes, one class every second week. The course combines training in business skills and baking skills with the aim to equip the participants to become profitable bakers. The course content is made up of theoretical lessons on business skills, alternated weekly with practical baking lessons.

A total of 28 individuals voluntarily registered for one of the three courses to be presented. Only one of them already had an entrepreneurial business before attendance of the course. On 24 May 2000, the first nine individuals registered for the course at Bergzicht Training Centre in Stellenbosch and attended it at this centre from 29 June 2000 to 11 September 2000. Since Bergzicht had the necessary facilities and staff available and Darling Focus did not, it was agreed that the participants would travel to Stellenbosh to attend the course there. At the request of Darling Focus, a second group of twelve people registered for Bake for Profit on 21 September 2000 and attended the course from 28 September 2000 to 30 November

3.2.4 Measurement of empowerment status

The goal of PAR is to empower individuals through participation in the process of knowledge creation (Kerfoot & Winberg, 1997: 35). Snowflake Bake for Profit is a training course with the dual purpose of empowering individuals (the abstract goal) and equipping them with entrepreneurial skills (the concrete goal) (Rigutto, 2001: 1). Data on the empowerment status of the participants were collected by using a standardised questionnaire (Albertyn, 2000). This measurement was designed according to pre-test-post-test guidelines. The questionnaire measured empowerment on three levels, namely the micro (personal) level, interface (interpersonal) level and macro (socio-political) level. The questionnaire was developed by means of a dendrogram. The micro, interface and macro levels used in the questionnaire, were analysed according to the empowerment indicators identified in the literature. The indicators were then categorised into sub-levels to correspond with the three levels of empowerment (Albertyn, 1995: 69).

The participants completed the questionnaires on two different occasions. Each group filled in the questionnaire as a pre-test before they started with Bake for Profit -- group one on 15 June 2000, group two on 21 September 2000 and group three on 7 December 2000. Then all of them filled in the questionnaire as a post-test at the end of the programme on 7 June 2001. On each occasion, the participants were contacted with the help of the Darling Focus staff and given the dates and times for the meetings. At the different meetings for the pre-test at the Darling Focus building, a relaxed atmosphere was established while refreshments were served to each of the groups. The purpose of the questionnaire was explained to each group and the facilitator emphasized the fact that it was not a test of knowledge and that there were no right or wrong answers. The method of completing the questionnaire was explained to the group by the facilitator. The participants sat at separate tables in the hall while filling in the questionnaires as the lack of space and time prevented each participant from having a private room to sit in. The facilitator was present at all times to prevent contact between the participants and to answer questions regarding
the questionnaire. The same procedure was followed at the meeting for the post-test. Group one completed the post-test after almost twelve months, group two after almost nine months and group three only after six months.

The benefits of using existing instrumentation are that it saves time and costs, and it has high measurement validity (Mouton, 2001: 100). The reliability and validity of the questionnaire that measures empowerment status, as well as its cross-cultural application, have already been proven in previous research (Albertyn, 1995: 125; 2000). This improves the validity of the instrumentation (Mouton, 2001: 102). The pre-test scores of the participants represented the baseline measure against which the post-test scores were measured to determine the change in level of empowerment of each individual. "Without a reliable benchmark, one cannot argue convincingly that changes had in fact occurred during a particular programme" (Mouton, 1999: 64).

Each individual's scores were handled separately and as a group, and their empowerment status was measured longitudinally over a period of time. This is in accordance with Albertyn (1995: 68).

3.2.5 Monitoring of implementation

The process of implementing the programme was monitored through participant observation. The researcher not only played the role of the facilitator of the programme, but also that of participant observer, and wrote field notes during all the contact with the participants. The PAR approach was followed towards the implementation of the programme. The research was done from the perspective recommended by Kerfoot and Winberg (1997: 40), that the study group and the researcher would identify problems together and decide collectively on actions that could address the problems.

The process of PAR is cyclic, with action and reflection phases following one another. Field notes are considered a central data collection tool in PAR. The participants' experiences are the main source of data for a PAR study (Collins, 1999: 64). High quality field data capture the participants' subjective viewpoints and
provide understanding of their experience for the observer (Neumann, 1997: 368). Neumann (1997: 363) is of the opinion that it is almost impossible to make good notes in the field and suggests that the researcher should make it a habit to write notes immediately after leaving the field.

The implementation phase of the programme also consisted of a cyclic process of an action phase followed by a reflection phase. During an action phase, the study group participated with the facilitator in some kind of action, whether, for example, the Snowflake Bake for Profit course or a fundraising event for Darling Focus (For detailed discussions of cycles see Chapter 4). This was followed with a reflection phase. All the participants gathered at Darling Focus to reflect on their experience of the action that took place. Problems were identified and solutions were sought as a group, and an action plan for the next phase was proposed. This process continued for fifteen months, from March 2000 to June 2001, and the facilitator visited Darling once a week on average to facilitate action or reflective discussions. The researcher made field notes immediately after leaving the field. "...the privacy of field notes means that the novice rarely has models to follow, and there is remarkably little explicit advice available" (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995: 176). According to recommendations by Hammersley and Atkinson (1995: 230) as well as Bailey (1996: 82), these notes were triangulated with the use of various different reports and photographs.

The strength of participant observation is that it has high construct validity because it has its roots in the world of the subjects, but the non-standardisation of the instrument is a limitation (Mouton, 1996: 130; Mouton, 2001: 148). According to McTaggart (1991: 178), the triangulation of observations and interpretations can provide validation for data. This implies the use of more than one method of measurement to increase the validity of findings, as is done in this study. "Objectivity in PAR is understood as the result of a merging of the subjective interpretations of the researcher and the participants. The fact that data is verified in this social manner through collective reflection lends validity and objectivity to PAR as a research approach" (Prozesky, 1998: 57). In other words, the more the people are involved in the research process, the more accurate the reflection of the reality will be.
Differences in gender and ethnicity can set limits and pose problems (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995: 95).

Reliability in field research depends on the internal and external consistency of the facilitator's observations. Internal consistency means that observations about a certain person are coherent over time and external consistency means that other evidence confirm the researcher's observations (Neumann, 1997: 368). “The manner in which qualitative researchers demonstrate internal validity is one of logic and subjective reasoning rather than of assessing the research methods objectively” (Iowa State University, 1999). Field researchers depend on what participants tell them. The credibility of participants and their statements therefore become part of the reliability of the research.

3.2.6 Measurement of application of entrepreneurial skills

At the end of the fifteen months research period, the researcher conducted semi-structured interviews with the participants with the help of an interview schedule. The goal was to obtain a profile of the study group's entrepreneurial status at the time of the interviews. Based on these results an assumption was made that the application of knowledge and skills learned during the Bake for Profit training course, are necessary conditions for establishing a business. Therefore, the researcher designed an interview schedule with the help of the Bake for Profit training material. This technique of data collection had a post-test design. The schedule consisted of closed and open-ended questions. The open-ended questions were designed to encourage the participants to explain their experiences in their own words and not be influenced by response categories (Sapsford & Jupp, 1996: 101). See Addendum 4 for a copy of the interview schedule.

The interview schedule was pilot tested by one man and one woman from Darling who had the same socio-economic background as the participants. The interviews took place on 12 June 2001 and 14 June 2001 at the Darling Focus centre. Therefore, at the time of the interviews, group one had taken part in the programme for almost twelve months, group two for almost nine months and group three only for six months.
The researcher conducted the twenty interviews. Each interview lasted about thirty minutes and was conducted in Afrikaans, the language all the participants could understand. Therefore the interview schedule is also in Afrikaans. The interviews were conducted in the computer training room of the Darling Focus building, a private room where no disturbances were encountered. The researcher asked the questions according to the schedule and immediately wrote down the participants' responses.

The questionnaire consisted of three parts. Section A was used to collect demographic data on each participant and this introductory part of the interview helped to create a relaxed atmosphere. Section B was used to collect information on the participants' experience of the *Bake for Profit* training course. Section C was designed to collect data on the participants' application, or not, of the skills and knowledge acquired during the training course. These sections gathered information on what the participants are doing at present (experience behaviour questions), their values and opinions (opinion/values questions) that are not directly observable, and feeling questions to find out how the participants respond emotionally to certain experiences and thoughts. This is in accordance with Iowa State University's (1999) recommendations. The data obtained through these questions serve as indicators of success in establishing a business. The construction of the questionnaire is discussed in more detail in chapter four. See Addendum 4 for copy of interview schedule.

The results of the questionnaires were captured by means of a data processing programme (MSWord). The data were described and summarised, using tables and graphs.

3.2.7 Case studies

The goal of the case studies was to document the outcomes of the programme. In-depth interviews were undertaken with the whole group, but four participants were chosen for the case studies based on certain criteria. Two participants were chosen based on their success and failure with regard to empowerment, respectively. The two participants were chosen on the basis of who showed the greatest positive change in their total empowerment score and who showed the smallest improvement
(or even a decrease) in their empowerment score. Another two participants were chosen on the basis of their success or failure with regard to entrepreneurship, respectively. The criteria for success, or not, in achieving the outcome of entrepreneurship, was based on the participants' degree of application of entrepreneurial skills taught in the Bake for Profit course in establishing a business. The data for the case studies were collected from the interviews, field notes, empowerment questionnaires, photographs, reports and evaluation forms from the Bake for Profit trainers, which the researcher designed. See Addendum 6 for copy of evaluation form.

3.3 Data analysis

3.3.1 Measurement of empowerment status

The data from the questionnaire were statistically analysed. The data of the pre-test and the post-test were coded, frequency tables drawn up and the statistical Student t-test and Duncan's multiple range were carried out. This is in accordance with Albertyn (2000). Each participant's pre-test and post-test scores were compared separately. The same was done with the scores of each group of participants and the scores of the study group as a whole. See Addendum 2 for empowerment statistics.

3.3.2 Monitoring of implementation

An analytical framework was used to analyse the data qualitatively according to criteria from PAR theory, namely the concepts of action, reflection and participation. See Addendum 3 for field notes on implementation.

3.3.3 Measurement of application of entrepreneurial skills

The qualitative data from the semi-structured interviews were analysed collectively as a group. The answers of the participants were post-coded into categories.
3.4 Shortcomings and sources of error

A potential problem with conducting observations in field settings is that of the observer affecting the behaviour of the participants. This observer effect is called reactivity (Iowa State University, 1999). Observer bias is also a potential problem. It refers to recording what was seen inaccurately because of pre-existing attitudes or experience. In this study, these problems were addressed by using multiple sources of information such as field notes, documents and photographs.

This chapter described the methodology used in this study in detail according to the different stages of the research. The next chapter documents the results of the research in the light of the goal to evaluate an entrepreneurial skills training programme in a rural community where the PAR approach was followed. The results are presented and discussed according to the stages of data collection.
CHAPTER 4
PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

In the previous chapter, the methodology used in this study was described in detail according to the different stages of the research.

This chapter documents the results of the research in the light of the goal to evaluate an entrepreneurial skills training programme in a rural community where the PAR approach was followed. The results are presented and discussed according to the stages of data collection, namely the results of the context analysis, the identification of priority needs, the description of the study group, the measurement of participants' empowerment status (Objective 1.3.2.1), the monitoring of implementation (Objective 1.3.2.2), the measurement of the application of entrepreneurial skills (Objective 1.3.2.3) and the case studies (Objective 1.3.2.4).

4.1 Context analysis

An analysis was made of different documents pertaining to the geographical location, demography, economy and services of the town of Darling, with the goal of describing the context of the study.

4.1.1 Geographical location

The town of Darling was founded on the farm Langfontein, in 1853. It was named after Lieutenant Governor Charles Henry Darling. Darling is situated 65 km north of Cape Town in the Groenkloof area on the West Coast of South Africa (Darling Tourism Bureau, 2000). At the time of the study Darling became part of the Malmesbury representative transitional council (MRTC) which included the towns of Malmesbury, Hopefield, Darling, Langebaan and Yzerfontein.

4.1.2 Demography

The town of Darling has a population of 5000 people (WESGRO, 1999). In 1991, the racial distribution of the MRTC area was 70,2 % coloured, 22,7 % white and 6,8 %
black (MRTC, 1998: 19). In 1994, the population growth rate for the area was more than 2.6 %. The area of the MRTC provides 40 % of the labour force of the West Coast region. Of this labour force, 69.4 % works in the formal sector, 19.4 % works in the informal sector and 11.3 % is unemployed. The agricultural sector is by far the largest employer. The percentage of people in the area that have no school education is 9.6 % (MRTC, 1998: 20). The Human Development Index figure for the total population of the Malmesbury district is 0.67 and compares favourably with the figure of 0.61 for the Western Cape Province (MRTC, 1998: 20).

4.1.3 Economy

Darling primarily is a farming community, which concentrates on the production of grain, grapes for wine, potatoes, peas and dairy farming. Agriculture is the backbone of the local economy. The biggest economic growth forces are tourism, residential retirement developments and agricultural diversification (WESGRO, 1999; MRTC, 1998: 44).

Darling is famous for its wild flowers. Every year, tourists flock to the Darling Wild Flower Show in September. The farm Oudepost, 3 km from Darling, houses Duckitt Nursery, the largest orchid nursery in the southern hemisphere. The annual Orchid Show coincides with the Wild Flower Show in September (Darling Tourism Bureau, 2000).

The entertainment industry has been boosted by the arrival of a popular national artist, Pieter Dirk Uys. He has transformed a part of the Central Business Area into a major tourist attraction – the redevelopment includes an old station that has been renovated as a performance theatre and a flea market. A number of accommodation establishments and restaurants in the town also cater for the tourists' needs (Darling Tourism Bureau, 2000).

Darling has a light industrial sector and the largest employers are Finitex Darling (manufactures fabric for chain stores), Bonwit (manufactures clothing for chain stores) and Baskets for All (manufactures and sells rattan products to retailers and the public) (WESGRO, 1999).
Due to poor economic conditions, some of the largest factories in the town had to retrench some of their workforce during the last year or two.

4.1.4 Services

The nearest towns to Darling are Malmesbury and Atlantis. In 1991, the whole MRTC area had a population of 117093 and Atlantis had 56247 inhabitants. Public transport (buses and taxis) to and from Darling is expensive and not up to standard (MRTC, 1998: 33). Shops in the central business area of the town are limited.

The MRTC report points out a shortage of tertiary education institutions in the area, which results in the migration of school leavers to the cities. There is a great need for training facilities for unemployed and uneducated people (MRTC, 1998: 29). The single most important social problem that the whole West Coast region faces, is alcohol- and drug abuse with the resulting problems of child neglect and abuse, family disintegration, family violence and apathy of the community. The possible causes of the problem are seasonal unemployment, work-shyness, and the mismanagement of subsidies, with the most important cause probably being the absence of quality of life (MRTC, 1998: 29; Van Aswegen-Janse van Vuuren, 1996: 3).

Darling Focus is a community-based organisation (CBO) that was founded in August 1996. The organisation's vision is community development through projects that aim to empower individuals (Darling Focus, 1999: 2). It is the policy of Darling Focus not to be affiliated with any political party or church denomination. The organisation operates from a multipurpose centre that was erected in 1999, where different projects are accommodated under one roof. These projects include sewing instruction (twice weekly), literacy classes (twice weekly), leatherwork (twice weekly), woodwork (every day), metalwork, computer literacy classes (every day), recreational programmes for the youth (Thursday evenings), and educational programmes for women (in collaboration with the Department of Consumer Science: Foods, Clothing, Housing, University of Stellenbosch). All facilitators are volunteers and participants from the community are being trained as assistant facilitators (Darling Focus, 1999:3).
4.2 Identification of priority needs

According to Swanepoel (1997: 108), a intervention programme can only address a need if that need is properly identified. In 1996 a needs assessment, using the focus group technique, was executed in Darling by a social worker that acted as a consultant. The resulting document was analysed by the researcher. The assessment pointed out that poverty, illiteracy and unemployment are very serious problems in Darling (Van Aswegen-Janse van Vuuren, 1996: 3). The report also emphasized the need for training in manual skills, as well as the encouragement of an entrepreneurial culture.

Darling Focus has already succeeded in addressing many of the needs that were identified in the needs assessment of 1996, for example the literacy classes, training in manual skills, educational programmes, as well as providing a centre, the Focus building. This is also used as a recreational centre for the youth.

The chairperson of Darling Focus identified the potential of entrepreneurial skills training for the youth to address the problem of unemployment (Darling Focus, 1999: 2). The needs assessment document was discussed with members of the Focus committee and other members of the community during informal meetings to identify priority needs. The group discussions revealed that there is a need for volunteers to teach skills. The largely untapped tourism potential of Darling was discussed. Participants in the discussions agreed that there is a need for people with entrepreneurial skills that can make and sell good quality products to tourists. Unfortunately, Darling Focus did not have the human resources to implement such a training programme on their own. (See Addendum 3 for field notes of discussions).

4.3 Description of the study group

Swanepoel (1997: 33) advises community workers to start with a small action group (study group) and not to fall into the trap of trying to organise a whole community. For this study, data regarding the demographics of the study group was obtained during the semi-structured interviews. The study group for the research consisted of 28 individuals from Darling who voluntarily attended one of three Snowflake Bake for Profit courses at the Bergzicht Training Centre in Stellenbosch. Four participants
dropped out during the duration of the programme. One of the remaining 24 participants could not be interviewed due to pressing employment circumstances. Demographic data of the remaining 23 participants were collected during formal interviews with the participants on 12 June 2001 and 14 June 2001, with the use of a semi-structured interview schedule. The demographic data was used to provide a profile of the study group.

4.3.1 Age of participants

Table 4 gives a summary of the participants' ages across age categories. It is evident that the majority, namely 10 (43.48 %) of the participants, fell in the age category 30 to 39 years. Seven participants (30.43 %) were in the age group 20 to 29 years. Only one participant was in the age category 50 years and over. The youngest participant was 19 and the eldest person was 58 years old.

Table 4: Ages of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age categories (years)</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=23)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≤19</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≥50</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.2 Gender of participants

Only two individuals in the total study group of 23 participants were male (Table 5).

Table 5: Gender of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=23)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3.3 Home language of participants

The home language of 21 participants was Afrikaans. One of them spoke Xhosa, but she could understand Afrikaans and English. One participant indicated that he speaks both Afrikaans and English at home. All the participants, as well as the facilitator, spoke or understood Afrikaans and this promoted comfortable communication throughout the programme.

4.3.4 Marital status of participants

Ten of the participants were married, twelve were single and one was a widow.

4.3.5 Size of the household

For the purpose of this study, a household comprises of all the people living together in one house and functioning as a unit.

Table 6: Number of members in household

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of members in household</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=23)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The highest percentage of participants, namely 34,78 %, were part of a household of four people (see Table 6). The average number of members in the participants' households was also four.

4.3.6 Level of schooling

There was great variation in the participants' level of schooling. One person never went to school and 10 people (43,48 %), on the other hand, passed standard 10/grade 12 (see Table 7).
Table 7:  Participants’ level of education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highest standard passed</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=23)</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No schooling</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4,35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4,35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13,04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8,70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4,35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13,04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4,35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4,35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>43,48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The average level of education for every age group is summarized in Table 8:

Table 8:  Average level of education per age category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age of participants (years)</th>
<th>Average highest standard passed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>≤19</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≥50</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.7 Further education

For the purpose of this study, further education refers to education outside primary and secondary schooling, including tertiary education and other non-formal education. Seven participants had further education. Two of them completed a computer course, two obtained nursing diplomas at Tygerberg Hospital, one attended an RDP training course, one did courses in community work and one did a management and a computer course.

4.3.8 Employment status of participants

For the purpose of this study, the employment status of the participants refers to employment in the formal sector and excludes self-employment. The numbers recorded (see Table 9) indicate the participants' formal employment status at the time of the interviews on 12 June 2001 and 14 June 2001.
From Table 9 it is evident that 17 (73,91 %) of the participants were unemployed at the time of the interviews, and 6 (26,09 %) were formally employed. One participant, who considered herself to be unemployed, ran a tuck shop from home.

4.3.9 Nature of employment

Two of the participants were employed by the community-based organisation Darling Focus. One participant was a part-time domestic worker, one was working at the medical clinic in the afternoons as a cleaner, an informal trader employed one participant and one was a sales representative for a community radio station.

4.3.10 Financial aid

Since 17 participants indicated that they were unemployed, it was necessary to establish what kind of financial resources they used to make a living. This question was focused on determining participants' sources of income, other than baking. The majority (91 %) of the participants received financial aid from spouses, parents, children, siblings or extended family. Their sources of income varied from salaries to pension money and a disability grant. The source of income for the participant, who rented a room in someone's house, was his own salary. One participant indicated that her household had no other source of income besides the money she made from selling baked goods.

4.4 Measurement of empowerment status

Objective 1.3.2.1 was to evaluate the effect of the programme on the empowerment status of the participants. Data on the empowerment status of the participants were collected with the use a standardised questionnaire (Albertyn, 2000). This measurement had a pre-test-post-test design. The participants filled in the questionnaires on two different occasions. Each group filled in the questionnaire as
a pre-test before they started the *Bake for Profit* course. Group one completed it on 15 June 2000, group two on 21 September 2000 and group three on 7 December 2000. Then all of them filled in the questionnaire as a post-test at the end of the research period, on 7 June 2001.

The questionnaire measures empowerment status on three levels, namely the micro level, interface level and macro level. The results of the questionnaire were analysed using Student's t-test to determine whether the group of participants displayed a statistically significant improvement in their empowerment score over the period of time from the pre-test, prior to the *Bake for Profit* training course, to the post-test at the end of the research period. Only 20 of the 24 participants' data could be used for analysis.

The empowerment status of the total group (n=20) is discussed with reference to the time period variations between the pre-test and the post-test. This will be followed by a distinction between the empowerment scores of the three respective groups that made up the total group, but joined the programme at different stages.

Micro level empowerment refers to personal empowerment: the individual's sense or feelings of control over their specific environment, having control over the direction of their own lives (Albertyn, 1995: 13). Interface (interpersonal) level empowerment is characterised by an ability to act collectively to solve problems and influence conditions immediately affecting the individual (Albertyn, 1995: 14). The macro level of empowerment involves the increase of individuals' power to effect political, economic or social changes in their immediate environment by means of consciousness-raising and participation, and the ability to manage these changes (Tamasane, 1998: 71).

4.4.1 Total group's level of empowerment at the pre-test and the post-test

Table 10 and Figure 5 (a graphic representation of the data) show that, at the pre-test the group had a higher empowerment score at the interface level (71,2 %) than at the micro (68,8 %) and the macro (68,8 %) levels. This implies that before they attended the training course, the group had a greater need for empowerment on the micro and macro levels of empowerment. The average total empowerment score of
the group at the pre-test was 69.4%. At the post-test, it is evident from Table 10 that
the group achieved the highest empowerment score on the micro level (77.2%),
followed by the interface level (75.4%) and the macro level score (74.2%) was the
lowest. However, there still was an improvement on all the levels.

Table 10: Total group’s average empowerment status at pre-test and
post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total group (n=20)</th>
<th>Pre-test averages (%)</th>
<th>Post-test averages (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Micro level</td>
<td>68.8</td>
<td>77.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interface level</td>
<td>71.2</td>
<td>75.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macro level</td>
<td>68.8</td>
<td>74.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69.4</td>
<td>76.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5: Total group’s average empowerment status at pre-test and
post-test

The greatest change over the time period from the pre-test to the post-test occurred
on the micro (personal) level of empowerment. There is a highly significant (p <
0.01) improvement of 8.4% at the micro level. There is also a statistically significant
change between the pre-test and post-test macro (socio-political) level scores (p <
0.05), as well as in the group’s total empowerment score (p < 0.01). (See Addendum
2 for complete p-values).
The positive change in the group's empowerment status at the micro level indicates that the participants feel more in control of their lives on the personal level. Questions from the questionnaire about the micro level covered the areas of attitudes, feelings and skills, with indicators such as belief in success, self-sufficiency, self-worth and competence (Albertyn, 1995: 89). Questions on the interface level related to action and participation (Albertyn, 1995: 97). The positive change at the group's interface level of empowerment (although not statistically significant) refers to an increase in their empowerment with regard to the immediate interpersonal relationships in their families and community that influence their lives. At the macro level, the increase in the group's level of empowerment shows that they believe more strongly that they can contribute to society and bring about social change.

4.4.2 Empowerment levels of three respective groups at the pre-test and the post-test

From Table 11 it is evident that there were positive changes in the empowerment status of all three groups at the micro, interface and macro levels.

Table 11: Empowerment status at pre-test and post-test of three respective groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups (n=20)</th>
<th>Group 1 (n=5)</th>
<th>Group 2 (n=8)</th>
<th>Group 3 (n=7)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-test averages (%)</td>
<td>Post-test averages (%)</td>
<td>Pre-test averages (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Micro Level</td>
<td>71,5</td>
<td>80,8</td>
<td>68,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interface Level</td>
<td>72,7</td>
<td>77,3</td>
<td>69,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macro Level</td>
<td>68,5</td>
<td>77,3</td>
<td>68,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>71,1</td>
<td>79,2</td>
<td>68,7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At the pre-test, group three's micro level score (66,8 %) was the lowest of all three groups. Thus, group three had the greatest need for empowerment on the micro level. Their average percentages at the interface level were the highest of all three levels at the pre-test.
Group one's average total empowerment status improved most from the pre-test to the post-test (8.0 %). Second was group two (7.4 %), followed by group three (5.0 %). On the micro (personal) level, group one showed the biggest improvement (9.2 %). Second was group two (8.8 %) and last was group three (7.4 %). Both groups one and two showed statistically significant improvements on the micro level (p < 0.05). Group two showed the greatest improvement on the interface (interpersonal) level (6.0 %) and group three the smallest improvement (1.9 %). Only group one's improvement on the interface level was statistically significant (p < 0.05). (See Addendum 2 for complete p-values).

Group one obtained the greatest improvement on the macro (socio-political) level (8.8 %), followed by group two (5.5 %) and lastly group three (2.7 %). Group one showed statistically significant (p < 0.05) changes on two levels, namely the macro and the interface levels. Group two showed a significant change on the micro level, while none of the changes observed by group three were statistically significant.

According to Albertyn (1995: 12), empowerment on the different levels takes place at different stages and rates. The process of empowerment on the macro level takes longer than on the micro and interface levels. The findings might possibly be attributed to the fact that group one took part in the PAR process for a longer period than groups two and three: group one took part for almost twelve months, group two took part for almost nine months and group three only took part for six months.

4.5 Monitoring of implementation

As stated in Objective 1.3.2.2, the implementation of the programme was monitored with the use of participant observation by the researcher. During the period of study, the programme consisted of eleven PAR cycles. The length of the cycles differed and some of the cycles overlapped. The researcher's field notes were triangulated with written reports from different role players and photographs of specific events.

Figure 6 is a schematic summary of the process of programme implementation (according to Zuber-Skerritt's four-moment model) and shows the eleven cycles that make up the 15-month research period. Note that some of the cycles overlap:
Cycle 1: Context analysis and identifying priority needs (16 March - 21 April 2000)
Cycle 2: Formation of group one and pre-test evaluation of empowerment status (11 May - 15 June 2000)
Cycle 3: Attendance of the Snowflake Bake for Profit course by group one (29 June - 15 September 2000)
Cycle 4: Darling Wild Flower Show (12 - 17 September 2000)
Cycle 5: Bake for Profit group two (21 September 2000 - 17 January 2001)
Cycle 6: Follow-up on group one (8 November - 7 December 2000)
Cycle 7: Bake for Profit group three (7 December 2000 - 15 May 2001)
Cycle 8: Fundraising event for Darling Focus (6 March - 6 April 2001)
Cycle 9: Darling Focus Holiday programme (10 - 25 April 2001)
Cycle 10: Bake sale for all DARE participants (11 - 26 May 2001)
Cycle 11: Training of the Darling Focus Committee (31 May - 1 June 2001)

Figure 6: Graphic representation of implementation of PAR process in Darling from 16 March 2000 to 1 June 2001
An analytical framework for analysis of the data was compiled from PAR theory. The framework consisted of three concepts as they were defined in the literature, namely participation, action and reflection. This classification differs from the stages of action research proposed by Zuber-Skerritt (1991: 127), namely Plan, Act, Observe, Reflect. During the study, observation took place during every stage of the process and it was decided not to classify it as a separate stage. Reflection and planning took place at every group discussion and it was incorporated into one analytical category, namely Reflection. Participation is one of the main requirements for successful PAR and was therefore also added as an analytical category. The results of this part of the study are reported chronologically according to the above-mentioned analytical categories. (See Addendum 3 for field notes).

4.5.1 Cycle one: Context analysis and identifying priority needs

This cycle occurred between 16 March 2000 – and 21 April 2000.

4.5.1.1 Reflection

The goal of the discussions on 16 and 23 March 2000 with Focus committee members and community members was to describe the context in which the research was taking place. The facilitator relied upon the local knowledge of those present to identify the resources of the town, opportunities to be exploited and needs to be addressed. The participants in the discussion shared their perception of the needs of Darling with the group and they agreed on a priority need to address, namely unemployment, and a possible solution, namely entrepreneurial skills training. The researcher proposed Bake for Profit as a possible entrepreneurial skills training course.

The results of these discussions were triangulated with the findings of the Darling needs assessment document of 1996 and the Darling Focus Annual General Report for 1999.

4.5.1.2 Action

The facilitator observed the existing action of Darling Focus as a community-based organisation during a press release function on 20 April 2000 as well as the cultural
and religious activities of the community at the Passion play on 21 April 2000. The observation of these actions was also part of the context analysis.

4.5.1.3 Participation

The context analysis was a collaborative endeavour between the facilitator and the different representatives of the community. The role of the community members was to contribute data about the needs and resources of the town. The role of the researcher was that of facilitator of the discussion and as initiator of the action. As initiator, the researcher responded to a request from the community. When proposing Bake for Profit as a possible solution to the identified need, the researcher acted as a resource connector. During the press release function and the Passion play, the researcher was an observer with the goal to analyse the context only, and not a participant.

4.5.2 Cycle two: Formation of group one and pre-test evaluation of empowerment status

This cycle occurred between 11 May 2000 and 15 June 2000.

4.5.2.1 Action

From the start of this cycle, the plan of action was implemented. Interested people were invited to attend an information meeting about Bake for Profit. Fifteen people attended the information meeting, but only nine of them registered for the course on 24 May 2000. Registration was voluntarily and the participants filled in the empowerment questionnaires on 15 June 2000.

4.5.2.2 Reflection

Reflection by the group on the action revealed that there definitely was a need for entrepreneurial training, but not all of the people who attended the first meeting necessarily wanted to learn how to start a baking business. From this it was obvious that one intervention would not necessarily meet the whole group's need.
4.5.2.3 Participation

The staff members of Darling Focus were involved in inviting members of the community to take part in the programme and coordinated the first meeting of the potential action group. The community people who became involved felt the need for entrepreneurial training and took action by registering for the course. The facilitator played the role of coordinator for the registration of the participants by a Bake for Profit trainer at Bergzicht Training Centre in Stellenbosch. A taxi company from Darling was contracted to transport the participants to Stellenbosch for the duration of the course. Through completing the questionnaires, the participants were contributors of data during the measurement of their empowerment status.

4.5.3 Cycle three: Attendance of the Snowflake Bake for Profit course by group one

This cycle occurred between 29 June 2000 and 15 September 2000.

4.5.3.1 Action

After each of the six classes (theoretical lessons and practicals), the participants had to go home and sell the products that they have learnt to make. They literally started to run a baking business from the end of the first lesson. This kind of action was aimed at getting the participants to put into practice what they had learnt in the course. This was a way to tackle the problem of unemployment and changing their economic situation by providing them with an income through baking.

4.5.3.2 Reflection

At every meeting, the participants reported their sales and expenses for the two weeks since the previous meeting to the trainer. The trainer kept a record of the participants' sales, their attendance and their progress with the workbooks. This was used as the primary source of information on the participants' progress and participation in the classes. The records were supplemented with the trainer's evaluation of each student at the end of the course and photographs taken during the course. Some of the participants found it difficult to bake on a large scale because of limited space and lack of equipment at their homes. They suggested that the kitchen of the Darling Focus building be equipped with the necessary crockery and cutlery to
cater for groups of fifty people and compiled a list of what was needed. The Darling Focus committee gave permission to DARE to equip the kitchen with the necessary equipment.

4.5.3.3 Participation

The action group played the role of action takers by baking and selling their products. At every meeting, the participants were given the chance to give feedback to the trainer on the progress of their businesses. Their feedback reflected their own understanding of the situation. Although the Bake for Profit course had a fixed curriculum, the structure of the classes was flexible enough to accommodate certain changes relating to problems that surfaced in reflection discussions. The course consisted of learning baking skills through hands-on experience and learning business skills through the completion of workbooks. The classes had an interactive nature. The trainer participated in evaluating each student's performance by completing an evaluation form at the end of the course. See Addendum 6 for this evaluation form. The trainer's records revealed that four young males of the original group dropped out of the course after the second lesson. It seems that they were a group of friends and most of them found employment at that time. The rest of the group attended all the classes. The results of the analysis of the records and evaluation questionnaires will be discussed as selected case studies.

4.5.4 Cycle four: Darling Wild Flower Show

This cycle occurred between 12 and 17 September 2000.

4.5.4.1 Action

Three of the participants saw the wild flower show as an opportunity to use their new skills to prepare and serve lunch from the Focus kitchen to a group of people on Sunday, 17 September 2000. A list of crockery and utensils needed to cater for fifty people was compiled with their help. Since Darling is far from any wholesale kitchen equipment suppliers, the facilitator bought the equipment in the city. The equipment was handed over to the chairperson of Darling Focus at the Bake for Profit graduation ceremony. The group of three participants served lunch to 16 people from the community at the Darling Focus centre. The data on this event was
triangulated with a short written report from the chairperson and photographs taken on the day of the function (see Addendum 7).

4.5.4.2 Reflection

The ideal would have been for one of the participants to accompany the facilitator to buy the equipment, but logistical problems made this impossible. When the participants and the facilitator reflected on the lunch at the wild flower show, they said that they did not do enough marketing for the event. They found it difficult to work with only one stove and still had to bring equipment from home. However, they were satisfied with the results and they saw it as good experience in practising their new skills and learning from their mistakes.

4.5.4.3 Participation

The list of equipment was compiled with the help of one of the participants. At the lunch, the group made all the decisions and had control over the situation. The facilitator was just another helper in the kitchen. The facilitator performed the role of resource connector when she bought the equipment.

4.5.5 Cycle five: Registration for and attendance of the Snowflake Bake for Profit course by group two and pre-test evaluation of empowerment status

This cycle occurred between 21 September 2000 and 17 January 2001.

4.5.5.1 Action

At the request of the first group who became aware of other people's needs, the facilitator registered a second group of twelve interested individuals for Bake for Profit at the Darling Focus centre on 21 September 2000. They also completed the empowerment questionnaires at that time. The course started on 28 September 2000 and followed the same action-reflection cycle as the first course. The actions of baking and selling were aimed at changing the participants' economic situations. One of the course participants was illiterate, but the facilitator assisted her during the classes by reading the workbooks and recipes to her. Their graduation ceremony was held on 17 January 2001.
4.5.5.2 Reflection

The first group of participants pointed out that there was a need in the Darling community for another group of people to do the course. This resulted in a second group of participants attending the course. At every meeting, the participants reported to the trainer about their sales and expenses for the two weeks since the previous meeting. Once again, the trainer kept a record of the participants' sales, their attendance and their progress with the workbooks. This was used as the primary source of information on the participants' progress and participation in the classes. See Addendum 6 for this evaluation form. The records were supplemented with the trainer's evaluation of each student at the end of the course and photographs taken during the course.

4.5.5.3 Participation

The participants were given the chance to give feedback on the progress of their businesses at every meeting. The classes had an interactive nature and the trainer participated in evaluating each student's performance during the course. With this group, the facilitator attended every class to assist one of the participants who was illiterate but already had a small business at home.

4.5.6 Cycle six: Follow-up on the needs of group one and their progress

This cycle occurred between 8 November 2000 and 7 December 2000.

4.5.6.1 Action

While the second group of participants were busy with the course, the facilitation process continued with the first group. In response to the difficulties experienced by the group of participants who used the kitchen of Darling Focus during the wild flower show, the managers of the DARE programme negotiated with the Darling Focus committee before compiling an inventory of the utensils and equipment still needed for institution building purposes. The facilitator and the Bake for Profit trainer also met with the first group of participants at Darling Focus to discuss their progress. The urgently needed utensils and equipment were delivered to Darling Focus on 7 December 2000 and the facilitator met the newly appointed management committee of Darling Focus on the same occasion.
4.5.6.2 Reflection

The first group of participants, together with the trainer and the facilitator, reflected on their progress. This was an interactive activity. Some of the participants wanted to bake as a group at Darling Focus and some wanted to bake at their own homes, for various reasons. The managers of the DARE programme reflected on the problems that the participants experienced in the kitchen at the wild flower show and decided to sponsor some large equipment for the kitchen to address these problems, since Darling Focus did not have the financial resources to do so (Darling Focus, 1999).

4.5.6.3 Participation

All of the participants participated eagerly in the follow-up session with the trainer. They seemed to communicate more easily than in the classroom. This is probably because they felt more comfortable in their own surroundings.

4.5.7 Cycle seven: Registration for and attendance of the Snowflake Bake for Profit course by group three and pre-test evaluation of empowerment status

This cycle occurred between 7 December 2000 and 15 May 2001.

4.5.7.1 Action

The facilitator registered the third group of seven interested individuals at Darling Focus on 7 December 2000 and they filled in the empowerment questionnaires. The course started on 30 January 2001. After every class, the participants had to go home and sell the products that they had learnt to make. This kind of action was aimed at getting the participants to put into practice what they had learnt in the course. This group had a different trainer from the previous two groups and the course was presented in English because some Xhosa-speaking participants in the group could understand English better than Afrikaans. Their graduation ceremony was only held on 27 June 2001.
4.5.7.2 Reflection

At every meeting, the participants gave a report to the trainer about their sales, expenses and any problems they experienced during the two weeks since the previous meeting. The trainer kept a record of the participants' sales, their attendance and their progress with the workbooks. This was used as the primary source of information on the participants' progress and participation in the classes. The records were supplemented with the trainer's evaluation of each student at the end of the course and photographs taken during the course. See Addendum 6 for the evaluation form.

4.5.7.3 Participation

At every meeting, the participants were given the chance to give feedback on the progress of their businesses. The classes had an interactive nature. The trainer participated in evaluating each student's performance during the course by completing an evaluation form.

4.5.8 Cycle eight: Fundraising event for Darling Focus

This cycle occurred between 6 March 2001 and 6 April 2001.

4.5.8.1 Action

A meeting was held for the new committee members to meet the DARE programme managers. The facilitator told those who were present about the DARE participants' idea to host a holiday programme for the youth to share some of the skills that they had learnt during the Bake for Profit course. The new chairperson told them about their plans to involve the DARE participants in a fundraising event for Darling Focus, a so-called "Open Day". The different trainers of Darling Focus were also present at the meeting. The Focus committee would be responsible for the marketing of the event. The DARE participants baked their products at Darling Focus on 29 March 2001 and 30 March 2001. The "Open Day" took place on the evening of the 30th of March 2001.
4.5.8.2 Reflection

A meeting was held between the participants and the facilitator on 6 April 2001 to reflect on the fundraiser. A few days before the fundraiser, the participants realised that the event was badly advertised by the committee and two of them distributed pamphlets in town to promote the event. The participants were very disappointed that only a few people attended this event. Only one of the four groups had not made a profit on the evening of 30 March 2001. But Darling Focus did not take a percentage of their profit because it was so little. The participants were disappointed with the way the committee handled the marketing of the event. They stressed that the "Open Day" was the committee's initiative but they had done nothing to promote it in the town.

4.5.8.3 Participation

The planning of the "Open Day" was a collaborative effort between the committee and the DARE participants. The participants provided the baked goods to sell at the event, but the committee did not do the marketing for the event, as they had promised. The facilitator observed the event and facilitated the reflection meeting.

4.5.9 Cycle nine: DARE participants' youth holiday programme at Darling Focus

This cycle occurred between 10 and 25 April 2001.

4.5.9.1 Action

The holiday programme almost failed to take place due to a lack of communication between Focus committee members. The chairperson thought that the participants were going ahead with the programme without handing in a written proposal for the programme, but the misunderstanding was cleared up at the reflection meeting. The programme lasted for four days. The two participants in charge held demonstrations on how to bake different products and presented discussions on topics such as communication, sexuality and life skills. The data from the field notes were triangulated with a report of the holiday programme by its organisers, and illustrated with photographs.
4.5.9.2 Reflection

At the meeting of the 25th of April 2001, the facilitator and DARE participants confronted the committee on the disappointing manner in which the “Open Day” and the holiday programme had been handled. The misunderstanding about the holiday programme was sorted out. At this meeting, the facilitator performed the role of mediator between the Focus committee and the DARE participants.

4.5.9.3 Participation

Two of the DARE participants initiated and took part in the holiday programme. Three participants attended the meeting with the committee.

4.5.10 Cycle ten: Bake sale in Darling by all DARE participants

This cycle occurred between 11 and 26 May 2001.

4.5.10.1 Action

Mrs Mostert, the literacy trainer of Darling Focus, volunteered to coordinate a bake sale with the participants of all three groups. The participants chose a leader for the group to coordinate future events for which they would be working together. They baked the goods for the sale at the Darling Focus centre on the Friday and sold it at a stall on the main street of the town on the Saturday morning.

4.5.10.2 Reflection

The three groups that attended Bake for Profit all came together on 11 May 2001. The facilitator used photographs taken since the start of the programme as a means for the first two groups to give feedback to the third group about what they had been doing as part of the DARE programme. Different groups of participants also reported on their experiences during the wild flower show in September 2000, at the Darling Focus “Open Day”, the Focus holiday programme during the April holidays and at the different graduation ceremonies. Feedback from the Saturday morning of the bake sale was obtained from photographs taken by the participants. They felt that the sale was a success because they made good profits.
4.5.10.3 Participation

At the reflection meeting, the participants participated eagerly in the "storytelling" by means of the photographs. It gave them a chance to analyse their experiences and share it with the rest of the group. Mrs Mostert played the role of coordinator for the bake sale of 26 May 2001. The researcher only observed the preparations, but did not take part in the action.

4.5.11 Cycle eleven: Training of the Darling Focus committee

This cycle occurred from 31 May to 1 June 2001.

4.5.11.1 Action

The committee attended a workshop on "How to start a training centre" at Bergzicht Training Centre in Stellenbosch. The goal was to enhance the organisational capacity of Darling Focus.

4.5.11.2 Reflection

The committee was very enthusiastic about the workshop. The presenter of the workshop also reported that the participants had participated enthusiastically in the discussions.

4.5.11.3 Participation

The committee members that were present at the workshop participated eagerly in the discussions. The researcher did not take part in the action, but acted as resource connector between Darling Focus and the Bergzicht Training Centre.

4.6 Measurement of application of entrepreneurial skills

During the in-depth interviews, data was obtained regarding the participants’ motivation for attendance of the Snowflake Bake for Profit course and their perceptions of the course, the nature of the participants’ baking businesses and their application, or not, of the entrepreneurial skills taught in the course (Objective 1.3.2.3).
4.6.1 The Snowflake Bake for Profit course

In this section of the interview, data were collected from the participants with regard to their experience of the Snowflake Bake for Profit training course.

4.6.1.1 Period of course attendance

A total number of 24 entrepreneurs from Darling were trained as part of the DARE programme during a period of one year. Five of the participants attended the course from 29 June 2000 to 11 September 2000. Nine participants initially enrolled for the course, but four of them found employment and dropped out. A second group of twelve participants attended the course from 28 September 2000 to 30 November 2000 and a third group of seven participants attended it from 30 January 2001 to 15 May 2001. One of the participants was not interviewed.

4.6.1.2 Motivation for attendance of the course

The answers to this open-ended question on the interview schedule were post-coded into categories.

Table 12: Motivation for attendance of course

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories of motivation</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=23)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To learn how to bake</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To earn an income</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To receive a certificate</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To gain more knowledge</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority (43,48 %) of the participants attended because they wanted to learn more about baking (See Table 12). Two of the participants' responses did not correspond with any of the other categories. One male participant said he thought that there would be more than one course to choose from, and joined the rest of the group because there was no alternative. One woman said she wanted to attend the course because she hoped that it would help her to regain self-confidence.
Twelve participants (57.14 %) were motivated to attend the course by intrinsic reward, namely to gain more knowledge and learn how to bake. Nine participants (42.86 %) were motivated primarily by extrinsic rewards, namely to receive a certificate and to earn an income.

4.6.1.3. Aspect of the course the participants liked best

Nine of the 23 participants (39.13 %) indicated that they liked the baking section of the course best (See Table 13). This corresponded with the high percentage of participants (43.48 %) that indicated that they wanted to attend the course because they wanted to learn how to bake. Three participants (13.04 %) liked the business section of the course best. One especially enjoyed learning about the marketing aspects of a business. Another three (13.04 %) said that the aspect of the course they enjoyed most, was working together in a group. This corresponds with "sense of belonging" on Maslow's pyramid of basic human needs (Robinson, 1994: 13). See Addendum 5 for examples of answers.

Table 13: Aspect of the course the participants liked best

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=23)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning how to bake</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning business theory and skills</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working together in a group</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning about both baking and business</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One participant's answer was categorised as "Other". In her answer, she referred to the participatory nature of the classes when the trainer asked her to demonstrate how to make scones.

4.6.1.4 Aspect of the course the participants disliked

Negative comments about the course referred to making certain products and the difficulty of the theoretical course content. However, 16 participants (69.57 %) indicated that there was nothing about the course that they disliked. See Addendum 5 for examples of answers.
4.6.1.5 Participants’ recommendations for the course

Regarding the course structure, three participants felt that more time should be allocated for theory during the classes and suggested that one theory lesson should be added to the course. Another one of the participants said that she thought that more assistance should be given to the participants with a lower level of education.

One participant felt that more information should be made available about the course content before participants start the course. This comment referred to the democratic nature of decision-making in PAR. Ideally, participants should be given as much information prior to an important decision so that they can make the best possible decision.

With regard to marketing the course, one participant recommended that more people should be informed about the existence of such a course. Seventeen participants had no recommendations to make with regard to the course.

4.6.1.6 Needs with regard to further business training

Fourteen of the twenty-three participants (60,87 %) had no need for any further business training. Six of the participants (26,09 %) had a need for some supplementary training in bookkeeping, because they still were not confident about applying their new business skills. Another two participants indicated a need for additional knowledge about marketing. One of the male participants wanted information on “how to start and run a factory”.

4.6.1.7 Needs with regard to further training in baking

Table 14: Need for further training in baking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=23)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No need for further training</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cake decoration</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catering</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 14, ten of the participants (43,48 %) had no need for any further training in baking. Five participants wanted to learn more about the decoration of
cakes, especially birthday and wedding cakes. One participant wanted to learn how to make pizzas and another wanted to learn how to make tarts. One participant felt the need for further training in cooking. Five participants wanted to learn more about catering for functions and making snack foods. See Addendum 5 for examples of answers.

4.6.2 Participants' own baking businesses

The remaining questions on the interview schedule were only applicable to the practising entrepreneurs (n=20). These questions were designed to provide descriptions of the participants' businesses and to show their application, or not, of the knowledge and skills that were taught during the Bake for Profit course (Objective 1.3.2.3).

4.6.2.1 Number of participants who are running a baking business

At the time of the interviews, 20 of the participants indicated that they had their own baking businesses. Table 15 divides the 24 participants into three groups according to their attendance of the course and gives a summary of the number of participants who had and did not have their own businesses at the time of the interviews. Twenty of the twenty-four participants ran businesses at the time of the interviews. One was not interviewed. Therefore, 83.33% of the total group (n=24) of participants had businesses.

Table 15: Summary of participants' business status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Status of business</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=24)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Business</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16.67</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No business</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Business</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No business</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not interviewed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Business</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>29.16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No business</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Nine months had passed since the first group finished the course on 11 September 2000. Of the five members of this group, four of them were selling baked goods at the time of the interviews. The fifth member of the group found employment soon after the course and decided not to pursue the entrepreneurial path at that time.

The second group of 12 participants finished on 30 November 2000 and nine of them were baking entrepreneurs at the time of the interviews, which was five and a half months later. One group member was not interviewed due to employment conditions and another one did not have a business because of study commitments. The twelfth person in the group found employment in another town and was not able to sustain a business as well.

At the time of the interviews, all seven members of the third group that had finished the course the previous month, on 15 May 2001, were running entrepreneurial enterprises and selling baked products.

4.6.2.2 Nature of participants' baked products

There was great variety in the nature of the participants' baked products. The most popular baked products were muffins, doughnuts and cakes. Most of the participants baked more than one kind of product. Other baked products included "curry bunnies", Swiss rolls, scones, banana bread, "koeksisters", Chelsea buns, tarts and biscuits.

4.6.2.3 Location of production site

The answer to this question was pre-coded into nominal categories on the interview schedule to assist the interviewer. During the interviews, the participants were not given the names of the categories because that would influence their answers. As a result, another category was created, namely both own home and Darling Focus, during analysis of the data.
Table 16: Location of production site

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=20)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant’s own home</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Darling Focus</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both own home and Darling Focus</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Someone else’s home</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fourteen of the twenty participants (70%) produced their baked goods at their own homes (See Table 16). Snowflake Bake for Profit requires that all the course attendants should have access to an oven or a gas stove, whether it is their own or a friend’s. At the start of the programme, the participants brought it to the facilitator’s attention that some of them did not have the space or the equipment to run a baking business from their own homes. To create an equal opportunity for all the participants, the DARE programme sponsored a complete furnishing of the kitchen of the Darling Focus Centre for large-scale catering purposes. The goal was to use the kitchen for functions in order to generate income for the centre. The agreement between the centre’s management and the Bake for Profit entrepreneurs was that they had free-of-charge access to the use of the kitchen and equipment for baking. They only had to pay for electricity. At the time of the interviews, three (15%) participants used these facilities on a permanent basis to bake their products.

Another three (15%) indicated that they baked at their own homes, as well as at Darling Focus. They only baked at the centre when the group of participants worked together for a specific function or occasion. The rest of the time they baked at home. Transportation of their ingredients and products to and from the centre seemed to present an obstacle to the optimal utilization of the centre’s facilities. The participants’ access to means of transportation is discussed later on. See Addendum 5 for examples of answers.

4.6.2.4 Use of equipment

Equipment infers everything that is needed to run a baking business.
The three participants (15 %) who indicated that they bake their products at the Darling Focus centre also use the centre's equipment (See Table 17). The majority (60 %), however, use their own equipment, or borrow it from their family and friends (25 %). Every participant received a kit containing mixing bowls and measuring utensils from Snowflake Bake for Profit at the end of their course. The equipment that was borrowed from neighbours, relatives and other participants, were mostly baking tins and electric mixers.

4.6.2.5 Selling outlet

The answer to the question about an outlet for selling was pre-coded on the interview schedule to assist the interviewer. The names of the categories were not given to the participants to avoid influencing their answers. As a result, the four categories on the interview schedule were expanded to seven during analysis of the data.

Table 17: Use of equipment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equipment categories</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=20)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Own equipment</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equipment at Darling Focus</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Borrow equipment</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of the participants (35 %) sell their products through door-to-door sales, as well as from their homes (See Table 18). Two participants said that they send children from door to door to sell it for them and then pay the children for the work. The participants who sell their products at a stall usually have their own stall on the
main street of the town on Saturday mornings or at the civic centre on pension days. The other category included a participant who had people selling her products for her at Eskom offices, as well as someone in another neighbourhood in town; one who sells her products at home and on the sports fields; and another one who sells her baked goods at the informal trading shop where she works.

4.6.2.6 Description of customers

Fourteen of the participants indicated that they sell to the people living in their neighbourhood. Seven participants sell to their family and friends. Other customers included employees of Eskom, the butchery, Check-in supermarket, the surrounding farms, the town council, the dairy factory, Duckitt nursery and the textile factories. Some of the participants also sell to pensioners on pension day, the members of their church and to the children participating in sports on the sports fields.

4.6.2.7 Regularity of sales

Table 19: Regularity of participants’ sales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=20)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Once a week</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>35,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only on weekends</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Every second weekend</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only by orders</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5,00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 19, the majority of the participants (40 %) sold their baked goods only on weekends and 35 % sold once a week. The participants said that the reason for this was that the majority of the town’s working population receive their wages on Fridays and then the people have money for baked products.

Some of the participants (35 %) sell their products for cash or on credit during the week and collect their money over the weekends. Two participants (10 %) had trouble with debtors not paying them back and now only sell by pre-paid orders. See Addendum 5 for examples of answers. One of the participants said that she only bakes when she needs extra money.
The following questions were aimed at determining to what extent participants applied or did not apply the skills and knowledge that they were taught during the training course:

4.6.2.8 Marketing strategy

As suggested in the training manuals, participants are urged to tell people about their business, put up a sign in front of their business, distribute posters and pamphlets or advertise in the local newspaper.

Table 20: Marketing strategy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marketing categories</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=20)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By word of mouth</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posters and pamphlets</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thirteen (65%) of the twenty participants mainly advertise their products by word of mouth (See Table 20). The rest of the participants (35%) used posters and pamphlets that they dispersed from door to door to advertise their products. In addition to advertising by word of mouth, posters and pamphlets, some of the participants also entice potential customers to buy their products by giving them samples to taste.

4.6.2.9 Most important considerations when buying stock

The participants were taught to consider quality and price when buying stock.

Table 21: Most important considerations when buying stock

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=20)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lowest prices</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expiry date, price and quality</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good quality and low prices</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expiry date</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From Table 21, it is evident that the most important consideration when buying stock was to find ingredients with the lowest prices (50%). Three participants (15%) considered both good quality and low prices as important. In other words, they would rather choose a good quality product although it was not necessarily the cheapest. Four participants (20%) considered all three of the above-mentioned characteristics to be important when buying stock. One participant considered both price and expiry dates when buying stock.

4.6.2.10 Suppliers and motivation for choice

During the course, participants were taught to look for reliable suppliers that sell good quality products at affordable prices. In the interviews, the participants were given the opportunity to explain the motivation for their choice of suppliers. Spar and Check-in are the only relatively big supermarkets in Darling. The dominant motivation for buying at Spar was the good quality, freshness and availability of its products. The participants compare Spar and Check-in prices when buying stock and always look for special offers. Although Spar's prices are higher than those of Check-in, they have a better reputation with regard to the quality of the products. The One Price Store, also referred to as the R5-store, has the lowest prices in town for baking powder and vanilla essence. One participant buys in bulk every month at Shoprite in Malmesbury, 15 km from Darling (See Table 22). Since taxi or bus transport to Malmesbury is expensive, the rest of the participants have to be content with only buying from the few shops in Darling itself. See Addendum 5 for examples of answers.

Table 22: Suppliers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=20)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spar and Check-in supermarkets</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spar supermarket</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spar and Shoprite</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spar and One Price Store</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spar, Check-in and One Price Store</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shoprite in Malmesbury</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.6.2.11 Considerations about quantity of stock to buy

According to the training manuals, participants should consider how much money they have for buying stock, how much space they have for storing stock, the demand for their products and their mode of transport for transporting stock.

Table 23: Considerations regarding quantity of stock to buy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=20)</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>According to what I need</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>35,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost recipes according to training manual</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>35,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buy in bulk</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10,00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Seven participants (35 %) take stock at home and buy only what they need to stock up again (See Table 23). Another seven participants (35 %) cost their recipes according to the method they were taught during the course. They then use these recipes to determine how much stock they must purchase. Four participants buy in bulk at the beginning or end of every month. One participant said that the quantity of stock she buys depends on how many orders she receives. Another participant said that it depends on how much of the money she earned could be used to buy new stock.

4.6.2.12 Methods of pricing products

According to the training manual, products are priced by adding a 100 % mark-up to the cost of ingredients.

Table 24: Methods of pricing products

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pricing categories</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=20)</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>According to training manual</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>65,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost of ingredients plus mark-up</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10,00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The majority of the participants (65%) price their products according to the prices that are given as guidelines in the *Bake for Profit* training manual (See Table 24). Three of these participants said that they adjust the prices in the manual according to the size of the baked product. Five other participants (25%) indicated that they do the costing by calculating the cost of ingredients and adding a percentage of profit. One participant determined the prices of her products according to its volume and another one calculated the cost of ingredients and electricity to get the selling price for her products.

4.6.2.13 Business expenses

The *Bake for Profit* training manuals suggest that fixed costs are rent, wages, transport, loan repayments and utilities. Variable costs are ingredients used to make the products.

Table 25: Business expenses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expense categories</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=20)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only ingredients</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ingredients plus electricity</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 25, seventy-five percent of the participants reported that the ingredients and electricity were the only expenses with regard to their baking businesses. For two participants (10%) the only expense was the cost of ingredients and they did not contribute to the electricity bill of the household. One participant’s expenses included ingredients and transport and another one spends money on ingredients and paying the children that sell the products for her. Another one’s expenses included electricity and packaging material.

4.6.2.14 Profit

All the participants (n=20) said that they make a profit on the sales of their baked products. One participant mentioned that she usually makes a profit, except when she sells scones with no toppings.
4.6.2.15 Percentage of profit

The *Bake for Profit* training manuals suggested a profit of 100 %.

Table 26: Percentage of profit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage categories (%)</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=20)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Don't know</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>10,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;100</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>20,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td>60,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;100</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>10,00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of the participants (70 %) make 100 % or more profit on the products they sell, as seen in Table 26.

4.6.2.16 Income from sales per month

The average income from baking of the group (n=19) was R 316,32.

Table 27: Income from sales per month

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Income categories (Rand)</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=20)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Don't know</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>5,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;100</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>5,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100-199</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>20,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200-299</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>25,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300-399</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>10,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400-499</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>10,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500-599</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>15,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>600-699</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>10,00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is evident from Table 27 that there was great variety in the incomes that the participants generated from selling baked goods. At the bottom of the spectrum, one participant earned R80 per month and at the top of the spectrum, one participant earned R640 per month from her baking business. One participant did not know the total income that the baked products brought in per month. Most of the participants earned between R200 and R299 per month from their baking.
4.6.2.17 Working capital

Table 28: Working capital

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories (Rand)</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=20)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>120</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>240</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>260</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>320</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The average amount of working capital that is needed per participant per month is R 220. Most of them (nine) needed at least R200 per month to keep their business running (See Table 28).

4.6.2.18 Sources of loans

The question was, “What sources do you know of where you could borrow money if you wanted to expand your business?” The training manuals gave the participants some addresses of institutions that give loans to entrepreneurs with a proper business plan.

Table 29: Sources of loans

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=20)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not want to borrow money</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family and friends</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cash loans</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bank</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Eight people said that they do not know where to find loans for expanding their businesses (See Table 29). One participant said that she could borrow money from her friends because they would give it to her free of interest. One participant said that she knew that she could get a loan from the cash loans business in Darling or...
from Darling Focus. Another one said that he knew that he could get a loan from Darling Focus, the bank and the cash loans business.

4.6.2.19 The purpose of a business plan

As part of the Snowflake Bake for Profit course, all the participants drew up their own preliminary business plans. The goal is to have a plan for their businesses so they know what they want to do, and to use the business plan to apply for loans. In the interviews, the participants were asked to give their opinions on the purpose of a business plan.

Table 30: Purpose of a business plan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=20)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Needed to receive a loan to expand your business</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Used as guideline for running your business</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To inform others about your business</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 30 it is evident that the majority of the participants (55 %) said that the primary purpose of a business plan is to serve as a guideline for running a business. Five participants (25 %) felt that the most important purpose of a business plan was to present this to a financial institution when applying for a loan to expand your business. Three participants (15 %) said that a business plan is used to inform other people about different aspects of your business. One participant did not know what the purpose of a business plan was.

4.6.2.20 Separate bank account for business

The participants were encouraged to open separate bank accounts for their businesses as this promotes good financial practice.
Sixty percent of the participants have a separate bank account for their baking business (See Table 31). Some of the participants opened a Pep bank account in Stellenbosch during the course, with the help of the trainer. Unfortunately, there is no Pep bank in Darling.

4.6.2.21 Uses of income from baking

The participants used their income from baking for different purposes. Some used it to put money back into their business, or for personal daily expenses, for savings, to buy equipment for their business, to pay off debt, to pay water and electricity bills and to give a percentage to the church.

4.6.2.22 Amount saved per week

Six participants (30 %) said that they were not able to save money every week, while fourteen (70 %) of the participants indicated that they were able to do so (n=20).

Table 32: Amount saved per week

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories (Rand)</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=14)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the fourteen participants that were able to save every week, four participants said that they saved an average of K30 per week and another four participants said that they saved R50 per week (See Table 32). At the bottom end of the spectrum, one
participant managed to save R25 per week and at the top end, two participants saved R100 per week.

4.6.2.23 **Roles of people working for and with the participants**

The participants' answers to questions 26 to 28 are discussed together. Eleven (55 %) of the twenty participants work alone. The other nine (45 %) participants are part of a group (baking and selling together), or have people working for them selling their goods. The profits were divided equally between the members that worked together. One of the participants sometimes asked her mother for help and then paid her 20 % of the profit.

4.6.2.24 **Access to transport for business purposes**

**Table 33:** Access to transport for business purposes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=20)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of participants (65 %) had access to transport. Although there are buses and taxis travelling from Darling to Malmesbury and Atlantis, some of the participants could not afford to pay the fares.

4.6.2.25 **Sources of business advice**

Business advice refers to getting help with major financial and logistical decisions surrounding the entrepreneur's business.

**Table 34:** Sources of business advice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Number of participants (n=20)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other participants</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitator of programme</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family members</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other business people</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The majority (40%) of the participants asked fellow participants for advice about their business (See Table 34). Others asked for advice from family members, the facilitator and other business people. In the other category, one participant asked advice from her neighbour, one had not had any need to ask advice and another one felt that she did not need anyone’s advice.

4.6.2.26 Positive influences on the business

Positive influences were seen as any circumstances or events that resulted in the growth of the business.

The positive feedback from customers on the quality of baked goods, made the participants feel good about themselves (20%). A large percentage (30%) of the participants felt that the success they achieved by selling their products as such had a positive effect on their businesses. Five participants (25%) could not identify any positive influences on their baking business. See Addendum 5 for examples of answers.

One of the participants indicated that her business was influenced positively by the opportunity to bake at the Darling Focus centre, because all the equipment she needed was there. One participant said that her own motivation to be independent of the father of her child had a positive influence on her business. Another participant felt that it was her confidence in her own baking knowledge and skills that had a positive influence on her business.

4.6.2.27 Obstacles to the growth of the business

Obstacles refer to circumstances that retarded the growth of the business.

Nine of the twenty participants who responded to this question (45%) experienced no obstacles in the growth of their businesses. Five of the participants experienced the competition between the participants and other bakers in the neighbourhood as an obstacle. It seems as if the market for baked products in Darling has been saturated. The fact that two participants shared a house created conflict between them. Four participants experienced difficulty selling their products. Three reported that insufficient equipment and finances were obstacles to the growth of their
businesses. See Addendum 5 for examples of answers. From the field notes on discussions it seems that the lack of democratic governance from the Darling Focus committee has deterred the participants from making full use of the facilities of the Darling Focus centre.

4.6.2.28 Dreams for the business

This question was asked to determine whether the participants had any goals for their businesses. Some expressed more short-term goals. One participant indicated that she had committed herself to baking until the end of 2001 and she wanted to achieve a monthly income of R1 000 at least once during this period. Another participant said that she would like to share her knowledge by teaching someone else to bake. One participant expressed the short-term goal of opening her own bank account.

Others expressed more long-term goals. It was mentioned earlier on that there is a serious shortage of affordable transport in Darling. Three of the participants actually said that they would like to buy a car with the money they make from baking. Four participants wanted to buy a stove for the first time or replace old stoves with their earnings from their baking enterprises.

It was evident from the participants' answers that the majority of them have thought about expanding their businesses. Six participants indicated that their long-term goal was to open a bakery. The only bakery in Darling is the in-store bakery of the Spar supermarket. See Addendum 5 for examples of answers.

One participant wanted to start a catering business and another one wanted to open a home industry shop. One of the males said he wanted to create employment for other people by opening a factory. Another participant mentioned the possibility of taking over an informal trading store that recently closed down.
4.7 Case studies

The data for the case studies were collected from the interviews, field notes, empowerment questionnaires, photographs and reports and evaluation forms from the *Bake for Profit* trainers. The criteria for the selection of the four participants for documentation as case studies were their success, or not, in terms of empowerment and entrepreneurship. Case studies one and two are, respectively, the two participants who have been most and least successful regarding the outcome of empowerment. The two participants were chosen on the basis of who showed the greatest positive change in their total empowerment score and who showed the smallest improvement (or even a decrease) in their empowerment score. See Addendum 2 for complete empowerment statistics.

Case studies three and four are, respectively, the two participants who have been most and least successful regarding the outcome of entrepreneurship. The criteria for success, or not, in achieving the outcome of entrepreneurship, was based on the participants' degree of application of entrepreneurial skills taught in the *Bake for Profit* course in establishing a business. These entrepreneurial skills encompass the application of business principles taught in the workbooks of the Trident Institute (1993). An analysis of the participants' application of entrepreneurial skills according to the business principles taught in the *Bake for Profit* course, is documented in Addendum 8. The following principles were used as measures during the analysis:

- Marketing
- Considerations when buying stock
- Choice of suppliers
- Considerations about quantity of stock to buy
- Method of pricing
- Calculating expenses
- The ability to make a profit
- A profit margin of 100% or more
- Income from sales
- Knowledge about the role of a business plan
- Separate bank account for business
• Ability to save

Successful application of a principle scored a 1 and failure to apply a principle resulted in a score of 0. The scores of all the principles were added and the participants were each awarded a total score reflecting their application of the skills taught in the course. When participants obtained the same scores, their respective monthly income from sales was the deciding factor when determining whose performance was best. All names used in the case studies are fictitious to ensure anonymity of the participants. See Addendum 8 for researcher's analysis of the participants' application of the entrepreneurial skills.

4.7.1 Case study one: Respondent eight

4.7.1.1 Demographic data

Respondent eight is 35 years old and married. She lives with her husband, her aunt and her nephew, whom she helped to raise. Their home language is Afrikaans. Respondent eight left school after standard seven and did not receive any further education or training. At the time of the interview, she was formally unemployed, but in the past she has done some domestic work and worked at a cashier in a supermarket. Her husband and nephew provide the income for the household.

4.7.1.2 The Snowflake Bake for Profit course

Respondent eight attended the second Bake for Profit course from 28 September 2000 to 30 November 2000. In the interview, respondent eight commented that she enjoyed the course and would like to learn more about cake decoration in the future. The Bake for Profit trainer commented that this respondent had difficulty reading the workbooks during the course and that made her shy away from participation in the group discussions. She had help from one of the other participants and her attitude throughout the course was very positive. During the course, her average sales were R141,79 per week. The trainer felt that her progress throughout the course with regard to the baking and business skills was good.

During the period after the training course, respondent eight teamed up with another participant for the rest of the research period. They took part in the fundraiser for
Darling Focus. They did not use the facilities at Darling Focus, but baked from home. They made enough profit to pay back the R200 for ingredients that Darling Focus had lent them. She was disappointed with the way that the committee handled the marketing of the event. Throughout the research period, respondent eight worked very independently and continued to bake on her own from home.

4.7.1.3  Profile of baking business

At the time of the interviews, respondent eight ran a baking business from home and has her own equipment. Every week she bakes muffins, doughnuts and Swiss rolls and sells her products to the employees of Eskom, the butchery, Check-inn supermarket and the surrounding farms. She markets her products by word of mouth and has people who sell her products for her.

When she buys stock, she applies the principles taught in the course, namely to consider price and quality when buying stock. She buys her stock mostly at Spar because of the good quality and freshness of the products. This also corresponds with the principles taught in the Bake for Profit course. She determines the prices of her products according to the recipe book that she received during the course. She makes a profit on all of her sales and her average income from baking is R640 per month. Her working capital is R200 per month that she needs to keep her business running. Respondent eight believes that you need a business plan to give order to your business. She does not have a separate bank account for her business and is not able to save some money every month. When she needs advice about her business, she asks one of her neighbours.

Respondent eight feels positive about her business when people like her products and tell other people to also buy from her. Her dream is to have her own catering business.

4.7.1.4  Empowerment status

Respondent eight's empowerment status before the programme was 67,6 %. Her empowerment scores showed the greatest improvement on the macro (socio-political) level of 27 %. Second was the interface (interpersonal) level with an improvement of 25 % and last was the micro (personal) level with 22,7 %. At the end
of the research period, respondent eight's average empowerment status had improved by 24.2% to 91.8%.

4.7.2 Case study two: Respondent fourteen

4.7.2.1 Demographic data

Respondent fourteen is 35 years old, speaks Afrikaans, is married and lives with her husband and three children. She left school after standard seven and did not receive any further education or training. At the time of the interview, she was formally unemployed, but in the past she has worked in a textile factory and a frozen foods factory. Her husband's salary is their only source of income.

4.7.2.2 The Snowflake Bake for Profit course

Respondent fourteen attended the third Bake for Profit course offered from 30 January 2001 to 15 May 2001. Her motivation for attending the course was to learn how to bake so that she could earn some money from baking. According to the Bake for Profit trainer, her participation in the classes was not good. She was too shy to ask for help. Her progress regarding the baking and business skills was slow but satisfactory. The trainer feels that the pace during the course might have been too fast for her. During the course, her average sales were R150 per week.

The third group only finished the course one month before the end of the research period. Respondent fourteen attended the reflection meeting at which the first two groups gave feedback on their activities as part of the DARE programme. She teamed up with another participant and baked "koeksisters" for the bake sale on 26 May 2001 (See Addendum 7 for photographs).

4.7.2.3 Profile of baking business

At the time of the interviews, respondent fourteen ran a baking business from home and uses her own equipment. She sells her products, doughnuts, namely "koeksisters" and "curry bunnies", from home or on weekends on the sports fields. She markets her products by telling people about it. Her most important consideration when buying stock is to look at the expiry dates on the products – not
one of the principles taught in the Bake for Profit course. She buys stock at the supplier who has special offers; whether it is Spar or Check-in supermarket. The amount of stock to buy is determined by what she is going to bake. She makes a 100 % profit on all of her products and her monthly income from baking is R360. Her working capital is R200 per month. She feels that you need a business plan when you want to expand your business. She has a separate bank account for her business, but has not managed to save any money. Although her dream is to become a successful baker, she does not know where to apply for a loan when expanding your business and asks her brother for advise on her business.

4.7.2.4 Empowerment status

At the pre-test, respondent fourteen had an average empowerment score of 62,7 %, which was lower than the average by 6,7 %, and at the post-test, her empowerment score was 51,2 %. This is decrease of 11,5 % in her average empowerment status from the start to the end of her involvement in the programme. The biggest decrease was on the micro (personal) level (13, 7 %), then on the macro (socio-political) level (9,6 %) and on the interface (interpersonal) level (8,3).

4.7.3 Case study three: Respondent twelve

4.7.3.1 Demographic data

Respondent twelve is 45 years old, is married and has four children. She left school after standard five and has worked as a domestic worker. At the time of the interview, she was formally unemployed and her husband's salary was the family's only source of income.

4.7.3.2 The Snowflake Bake for Profit course

Respondent twelve attended the second Bake for Profit course from 28 September 2000 to 30 November 2000. She was motivated to attend the course because she liked to bake and wanted to learn more about it. She found the course to be more interesting than she thought it would be. She wants to learn more about cake decoration in the future.
The *Bake for Profit* trainer observed that she had a very positive attitude throughout the course. During the classes, she assisted one of the other participants who had trouble understanding the workbooks. She baked a variety of products during the course and handled the theoretical aspects of the course with ease. Her progress during the course was very good and her weekly sales were R150 on average.

Respondent twelve took part in the fundraiser for Darling Focus. She did not use the facilities at Darling Focus, but baked from home. She made enough profit to pay back the R200 for ingredients that Darling Focus had lent to them. She was disappointed with the way that the committee handled the marketing of the event. Throughout the research period she worked very independently and continued to bake on her own from home.

4.7.3.3 *Profile of baking business*

At the time of the interview, respondent twelve baked cakes, biscuits and savoury tartlets on order from home. Her customers are employees at the factories and the farms or people from her neighbourhood. Marketing of her products happens by word of mouth. She applies the principles taught in the *Bake for Profit* course when buying stock by considering the price and quality of the products. She usually buys stock in bulk at Shoprite in Malmesbury at the start of every month. She also applies the principles that she learnt when considering the amount of stock to buy, as well as the pricing of her products. She sells her products at more than a 100% profit margin. Her income from baking is R600 per month and she only needs R240 per month as working capital to keep her business running. She considers it necessary to have a business plan to keep track of your business.

Respondent twelve has a separate account for her business and saves R200 per month. She asks her fellow participants in the course for business advice. With the money she earns from baking, she wants to buy a new stove and eventually buy her own car.

4.7.3.4 *Empowerment status*

Respondent twelve's empowerment status before the programme was 73,8%, which was higher than the average by 4,4%. Her empowerment scores showed the
greatest improvement on the micro (personal) level of 9.9%. Second was the macro (socio-political) level with an improvement of 1.9%. On the interface (interpersonal) level, there was a decrease of 10%. At the end of the research period, respondent twelve's average empowerment status had improved by 3.3% to 77.1%.

4.7.4 Case study four: Respondent seventeen

4.7.4.1 Demographic data

Respondent seventeen is 39 years old, speaks Afrikaans, is single and lives with her mother and two cousins. She only completed standard two at school and has worked in a textile factory. The only source of income for their family is her mother's pension money and the money she earns from the casual work that she does from time to time. At the time of the interview, respondent seventeen was officially unemployed.

4.7.4.2 The Snowflake Bake for Profit course

Respondent seventeen attended the third Bake for Profit course offered from 30 January 2001 to 15 May 2001. She was motivated to attend the course because she wanted to earn some money. She enjoyed learning how to bake, but found the theoretical part of the course difficult. The Bake for Profit trainer commented that she was very quiet in the beginning of the course, but started to participate more, as her self-confidence seemed to increase during the course. Her progress during the course was good and she really made an effort to make a profit. Her average sales during the course were R145 per week.

The third group only finished the course one month before the end of the research period. Respondent seventeen attended the reflection meeting at which the first two groups gave feedback on their activities as part of the DARE programme. She teamed up with another participant and baked muffins for the bake sale on 26 May 2001 (See Addendum 7 for photographs).
4.7.4.3  Profile of baking business

At the time of the interview, respondent seventeen baked on weekends from home. She bakes muffins, doughnuts and cakes and sells her products to neighbours and friends. She markets her products by word of mouth. Her only consideration when buying stock was finding the products with the lowest prices. Her choice of suppliers is also determined by the same fact. This does not correspond with the principles taught in the Bake for Profit course. The quantity of stock to buy is determined by how much she is going to bake and the prices of her products are similar to those recommended in the training manual. She makes 100% profit on her sales and her average income from baking is approximately R100 per month. According to her, she needs R200 per month to keep her business running, but this seems impossible since her income is only R100 per month.

In the interview, respondent twelve was not sure about the purpose of a business plan. Although she does not have a bank account for her business yet, she manages to save R20 to R40 per week. Her goal is to open a bank account for her business. She does not have any long-term goals regarding her business yet.

4.7.4.4  Empowerment status

Respondent twelve's empowerment status before the programme was 63,9%. Her empowerment scores showed the greatest improvement on the macro (socio-political) level of 17,3%. Second was the micro (personal) level with an increase of 13,6%. The interface (interpersonal) level showed a decrease of 5%. At the end of the research period, respondent twelve's average empowerment status had improved by 9,9% to 73,8%.

In the next chapter, the findings of the study will be discussed in light of the objectives of the study.
CHAPTER 5
INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

The goal of this study was to evaluate an entrepreneurial skills training programme in a rural community where the participatory action research (PAR) approach was followed. In this chapter, the findings of the study will be discussed in the light of the objectives of the study, namely measurement of participants’ empowerment status (Objective 1.3.2.1), monitoring of programme implementation (Objective 1.3.2.2), the measurement of the application of entrepreneurial skills by participants (Objective 1.3.2.3) and documenting the outcomes of the programme, namely empowerment and entrepreneurship, by means of case studies (Objective 1.3.2.4).

5.1 Description of the study group

This information was gathered through semi-structured interviews with the purpose of giving a profile of the participants in the research.

Of the 28 initial participants, five dropped out of the programme because they did not want to learn to bake. It was clear that the Bake for Profit course did not address everyone’s needs. In this regard, Swanepoel (1997: 113) advised that one intervention project should not attempt to address more than one need at a time.

Twenty-three of the remaining 24 participants were interviewed. There were 21 females and two males and their ages ranged from 19 to 58 years of age. This is in accordance with Mtshali (2000: 65), who states that the stereotypical idea of baking as the domain of women might have deterred males from attending the course.

Twenty-two of them spoke Afrikaans, one spoke Xhosa and one was bilingual (Afrikaans and English). Ten of them were married. The average number of members in a household was four. The level of education ranged from no schooling to college education. This fact put some strain on the trainers of the training course with regard to catering for each individual’s needs. It was interesting to see that the youngest participants had the highest average level of education. It may be that the democratisation of South Africa since 1994 has had an influence on these figures,
because formal education has become more easily accessible for youth from previously disadvantaged communities since then.

At the time of the interviews, 17 of the 23 interviewees were formally unemployed. This suggests that the programme targeted the right group of people, namely the unemployed. These people were surviving on financial aid from their families.

5.2 Measurement of empowerment status

Objective 1.3.2.1 was to evaluate the effect of the entrepreneurial skills training programme on the empowerment status of the participants.

5.2.1 Total group's level of empowerment at the pre-test and the post-test

The results of the statistical analysis of the empowerment questionnaires revealed that there was an improvement in the empowerment status of the whole group from the pre-test (69.4 %) to the post-test (76.1 %) at the end of the research period (see Table 10). The biggest improvement was reflected on the group's micro (personal) level of empowerment. Statistically significant changes were observed in the group's micro, macro and total levels of empowerment. This corresponds with Albertyn (1995: 10), who states that once empowerment on the micro level has taken place, empowerment will take place on the other levels. The process of empowerment on the interface (interpersonal) level takes longer than on the micro (personal) and macro (socio-political) levels. This corresponds with the findings of Albertyn (2000). The process is progressive, yet overlapping on the three levels. An individual must first have a greater understanding of their own life before they can transform or intervene in the public realm.

The PAR approach, as followed in the DARE programme, promotes active participation and action from the participants while solving real life problems (Prozesky, 1998: 28). Community development and PAR share the same objective of empowerment (Rubin & Rubin, 1986: 5). According to Keough (1998: 193), successful community development must be measured in terms of increasing numbers of empowered community members. The above-mentioned findings
suggest the PAR approach to the programme might have had a positive effect on the participants' empowerment status as a group on all three levels.

5.2.2 Empowerment levels of three respective groups at the pre-test and the post-test

The statistical analysis also revealed that all three of the respective groups showed improvement in their empowerment status by the end of the research period (see Table 11). With regard to the total empowerment score, as well as empowerment status on the micro and macro levels, group one showed the biggest improvement. Second was group two, followed by group three. Group two showed the greatest improvement on the interface (interpersonal) level and group three the smallest improvement. There is a positive correlation between the length of time that a group participated in the programme and the extent of the change in their empowerment status.

The findings might possibly be attributed to the fact that group one took part in the PAR-process for a longer period than groups two and three. Group one took part for almost twelve months, group two took part for almost nine months and group three only took part for six months. According to Prozesky (1998: 34), PAR encourages critical reflection and active participation from the participants, with the assumption that the longer they participate in the process, the more significant the change in their empowerment status will be. Empowerment is a continual process of growth and change throughout an individual's life, rather than a specific state (Albertyn, 1995: 27).

The changes in empowerment status cannot be contributed entirely to participation in the programme without considering other variables, such as age, race and gender (Albertyn, 1995: 11). However, it seems that a pattern has emerged - the longer the participants participated, the more significant the improvement in their empowerment status. It might be possible that this can be attributed to the effect of the participatory, critically reflective and socially transforming nature of the PAR process on the participants.
5.3 Monitoring of implementation

The objective of monitoring was to provide an in-depth description of the implementation of the programme (Objective 1.3.2.2), emphasizing the fact that the process was just as important as the outcomes of the programme. Monitoring of the implementation of the programme was achieved with the use of participant observation. Criteria for monitoring were identified in the literature, namely the concepts of action, reflection and participation.

5.3.1 Action

Analysis of the field notes reveals that there were 11 action-reflection cycles during the fifteen-month research period. The findings showed that the cycles overlap and one cycle may consist of a few smaller cycles, as was the case with the Bake for Profit course (Figure 6, page 81). This corresponds with descriptions of the nature of the PAR process as found in PAR literature (Bailey, 1992: 73; Walker, 1998: 244). According to Cloete et al. (1996: 10), the initiative for a project may come from inside or outside a community. In this case the initiative for the project came from the Darling community. During cycle one, the context analysis and identification of priority needs with community members corresponded with PAR literature that recommend that the people know what their real needs are and what should be done to meet those needs (Swanepoel, 1992: 111).

In PAR, the actions are aimed at changing the social and economic situation of the participants (Kerfoot & Winberg, 1997: 35). Attendance of the Bake for Profit course was aimed at equipping the participants with baking and business skills to give them the opportunity to improve their economic situation. Initiative for actions came from the participants and throughout they participated actively in decision-making. Most of the cycles centred on actions relating to practical problem solving and the establishment of the participants' businesses. The Darling Wild Flower Show, The Darling Focus fundraiser and the Bake sale of 26 May 2001, were all events where the participants' applications of their entrepreneurial skills were evident. The participants measured success by means of their profit from sales.
According to Prozesky (1998: 38), PAR aims to bring about social change through changes in institutional structures, which could also involve conflict resolution. Institutional changes are aimed at giving more decision-making power to the programme participants (Cornwall, et al., 2000: 2). Cycle eleven was aimed at addressing conflict that had arisen during the course of the project by providing a training opportunity for the community organisation to improve their institutional capacity. The participants' dissatisfaction with the lack of democratic governance on the part of the Darling Focus committee might point to the fact that empowerment has started to take place on the macro level. According to Albertyn (1995: 14), this means that the participants not only understand their society and their place in it, but they also want to undertake action towards social transformation.

5.3.2 Reflection

Reflection normally took the form of informal discussions, or "storytelling" by means of photographs. Participants were encouraged to find solutions to problems that they experienced during the previous action phase. Reflection meetings as part of PAR promote critical reflexive inquiry and produce knowledge that the participants can use in practical problem solving (Prozesky, 1998: 15). During the reflection phase, an analysis is made of the situation by means of discussions about participants' different interpretations of a situation (Wadsworth, 1998:3; Collins, 1999: 47). The participants seemed to recognise the power of their new knowledge and other local knowledge as a resource to change their social and economic situation (Keough, 1998: 189). The reflexive nature of the PAR process provided co-researcher status to the participants, rather than mere cooperation.

The facilitator's role during reflection meetings was mostly aimed at being catalytic and supportive, as was proposed by Rahman (1991: 13). Actions were not pre-planned by the facilitator. Planning the project involved setting action objectives for the next phase of the process with the collaboration of the study group (Keough, 1998: 193). The Darling Focus holiday programme and the training of the Darling Focus committee are evidence that reflection by the study group resulted in new as well as revised plans of action.
5.3.3 Participation

Ideally, research subjects must at best be involved in all the stages of research from design to reporting. However, in practice, the context of the research might make this ideal difficult to realise (Walker, 1998: 242). In this study, the participants were not involved in the design of the measuring instruments and the analysis of the data from the instruments, except for the analysis of observations during reflection meetings. The context analysis was a collaborative effort between the facilitator and the study group. In a PAR programme, the researcher usually performs the role of the facilitator or resource connector. In this study, the researcher played the role of resource connector between the study group and the resources of the Snowflake Bake for Profit course and the Bergzicht Training Centre. Darling Focus personnel served as contact persons between the researcher and the study group.

The three courses of Bake for Profit, part of eleven action-reflection cycles, shared a PAR nature. A high degree of participation was encouraged through the feedback sessions and problem solving was a collective effort. The researcher performed the role of mediator at the conflict resolution meeting between the Darling Focus committee and the participants, as was proposed in Keough (1998: 194). The lack of democratic governance on the part of the committee seems to have deterred the participants from fully utilising the resources of Darling Focus. The fact that some of the programme participants were also facilitators at Darling Focus, seemed to create a conflict of interests. Cycle eleven was aimed at addressing conflict that had arisen during the course of the project by providing a training opportunity for the community organisation to improve their institutional capacity.

Prozesky (1998: 29) identified degrees of participation on a linear scale and this study would probably fall in the middle of the scale; where there is a partnership between the change agent and participants with decision-making and control shared among them. Lenneiye (2000: 27) proposed three categories of participation, namely community involvement, community participation and community empowerment. Participation in this study would probably fall into the category of community participation because it comprised of an external agency seeking a partnership with a community, but retaining control over programme resources. Cornwall and Jewkes
(1995: 1669), as referred to by Prozesky (1998: 20), classified participation according to four modes of participation and according to their classification, the researcher and local people worked together in a collaborative manner during the course of this study. This corresponds with Prozesky (1998: 21)'s classification (see Figure 20) of participation in PAR as being either collaborative or collegiate.

5.4 Measurement of application of entrepreneurial skills

During the semi-structured interviews, data was obtained regarding the participants' perceptions of the Snowflake Bake for Profit course and data about their business profiles, including their application or not of entrepreneurial skills taught in the course.

5.4.1 The Snowflake Bake for Profit course

In this section of the interview, data were collected from the participants with regard to their experience of the Snowflake Bake for Profit training course, to serve as possible recommendations for the course developers.

All participants attended the courses voluntarily. Twelve of them were motivated by intrinsic rewards and nine were motivated by extrinsic rewards to attend the course. Mouton (2001: 5) sees extrinsic benefits as the tangible results of doing something. Intrinsic rewards are associated with the satisfaction of learning, gaining insight and acquiring new knowledge. People are usually motivated by a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (Mouton, 2001: 5).

Most of the participants indicated that they liked the baking section of the course best. Some of the participants did not like the business theory section of the course and some felt that more time should be allocated to the theory. The fact that some of the participants did not have a high level of education and found some of the theory difficult might have influenced them to dislike that section of the course. Seventeen participants had no recommendations with regard to the course. This could be because everything was to their liking or because they had not learnt to think critically yet.
5.4.2 Participants' own baking businesses

Twenty of the 24 participants had baking businesses at the time of the interviews. The assumption was that all of them would be able to bake by the end of the training course, otherwise they would have nothing to sell. The majority of them ran their businesses from their own homes and used their own equipment. Sales were mostly done by walking from door to door and people in their neighbourhoods were their most frequent customers. Most of their marketing happened by word of mouth and most of the business transactions occurred over weekends.

From the findings it seems that the participants applied the market investigation skills that they were taught to establish their businesses (Trident Institute, 1993). This is especially evident when regarding the diversity of their products, customers, selling outlets and marketing strategies. On the other hand, some of group three's participants commented that they felt that the market was becoming saturated with people that sell baked goods. Darling is a very small town and does not have enough customers for an unlimited amount of bakers, therefore the situation warrants more aggressive marketing strategies from the participants or further diversification of their products.

The participants mostly bought ingredients at the only two supermarkets in Darling, namely Spar and Check-in. Their choice of suppliers was influenced by good quality products at affordable prices, corresponding with the principles they were taught (Trident Institute, 1993). Only one third of the participants applied the principles taught in the Bake for Profit course regarding the most important considerations when buying stock, by considering good quality and low prices. The rest only considered low prices or expiry dates. Quantity of stock was mostly influenced by demand for products. This again was evidence of their application of the skills they were taught. The majority of the participants also used the recommended methods for pricing their products, as well as determination of total expenses (Trident Institute, 1993).

All the participants applied the business principle of making a profit from all your sales. The majority also used the recommended 100% profit margin. The group's
average income from baking was R316.32 per month and the majority needed R200 per month to keep their businesses running. The participants have little awareness of resources with regard to business loans, but the majority are aware of the purpose of a business plan when applying for funding to expand their businesses. It was a bit troublesome to find that 14 of them indicated that they were not able to save some money every week and eight did not have separate bank accounts for their businesses as recommended in the *Bake for Profit* course. It might be that, because they did not have separate accounts, they did not discipline themselves to save every week, or vice versa. Some of the participants opened a Pep bank account in Stellenbosch during the course, with the help of the trainer. Unfortunately, there is no Pep bank in Darling and the participants cannot use these accounts.

A large percentage (45%) of the participants work together in groups of two. The participants pointed out various positive influences and obstacles experienced during the fifteen-month research period with regard to the growth of their businesses. Fortunately, it seems as if most of them have long-term goals to expand their businesses. The danger exists that the participants only gave answers that they thought the researcher wanted to hear. It is still too soon to know whether their businesses will be sustainable because some of the businesses had only been operating for one month at the time of the final interviews.

The results of the interviews show that the majority of the participants have succeeded in attaining the short-term goal of applying the entrepreneurial skills and knowledge that they were taught during the course. According to Weiss (1998: 128), the assumption is that attaining the short-term goal is a prerequisite for reaching the long-term goal. In this study, the long-term goal is that of running a sustainable entrepreneurial enterprise.

5.5 Case studies

The criteria for the selection of the four participants for documentation as case studies were their success, or not, in terms of the outcomes of empowerment and entrepreneurship. Case studies one and two are, respectively, the two participants who have been most and least successful regarding the outcome of empowerment.
The two participants were chosen on the basis of who showed the greatest positive change in their total empowerment score and who showed the smallest improvement (or even a decrease) in their empowerment score. Case studies three and four are, respectively, the two participants who have been most and least successful regarding the outcome of entrepreneurship. The criteria for success, or not, in achieving the outcome of entrepreneurship, was based on the participants' degree of application of entrepreneurial skills taught in the *Bake for Profit* course in establishing a business.

Regarding case studies one (respondent eight) and two (respondent fourteen), there does not seem to be a connection between their success, or not, in the application of entrepreneurial skills and the change in their empowerment status from the pre-test to the post-test. Their demographic information show some similarities. The only significant difference is the length of time that they were involved in the programme. Respondent eight took part in the DARE programme for a much longer than respondent fourteen did and the positive change in her empowerment status corresponded with that. Respondent eight also had a positive attitude throughout the course, while respondent fourteen struggled to cope with the theoretical part of the course. The negative change in respondent fourteen's empowerment score may be due to personal factors other than the training programme, like her husband's uncertain employment situation, which could have influenced her empowerment status or there might have been a measure of error when the questionnaire was completed.

Regarding case studies three (respondent twelve) and four (respondent seventeen), again there does not seem to be a correspondence between their application of the entrepreneurial skills and the change in their empowerment status from the pre-test to the post-test. Both of them showed an increase on the micro and macro levels of empowerment and a decrease in their empowerment scores on the interface level. According to Albertyn (2000), positive change on the interface level of empowerment takes longer to become evident. On the other hand, there does seem to be a connection between the degree to which they apply the entrepreneurial skills taught in the *Bake for Profit* course, and their average monthly income from baking. Respondent twelve showed a higher degree of application of the skills than respondent seventeen, as well as a higher monthly income. One definite difference
between them is their different capabilities with regard to understanding the theoretical part of the course. Respondent seventeen seemed to have struggled to work through the workbooks, while respondent twelve completed them with ease. Respondent seventeen left school after standard two. This might have a negative influence on her ability to apply the entrepreneurial skills in her business.

Respondents eight and twelve, respectively most successful regarding empowerment and entrepreneurship, both showed a positive attitude during the course. They both were also part of the second group of participants and their main motivation for attending the course was to learn more about baking. Respondents fourteen and seventeen, respectively least successful regarding empowerment and entrepreneurship, were both part of the third group, both experienced difficulty with the theoretical part of the course and were mainly motivated to attend the course by extrinsic rewards.

The next chapter presents the conclusions that were reached and recommendations made with regard to the findings of the study.
CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The goal of this study was to evaluate an entrepreneurial skills training programme in a rural community where the participatory action research approach was followed. In this chapter, the conclusions are discussed according to the objectives of the study. The chapter also includes recommendations for further research.

6.1 Conclusions

The conclusions reached regarding the effect of the entrepreneurial skills training programme on the participants' empowerment status (Objective 1.3.2.1, page 4) revealed that the findings of the evaluation correspond with findings in the literature, meaning that participation in the programme seem to have resulted in a positive change in the overall empowerment status of the participants. The greatest change occurred on the micro (personal) level of empowerment, followed by the macro (socio-political) level and then the interface (interpersonal) level. By comparing the changes in the empowerment status of the three groups, it seems as if participation in the PAR process has had a positive effect on their empowerment status. With regard to the total empowerment score, as well as empowerment status on the micro and macro levels, group one showed the greatest improvement. Second was group two, followed by group three. Group two showed the greatest improvement on the interface (interpersonal) level and group three the smallest improvement. Group one’s recognition of the needs of other community members and their insistence that those needs be met, resulted in two more groups attending the Bake for Profit training course. This might also point to empowerment on the interface and macro levels.

Therefore, the programme's intended outcome of empowerment of the participants in the programme has been achieved. However, in non-experimental research the influence of other variables may never be ignored by saying that the programme was the only reason for the changes. Knowles (1980: 199) commented as follows, “Human behaviour is too complicated, and the number of variables affecting it are too
numerous, for us ever to be able to 'prove' that it is our programme alone that produces desired changes”.

Judging the PAR nature of the programme through participant observation (Objective 1.3.2.2, page 4), the findings revealed that the requirements for PAR of action objectives, critical reflection and participation were met. Due to the PAR nature of the programme, the plan of action was able to be revised according to the needs of the community. This made it possible to accommodate a second and a third group of participants in the Bake for Profit course, as well as to present the Darling Focus holiday programme for the youth. Since standards for the implementation of PAR projects do not exist, it is difficult to classify the project as a good or bad example of PAR. However, it is clear from the results of the monitoring that the transformation process had only started. Participation was not yet collegiate, actions were only effective with regard to economic change and not with regard to social transformation (referring to participation in institutional decision making), and reflection resulted in limited critical self-awareness among the participants. This can be contributed to the inexperience of the researcher in the PAR process and facilitation methods and techniques.

Even though the participants participated in monitoring the programme as co-researchers, they were not involved in the design of the questionnaire and the interview schedule. Therefore this study can be classified as participatory evaluation, but not as participatory self-evaluation (also called empowerment evaluation).

One aspect of the implementation process that was neglected to be evaluated in the study was the participants' perception of the facilitator, including her competence to facilitate the process. This would be a difficult task due to the close relationship of the facilitator and the participants. The participants would probably answer the questions like they think the facilitator would like them to be answered.

The complexity of the concept of entrepreneurship makes it difficult to determine the success of the programme with regard to the development of rural entrepreneurship in Darling. For the purpose of this study, the development of entrepreneurship was measured according to the successful application of entrepreneurial skills in the
establishment of a business (Objective 1.3.2.3). Before the start of the programme, 17 of the 23 interviewed participants were unemployed. At the end of the programme, 14 of the 17 were running their own entrepreneurial baking businesses. Another six formally employed participants, were also running entrepreneurial baking businesses. The majority of the participants seem to be applying the entrepreneurial skills that they were taught in establishing their businesses (see Addendum 8). Therefore it seems that the programme have succeeded in planting the seeds of entrepreneurship and an entrepreneurial culture in Darling, as described in Petrin (1997b: 123).

There exists some doubt about the appropriateness of the Bake for Profit as the choice of resource to address the need for entrepreneurial skills training, with specific reference to the Darling community. The findings show that some of the participants only wanted to learn how to bake, but did not necessarily want to pursue an entrepreneurial path. Others wanted to acquire business skills, but did not want to bake and as a result, dropped out of the course. However, the range of possible alternative resources was extremely limited due to the remote rural location of the town.

The context of the study, namely the town of Darling, had a significant impact on the programme. By the time the third group had completed the Bake for Profit course, the market had become saturated with people that sell baked goods. The situation warrants more intensive market investigation and aggressive marketing strategies from the participants or further diversification of their products. The rural context also posed problems regarding access to resources, such as banking. During the course, some of the participants opened a Pep bank account in Stellenbosch, but there is no Pep bank in Darling. In an urban context this would not have been a problem.

The long-term sustainability of the participants' businesses will have to be followed-up with longitudinal studies. Petrin (1997a: 15) is of the opinion that all successful entrepreneurs need an enabling environment, including some sort of institutional support and access to resources. In the case of Darling Focus, the sudden change in the composition of the committee at the beginning of 2000, was totally unforeseen. If the committee's need for organisational capacity building had been addressed earlier
in the programme, the complications regarding the organisation's role in supporting the entrepreneurs would probably not have escalated to a conflict situation between the committee and the participants.

Documentation of the case studies (Objective 1.3.2.4), revealed that there seems to be no correspondence between improvement in participants' empowerment scores and their successful application of entrepreneurial skills in the establishment of their businesses. The participants who were respectively most successful regarding empowerment and entrepreneurship, both showed a positive attitude during the course. They both were also part of the second group of participants and their main motivation for attending the course was for intrinsic rewards. The participants who were respectively least successful regarding empowerment and entrepreneurship, were both part of the third group, both experienced difficulty with the theoretical part of the course and were mainly motivated to attend the course by extrinsic rewards.

The model of the DARE programme corresponds with models of other entrepreneurial skills training programmes found in the literature. When comparing DARE with the programme proposed by Maliwichi (1998: 78), it is evident that the Bake for Profit course covers the components of marketing and business management, while the reflection discussions covers the issues of group participation, organisation, problem solving and group leadership. Again, the DARE programme contains the three stages recommended by Simanowitz (1999:175), namely motivation, business planning and ongoing support. The programme also managed to attain concrete (entrepreneurial skills) and abstract (empowerment) objectives at the same time.

Judging by the evidence supporting the findings of this study, it seems that the component of the DARE programme covered during the research period, has achieved a relative measure of success regarding the outcomes of empowerment and entrepreneurship.
6.2 Recommendations

There is a great deal of potential for further research on the DARE programme. The long-term sustainability of the businesses of the group of entrepreneurs will only be visible in a year or two and have to be followed-up with longitudinal studies. The effect of the capacity building efforts on the functioning of Darling Focus will also have to be monitored and ongoing adult education, facilitation and support for institution building need to be provided. Another further suggestion for research on the DARE programme, is to involve the community organisation from the start of the research in the design of the programme evaluation as a whole. On the other hand, care should be taken to avoid a conflict of interest when facilitators become programme participants. More emphasis should also be placed on the removal of institutional barriers towards decentralised democracy. Programme facilitators should determine what the participants' motivation for participation is before the start of the programme, to ensure that the “felt” needs of the group are met and that the right group of people is targeted. In the future, an outsider could be called in to assess the competence of the programme facilitator.

Regarding the Snowflake Bake for Profit entrepreneurial skills training course, it is recommended that at least another full theoretical lesson be incorporated into the course to allow for more time to spend on the workbooks. If at all possible, it would be ideal if the participants could keep a copy of the workbooks or adapted literature, so they have something to refer to when they need to. This study identified a need that more attention should be given in the course to aggressive marketing strategies. It is also clear that the course would have to be adapted according to whether it is presented in a rural or an urban context, keeping in mind the differing degrees of access to resources.

PAR seems to provide a suitable approach to the facilitation of an entrepreneurial skills training programme. However, the lack of indicators of success for PAR programmes poses a challenge to all PAR practitioners. Each one of these kinds of process evaluations of PAR programmes, is a step nearer to a complete set of indicators for PAR success.
Finally, it seems as if all the problems of underdevelopment in fact are the result of inequitable access to resources between the "haves" and the "have-nots". The challenge for all PAR practitioners is to strive to reconcile our practice with those realities. Prozesky (1998: 86) calls PAR the "ideal type" of participatory research. To include communities from the beginning of project planning to the end of data analysis is a daunting task. However, to remain true to the democratic nature of the participatory research paradigm, we have no alternative but to strive towards this ideal.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


DARLING TOURISM BUREAU. 2000. *Darling. Flower of the West Coast*. Darling


ADDENDA
ADDENDUM 1

Letter of permission
15 May 2001

Dear Mrs Rigutto

As you know, the Department of Consumer Science: Foods, Clothing, Housing at the University of Stellenbosch launched the DARE (Development and Advancement of Rural Entrepreneurship) programme at the end of 1999. The aims of the programme are to empower rural entrepreneurs by helping them to gain access to resources (training, equipment and funding) and giving them the support they need to sustain their businesses. Bake for Profit was identified as a successful model of an entrepreneurial skills-training programme. With the help of the Darling Focus Community Centre, people from the community of Darling were invited to participate in the programme. Since May 2000, we have sent a total of 24 people from the small West Coast town, Darling to Bergzicht Training Centre in Stellenbosch to take part in Bake for Profit. The third group from Darling will be receiving their certificates on 27 June 2001 at a ceremony at Bergzicht.

We evaluated the participants’ empowerment status before the training and will measure it again in June 2001 and we monitor their progress monthly through informal discussions. Some of the participants do not have the facilities at home to bake on a large scale. At the end of last year, the kitchen of the Darling Focus Community Centre was upgraded with the necessary equipment to make it possible to cater for functions of up to 50 people. The entrepreneurs have full use of these facilities. They only pay for electricity when they use the kitchen. Since the beginning of this year, the entrepreneurs have taken part in a fundraising event for the Focus centre where they sold their baked goods. Some of the participants have also utilized the skills they obtained through Bake for Profit to facilitate a holiday programme for children at the centre.

I want to ask permission to use the Bake for Profit information about every participant’s sales and attendance during the training period. This information is crucial for a comprehensive evaluation of factors such as motivation, attitude and level of participation. I have also asked Cola and Yolanda to complete evaluation forms according to their impressions of the participants’ progress during the training. I just want to emphasize the fact that this is not an evaluation of Bake for Profit as a training course, but it is a case study of the effect of a comprehensive social development programme on the rural community of Darling.

I want to thank you for your co-operation. We would be glad to send you a copy of the completed evaluation at the end of 2001.

Yours sincerely

Aleté Bester
Postgraduate student
ADDENDUM 2

Statistical Report
## REPORT

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Interface = Questions 34 to 48
Macro = Questions 49 to 61

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*Names are fictitious*
5. Crystal Gordon

6. Mienie Alexander
9. Denise Jackson

10. Melinda Gordon
PERCENTAGES ON MICRO, INTERFACE AND MACRO LEVELS OF PRE-TEST FOR THREE RESPECTIVE GROUPS:

The SAS System

The MEANS Procedure (Pre-test)

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PERCENTAGES ON MICRO, INTERFACE AND MACRO LEVELS OF POST-TEST FOR THREE RESPECTIVE GROUPS:

### The SAS System

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THE P-VALUES FOR THE DIFFERENCES IN THE PERCENTAGES ON THE MICRO, INTERFACE AND MACRO LEVELS OF THE TOTAL GROUP:

| Variable | Mean     | Std Error | t Value | Pr > |t| |
|----------|----------|-----------|---------|------|---|
| MICRO    | 8.4090909| 2.0095496 | 4.18    | 0.0005 | **|
| INTER    | 4.2500000| 2.0678371 | 2.06    | 0.0539 | *|
| MACRO    | 5.3846154| 2.2217464 | 2.42    | 0.0255 | **|
| TOTAL    | 6.7418033| 1.7998622 | 3.75    | 0.0014 | **|

* Statistically significant

** Highly statistically significant
THE P-VALUES FOR THE DIFFERENCES IN THE PERCENTAGES ON THE MICRO, INTERFACE AND MACRO LEVELS OF THE THREE GROUPS:

### The SAS System

#### The MEANS Procedure (p-values for three groups)

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* Statistically significant

** High statistically significant
ADDENDUM 3
Field notes of implementation
(The names of the participants have been changed where necessary)
Date: 16 March 2000

Place: Darling Focus Building

The goal of the activity: To get to know each other while analysing the context and identifying priority needs of the community (introductory meeting)

Participants and their roles: Mrs Rina van der Merwe (facilitator of educational programmes for women), Mrs Ilse Spies (literacy trainer), Mrs Cathleen Lewis (retired teacher and representative of pensioners), Alice Carstens (needlework facilitator and representative of youth)

Resources employed: Facilities of Darling Focus, resource persons from the community

Description of reflection: The informal discussion centred on the resources and the needs of the town identified in the needs assessment document of 1996.

The need for volunteers from the community to teach skills was identified. The farmers in the area are not interested in becoming involved with the work that Darling Focus is doing. They train their farm workers themselves. Most of the people that have skills work and do not have the time to teach others at Focus. The pensioners do not have the energy anymore.

The needs assessment document identified a training centre as one of the needs of Darling. Darling Focus now fills this gap. The Focus building was built for the community and that they must see it as their own.

The group identified tourism as a resource that must be promoted. Darling has many tourist attractions, but the tourists mostly come in the wild flower season in September. Efforts must be made to ensure that they come throughout the year. Daleen Kruger, who works at the Darling museum, was identified as an important resource person for information on tourism.

The group who needs urgent attention is the young people that have just finished school, but cannot find work. Unemployment is a big problem, especially among this age group. They confirmed a need for entrepreneurial skills training as was identified
in the annual general report of Darling Focus for 1999. Entrepreneurs' products must be market orientated and of good quality. Again, Daleen Kruger would be the person to approach for advice in that regard. The facilitator told them about Snowflake Bake for Profit as a possible training course for potential entrepreneurs. They thought that it was a good idea, but that the market for baked products in Darling might possibly be too small.

Date: 23 March 2000

Place: Darling Focus Building

The goal of the activity: To identify existing skills and opportunities in Darling and a possible solution to address a need

Participants and their roles: Mrs Ilse Spies (literacy trainer), Daleen Kruger (local artist and expert on local tourism)

Resources employed: Facilities of Darling Focus, resource persons from the community

Description of reflection: Me Kruger told the group about MINSA (Made in the new South Africa). It is a new craft market and design studio opposite a theatre, Evita se Perron, in Darling. Here local artists and entrepreneurs can display and sell their products.

Darling Focus can train the children that leave school after standard seven in motor mechanics, bricklaying, painting, carpentry and garden work. There is a need for a course that covers aspects such as time management, productivity, budgeting, marketing, administration skills and drawing up a business plan. Needle workers could benefit from a workshop on where to buy fabrics, machine maintenance and marketing of products.

Suggestions for products that can be sold at the craft market are patchwork duvets, fabric painted items, aprons and confectionery with unique features. The West Coast theme must be prominent in the marketing of products. Packaging is very important. One of the factories sells wooden pallets that can be used for wooden boxes for
packaging. The idea of a "Kultuurkombuis" (culture kitchen) was mentioned where unique food from the area would be served.

There is a need for a soup kitchen that serves nutritious meals to the poor. There is also a need for a bakery, because the local supermarket's products are not always of an acceptable standard and their variety is limited.

They suggested that the facilitator find out if there are people that are interested to do the Snowflake Bake for Profit course.

Date: 20 April 2000

Place: Darling Focus building

The goal of the activity: To observe the role of Darling Focus in the context of Darling

Participants and their roles: Members of the Western Cape government, Darling Focus committee members and staff, members of the press

Resources used: Facilities of Darling Focus

Description of action: The premier of the Western Cape, Mr Gerald Morkel, and other members of the government were welcomed by Mr Engelbrecht, the chairperson of the Darling Focus committee. Mr Morkel made a statement to the press about the government's investigation into poverty in the West Coast region and about their intention to invest in the development of tourism and the creation of job opportunities in the area. It was a good opportunity for Darling Focus to get some publicity and to inform the higher levels of government about their work and their urgent need for funding.
Date: 21 April 2000

Place: Open air site in Darling

The goal of the activity: To observe the cultural and religious context of the Darling community

Participants and their roles: Members of the Darling community

Resources used: Residents of Darling, open piece of land, props

Description of action: The occasion was the performance of the passion play. The cast consisted of people from different age groups, races and different churches in the community. The evening drew a large crowd from the town and the nearby farms.

Date: 11 May 2000

Place: Darling Focus Building

The goal of the activity: To identify the action group

Participants and their roles: People from the Darling community who were interested in attending an entrepreneurial skills training course

Resources employed: Facilities and organisational capacity of Darling Focus

Description of action: The facilitator sent an invitation to the community via Darling Focus for an information session on an entrepreneurial skills training course. Darling Focus identified the target group as young girls that have just finished school that cannot find work. A lot of them cannot work in other towns because they have babies that they must take care of. The invitation was actually for them but it was not specified. At the information session, there were 15 people, mostly young males. The group included 2 young girls, 5 older woman and 8 young men. The content of the Bake for Profit course was discussed with them as well as the details of the DARE-programme. A list of the names of everyone that was interested was compiled.
Date: 24 May 2000

Place: Bergzicht Training Centre, Stellenbosch

The goal of the activity: To register the participants for the Bake for Profit course

Participants and their roles: Mrs Yolande Fransman (Snowflake Bake for Profit trainer), group of interested individuals from Darling

Resources used: Facilities of Bergzicht Training Centre, Taxi-company from Darling for transport to Stellenbosch, financial resources of DARE-programme

Description of action: Darling Focus helped to arrange the transport. Everyone that wrote his or her names on the list came for registration. Yolanda interviewed everyone. Nine of the fifteen people voluntarily registered for Bake for Profit.

Reflection on action: An informal discussion was held with the group. The group felt a bit intimidated by the interviews and the fact that they had to have a baking business at the end of the course. Only those of them who wanted to combine business and baking registered for the course. Therefore, not everyone’s need for training in entrepreneurial skills was addressed by the choice of Bake for Profit as a possible solution for the problem of unemployment in Darling.

Date: 15 June 2000

Place: Darling Focus Building

The goal of the activity: To evaluate the empowerment status of the participants before they start with the Bake for Profit course

Participants and their roles: Annie Newman, Jason Maasdorp, Alistair Fourie, Crystal Gordon, Alice Carstens, Carlmen Gordon, Molteno Sias, Johan Conrad, Jason Filander

Resources used: Facilities of Darling Focus, Empowerment questionnaire for the measurement of the empowerment status of the participants
Description of action: The purpose of the questionnaire was explained to the group. It was emphasized that it was not a test. The facilitator explained how to fill in the questionnaire by using one of the questions on the questionnaire as an example. The facilitator was present at all times to answer any questions about the questionnaire.

Date: 12 September 2000

Place: Darling Focus Building

The goal of the activity: To identify the available kitchen equipment at Darling Focus

Participants and their roles: Sherilene Herman (DARE-participant, administrative person and computer trainer at Darling Focus)

Resources used: Facilities and staff of Darling Focus

Description of action: From the reflection sessions of the group of participants during Bake for Profit, it became evident that some of the participants did not have the facilities, space, utensils and equipment in their own homes to bake on a large scale. They made the suggestion to equip the kitchen of the Darling Focus Building with the necessary baking equipment for the use of everyone and to obtain permission from the Focus committee to use it. The facilities could be used free of charge and they could pay for the use of electricity only. With the help of Sherilene an inventory was taken of the kitchen equipment that Darling Focus owned. A list was compiled of the crockery and cutlery that would be needed to cater for a large-scale function of fifty people.

Date: 13 September 2000

Place: Wholesalers in Montague Gardens

The goal of the activity: To purchase the baking utensils and equipment needed by Darling Focus
Participants and their roles: Facilitator

Resources used: Financial resources of the DARE-programme

Description of action: Darling is far from any wholesalers that sell kitchen utensils and equipment in large quantities and transport is also a problem. The facilitator was commissioned to buy the necessary baking equipment on behalf of the action group with the financial support of the DARE-programme.

Date: 15 September 2000

Place: Mfuleni Town Hall

The goal of the activity: Graduation ceremony of Bake for Profit

Participants and their roles: Everyone that had attended the course, trainers, project managers, members of the press, Mr Engelbrecht (chairperson of Darling Focus), Mr Spies (treasurer of Darling Focus), Mrs Spies (literacy trainer)

Resources used: Taxi-company from Darling, financial resources of DARE-programme

Description of action: All the participants received certificates for completing the Bake for Profit course. Project managers of the DARE-programme handed the equipment that was bought for the Darling Focus, building over to Mr Engelbrecht. The participants said that there are still a lot of people in Darling that are interested in the Bake for Profit course.

Date: 17 September 2000

Place: Darling Focus Building

The goal of the activity: To cater for a lunch at the Darling wild flower show
Participants and their roles: Annie, Jason, Alice, waiters, people from the community
Resources used: Facilities of Darling Focus

Description of action: The participants made all the food on their own. Alice made freshly baked bread as she was taught in the course. Jason sold the tickets. Each ticket cost R20. Sixteen people bought tickets. Girls from the community helped as waiters for the function and helped to decorate the hall and set the tables. The facilitator’s role was to help where she could and give advice on the sequence of activities and time-management, but to leave all the decisions up to the participants themselves. Crystal sold ginger beer and baked goods at the Darling Focus stall at the wild flower show. Over the weekend, Alistair baked twelve dozen muffins for someone in Vredenburg. He has started to run a “Nutrition Kitchen” from the kitchen at Darling Focus. He makes food for the needy and sells it at 50c a plate. He buys ingredients with the money he makes from baking.

Reflection on action: The function was a success, because they made a profit. It was the first time that any of the participants endeavoured something of this kind. Initially, they wanted to cater for fifty people, but they did not sell enough tickets. They said that they should have started selling tickets earlier and should have made a bigger attempt to promote the event. They found it difficult to work with just one stove in the kitchen and they had to bring some extra pots and bowls from home.

Date: 21 September 2000

Place: Darling Focus Building

The goal of the activity: To register the second group of participants for the Bake for Profit course and to measure their empowerment status before the course

Participants and their roles: Group of interested individuals from Darling community, facilitator

Resources used: Facilities of Darling Focus, empowerment questionnaire
Description of action: At the request of the first group, a second group was registered for Bake for Profit. The group completed the registration forms. The facilitator explained the content and the structure of the course to them. The purpose of the questionnaire was explained to the group. It was emphasized that it was not a test. The facilitator explained how to fill in the questionnaire by using one of the questions on the questionnaire as an example. The facilitator was present at all times to answer any questions about the questionnaire. Every possible measure was taken to ensure that there were no disturbances.

Reflection on action: Although great priority was given to making sure there were no distractions, most of the young women brought their babies with them because they had nowhere to take them, and the children's noise posed a slight problem.

Date: 8 November 2000

Place: Darling Focus

The goal of the activity: To determine further equipment needs of Darling Focus

Participants and their roles: Mrs M Botha, Mrs E van der Merwe (managers of DARE-programme), Mr Engelbrecht (chairperson of Darling Focus), Sherilene Herman (administrative assistant and DARE-participant)

Resources used: Financial and human resources of the DARE-programme, human resources of Darling Focus

Description of action: The programme managers met with Mr Engelbrecht and Sherilene to investigate what other large equipment (e.g. an extra stove) was still needed in the kitchen.

Date: 10 November 2000

Place: Darling Focus Building
The goal of the activity: To do follow-up on the group of participants that completed Bake for Profit in September

Participants and their roles: Coia Kotzé (Bake for Profit trainer), Facilitator, Annie, Jason, Crystal, Alice, Alistair

Resources used: Financial resources of DARE-programme, facilities of Darling Focus

Description of reflection: The participants gave feedback on their businesses. Crystal was very enthusiastic about her ginger beer and baked goods that her children sold for her at a stall at the wild flower show. Annie, Jason and Alice told Coia about the lunch that they catered for at the wild flower show. Alistair had an order of 12 dozen muffins that he delivered to a man in Vredenburg. He felt a bit unhappy though, because he thought that they would bake together as a team at Darling Focus. Crystal prefers to bake at her house. Alice says that she lives too far from Darling Focus to walk there every day. Coia encouraged them to take initiative and to use every opportunity to sell their products.

Date: 7 December 2000

Place: Darling Focus Building

The goal of the activity: To deliver large equipment to Focus and to register third Bake for Profit group and fill in the empowerment questionnaires

Participants and their roles: Members of old and new committee, people from the community that are interested to attend Bake for Profit

Resources used: Facilities of Darling Focus, financial resources of DARE-programme

Description of action: The equipment was delivered to Darling Focus. Mr Engelbrecht introduced the facilitator to the new chairperson and committee. The annual general meeting was held the previous week and a new committee was appointed. There were many new members on the committee. There is no
representative of the trainers on the committee as was the case in the past. The facilitator was a bit surprised by the drastic changes in the committee. The second Bake for Profit group pointed out that some Xhosa-speaking women wanted to do the course, but on the day of registration only Afrikaans-speaking ladies showed up to register. It may be that the others had the wrong date or time. Only one Xhosa woman registered for the course.

Date: 17 January 2001

Place: Bergzicht Training Centre, Stellenbosch

The goal of the activity: The graduation of the second Bake for Profit group from Darling

Participants and their roles: Second Bake for Profit group, staff of Bergzicht Training Centre, graduates of the literacy course

Resources used: Facilities of Bergzicht Training Centre, Taxi-company from Darling

Description of action: The Bake for Profit participants received their certificates along with students that completed the literacy course at Bergzicht.

Date: 6 March 2001

Place: Darling Focus Building

The goal of the activity: Meeting between the new Darling Focus committee, Focus trainers, facilitator, managers of DARE-programme

Participants and their roles: Mr Harold Cleophas (chairperson), Mr Piet Spies (treasurer), Mr Martin Petersen (secretary), Miss Carien Engelbrecht (underchairperson and social worker), Mrs M Botha and Mrs E van der Merwe (DARE-programme managers), Miss J Perold (DARE-programme facilitator in Montagu), Miss A Bester (DARE-programme facilitator in Darling), Mrs Siena Alexander
(representative of DARE-participants and needlework group), Mrs S Borrie (representative of pensioners), Mr A Jacobs (woodwork trainer), Mr D Mentoor (leather work trainer)

Resources used: Facilities of Darling Focus

Description of action: Mr Cleophas welcomed everyone. He thanked DARE for sponsoring the equipment for Darling Focus and assured the managers of DARE that it would be looked after very well. Mrs van der Merwe told the new community members about the history of the relationship between Darling Focus and the Department of Consumer Science: Foods, Clothing and Housing at the University of Stellenbosch. Mr Cleophas assured the programme managers that Focus would do everything in its power to help the Bake for Profit-entrepreneurs. The entrepreneurs are free to use the kitchen facilities of Focus. They only have to pay a percentage of their profit to cover their electricity use. Focus had already given a loan to one of the entrepreneurs to get his business off the ground. The entrepreneurs were asked to assist Focus in fund raising at the Darling Focus “Open Day” on 30 March 2001. Darling Focus would supply the ingredients and the profit from the sales would go to Focus. Mr Cleophas volunteered the use of his “bakkie” if transport should be a problem. Mrs Alexander commented that there was a communication gap between the entrepreneurs and the committee regarding the arrangements for the fund raising and ask for a meeting between the committee and the entrepreneurs. Mrs van der Merwe explained that groups of four year-students come to Darling Focus to do educational presentations for women. A group would be coming to the needlework group from Monday, 12 March 2001. Mr Petersen asked about the possibility to present some training for men. Mrs Botha suggested that the men learn how to use different paint techniques for wood. The facilitator told the group about the holiday programme that some of the DARE-participants want to present for the youth during the April-holidays. During the programme, they want to teach the youth some of the skills that they have learnt in the Bake for Profit-course.

Date: 7 March 2001

Place: Darling Focus

The goal of the activity: To do planning for the Darling Focus “Open Day”
Participants and their roles: The total group of 17 people that has finished Bake for Profit
Resources used: Facilities of Darling Focus

Description of action: Mienie reported that she wrote to some of the farmers and the owner of the butchery to sponsor some produce for the Nutrition Kitchen. She has received potatoes and some meat bones for soup. They need table cloths, sharp knives and transport for 29 and 30 March. The participants met with the committee. The participants are going to work together in small groups. Every group will get R200 from Darling Focus to buy ingredients. The profits will go for projects of Focus. Each participant will get a percentage of his or her profit back. The committee said that they would do the advertising for the event. Alistair is going to do catering for a function of 300 people.

Date: 23 March 2001
Place: Darling Focus Building
The goal of the activity: To observe planning for the “Open Day” of 30 March 2000

Participants and their roles: Alistair, Siena, Mr Petersen, Mienie

Description of action: Some of the meat bones for the nutrition kitchen were stolen out of the fridge. Mr Petersen arrived for a meeting with the committee about the “Open Day”. The one group will bake on the 29th and the other group on the 30th of March. Only two groups are going to use the kitchen at Darling Focus to bake for the Open Day. The committee has done nothing to promote the Open Day. Annie and Alistair have started to spread pamphlets that Annie designed on the computer.

Date: 29 March 2001
Place: Darling Focus
The goal of the activity: To observe the preparations for the “Open Day”
Participants and their roles: Siena, Denise, Bettie, Katriena

Resources used: Kitchen facilities of Darling Focus

Description of action: The group uses the kitchen facilities to bake products for the next day’s fundraising event. They only pay for the electricity.

Date: 30 March 2001

Place: Darling Focus

The goal of the activity: To observe the Darling Focus “Open Day”

Participants and their roles: All the DARE-participants, Mr Petersen, Mr Spies, Miss Engelbrecht (vice-chairperson), representatives of the pensioners and the clinic staff

Resources used: Facilities of Darling Focus

Description of action: At 16h00, all the DARE-participants were at Focus. They expected people to come and buy products when they had finished at work. The facilitator helped to transport the participants’ baked products from their homes to Darling Focus. Mr Cleophas was not able to attend the evening. Mr Petersen and Mr Spies were in charge of the “potjiekos” competition. Children played games in the hall and a video was shown in the literacy room. The town was very busy because it was payday. There were a few functions scheduled for that specific evening, such as a church fair. Annie designed a promotion pamphlet and she, Alistair and Jason distributed it in the town the week before. The committee did not promote the event as they had promised. Alistair, Mienie, Annie and Jason sold coffee, tea, “curry bunnies” and Chelsea buns. The rest of the participants made a large selection of baked goods that were displayed on tables in the hall. The small number of people that came to support the event was a bit disappointing. The participants did not sell all their produce and had to sell it to friends and family over the rest of the weekend.
Date: 6 April 2001

Place: Darling Focus

The goal of the activity: To reflect on the “Open Day”

Participants and their roles: Annie, Siena, Katriena, Crystal, Alistair

Resources used: Facilities of Darling Focus, financial resources of DARE-programme

Description of reflection: The meeting was scheduled for 11h00, but because of a personal emergency, the facilitator had to postpone it until 14h00. The participants could not be informed in time and everyone showed up at 11h00. Most of them could not return at 14h00 because they had other engagements. Petronel, Melinda and Monique had to bake goods for a confirmation. Desire and Sannie were also baking. Three of the four groups could pay back the R200 for ingredients that Focus gave them. Only the group of Annie, Mienie, Jason and Alistair could not repay the full amount because they did not make enough money on the evening of the “Open Day”. Every group divided their profit between the group members. Focus did not take any of their profit because it was so little. The “potjiekos” competition did bring in some money for Focus. The group was not happy with the marketing of the event. They felt that the committee did not do what they had promised at the meeting of 6 March. The “Open Day” was held at the end of the month when everyone got their salaries. There were also other functions in town on that evening and more effort should have gone into the promotion of the fundraiser. Alistair and Mienie presented a programme to the facilitator for the holiday programme that they planned for the following week.

Date: 10 April 2001

Place: Darling Focus

The goal of the activity: To observe the holiday programme for the youth at Darling Focus
Participants and their roles: Mr Petersen, Annie, Alistair and Mienie

Resources used: Facilities of Darling Focus, art accessories sponsored by DARE-programme

Description of action: There was a lot of confusion at Darling Focus when the facilitator arrived there on the Tuesday morning. The holiday programme was put on hold because of a communication gap between members of the Focus committee. The chairperson was upset because he never received a written programme about what was planned for the holiday programme. Alistair and Mienie showed Miss Engelbrecht (vice-chairperson) a copy of the proposed programme and gave them permission to continue with it. Annie was upset because all decisions about Darling Focus must go through the chairperson, whom is never available, and the committee and the trainers never meet together. The facilitator, Annie, Alistair and Mienie met with Mr Petersen (secretary) to discuss the situation. The facilitator suggested that authority should be delegated to the secretary to make decisions about the day-to-day activities of Focus. Mr Petersen gave the group permission to continue with the programme and took responsibility for the decision on himself. He admits that the new committee does not have the knowledge and experience yet to know how to run Darling Focus. The group decides to continue with the programme. About 15 children showed up for demonstrations on how to bake pancakes and muffins. Mienie led a discussion on sexuality and Alistair presented a talk about communication skills.

It seems as if there is a lack of communication and trust among committee members and between trainers and the committee. The decision making power is not evenly distributed.

Date: 25 April 2001

Place: Darling Focus

The goal of the activity: To reflect on the problems encountered at the “Open Day” and the holiday programme

Participants and their roles: Mr Cleophas (chairperson), Mr Petersen (secretary), Miss Engelbrecht (under-chairperson), Mr Spies (treasurer), Mrs Mostert (literacy
trainer), Mr Jacobs (woodwork), Siena Alexander (DARE-participant and needlework representative), Annie (DARE-participant and computer trainer), Alistair (DARE-participant and facilitator of children's educational programmes)

Resources used: Facilities of Darling Focus

Description of reflection: The facilitator requested a meeting between the committee and the DARE-participants. The facilitator told the committee that the way the holiday programme was handled, was disappointing. The programme was sponsored by the DARE-programme and because of a lack of communication on the part of the committee; it almost did not take place at all. Miss Engelbrecht cleared up the misunderstanding and said that she saw a copy of the holiday programme and gave them permission to continue with it. The facilitator wanted to know from the committee how they see the future of the cooperation between the entrepreneurs and Darling Focus. Mr Cleophas said the entrepreneurs are still welcome to use the facilities at Focus, but they must take initiative to come to the committee with proposals. Mrs Mostert volunteered to coordinate a bake sale with the entrepreneurs on a Saturday morning. The facilitator told the committee about a workshop presented at Bergzicht Training Centre in Stellenbosch about how to start a training project. The committee was interested to attend it and the facilitator promised to provide more information on it.

Date: 11 May 2001

Place: Darling Focus building

The goal of the activity: To inform the third Bake for Profit-group about the activities of the past year

Participants and their roles: Annie, Jason, Crystal, Katriena Smit, Katriena Williams, Desire, Gertrude, Melinda, Veronica, Meisie, Nicolene, Bettie, Denise, Alistair, Mienie, Christina. The absentees are Alice (working at the SPCA), Sannie, Mary (working in another town), Siena (preparing for a function for an organisation that she is part of), Petronal and Monique (attending a college in Cape Town), Doreen (had to go to the clinic).
Resources used: Art room, posters, photos

Description of reflection: The facilitator welcomed everyone, especially the group that only finished the *Bake for Profit*-course on 11 April 2001. It was the first time that they attend a reflection discussion with the rest of the group. The facilitator told the group that they had to inform the last group about what the Darling Focus entrepreneurs have been up to in the last year. The facilitator brought photos that were taken at different events where the entrepreneurs were involved. All the photos of one event were pasted on one poster. Everyone involved in an event gathered around a table with the posters on the table. The facilitator asked them to write down under the photos what was happening in every picture and what they felt when they looked at the pictures. Some of them joined another table after finishing with their poster, because they were involved with more than one event. There was a lot of noise as they eagerly discussed the pictures. They put the posters up against a blackboard. Annie and Jason shared their experience of the catering that they did at Darling Focus during the Flower Show in September 2000. They felt it was a success, but that their marketing was not done well enough. They only sold 16 tickets. Annie told the group about their *Bake for Profit* certificate ceremony. She said it was exciting to be the centre of attention, because there were people from the newspapers and television. Denise said that she enjoyed the certificate ceremony at Bergzicht Training Centre very much, because there were other illiterate people, like herself, there on that day to receive certificates for literacy classes that they attended at Bergzicht. They inspired her to continue with her literacy classes. Desire, Denise, Bettie and Crystal talked about the Darling Focus “Open day”. Bettie felt that they all worked together very well. Crystal and Bettie agreed that the effort was a success, but that it was not marketed well enough. Alistair added to this, saying that with regard to marketing, the cooperation from the Darling Focus committee was not good. Mienie said that the holiday programme was a big success despite some initial problems. The children enjoyed it a lot. The group talked about who wanted to work together at Darling Focus and who wanted to work on their own. They compiled a list of everyone who wanted to be part of the Focus Baking Team and they chose Alistair as their coordinator because he is also a facilitator at Focus.
Date: 25 May 2001

Place: Darling Focus building

The goal of the activity: To observe the preparations for the bake sale

Participants and their roles: Gertrude, Doreen, Denise, Veronica, Mrs Mostert, Siena, Mienie

Resources used: Kitchen facilities of Darling Focus

Description of action: Siena and Denise were baking chocolate cake and Swiss rolls. Doreen and Mienie were baking muffins. Veronica and Gertrude were making "koeksisters". Mrs Mostert supplied the ingredients and they will pay her back. The facilitator gave them a camera to take photos of the bake sale the next day.

Date: 31 May 2001

Place: Bergzicht Training Centre, Stellenbosch

The goal of the activity: To reflect on the "How to start a training project"-workshop

Participants and their roles: Mrs Kotzé (managing director of Bergzicht Training Centre), Mr Cleophas, Mr Petersen, Mrs Mostert, Miss Engelbrecht, Sherilene Herman

Resources used: Facilities and human resources of Bergzicht Training Centre, financial resources of DARE-programme

Description of reflection: The committee members were very enthusiastic about what they had learnt during the workshop. They now want to send people to attend the "Train the trainer"-course at Bergzicht. Mrs Kotzé also said that the group was very enthusiastic, but she could sense that there were some communication issues within the group. She stressed the fact that they need a full-time manager at Focus to run the centre and make the day-to-day decisions on behalf of the committee.
ADDENDUM 4

Interview schedule
Onderhoudskaledule

A. Demografiese data:
1. Naam: .............................................
2. Ouderdom: ......................................
3. Geslag: .......................................... 
4. Huistaal: .........................................
5. Huwelikstatus: ...................................
6. Wie bly saam met jou in die huis?
7. Het jy skool gegaan? ................................
8. As ja, na watter standerd het jy die skool verlaat? ................................
9. Het jy enige ander opleiding ontvang? ................................
10. Werk jy op die oomblik? ...........................
11. Indien ja, watter soort werk doen jy? ......................
12. Wie bring die geld in die huis in? ...........................

B. Bake for profit-kursus
1. Wanneer het jy die kursus gedoen? ...........................
2. Hoekom het jy die kursus gedoen? ............................
3. Waarvan het jy die meeste gehou? ..........................
4. Waarvan het jy nie gehou nie? ..............................
5. Watter aanbevelings het jy vir die kursus? .................
6. Wat sal jy nog graag wil leer oor besigheid? ..............
7. Wat sal jy nog graag wil leer oor bak? ....................... 

C. Besigheid:
1. Het jy op die oomblik 'n bak besigheid? ....................
2. Wat verkoop jy? ....................................
3. Hoe gereeld verkoop jy dit? ................................
4. Wie koop gewoonlik jou produkte? .........................
5. Waar bak jy jou produkte? –by jou huis?
   - by Darling Fokus?
   - by iemand anders se huis?
   - Ander:

6. Waar verkoop jy jou produkte? –by jou huis?
   - by Darling Fokus?
   - by 'n stallietjie?
   - van deur tot deur?
   - Ander:

7. Watter toerusting gebruik jy?

8. Hoe adverteer jy jou produkte?

9. Waarna kyk jy as jy bestanddele aankoop?

10. By wie koop jy jou bestanddele?

11. Hoekom daar?

12. Hoe weet jy hoeveel voorraad jy moet aankoop?

13. Hoe werk jy die prys uit wat jy vir jou produkte gaan vra?

14. Watter uitgawes het jy?

15. Maak jy 'n wins?

16. As ja, watter persentasie wins maak jy?

17. Hoeveel verdien jy per maand uit jou besigheid?

18. Hoeveel geld het jy nodig per maand om jou besigheid aan die gang te hou?

19. Waar kan jy geld leen as jy jou besigheid wil uitbrei?

20. Wat dink jy is die doel van 'n besigheidsplan?

21. Het jy 'n aparte bankrekening vir jou besigheid?

22. Wat maak jy met die inkomste uit jou besigheid?

23. Is dit moontlik vir jou om elke week geld weg te sit om te spaar?
24. As ja, hoeveel spaar jy per week?

25. Werk enige iemand vir jou of saam met jou?

26. As ja, wie is hulle en wat is hulle rolle?

27. Hoe verdeel julle die inkomste?

28. Het jy toegang tot vervoer?

29. Vir wie vra jy as jy raad oor jou besigheid nodig het?

30. Watter dinge het 'n positiewe invloed op jou besigheid gehad?

31. Watter dinge het gekeer dat jou besigheid groei?

32. Wat is jou droom vir jou besigheid?
ADDENDUM 5

Examples of qualitative answers in interviews
Examples of qualitative answers in interviews:

4.4.2.3 Aspect of the course the participants liked best

Some of the comments were:

“Koek bak – ek het nog nooit koek gebak nie en toe kom die koek mooi.”
“Dit was wonderlik om te sien dat my baksel kom reg uit.”
“Die goeie gees en samewerking.”
“Die groep – ons was ‘n lekker groep. Ons het mekaar gerespek-
teer en die gesindheid was goed. Ons het geweet hoe om
met mekaar te praat”
“Coia het my gevra om te demonstreer hoe om scones te maak.”

4.4.2.4 Aspect of the course that the participants disliked

Examples of responses are:

“Die lesse was moeilik.”
“Die boekwerk was minder lekker.”
“Ek kan nie dink aan negatiewe goed nie. Alles het lekker en vlot
verloop.”

4.4.2.7 Needs with regard to further baking training

Examples of responses are:

“Ek wil leer om fancy goed te maak – fyngebak.”
“Ek sal graag wil leer hoe om verskillende soorte kleininghede te
maak.”

4.4.3.3 Location of production site
One of the participants commented:

"Tyd gaan verlore. By die huis kan jy aangaan met ander goed."

4.4.3.7 Regularity of sales

A participant commented:

"Mense betaal nie as hulle op skuld koop nie."

4.4.3.10 Suppliers and motivation for choice

A participant commented:

"In die laaste tyd het altwee winkels se pryse vir bestanddele baie opgegaan. Ek dink dis omdat daar so baie bakkers by hulle koop."

4.4.3.26 Positive influences on business

Some of their comments:

"Die mense moedig jou aan. Hulle vertel ander mense van jou."
"Die ondersteuning wat ek van my familie, vriende en kennishe gekry het."
"Baie aanmoediging by mense wat gesê het my produkte wat baie lekker."
"Om families Sondaemiddae bymekaar te kry, het ek reggekry deur gebak. Ek het motivering vir bakkers gegee. Kommunikasie tussen bure het verbeter."
"Meer mense kom koop. Eers het ons in die gestaan op Vrydae. Dit was 'n waste of time, maar nou ken die mense ons al en kom koop by die huis."
“Ek het 'n groot droom. Ek wil my eie plekkie huur, elke dag vir mense verkoop en mense in diens neem.”
“Om my eie bakery te hê en ook groot bestellings te aanvaar.”
“Die mobile het toegemaak op die hoek. Ek wil vir oom vra of ons die garage kan huur en dan kan ons daar verkoop.”
“Mense het vir my gevra om te bak wat ek nog nie eers geken het nie.”
“Dit was lekker as ek in die dorp gestaan het, by Evita gestaan en verkoop het.”
“Mense eet my produkte by ’n meisie in Asla, hulle hoor van my en nou koop hulle ook.”
“Om myself te expose. Ek het bestellings gekry tot in Vredenburg. Die feit dat ek kon gaan vir ’n onderhoud by ’n bakery deur middel van my sertifikaat.”

Two other participants’ answers were interpreted to mean the same:

“Nou kan ek ook bak.”
“Bak sal my ver bring.”

4.4.3.27 Obstacles to growth of business

Some of their comments were:

“Mense in ons pad bak ook – te min customers.”
“Die probleem is dat ek kompetisie van die huis voor my en verder af in my straat het.”
“Saamwerk met ander mense by Fokus. Die mense verskil baie.”
“Jy kry nie maklik jou goed verkoop nie. Mense ondersteun jou nie graag nie, gewoonlik net familie en vriende bo in die dorp.”
“Mense wil nie kontant betaal nie.”
“Soms as jy 2 of 3 koeke bak, alles verkoop nie dadelik nie.”
“Somtyds staan ons Vrydae en Saterdae by ’n tafel in die dorp. Party mense se attitude was negatief, maar jy moet geduldig wees.”

4.4.3.28 Dream for business

Some of their comments were:
ADDENDUM 6

Evaluation form for trainers
DARE (Development and Advancement of Rural Entrepreneurship) program

EVALUERING VAN DEELNEMER

Kursus: ____________________
Opleier: ____________________
Naam van deelnemer: ____________________

Deelname in die klas: ____________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________

Aanleer van bakvaardighede: ______________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________

Aanleer van besigheidsvaardighede: _________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________

Vordering deur die kursus: _________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
ADDENDUM 7
Photographs
Photograph 1: Graduation of first group (15 September 2000)

Photograph 2: Lunch at Darling Wild Flower Show (17 September 2000)
Photograph 3: Graduation of second group (17 January 2001)

Photograph 4: “Open Day” at Darling Focus (30 March 2001)
Photograph 5: Holiday programme for youth (10 April 2001)

Photograph 6: "Storytelling" by first two groups (11 May 2001)
Photograph 7: Preparations for bake sale (25 May 2001)

Photograph 8: Participants at bake sale (26 May 2001)
ADDENDUM 8

Analysis of application of entrepreneurial skills
### Analysis of application of entrepreneurial skills

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