

**SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT:
THEORY, PRACTICE AND EVALUATION**

By

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ABSTRACT

Prior to 1976 few facilities and projects existed to serve the underprivileged communities in Grahamstown. Numerous attempts to establish development programmes had failed. From 1976 to 1981 informal attempts were initiated and a number of community based facilities were established. From 1981 to 1991 the Centre for Social Development assumed responsibility for this work and was able, with an enlarged staff, to inaugurate a wide range of projects and programmes. These cater to thousands of deprived people and enable them and their children to realise an improved quality of life. The dynamic processes and policies which have been employed are investigated. The value of this work is noteworthy because of the limited number of research papers on indigenous grassroots development projects in South Africa.

The methods which have been utilised to enable unemployed people to play meaningful roles in their own communities are investigated. These include the establishment of much needed facilities and the in-service training of workers and committee teams to run and service them. Of particular importance is the role and structure of the Centre as an umbrella and resource organisation. The work of the Centre and its projects is described and evaluated. The qualitative, quantitative, exploratory and descriptive methods are used. The relationships between social welfare, community work and social planning are considered in relation to the theoretical base of the Centre.

The situation in the Black and Coloured townships of Grahamstown, where most of the projects are located, is described with special reference to population, housing, basic services, crime and disease. Reasons for the high unemployment rates are enumerated.

Various development models are described and their strengths and weaknesses assessed. Of particular significance are the origins of the Centre, the qualities brought to the project by the founding Director, its fundraising techniques, and procedures for training, supervision and project support.

Aspects of development strategy not stressed in the literature, but of particular importance in the South African situation, are highlighted. These include the basic necessity for adequate financing, the provision of bursaries for tertiary study, the importance of nutritious food, the creation of job opportunities and the value of child centred projects as an access to the wider community. The necessity of financial control in the individual projects is also stressed.

The primary aim of this work is to ascertain how projects have been established and maintained in a community where nothing on this scale has been attempted before. A secondary objective has been to find the theoretical base that best suits the work of the Centre. This is the social planning model in the social welfare field.

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DECLARATION OF CANDIDATE

I hereby declare that this dissertation is my own unaided work and that any assistance obtained in its preparation was received from my Supervisor, Professor WA Mitchell. All the fieldwork and the research into my own work in the field from 1976 to 1991 was conducted by me. No part of this dissertation has been previously submitted to any other university. The information used in this dissertation has been obtained by me while working as the Director of the Centre for Social Development of Rhodes University, Grahamstown.

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30 November 1991

CONTENTS

List of Tables	(xi)
List of Figures	(xii)
List of Addenda	(xiii)

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1	Motivation for the Study	1
1.2	Rationale	3
1.3	Aims and Objectives of the Research Study	4
1.4	Assumptions	5
1.5	Research and Design Methodology	5
1.6	Potential Usefulness of the Study	6
1.7	Limitations of the Study	6
1.8	Definitions	7
1.9	Presentation of the Research Study	7

CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

2.1	Research Design	10
2.2	Research Methods	11
2.3	Research Techniques	12

CHAPTER 3

THE ROLE OF THE CENTRE FOR SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT IN THE FIELD OF SOCIAL WELFARE

3.1	Introduction	16
3.2	The Institution of Social Welfare	17
3.3	Working with Communities	20

3.3.1	Community Work	20
3.3.1.1	Social Development	22
3.3.1.2	Community Development	27
3.3.1.3	Social Planning	30
3.3.1.4	Social Action	39
3.3.2	Administration and Management	41
3.4	The CSD as Part of the Field of Social Welfare	44
3.4.1	Social Development	44
3.4.2	Community Development	45
3.4.3	Social Planning	48
3.4.4	Social Action	50
3.4.5	Administration and Organisation	51

CHAPTER 4

GRAHAMSTOWN : BACKGROUND INFORMATION

4.1	Region D	52
4.2	History	52
4.3	The Group Areas Act	53
4.4	Population	55
4.5	The Residential Divisions	56
4.6	The Housing Situation	57
4.6.1	In the Black area	57
4.6.2	In the Coloured area	62
4.6.2.1	Housing stock	62
4.6.2.2	Housing Needs	62
4.6.3	In the Indian Residential Area	63
4.7	Water, Sewerage and Electricity in the Black Townships	64
4.7.1	Water	64
4.7.2	Sewerage	64
4.7.3	Electricity	64
4.8	Lack of Industry and Unemployment	65
4.9	Major Social Problems	67
4.9.1	Introductory Remarks	67

4.9.2	Disease, Malnutrition and Infant Mortality	67
4.9.3	Crime	69
4.9.4	Effects of Overcrowding on Education	70
4.9.5	Child Beggars and Street Children	70
4.10	Concluding Remarks	71

CHAPTER 5

THE HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE CENTRE FOR SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

5.1	Introduction	72
5.2	Stages of Involvement in Community Work	73
5.2.1	Community Awareness	73
5.2.2	Definition of the Problem	73
5.2.3	Managerial and Organisational Skills	74
5.3	Catalysts in the Development Process for the Establishment of the CSD	75
5.3.1	In Grahamstown	75
5.3.2	SAAECE Address	76
5.3.3	OXFAM principles for Community Workers	76
5.3.4	Visit by the Director of the CSD, University of the Witwatersrand	76
5.4	The Proposal for the Establishment of a CSD at Rhodes	77
5.5	The Establishment of the CSD at Rhodes	78
5.6	Major CSD Programmes	81
5.6.1	Bursary and Education Programmes	81
5.6.1.1	GADRA Educational Welfare Sub-committee	82
5.6.1.2	Other bursaries administered by the CSD	85
5.6.2	Pre-school Initiatives	88
5.6.3	Adult Education	91
5.6.4	Programmes for the Black Aged	94
5.7	Resource, Administrative and Service Provision	95
5.7.1	Fundraising Strategies	95
5.7.2	Funds Raised and Administered by the CSD	97
5.7.3	Involvement of International Funding Agencies	99
5.7.4	The Establishment of Community Based Facilities	100
5.7.5	CSD Contact with Community Groups, Organisations and Networks	103

5.7.6	The Role of the CSD in the Management and Administration of Projects	105
5.8	Administration and Management of the CSD	107
5.8.1	Staffing Complement	107
5.8.2	Organisation and Control	110
5.9	Conclusion	111

CHAPTER 6

INTERVENTION STRATEGY 1 : ST MARY'S DAY CARE CENTRE

6.1	Introduction	112
6.2	The Sponsoring Agency: Kindernothilfe	112
6.3	History	113
6.4	Aims and objectives	114
6.5	The Establishment of the Centre	115
6.5.1	Selection Procedures	115
6.5.1.1	KNH Guidelines	115
6.5.1.2	The Process	115
6.5.2	Clothing and Equipment	116
6.5.3	The Daily Programme	117
6.5.4	Comments	118
6.5.5	Food and Menus	119
6.6	The Children and their Circumstances	120
6.6.1	Selection Procedure for Case Studies	120
6.6.2	The Children and the Centre	121
6.6.3	Home and Family Circumstances	123
6.7	The Management of the Centre	124
6.7.1	The Management Committee	124
6.7.2	The Staff	125
6.7.3	The Church and Members of the Parish	125
6.7.4	The Parents	126
6.7.5	A Social Worker	128
6.8	Accomplishments and Successes	128
6.8.1	Staff Development and Growth	128
6.8.2	Care and Maintenance of the Centre	129
6.8.3	Good Food, Cleanliness and Health	129

6.8.4	School Results and Progress	132
6.8.5	Outing and Visits	132
6.9	Conclusions	133

CHAPTER 7

INTERVENTION STRATEGY 2 : PRE-SCHOOL INITIATIVES

7.1	Introduction	135
7.2	Aims and Objectives	138
7.3	Overview of Pre-school Initiatives	139
	7.3.1 Formal Facilities	139
	7.3.2 The Home Care Programme	139
	7.3.3 Pre-schools and Play Groups on Farms	139
	7.3.4 Parent Education Programmes	140
	7.3.5 Pre-school Teacher-aide Training Programmes	140
7.4	Formal Pre-schools	140
	7.4.1 The Makanaskop Creche	140
	7.4.2 Heidi Nursery School	146
	7.4.3 St Peter Claver's Nursery School	149
	7.4.4 St Philip's Nursery School	152
	7.4.5 Pre-school Management Procedures	156
	7.4.5.1 Management Committees	156
	7.4.5.2 Parent Involvement	158
7.5	Other Pre-school Initiatives	158
	7.5.1 Home Care Programme	158
	7.5.2 Rural Outreach Programme	162

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1	Conclusions and Recommendations	174
	8.1.1 The CSD as Part of the Field of Social Welfare	174
	8.1.2 Project Planning and Development	175
	8.1.3 Workers and Volunteers in Development Programmes	177
	8.1.4 Development Projects and Children	180

8.1.5	Community Consultation and Empowerment	181
8.1.6	Parent and Community Involvement and Parent Education	181
8.1.7	Financial Control of Community Projects	183
8.1.8	Management Committees and Umbrella Bodies	184
8.1.9	Training Programmes and Development	184
8.1.10	The Provision of Bursaries and Development	185
8.1.11	Job Creation and Development	186
8.1.12	Development and the Provision of Nutritious Food	186
8.1.13	Development and Charity	186
8.1.14	Development Projects and Churches	187
8.1.15	Conclusions and Recommendations regarding specific CSD Projects	188
8.1.16	General	190
8.2	Proposals for Future Research Topics	191
8.2.1	Teenage Pregnancies	191
8.2.2	The Long Term Effect of Pre-school Education in Disadvantaged Communities	192
8.2.3	The Culture of Learning	193
	ADDENDA	194
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	209

List of Tables

1.	Tasks and Tools of the Social Planner	32
2.	Major Components for Proposal Presentation	38
3.	Basic Concepts of Social Development and Comments	45
4.	Population Census Statistics : 1921 to 1991	55
5.	Housing Stock in the Coloured Area	62
6.	Rooms per Shack in Sun City	63
7.	Monthly Incidence of Crime in Grahamstown	69
8.	GADRA Education Bursary Allocations : 1977 to 1991	85
9.	Other Bursaries - Total of Awards and Amounts Allocated : 1985 to 1991	86
10.	Other Bursaries Administered by the CSD : 1985 to 1991	87
11.	Formal Pre-school Centres in Grahamstown	88
12.	Commercial Centre Enrolment : 1987 to 1991	94
13.	Funds Raised and Administered by the Director and/or the CSD : 1976 to 1991	98
14.	Funds Received for Pre-school Training and Development Programmes : 1983 to 1991	99
15.	Numbers on Roll, Leavers and Acceptances : 1981 to 1991	120
16.	Selected Case Studies of 14 Children who have left St Mary's Day Care Centre	122
17.	Annual Income from KNH and Children's Fees : 1982 to 1990	127
18.	Weight Gains of Boys and Girls at St Mary's Day Care Centre : 1985 to 1988	131
19.	Home Care Programme : Number of Homes and Children	160
20.	Growth of Rural Outreach Programme : 1987 to 1991	166
21.	Rural Outreach Centres : 1991	167

List of Figures

1.	Diagrammatic Representations of the CSD and its Projects	<i>Frontispiece</i>
2.	Staffing Situation in the CSD : 1981 to 1991	79
3.	GADRA Education Projects : 1976 to 1991	83
4.	Diagrammatic Representation of the CSD Administration and Projects	109
5.	Grahamstown - Rini Townships Areas	<i>Inside Back Cover</i>

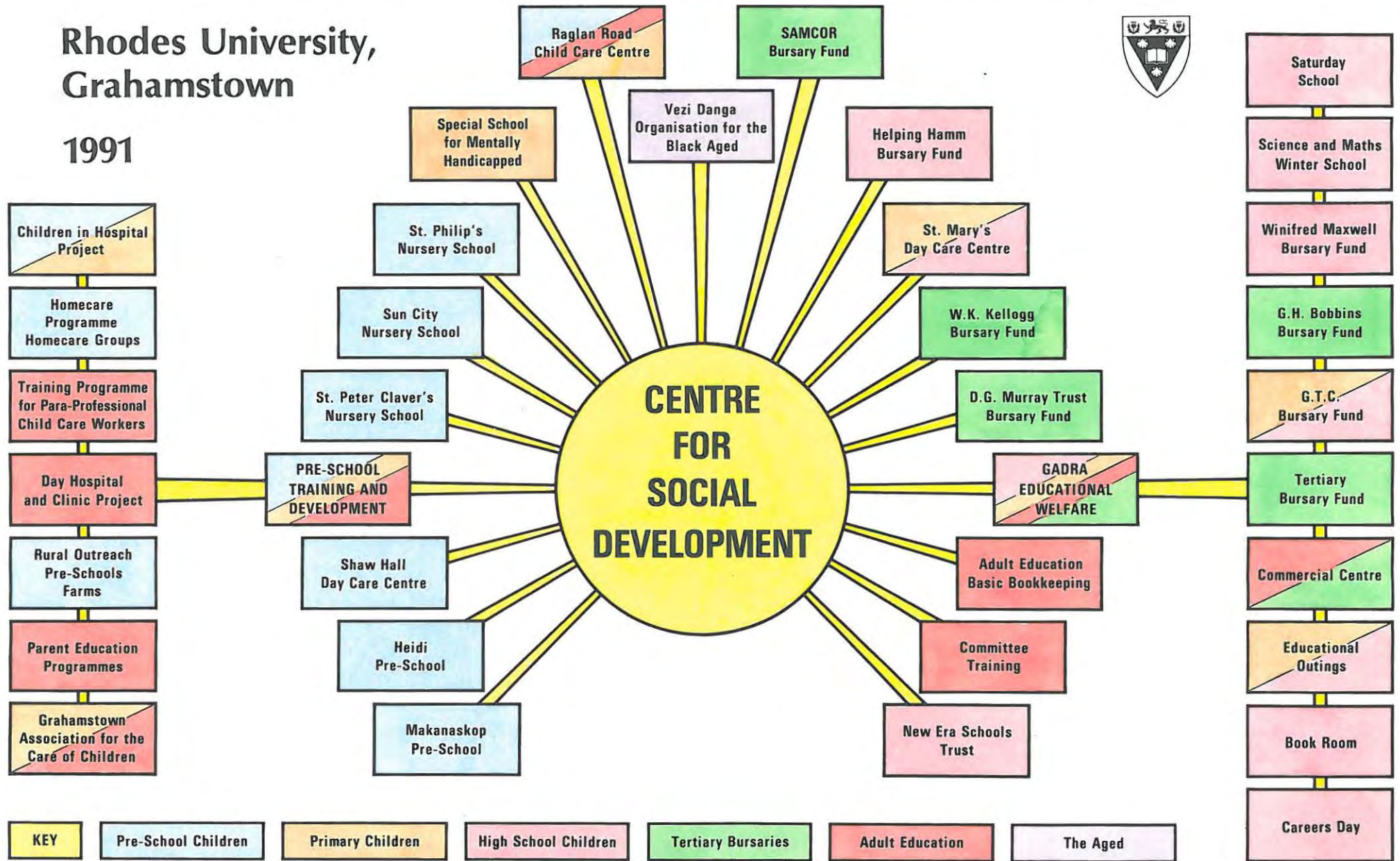
List of Addenda

1.	A Summary of the Housing Situation in Rini : June 1991	194
2.	Statistical Data for Rini	195
3.	The Growth and Development of the CSD : 1981 to 1991	197
4.	Shaw Hall Day Care Centre. Church, Municipal and Government Department Negotiations : 1988	199
5.	Grahamstown Annual Rainfall : 1970 to 1990	200
6.	Two Week Cycle of Breakfast and Lunch Menus : St Mary's Day Care Centre	201
7.	Case Studies of Fourteen Children who have left St Mary's Day Care Centre	202
8.	KNH Identity Sheet	206
9.	Report from Supervisor of Makanaskop Creche on the Pre-school Orientation Programme : Athlone, 4 - 28 August, 1980	207
10.	Contents of a Home Care Pre-School Equipment Box for Six Children	208

CENTRE FOR SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Rhodes University,
Grahamstown

1991



Frontispiece

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Motivation for the Study

The present study was conducted in Grahamstown, an Eastern Cape town with a burgeoning population and serious problems relating to poverty, unemployment and restrictive apartheid regulations.

The study describes and evaluates the work of the Centre for Social Development (CSD), Rhodes University, Grahamstown which provides a wide range of training and resource services to impoverished and disadvantaged communities where few other resources and facilities exist. The range of its projects covers a wide spectrum from parent education programmes for pregnant mothers on the one hand, to services for the aged on the other. The major thrust of the work of the Centre is the provision of services, resources and training for a variety of pre-school projects and bursaries for young people with ability to enable them to realise their academic potential by studying at teacher training colleges, technical colleges, technikons and universities. Other programmes initiated and serviced by the CSD include a day care centre for impoverished school going children, Careers Days, Saturday tuition for matriculants, various adult education and parent programmes and a service centre for the aged. Other initiatives have been launched from time to time as specific needs have arisen. When the circumstances have improved and the need no longer exists the project has been discontinued.

The major need in the early stages of the work was for the establishment of community based facilities. This was followed by the provision of training and resource programmes. Development is a complex concept which has various meanings in different contexts. The CSD focused initially on concrete development strategies at the local level; social planning, educational and economic development, the establishment and administration of social welfare programmes, the ongoing provision of training and resources and the granting of bursaries.

The particular foci of the CSD can be described as community-based poverty-orientated development and developmental social-welfare. A high percentage of the needs addressed by the CSD would be the responsibility of the state in many other developing and third world

countries. South Africa is however, different from other countries in that the legacy of apartheid has been responsible for unique and unparalleled circumstances which have had a debilitating effect on the discriminated and repressed people. This has been particularly evident in Grahamstown where unemployment in the Black and Coloured communities is rife, where there is an outflow of young people with ability and qualifications, and a constant inflow of poor uneducated people from the surrounding farms and rural areas. Development programmes and initiatives in this milieu present many problems which are not as pronounced elsewhere.

In South Africa as a whole Black empowerment and development have been exceedingly difficult under the circumstances which have prevailed since 1948 when the National Party came to power. From 1950 to 1970 poverty and repression coupled with hard and restrictive legislation stifled growth and initiative. During the 1970's and the era of Black Consciousness there was some change, albeit inhibited, caused by the Soweto uprising in 1976 and the subsequent period of violence and upheaval. Despite this, the decade from 1970 to 1980 saw the growth of the Trade Union Movement which became the training ground for political activists and aspirant politicians. Between 1983 and 1985 the politicians emerged under the umbrella of the United Democratic Front and an easing of the repressive measures facilitated the growth of community-based projects, domestic worker and literacy programmes and advice and legal aid offices. When the State of Emergency was re-introduced in 1986 all this was once again severely attenuated when some 40 000 community leaders and political activists were detained, house arrested and jailed. From 1989, with an enlightened National Party leadership, the State of Emergency was once again lifted, detainees were freed and Dr Nelson Mandela and other African National Congress (ANC) leaders were released. The period from 1989 to the present has witnessed the maturing of the trade unions, the growth of civic associations and rural development agencies, the rebirth of national and local political groupings and the proliferation of non-governmental organisations (NGO's).

During the period covered by this study from 1976 onwards, Grahamstown was affected by national as well as local circumstances. A number of serious lengthy school boycotts were experienced along with spasmodic and recurring work stayaways, shop boycotts, the torching and destruction of delivery vans and transport vehicles, unprovoked killings, the looting and burning of shops and houses and the stoning of vehicles in Raglan Road. All this has been accompanied by intimidation and an ongoing hate campaign directed at Rini town councillors. On many occasions all entrance roads to the township were closed and heavy police and

military forces were deployed to maintain law and order. The growth and development of the work of the CSD must be viewed against this background. The failed policies of forty years of apartheid cannot be corrected in a decade or two; the changes required will involve the rebuilding of the basic systems of education, health and housing. While these major adjustments are being planned for and implemented, grassroots endeavours which concentrate on providing services for the disadvantaged and discriminated people will be an urgent priority. The CSD, through its reconstruction projects, is enabling these particular communities of Grahamstown to benefit from locally based projects which they themselves have requested and worked for. Every endeavour is being made to develop community capacity so that the projects can be locally run and sustained. This will not happen spontaneously. Growth and sustainability will occur through training and hands-on experience, and the provision of resources. These vitally important development processes have been initiated by the CSD and will continue until the local committees are prepared to take full responsibility for their own projects.

1.2 Rationale

This study seeks to demonstrate the contribution of a service and resource agency in improving the quality of life of disadvantaged and impoverished people.

The rationale for undertaking the research is fourfold:

- (i) That as the CSD had been operational for ten years it had become necessary to describe the factors leading to its establishment, explain its growth and development and evaluate its performance.
- (ii) That as a previous community development programme had failed (*Charton, 1979*) it was obligatory to investigate and elucidate the processes involved in the establishment and management of over forty community based facilities, bursary funds and adult education programmes in the same milieu.
- (iii) That as the CSD is a constituent body of an academic institution a scholarly investigation of its theoretical base was required.
- (iv) That if current development theory were to be studied and analysed in relation to the theory and practice of an organisation with grassroots experience, the field of knowledge for South African community practitioners would be expanded and enriched.

1.3 Aims and Objectives of the Research Study

- (i) To contribute towards the construction of a theoretical framework for community work practice and social planning in South Africa. This will include strategies for development, programme planning, institution building and community involvement.
- (ii) To ascertain whether the aims and objectives of the CSD are being realised. The thorough and comprehensive documentation of CSD projects over a ten year period provides an ideal data base.
- (iii) To ascertain what published material in the available literature is relevant to the work done by the CSD and what is not relevant, and what additional theoretical ideas and practical applications should be considered.
- (iv) To contribute to the knowledge base of social development, trace the progress of service delivery in the CSD, demonstrate the procedures adopted, and highlight the factors which have led to the successful growth and functioning of projects and those which have frustrated development.
- (v) To describe and analyse the fundraising strategies of the CSD for community based facilities along with the financial control necessary at the project level. No project or programme can be launched without satisfactory funding.
- (vi) To explore alternative and less expensive models for pre-school child care. The dominant strategy for many years has been to establish formal institutions. In this study home care groups in the townships and rural pre-schools on farms will be explored and evaluated as less expensive alternate models.
- (vii) To consider parent involvement in community projects. Community consultation and empowerment will also be investigated as an extension of parental participation.
- (viii) To investigate the relationship between local church authorities and a number of CSD projects.
- (ix) To investigate the qualities and experience of workers in the development field.
- (x) To evaluate training programmes and the provision of bursaries for further study as necessary components for development strategy.
- (xi) To evaluate the role of the CSD as an umbrella organisation with regard to central fundraising, training, resource provision and support and management services.

1.4 Assumptions

This study took into account the following assumptions:

- (i) That development programmes can raise the quality of life of disadvantaged people, assist them to make decisions about their own lives and play a meaningful role in their communities.
- (ii) That it is possible for the CSD to improve people's life opportunities through community development programmes which meet their needs through the provision of resources.
- (iii) That people can best be helped if they are prepared to help themselves. Development is not for people but with people.
- (iv) That in order to be effective development agencies need the confidence of the communities they serve.
- (v) That quality pre-school education provides disadvantaged children with a headstart for further schooling.
- (vi) That no one can be expected to do a job well without appropriate training.
- (vii) That most parents want to provide their children with better opportunities than they had and that education is the key to a more meaningful life.
- (viii) That the provision of bursaries for tertiary education is an integral part of the development process as it broadens the skills and educational base of deprived communities.
- (ix) That in a developing country where the role of the state in grassroots development programmes is limited, development agencies have a vital role to play.
- (x) That the business community is prepared to fund social projects which do not fall within their immediate sphere of activities and that if donors have confidence in the management capacity of development agencies they are more likely to support them.

1.5 Research and Design Methodology

The research design, methods and techniques are described in Chapter 2. The design contains both qualitative and quantitative descriptions. The record method is used for data from municipal records and statistics. The exploratory research design is used in conjunction with the descriptive design. Research methods include programme evaluation in which the viability, effectiveness and efficiency of projects are considered in relation to the aims and objectives. The evaluation is not wholly summative because it is not being done at the end of any particular phase. Ongoing (formative) evaluation is favoured and in this research it is done by an inside participator rather than by an outside evaluator. The two major research techniques

are secondary analysis and participant observation. Every effort has been made to be flexible and to use a wide range of methodologies in order to maximise the opportunities for observation and interpretation.

1.6 Potential Usefulness of the Study

- (i) The field of community work is a burgeoning one in South Africa today as communities prepare for the forthcoming dispensation. It is hoped that this study will provide a reference base for future studies by community planners and workers and be of assistance to those in the field in similar areas of endeavour. A dissertation of this kind provides the opportunity for the studying of ideas and dissemination of research findings. This is important for the further enhancement of the knowledge base of both researchers and practitioners.
- (ii) There is a paucity of studies on "hands-on" development projects in South Africa. Much of the recent research conducted in S.E. Asia and Israel is inappropriate. The majority of reference work and studies are theoretical in nature as the majority of authors are not practitioners with experience in the field.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

- (i) This study has been conducted by a participant observer. While there are certain advantages to this there are also limitations such as the researcher being too close to the work to be sufficiently objective.
- (ii) The study examines work conducted over a period of fifteen years and covers a wide range of projects. There has been insufficient time and space to investigate them all. Representative examples have been selected, along with others which have experienced community problems. Those not selected are worthy of study and should form the basis of a future research topic.
- (iii) The absence of a similar resource and training centre which assists in establishing projects and providing on-going support and training, has prevented the researcher from investigations which would have led to a comparison of other development theories resulting from comparable experiences.

1.8 Definitions

Writer / Researcher / Director:

These three terms refer to the same person. The term "writer" is generally used prior to the establishment of the CSD in 1981, after which the term "Director" is used. The nomenclature of "researcher" is used intermittently.

Fieldworker:

This term applies to a Black Xhosa speaking middle-aged woman trained by the CSD to work in the community providing projects and workers with support and in-service training. These women have passed either Standard 9 or 10.

Child care worker:

This category of worker is also referred to as a "teacher-aide". These workers, formerly unemployed or under-employed women, have been trained by the CSD as para-professionals. They work in formal pre-school centres, in pre-schools on farms and in township homes. Their training is ongoing and no child care worker can ever be regarded as fully trained.

Grahamstown and Rini:

These two urban geographical entities were formerly a united Grahamstown until separate municipal authorities were created by the Nationalist Government and the Black municipal area of Rini was established. Judging from the low percentage polls in Rini Council elections, one must infer that the concept of a separate authority is rejected by the majority.

1.9 Presentation of the Research Study

In Chapter 2 the research design, methods and techniques are described. These include a wide range of methodologies in order to be flexible and to maximise opportunities for observation and interpretation. The qualitative and quantitative, the record, explanatory and descriptive research methods are used. Evaluation is partially on-going and summative and is done by a participant observer.

Chapter 3 considers the relationship between social welfare, community work and social planning through a study of a wide cross section of contributions to the body of knowledge of

social work and social welfare. The literature pertaining to social development is considered as it is claimed that as a concept it is the most appropriate vehicle for meeting the basic needs of people in both developing and developed nations. All contributions are compared and contrasted with the theoretical framework of the CSD. The strengths and weaknesses of these models in the South African situation are highlighted, and the concepts which best suit the work of the CSD are considered.

Chapter 4 provides a historical account of the Grahamstown settlement and a current overview of the housing situation, provision of basic services and major social problems in the Black and Coloured areas. The poor housing conditions, the lack of basic amenities and the high levels of unemployment are problems which cannot be addressed by privately funded agencies. All these factors are important to this study as they combine to form the milieu in which the CSD works.

This is followed in Chapter 5 by a history of the CSD, the resources and services which it offers and the projects it has established. Special attention is paid to its origins and what background, experience and personal qualities the Director brought to this work. The study will focus on community involvement and the problems encountered. The role of the CSD in fundraising, institution building, community planning, training, supervision and administration will be developed and explained.

Chapter 6 describes and evaluates the St Mary's Day Care Centre. The Centre's history, aims and objectives and establishment processes are outlined. Details concerning the children and their family circumstances are given. The management of the Centre and the roles played by church, staff and parents are discussed. The accomplishments and successes of intervention tactics are enumerated. The programme is evaluated and conclusions reached.

In Chapter 7 a number of pre-school initiatives are investigated. Pre-schools with particular problems have been selected for the study, as it is through the solution of problems that true experience is gained. The home based child care programme is described and evaluated, as this particular alternative pre-school model is mushrooming in the urban townships of South Africa. The final initiative investigated is one dealing with the establishment and management of pre-schools on farms. A few other similar programmes in South Africa are presently underway. The particular approach developed by the CSD is described and evaluated. The

CSD as a training resource and umbrella organisation for all its constituent members is also described.

Chapter 8 provides a number of conclusions and recommendations drawn from the researcher's findings, and lists a few proposals for future action and research. Observations related to the CSD as part of the field of social welfare, workers and volunteers in development programmes, community and parental involvement and education, the CSD as an umbrella body, financial controls and management procedures and the role of bursaries, job creation and food in development are included. Three topics for future research assignments are proposed.

The changing political circumstances, the rising expectations and the perceived hopelessness in the poverty stricken townships have undoubtedly made development initiatives far more complicated than they would have been in a stable and predictable environment. Any conclusions reached and recommendations made should be assessed against this background of subjection, violence, poverty and deprivation.

CHAPTER TWO

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

2.1 Research Design

A number of research designs are used in the dissertation. The exploratory, evaluative and descriptive designs have all been employed.

Where much of the material consulted constitutes a collection of data relating to past events the method is historical. Attempts will be made to explain the present and predict future situations on the basis of this past information.

Detailed records of the CSD and all its projects have been kept from their inception until the present. A study of the files, fundraising documents, establishment procedures, minute books, annual reports and correspondence has been made and in each instance, where intervention strategies have been described, a concise history of the project has been presented. A detailed historical record of the CSD has been prepared, tracing its growth and development from 1980 to the present.

When material has been gathered from public documents, files and archival material the record method is employed. Practically all the information used in the community profile of Grahamstown was assembled in this way. Data were collected from municipal offices, census statistics, previous studies and historical documents.

As the work of the CSD and its associated projects has never previously been studied, analysed, researched or evaluated, and as little is known about the processes employed, the exploratory research design was deemed to be the most suitable method. This design is used in conjunction with the descriptive design in those instances where a little more is known of the theoretical base. The main condition for the use of this particular methodology is that the knowledge and research base is imperfect. This particular field of study in the South African context is not well developed and no comprehensive theoretical framework has been advanced for the work. There was thus no question that the exploratory - descriptive design had to be employed.

The events leading to the establishment of the Centre, a range of its projects, the personal development of the Director and her subsequent interaction with a wide cross section of people from the Black and Coloured communities have been described. The processes employed in the raising of millions of rands for community projects, the growth, establishment and maintenance of those projects have been explored and documented.

The aim of these particular research designs is to build a solid foundation of facts, ideas, processes and methodologies in an endeavour to define which existing theories work and which do not. Every effort has been made to be flexible and to use a wide range of methodologies in order to maximise the opportunities for observation and interpretation.

The descriptive research design has also made it possible to investigate certain problems within projects, to describe them, the intervention strategies employed and the outcome. This is an important part of the study as only a small number of projects evolve without unexpected difficulties.

Collins (1987 : 257) states that "the bulk of sociological and social work material in print is mainly descriptive in quality" and that the "principal objective of descriptive research design is to reveal potential relationships between variables". These will be attempted. The design includes both qualitative and quantitative descriptions of the selected phenomena.

In order not to draw distinct lines between the various methodologies let us be reminded by Grinnell and Stothers (1988 : 220) "that the research knowledge level is a continuum" and that "neither the level of knowledge we have prior to the research study nor the level of knowledge we attain through our study can be accurately assigned to discrete sections labelled exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory. Such a division is totally arbitrary".

2.2 Research Methods

The research method employed will be that of programme evaluation. This is an extremely important part of the study as evaluation results can lead to major consequences and changes for the programmes under review.

Programme evaluation or evaluation research has been described as "the systematic study of the operation of social action, treatment or intervention programs and their impact" (Hornick

and Burrows 1988 : 402). It is a collection of skills and methods used to determine the viability of programmes, to ascertain whether they are meeting their aims and objectives and to what extent they are meeting the needs of the communities they serve. The effectiveness and efficiency of the organisations concerned are assessed. The methods employed in this study to evaluate the work of the CSD and a number of its projects will be as follows. All aspects of the projects will be studied from direct participatory observation and also from a close examination of the records. The processes adopted in the establishment, implementation and management of the projects will be evaluated as well as the effectiveness and efficiency of the various programmes in relation to factors such as cost analysis and the use and control of funds, the educational content, nutritional benefits etc. The significance of the project to the community it serves will also be considered. The conclusions reached will be concise, straightforward, realistic and pragmatic. Evaluations dealing with concepts such as self-reliance, dependence-reduction and participation will be attempted. These are far more difficult to assess and measure than the more specific aspects of the programmes.

Formative evaluation in some programmes has been an ongoing exercise. This study will deal largely with summative evaluation which is usually undertaken when the programme is complete or when a particular stage in its development has been reached. According to Tripodi (1983) qualified evaluators may be either inside or outside of a programme or practice. If the evaluation is formative, inside staff are appropriate because they understand the programme fully and in great detail and can enhance feedback and use the evaluation results. It is preferable in the case of summative evaluation that the evaluators are located outside of the project from which distance they will have a greater degree of perspective and objectivity. "Outside evaluators are preferable when the knowledge level sought is cause-effect; while inside evaluators are the better choice to produce data for lower levels of knowledge" (Tripodi 1983 : 140). In this research it will be an insider who is doing the evaluation. While the insider has greater knowledge she may be more subjective. An outsider, on the other hand, may be objective but may not identify with the programme and its objectives and may not be privy to vital information.

2.3 Research Techniques

The two major research techniques which have been used in this study are secondary analysis and participant observation.

When the secondary analysis technique is used, data that have already been collected are assembled and applied. Rubin's definition (1988 : 325) covers the main components. "Secondary analysis is a research method in which we can analyze or reanalyse data collected by others rather than collecting original data ourselves." While the researchers may have participated in the design and the collection of the original data, a prerequisite is that the data collection must pre-date the formulation of the study.

All the programmes and projects which will be researched were initiated and co-ordinated by the researcher. Comprehensive files have been maintained and a high percentage of the original material is available. As the researcher has been responsible for the collection and maintenance of all the material she is able to vouch that it is as reliable as any such material can be and that little is missing. All existing data are however, subject to errors because minutes and reports written by different individuals are bound to reflect their own interpretations and preferences.

The material used has been collected from the comprehensive files described above, census statistics, municipal housing offices, the police department, hospitals and clinics, published material, reports, speeches and a variety of other sources. This material will be processed to refine hypotheses and in turn these will be compared with existing theories. The true and false hypotheses will be used to validate or question the prevailing theories.

The researcher has been an integral factor in the establishment of both the CSD as well as all the projects. She has therefore been a close participant and as such has been able to observe and research the situations in a natural and unthreatening way. The situation in the Centre and in the projects has been neither contrived nor manipulated during the research process and as an involved member of each group she has been privy to much information which would not have been available to an outside observer.

According to Bless and Achola (1988 : 51) participatory research is a new type of research and not much used and not well known. The researcher has been actively involved in identifying and investigating programmes and projects in which she has been intimately involved. Staff and clients have not participated in the research process. The participant observation has been undertaken by the researcher alone.

Certain difficulties and problems were experienced with this research design. In those instances where information had been collected and filed by the CSD few problems were encountered, but in the case of autonomous projects records were found to be haphazard, non-existent and difficult to locate. In some instances no meetings were held for long periods and no complete record of the project was available. Important information could not be located in studies relating to the Makanaskop Creche and the Heidi Nursery School for the duration in which these centres were run and managed independently of the CSD. These records relate to management committee, parent and annual general meetings, correspondence and financial records.

The CSD material also presented problems because it was too detailed. A considerable amount of time had to be expended sorting through the many files and documents to locate information relevant to the research.

In the Kindernothilfe (KNH) sponsored projects, St Mary's Day Care Centre and St Peter Claver's Nursery School, supervisors failed to keep the records requested by the sponsoring agency. At St Mary's, for example, the weight statistics of the children were taken for only three years and the height measurements not at all. The general health records were incomplete and haphazard except for one brief period when regular visits were conducted by the clinic sister. No on-going school academic records were kept nor details concerning the emotional and spiritual development of the children. Where information was required about the home circumstances and the children's families the supervisor provided oral evidence from his intimate knowledge of the children and their homes.

At St Peter Claver's Nursery School none of the above details were available. The staff have not had time for detailed record keeping as they are involved with sixty active and energetic small children for eight continuous hours each day. While the St Mary's children may remain in the Centre for up to twelve years, the average stay of a St Peter Claver's child is eighteen months. This brief period makes a thorough knowledge of the child, through meticulous record keeping and home visits, extremely difficult.

The municipal records were neither as detailed nor as thorough as was hoped for. The information given from year to year often deals with different subjects and topics and is not

sequential. This lack of continuity made it difficult to trace trends. Some particularly important aspects had to be abandoned because no reliable documentation was available.

The major difficulty of the participant observation technique is that it is possible for the researcher to over identify with the group and to lose the ability to be objective. The fact that all the original and historic data concerning the projects was amassed, sorted and filed by the researcher prior to the commencement of the research project is an important factor. The material was not assembled or selectively chosen specifically with the research project in mind. The researcher having had this mass of material at her disposal has made every endeavour to be as objective as possible. It is felt that these positive aspects of inside participant research outweigh the negative connotations of subjectivity.

CHAPTER THREE

THE ROLE OF THE CENTRE FOR SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT IN THE FIELD OF SOCIAL WELFARE

3.1 Introduction

In South Africa social workers have generally emphasised case work to the detriment of community work. To an increasing extent the various kinds of community work, also known as community development, community organisation, social development, social planning and social action are receiving the attention of the social work profession. Because community work can reach more people more efficiently than direct social work practice, it has a greater potential to deal with the many problems facing the country than methods which focus on individual change (*Mitchell 1987 : 106*).

The theoretical framework for this study on the work Of the CSD will be drawn from a wide cross section of contributors to the body of knowledge of social work and social welfare. The contribution made by practitioners in the field of social development will also be considered as it is claimed that this concept and practice is more appropriate than social work or social welfare in meeting the basic needs of people in both developing and developed countries (*Jones and Pandey 1981 : 3*).

As more and more social science professions emerge the problem of defining and separating them becomes more acute. In this survey the contributions of over sixty practitioners and professionals have been assessed and evaluated. These will be compared and contrasted with the framework in which the CSD functions. The body of knowledge and research which has been accumulated from the many successful projects and initiatives is of considerable importance to the research endeavour.

Social welfare as an institution will be described and its various community structures will be considered. These are community work and its branches of social development, community development, social planning, social action and social administration.

It will become clear that the CSD forms part of the social welfare institution and that it functions as a community welfare organisation which uses social planning procedures. Its strength is the result of meticulous administration and organisation practices.

3.2 The Institution of Social Welfare

"In our industrialised, complex, and rapidly changing society, social welfare activities have become one of the most important functions in terms of the money spent, the human misery treated, and the number of people served" (*Zastrow 1986 : 4*).

Social welfare is a social institution. It is the "improving of social functioning and minimizing of suffering through a system of socially approved financial and social services at all levels in the social structure" (*Federico 1980 : 3*). Social welfare focuses on helping people to better use their own resources and does not only deal with situations in which problems exist. A system which is socially approved means that all activities are dependent on the wishes of individuals, groups and organisations. Social welfare services are provided through all structures and levels in society (*Federico 1980 : 3*). Klein defines social welfare as "the administration of certain services to individuals and families who find it difficult or impossible to maintain themselves and their dependents in material solvency and health by their own efforts" (*Klein 1968: 7*). Friedlander calls it "the organised system of social services and institutions, designed to aid individuals and groups to attain satisfying standards of life and health and personal and social relationships which permit them to develop their full capacities and to promote their well-being in harmony with the needs of the family and the community" (*Friedlander 1961 : 4*). "The term social welfare expresses an ambiguous and changing concept. It has both a negative and positive connotation. It may be narrowly defined to mean financial assistance and other services to the disadvantaged. It may on the other hand refer to collective responsibility to meet the universal needs of the population" (*Romanyshyn 1971 : 3*).

According to Zastrow the goal of social welfare is to fulfil the social, financial, health and recreational needs of all the people in a society, whether they be young or old, rich or poor. Social welfare services are needed when all other help fails. Social welfare institutions find homes for the homeless, improves the quality of life of the aged and assists children who are mentally retarded or handicapped. They also aid the poor, provide day care services for the children of working mothers, recreational facilities for all and vocational training for the unemployed (*Zastrow 1986 : 4*).

As an institution social welfare "generally denotes the full range of organised activities of voluntary and governmental agencies that seek to prevent, alleviate or contribute to the solution of recognised social problems, or to improve the well-being of individuals, groups or communities. Such activities use a wide variety of professional personnel such as physicians, nurses, lawyers, educators, engineers, ministers, social workers, and para-professional counterparts of each" (*NASW 1971 : 1446*). Social welfare overlaps with such institutions as the family, education, religion, politics and economics (*Federico 1980 : 6*). Wilensky and Lebeaux (*1965 : 146*) list some of the distinguishing traits of contemporary social welfare. These are formal organisation with social sponsorship and accountability, an absence of a profit motive and an integrated view of human needs.

Minor differences relate to eligibility. Some practitioners believe that social welfare institutions are available to rich and poor alike, others clearly state that the principal targets are special groups in the population who find it difficult "to maintain themselves and their dependants in material solvency" (*Klein 1968 : 7*). According to Turner (*1974 : 19*) the principal targets of social welfare are "special groups in the population whose social situation is problematic: the poor, the handicapped, the dependent, the deprived, the deviant, the disadvantaged, the alienated". Different authors have stressed different characteristics and these combine to give a comprehensive overview. "There is no agreed definition of social welfare. The range of needs, the methods and degree of adequacy with which they are met varies with society and changes with time" (*Romanyshyn 1971 : 33*).

In summary therefore social welfare is an organised institution which seeks to promote the well being of individuals, families and society as a whole. Through the provision of services and financial assistance it assists people in distress or people with special problems to function better and to maintain themselves and their families. Social welfare as the formal organisation for improving the quality of life for the society as a whole has a close and interlinking relationship with the institutions of the family, education, religion, politics and economics; the components which form the backbone of all societies.

Social welfare is expressed and practised through the implementation of programmes which are instituted at the local community level through the method of community work. The programmes of the CSD are in the ambit of social welfare and the CSD is a private sector welfare body located in the social welfare field. The people in distress and unable to cope are

mainly those who have been disadvantaged by the lack of opportunity and poverty. Particular groups such as pre-school children, rural women and children and the aged also qualify for assistance. Romanyshyn's definition most adequately expresses the aims and objectives of the CSD. "Social welfare includes those processes and provisions directly concerned with the treatment and prevention of social problems, the development of human resources and the improvement of the quality of life. It involves social services to individuals and families as well as efforts to strengthen or modify social institutions. Social welfare functions to maintain the social system and to adapt it to a changing social reality" (*Romanyshyn 1971 : 3*).

Certain recommendations and changes have been proposed following an investigation into the present welfare policy of the Republic of South Africa. These include the promotion of the private sector in social welfare services. The Government is seen as having an umbrella responsibility and enabling function but as not necessarily being the primary provider and financier of welfare services. It is recommended that " a balance should be maintained between, on the one hand, development and prevention programmes and, on the other hand, therapeutic and care programmes" (*Department of Constitutional Development and Planning 1985 : 10*). The shift of emphasis is noteworthy. In the past welfare services in South Africa have taken the form of care and remedial services rather than concentrating on the prevention of the development of problems. "One particular component of such broad prevention and development strategy will be community development" (*Department of Constitutional Development and Planning 1985 : 13*). The objectives of this approach are, among others, to obtain greater efficiency and to transfer social welfare services to the local level (*Department of Constitutional Development and Planning 1985 : 68*).

The CSD has been very conscious of the need for a broad development strategy and has endeavoured through its projects to develop a concept of preventative and developmental social welfare which aims to empower people at all levels of society. It is interesting to note that the CSD was emphasising this new approach long before the South African Government was considering a changed emphasis in the delivery of social welfare services. The CSD is meeting a social welfare function at the local community level. While it is directly concerned with the treatment of widespread social problems which are the direct result of the apartheid system and abject poverty, many of its programmes endeavour to develop human resources and to improve the quality of life of all those who are served by its training programmes, educational institutions, and community based facilities.

3.3 Working with Communities

Definitions of the concept of a community include a number of characteristics which relate to physical and geographical boundaries, common interests and provision of functions. Dunham (1970 : 27) defines a community as "an aggregation of families and individuals, settled in a fairly compact and contiguous geographic area, with significant elements of common life, as shown by manners, customs, traditions and modes of speech." Mitchell (1987 : 107) states that for most people a community is a group of people who share a common territory. With advances of communications communities are sometimes seen as groups of people who share categories of disablement. Most people see a community as a group of people in a specific area who share basic economic and social patterns, offer each other mutual support and participate in similar social activities i.e. people within a geographically bounded area, involved in social interaction with one or more psychological ties with each other and the place they live in. The models of community work can be identified as social development, community development, social planning and social action. Each will be considered briefly in order to outline the differences. Much of the existing material is obscure and confusing when no clear lines are drawn between the different models and the terminology is interchanged.

3.3.1 Community Work

Community work is a process of social welfare in which a few individuals, a group or a larger community organisation identify needs and objectives and decide how to meet them through the provision of resources. Dunham (1970 : 4) defines it as "a conscious process of social interaction and a method of social work concerned with any or all of the following: task goals, process goals and relationships goals." Task goals are the meeting of broad needs and bringing about an adjustment between them and the resources available in the community. Process goals enable people to deal with their problems and objectives through strengthening their qualities of participation, co-operation and self-direction. Relationship goals bring out changes in group relationships and the distribution of decision making power.

According to Skidmore and Thackeray (1976 : 198) community organisation has three major components. One is in the field of service where various social welfare agencies come together to work for the needs of the community using their combined resources. The second relates to the actual organisation within the community and the third is a method or process in which problems are solved and reduced and how change occurs.

Dolgoff and Feldstein (1980 : 247) propose the following set of models and combinations for community organisation. The Intergroup model involves co-operative planning with people and organisations from different departments, councils and disciplines. The Enabler model places emphasis on the democratic process and the input and efforts of the community organiser to assist the group to reach its goals. The Advocacy model unites the organisation and the worker with a common agenda and a shared goal for which they join effort. The Planning model stresses the worker's expertise in engineering, designing and helping to solve social problems.

In Britain the emphasis of community work was in meeting social needs through community participation. The Gulbenkian Study Group Report referred to community work as an activity concerning itself with improving and co-ordinating services within and among organisations in local communities, helping local services to be more effective, usable and accessible and bringing about inter-agency co-ordination (*Suparsad 1980 : 3-4*).

According to McNeil (1954 : 121) "community organisation is a process by which people and communities join together to determine social welfare needs and plan ways of meeting them by mobilising the necessary resources." The main concerns are in the fields of health and welfare. No single agency can work alone and must constantly perform its functions in relation to those of others. The basic fundamental assumptions according to Ross and Lappin (1967 :86-93) are that communities can develop the capacities to deal with their own problems, that people want change and can change, that people should participate in making and controlling the major changes in the communities and that changes that are self-imposed have a meaning and permanence as opposed to imposed changes. Other assumptions are that the holistic approach can deal more effectively with problems than a fragmented one, that co-operative participation and skills in the community are necessary and that the community may seek help and assistance in organising to deal and cope with their needs (*Skidmore and Thackeray 1976 : 309*).

Marris and Rein (1972) list seven types of processes to which the label community organisation has been attached. This work was the outcome of anti-poverty programmes in the USA.

- * "Helping communities to adapt to pressures of external forces deriving from new legislation or economic changes affecting the neighbourhood.

- * Assistance in social therapy to combat effects of social disintegration.
- * Leadership training and vocational training for the unemployed.
- * Developing administration in which people's needs are taken into account in planning.
- * Educating people to participate more fully in democratic government.
- * Evolving new types of communities to perform new functions.
- * Creation of new sources of power within the social system to press for reform"
(Suparsad 1980 : 4).

Dunham (1970 : 285 - 286) suggests the following working classification:

- * Planning and related activities:
Fact finding, analysis, evaluation and planning.
- * Group decision making and co-operative action:
Meetings, conferences, committees, negotiation and organisation.
- * Communication:
Education, consultation, public relations, written or oral reports and interviews.
- * Promotion and social action:
Legislative promotion, procedural social action and direct action.
- * Financing:
Funds procurement, fundraising and budgeting.
- * Administration:
Agency administration, organisation of community services and programmes and recording.

3.3.1.1 Social Development

In the United States in the mid-seventies there was a growing discontent amongst social workers concerning the poor results of development programmes in their own country and particularly in third world developing nations. Despite a tremendous surge of interest following the Development Decades of the United Nations, many nations continued to be subservient to others, the rich were getting richer and the poor poorer and the uncontrolled population growth was by no means matched by increased economic production. A new approach was sought and social development emerged from a general criticism of the status quo.

A body termed the Inter-University Consortium for International Social Development (IUCISD) emerged from a number of sessions held by social development workers and educators at a

conference in Puerto Rico in 1976. At those meetings a strong need was expressed for a series of conferences concerned entirely with social development. A mandate was given to IUCISD to assume leadership in organising the initial conference. An international planning committee was established, questionnaires were developed and widely circulated so that further ideas and suggestions could be obtained. An international conference has been held every two years since 1980. According to the IUCISD, social development as a concept and process is more appropriate than social work or social welfare in meeting many of the basic human needs faced by people throughout the world in developed and developing countries.

The close tie between social work and social development has continued to exist, since the IUCISD members all give their addresses as the School of Social Work at their respective universities. Furthermore, the delegates attending conferences are almost exclusively social workers, usually social work educators. The contributors to the journal *"Social Development Issues"* are overwhelmingly social workers.

Wayne Johnson (1986) reaffirms the view that in the United States "social development as an approach to social work emerged out of discontent". The general criticism of the narrow worker-client relationship and the unwieldy growth of the welfare state led to a new development perspective. Social development workers aimed to establish alternative institutions because of their frustrations in endeavouring "to provide services within systems unequipped to attack the roots of social problems" (Wayne Johnson 1986: 426). Social development workers differ from social workers mainly in their endeavours to alter circumstances through the changing of institutions, policies and procedures. While social workers act as advocates and advisers to clients, individuals and families, social development spans the entire range of human need and is based on the core values of participation, respect for human dignity, global awareness, collective action and access to equal opportunity. Wayne Johnson's view is that social development "requires an interdisciplinary international perspective" (Wayne Johnson 1986 : 428). "Social development also implies more than a collection of projects or single-problem focused activities. These may be vital starting points to show people that they have the power to create changes in their lives, but they are not enough as the roots of poverty and underdevelopment can be found deeply embedded in institutional elitism" (Wayne Johnson 1986 : 432).

Social development would seem therefore to be an outgrowth of social work which enables people to help themselves by establishing alternative institutions. Its goals are to provide the conditions in which people can change and improve their lives through collective action, economic redistribution and equal access to opportunity.

Theoretical models developed by the following theorists are summarised. Gore (1973), Schumacher (1974), Paiva (1977), Gil (1981), Singh (1981), Pandey (1981) and Wayne Johnson (1986).

Gore (1973) defines social development as "economic growth with social justice." His theory is based on Asian models in which the post independence problems of developing countries are described. These include the penetration of modernisation, the out-migration from rural areas, the non-deliverance of electoral promises, the great inequalities of wealth, the caste system, the low levels of education and inadequate housing. In the whole of India 90% of the population do not benefit from social security provision. Gore proposes a top-down development strategy with an integrated approach so that the whole of society will benefit from economic, political, social and cultural changes. Value perceptions will have to change prior to the introduction of social development programmes. Population control projects are to be run in conjunction with better health services, child care and job creation programmes. He advocates universal literacy, a broadening of the education base, a change in the caste system, the removal of religious bigotry and privilege for the few, political and civil rights, freedom of movement, equality, freedom from discrimination and exploitation, the right to social security and adequate standards of living and opportunity for all. Some of his comments on urbanisation in India are applicable to Grahamstown. The lack of jobs in the rural areas causes a flood of people into the cities seeking employment. Migrants come from the lowest levels of society and tend to recreate their villages in the urban environment. The city services (water, electricity, sewerage and transport) are strained to breaking point. He proposes that villages should be made more attractive, that the poor should not be alienated from the cities. The bottom line in social development is an egalitarian system in which economic growth and social change will result in a better quality of life for all.

Schumacher (1974) notes that the development in deprived communities is a far harder task than imagined, the major problems being mass unemployment and mass migration to cities, An unhealthy and disruptive tendency in all developing countries is the dual economy, the

separate worlds of the rich and poor and the associated social and political tensions. Schumacher believes that development does not start with goods, it starts with people, their education, organisation and discipline. Development cannot come about rapidly, it must evolve slowly and can only be sustained by an existing educated core of fairly broad groups of people. People and not resources are the primary and ultimate source of wealth. He criticises complicated means of production which people cannot handle and proposes an uncomplicated intermediate and appropriate technology with a human face. He favours local control as opposed to centralised initiatives. He believes in small manageable projects where people can participate fully and stresses the importance of grassroots programmes as opposed to those that are imposed. He stresses people's ability to define and solve their own problems.

Paiva (1977) views social development as a national concept. The goal of social development is the welfare of the people as determined by the people and the creation or alteration of institutions to meet human needs at all levels. The pre-requisites are national and political since the government must be ideologically committed to the development concept. A unified approach which will bring together social and economic institutions and social justice is necessary. The redistribution of power, equality of opportunity and social mobility are part and parcel of the ideology. Social development has two inter-related dimensions, the development of the capacity of people so that they will work for their own welfare and that of others and the development of institutions to meet human needs, particularly those of the most needy.

Gil (1981) believes strongly that as all humans are equal no one human should dominate or control another. He defines social development as the overall quality of life of an entire society. Policies for social development should preclude greedy exploitative needs and all forms of waste, they should be conducive to effective organisation and the division of labour should be co-operative rather than competitive. The total amount of labour should be shared equally by all and production should be directed by the workers. Everything should be collectively owned and the production of essential goods should receive priority. Industries should be cited in rural areas, with full employment being a priority and all profits being equally shared. There should be a universal franchise in a democratic society which has small self-governing groups. Leaders should be faithful to the will of the people.

Singh (1981) acknowledges existing diversity in income, social services, education, natural resources and the fact that the lack of skills, underemployment and low levels of productivity

are obstacles to economic development. The provision of work opportunities is fundamental for development and long term goals are more important than short. The components for a unified approach to development are an equitable distribution of income and wealth and wages, provision for equal opportunities, full welfare and social security services and measures to accelerate the development of the poor. A sharp break from traditional values and social stratification is advocated so that essentially equal communities will evolve. This model depends on a particular ideology and government and legislative intervention.

Pandey (1981) lists the goals of social development as an improvement in the quality of life of the people, promotion of economic development through human development, equitable distribution of income and special measures for the upliftment of marginal groups. Both power and wealth would need to be redistributed, there would be a mass sharing of income and benefits and mass involvement in decision making. The government must be of and by the masses. In order to foster human development social services for education, health and housing need to be provided. Peripheral communities should be brought into the mainstream through an integrative approach. Regional and cultural differences should be reduced or eliminated. This model can only be implemented through government intervention in an ideologically harmonious state.

Jones (1981) believes that the ultimate goal of social development is a higher standard of living for an entire population. Wealth should be more equitably distributed, social justice improved and employment, health, housing and nutrition actively promoted. He defines social development as "the process of planned institutional change to bring about a better correspondence between human needs and social policies and programs" (Jones 1981 : 3). Population growth is to be controlled through national population policies. All these proposals are to be implemented through government intervention and national commitment.

Hooyman (1981) concentrates on strategies for citizen participation and factors which discourage participation. The poor lack resources, knowledge, perspectives and experience to contribute meaningfully to public decisions. They also do not have a clear vision of goals. Generally grassroots people want grassroots projects in preference to bigger regional ones. It is often felt that citizen participation delays project implementation and causes inter-class and inter-racial conflict. It is also often felt that the planners best know what is good for people. It must be accepted that family and occupational obligations are more important to poor people

than community affairs and that participation will mean time away from family, friends and work. Most poor people do not attend meetings and express themselves in public. When people are pre-occupied with survival they are unlikely to be interested in community affairs. Deprived people often have feelings of inadequacy and resignation. They feel threatened by those who are better educated and more affluent. There are ways in which citizens and experts can work together on programmes to meet grassroots needs. Citizens should be able to exercise influence over decisions which affect them and their communities, societal goals and allocation of resources. Organisers who are serious about citizen participation should hold meetings at convenient times, adopt strategies to improve people's sense of community and develop local leadership. Community development skills are paramount so that citizens can be meaningfully included in programmes where their local experience and knowledge can be put to good use.

3.3.1.2 Community Development

It would seem that the concept of community development derives from the Gandhian tradition of village self-help where it was felt that there was no point waiting for the solutions to local problems to come from the state. If the needs of the community were to be met at all, the community itself should organise its resources to provide the necessary services (*Wood 1989 : 2*). The term 'community development' was first adopted at a conference in Cambridge, England in 1948. At this meeting it was defined "as one single programme of approaches and techniques which rely upon local communities as units of action which attempt to combine outside assistance with organised local self-determination and effort, and which correspondingly seek to stimulate local initiative and leadership as the primary instruments of change" (*Ferrinho 1980 : 39*).

Community development is not only a confusing term, it is also a controversial concept. This is particularly true in South Africa where the government has a department of Community Development which is authoritarian and has objectives about which the communities concerned have not been consulted. The terms 'community' and 'development' are used frequently and loosely and workers of all kinds, including church organisers call themselves community development workers.

The following definitions endeavour to make it clear what community development is and what it is not. According to Sanders (*1966 : 520 - 521*) it is the planned efforts of people to improve

the conditions in their communities along with their inherent capacity for involvement, self direction and participation in community affairs. Dunham (1970 : 171) states that the voluntary efforts of the people are combined with those of the government to upgrade communities. Associated with community development are concepts such as felt needs, self-help, local initiative and citizen participation. According to Suparsad (1980 : 5) community development is a process which disturbs systems through the changing and re-organizing of structures through grassroots endeavours. Community development presupposes that development can only occur with the fullest possible reliance on the community's initiative (Cox et al 1974 : 5).

The goal of community development for Dunham is that it should be universally possible for everyone to achieve what he calls the "minimum essentials of the good life" (Dunham 1970 : 172). The life of the total community is what is important, not a specialised aspect or problem. Technical assistance from government sources and voluntary organisations may be provided. The process may extend over a considerable time period, the final goal being the ultimate control by the people. Consensus is the accepted form of decision making and any member of the community may participate directly (Dunham 1970 : 174). Ferrinho believes that "the basic principles of community development are human solidarity, social equity, respect of the human being for himself and continuing activism" (Ferrinho 1980 : 50). These principles are clearly not abstract deals, they are part of a political ideology which aims at "social revindication" (Ferrinho 1980 : 51).

Community development has been defined as a programme, a movement, a method and a process. As a programme it deals with a complex unit, the total geographic community, in utilising a flexible dynamic approach adapted to local circumstances. A community development programme generally calls for a national ministry of community development, training programmes for all levels of staff, co-ordination of all government departments serving communities, and strong financial backing and technical assistance to backstop community self-help efforts. This implies government commitment to the promotion of a community development programme. Fitzgerald (1980 : 39) believes that "the crucial issue in South Africa revolves round whether it is possible to initiate community development in a country which denies democratic rights to the majority of its citizens." She quotes Cary (1976) as saying that most proponents of community development are generally idealistic young people who wish to change the world and who have become emotionally charged with a "crusade dedicated to progress as a philosophical and not a scientific concept" (Fitzgerald 1980 : 40).

Community development has eleven basic processes (*Youngusband 1958 : 83 - 92 in Dunham 1970 : 151 - 152*):

- * Knowing the community.
- * Knowledge of the community.
- * Identifying local leaders.
- * Learning community problems.
- * Discussing community problems.
- * Helping people to identify their most pressing needs.
- * Fostering self-confidence.
- * Deciding on a programme of action.
- * Looking at strengths and weaknesses.
- * Helping people to solve their problems.
- * Increasing ability for self help.

Wileden regards "community development as a process through which the community analyses the situation, determines its needs, and makes decisions about aims so that it finally acts to attain the agreed goals" (*in Ferrinho 1980 : 39*). The method reflects concern for both the means and the end. It seeks to involve people in their own development and the betterment of their own lives and their communities. People are likely to respond best when they themselves are working to ameliorate their own problems.

Dunham (1970 : 171-2) proposes that community development has five basic assumptions:

- * The worth and dignity of the individual and basic values in a democratic society.
- * Everyone has something to contribute to the community.
- * People have the ability to learn and grow.
- * Community change can be promoted by co-operative action.
- * Community development reveals the worth of individuals.

Workers in this field would require special training, as in community development it is not the worker who is in charge, but the people themselves. The worker would have to have the ability of getting on with the local people, of working with them and not for them, of being in close sympathy with their hopes and aspirations and of understanding their way of life, their culture and traditions.

3.3.1.3 Social Planning

This section deals with the planning, implementing and evaluating of community projects. Very often no clear lines are drawn between these three concepts as they tend to overlap and are interdependent. The planning process normally involves three stages. The pre-planning stage which considers why the planning is being done, whether all the view points have been considered, who will do the planning and whether funding is available. The planning phase follows in which the problem is assessed and clarified, aims and objectives set, alternative schemes considered and strategies agreed on. The impact of the process should be considered prior to, during and after implementation. This is done through ongoing monitoring and evaluation.

Most definitions of social planning are somewhat similar but different aspects are emphasised. According to Spergel social planning as a concept can be used interchangeably with either policy development or analysis. It could be a set of tasks which involve community organisation and administration. "The planner's key contribution is the formulation or definition of the planning task" (*Spergel 1977 : 225*). Trecker (*1971 : 143*) states quite simply that "a good plan indicates what is to be accomplished, who is responsible, what are the resource requirements and what are the methods of evaluation and review". Skidmore (*1983 : 45*) emphasises that "planning is the process of anticipating goals and targets and then preparing a plan for reaching them".

In many instances social planning is undertaken by the state and in these instances it can have large scale and far reaching effects. According to Mitchell (*1987 : 122*) social planning by the state in South Africa has been widely practised. Much has been achieved especially by voluntary organisations which have received state subsidies i.e. housing projects and institutions for the aged, mentally and physically disabled. Despite this the local needs in communities continue to be great and planning bodies do not have the resources to meet them. Spergel argues that "the idea of social planning has also been associated with large scale institutional change or development at community, national and international levels. In this sense social planning may be viewed as a major source of social change rather than a response to it" (*Spergel 1977 : 226*). Kahn's (*1969*) view is that "planning probably achieves more when it focuses on particular programmes than when it deals with changing institutions" (*in Gilbert and Specht 1977 : 1*).

Planning may thus occur at both societal and local levels. Lauffer concurs with Kahn by stating that local planning will best succeed when it is programmatic rather than structural and focuses on local rather than national issues. He adds that many social planners have been willing to take considerable risks at the local level and have succeeded in their endeavours. They have however been unable to influence the larger social system to any great extent. He defines social planning as "a systematic effort and ordered method of problem solving" (*Lauffer 1978 : 1- 2*). Planning is seen as an analytic approach that requires the performance of interactional tasks systematically related to each other. "It is an ordered process because it requires the performance of a number of activities which occur in logical sequence" (*Lauffer 1978 : 71*). He views planning as the process that brings about a balance between the needs and the resources and states that all social agencies are dependent on outside resources for their essential requirements, whether they be financial, human or managerial.

According to Skidmore (*1983 : 44*) social planning has four major components, efficiency, effectiveness, accountability and morale. A programme is efficient if it achieves its objectives with minimum cost and effort and effective if it meets the desired need. Accountability is necessary to control and justify the programme, and morale is derived from participation and achievement.

No planning can be attempted without a great deal of preparatory work which includes research and background information about the proposal and a careful analysis of the needs of the people. "The views of the people must be sought. Planning choice must reflect their wants, interest and commitments" (*Lauffer 1978 : 77*). The whole question of needs assessment can be problematic as needs can be personal or public, passing or enduring. Very often people cannot articulate what they want. Needs also vary from place to place and what is acceptable in one geographic area may be unacceptable in another. Sometimes people are embarrassed to talk about needs and "where needs are unpleasant people deny their existence" (*Federico 1980 : 33*). The different values held by people can also affect a consensus about needs. "There is some validity to the argument that professional standards reflect middle class values that are not always consistent with the needs, views and life styles of poor people" (*Gilbert et al 1980 : 259*). Sometimes needs are decided by using the comparative ranking method but this is not foolproof as "the best ranking may fall well below the normal standards of adequacy" (*Gilbert et al 1980 : 261*).

Planners have a number of major tasks and planning tools in common. These are outlined by Tropman (1977 : 105-6) and are summarised in Table 1. The four main tasks of goal determination, programme development, programme implementation and programme evaluation are listed. Under each heading the major activities of each task are given. In the column alongside the tools required for each task are stated. The entire social planning method is thus clearly and succinctly outlined.

Table 1
Tasks and Tools of the Social Planner

Tasks	Tools
<u>Goal Determination</u> Assessment of needs and resources Analysis of problems and programs Social forecasting Determination of priorities Ideological assessments	Research methods and techniques Collection of data and information Needs assessment Studies of geographical area Citizen involvement: meetings and forums
<u>Programme Development</u> Administrative arrangements Programme elements Staffing patterns Cost estimates Methods of financing	Community organisation and conflict resolution Knowledge of community resources Committee management Budget and cost analysis Methods and techniques of memo and report preparation and presentation
<u>Programme Implementation</u> Developing public policy Securing official support Securing funding Proposal writing Strategy development	Interpretation and promotion Mediation and advocacy Accounting and financial reporting Memo and report presentation Committee management
<u>Programme Evaluation</u> Systems for public accountability Monitoring program operations Assessment of programs Preparation and distribution of information Communication with funders and supporters	Accounting and financial reporting Studies on efficiency, effort, progress and performance User and constituency reaction Measurement of objectives Memo and report presentation

Eight aspects of planning arising from this overview which deserve further attention are:

- * Community participation.
- * Staffing and staff organisation.
- * Committee structures and organisations.
- * Financial management and control.
- * Maintenance of organisations.
- * Evaluation and assessment.
- * Proposal preparation and writing.
- * Ideal characteristics of the social planner.

(i) Community Participation

All practitioners state that no programme can be successful without good or adequate community participation. This however is not always the case. Cox et al (1974 : 264) cite numerous poverty programmes where the involvement of the community hardly existed. This non-participation is a common problem in areas where people for one reason or another are weighed down and apathetic as a result of the hopelessness of their situations. Ross and Lappin (1967 : 208) propose that in circumstances like these the worker should take the initiative and stimulate a sense of discontent, tension and instability. Shock tactics like this may often be the only way to enable the people to overcome their feelings of hopelessness and despair. In other words, people who accept their circumstances passively should be mobilised into action by stirring discontent.

Participation should, of course, be encouraged in other ways such as the provision of resources, support, advice and reassurance, and the teaching of relevant skills. When inaugurating programmes workers are often tempted to by-pass the recognised channels of communication, especially when swift action is necessary. This must be avoided (Cox et al 1974 : 265). Small informal executive structures may be established for this purpose but the community must be included and not bypassed.

Programmes that are concrete, specific and relate to the immediate needs of the people will enhance participation, while programmes that are long term, relate to public policy and have no immediate benefits will soon lose the interest and support of people.

(ii) Staffing and Staff Organisation

The efficiency and effectiveness of an agency relates directly to the staff. "The aim of recruitment is to employ staff members who are competent and also have the ability to get along well with clients and other members of staff no matter how competent people are, if they cannot get along with the administration and others on the staff they will not add to an agency" (Skidmore 1983 : 200). An incompetent worker can weaken the team and cause difficulties. According to Skidmore staff members should be loyal to the agency. They should also have an ability to get along with others. "Competence, caring and commitment are essential if a worker is to be effective" (Skidmore 1983 : 203). A willingness to use his or her time and talents for the benefit of the agency is also important, even if it requires overtime work.

(iii) Committee Structures and Organisation

Skidmore (1983 : 115 - 121) has some useful comments about committees and committee structures. As practically all administration processes at the community level and elsewhere are implemented through the committee process, a good working knowledge of committees is vital for administrative success. The effective operation of a committee is essential for good service delivery. Committee structures in management have decided pros and cons. While the committee process can be slow and susceptible to manipulation it can without doubt strengthen or weaken organisations. Having too many members on a committee is usually undesirable. Smaller committees of three to five persons work more efficiently and attendance is usually better. The size and composition is, however, of great importance. The group must be large enough to allow for adequate representation but small enough to work well. The composition should ideally be related to the functions performed, and members should be dedicated to the objectives of the organisation. On the practical side Skidmore advises that suitable times and venues be selected, that meetings have a starting and finishing time and that no meeting should last for more than two hours. The agenda should be carefully constructed so that the most important matters come first, and committee members having received their agenda's in good time should come to meetings prepared for both discussion and decision making.

According to Tropman "committee operation is not a simple process.....a committee is a complex organisation involving the orchestration of three key elements (the chairman, the members, the staff) and the adequate handling of committee dynamics and committee mechanics" (Tropman 1977 : 107). He proposes that certain guidelines and principles be followed for effective committee handling:

- * Be focused - have clarity of purpose and task.
- * Be selective - choose the chairman and members with great care.
- * Be prepared - considerable planning must be undertaken before each meeting by the key participants.
- * Be involved - all members of the committee must be involved in the project and committed to it.
- * Be a leader - the chairman should be a natural charismatic leader and not a manipulator.
- * Be communicative - keep all the members well informed of progress.

- * Be dynamic - there must be a sense of movement, progress and excitement for committee work to be meaningful (*Tropman 1977 : 108*).

(iv) Financial Management and Control

Financial management and control is without doubt one of the most important aspects of social planning. No well managed social programme can exist without a stringent and concurrent programme of fiscal control. Some authors limit the definition of financial management to the techniques of managing and controlling money such as recording financial information, meeting external requirements for financial reporting and safeguarding assets. Others limit financial control to the effectiveness and efficiency of achieving all aims and objectives (*Elkin 1987 : 618*). The most comprehensive definition states that "in the human services, financial management has generally to do with the control and planned use of money and other scarce resources in a manner designed to further organisational goals, and be consistent with the law, professional ethics and community standards" (*Lohmann 1980 : 7*).

"The public is extremely sensitive about the handling of public funds and quick to presume that faulty accounting is uncontested evidence of general administrative incompetence. In the area of grant funds, preoccupation with fiscal control has intensified in recent years. Too many social programs have fallen into disrepute because of apparent administrative indifference to competent fiscal accounting" (*Lawrence and Klein 1977 : 299*).

Financial management and basic fiscal processes are defined as follows:

- * Fundraising and resource development.
- * Allocating resources and budgeting.
- * Recording and receipting transactions.
- * Controlling, managing and auditing.
- * Reporting and interpreting (*Elkin 1987 : 619 - 626*) and (*Lawrence and Klein 1977 : 299 - 307*)

Fundraising and resource development is necessary because without money there will be no services. Specific skills are needed. These will depend on whether the fundraiser plans to contact the prospective donors personally or send well-motivated appeals. Allocating resources and budgeting can be undertaken once the income is known. A budget matches the resources with the needs. It is an estimate of how income will be distributed in a set period of time.

Recording and receipting functions involve the day to day accounting and control of continuously updated and accurate records. All transactions have to be recorded. Petty cash has to be carefully controlled, all vouchers collated and cash floats safely stored. Controlling, managing and auditing the financial resources are integral parts of the financial process. The budget is the major criterion against which the actual income and expenditure is monitored. Finances should be controlled on a daily (petty cash), monthly (income and expenditure statements) and annual (external audit) basis. When variances are noted corrective action is called for. Audits may be done at regular intervals to examine the fiscal records and to determine whether irregularities in the handling of funds have occurred. Annual reports and formally audited annual statements are to be prepared and sent to funders. "Because of the pressures on them to be accountable, the resource providers require social welfare agencies to report on both financial and non-financial aspects of their service delivery operations" (*Elkin 1987 : 625*).

(v) Maintenance of Organisations

Another vital administrative task is that of maintaining organisations after their establishment. Community groups are fragile and a major task of the agency is to ensure that they are supported and strengthened. "In many respects it is the skill of the community worker in determining the success of the community project. It is often the qualities of the worker's relationships and strength of his own commitment that contribute to the maintenance of the organisation" (*Henderson and Thomas 1987 : 229*). The provision of resources, assistance in servicing (secretarial, typing, duplicating, fundraising, transport provision and record keeping), information provision and ongoing support are necessary and important.

(vi) Evaluation and Assessment

Evaluation while being the last mentioned activity in the social planning process can and should be embarked upon on an ongoing basis as the programme is developing rather than be left until the end of the exercise. The reason for evaluation is to seek and assess a programme's success in relation to its aims and objectives, its efficiency and effectiveness. According to Moroney two questions have to be asked. "What happened as the result of the intervention that would not have happened in its absence? What program strategies work best under what conditions with what population?" (*Moroney 1987 : 600*).

Many workers in agencies perceive programme evaluations as threatening to themselves personally, their work, their agencies and the entire social welfare field. This is a very real problem. Another difficulty is that it is often inadvisable to embark on the evaluation process too soon. Many programmes need first to establish themselves. The classical experimental design with its now familiar control group is being less used today in favour of the new quasi-experimental designs which "include the use of comparison groups, cohort analysis, and time series designs" (*Moroney 1987 : 601*).

(vii) Proposal Preparation and Writing

Proposal preparation and writing has become an increasingly important aspect of social planning particularly as the availability of resources declines. State funds are not as plentiful as they were, cutbacks have been implemented and the private sector is being besieged with more and more requests which have to be funded in the face of the constantly declining value of money.

McKendrick (*1985 : 157 - 172*) has provided a detailed presentation of the ideal procedures involved in proposal writing and the presentation of documentation for prospective donors. His suggestions have been summarised and collated in Table 2. Eleven major processes are listed along with the detailed requirements of each. These proposals have been used and adapted where necessary for all CSD motivations for fundraising. They have received commendation and the benefits have been considerable.

Table 2
Major Components for Proposal Presentation
 from McKendrick (1985 : 157 - 172)

1. Identifying details	Name, address, fundraising number and field of service
2. Statement of programme/need	Not more than five lines of what is needed and proposed
3. Community profile	Short description of the community to be served by programme
4. Nature of problem/need	Brief description of the parameters of the proposal
5. Suitability of Welfare Organisation to provide programme	What commitments the Welfare Organisation has and what resources are available
6. Programme's aims and objectives	Aims and objectives, to which population and why and some details of programme delivery
7. Details of the organisation providing programme	How it functions, names and details of committee members and other projects undertaken
8. Work methods and procedures	How will the programme function, activity rosters, timetables, procedures etc
9. Personnel	How many people will be employed, their qualifications, proposed remuneration, duties and working hours.
10. Finances	Cost of project, proposed budgets, how will funds be managed and controlled and who will take final responsibility
11. Evaluation	How will this be done, when, on what basis and when will details be available

(viii) Characteristics of the Social Planner

Clearly the planner is a important ingredient in the whole social planning process. Most practitioners presume that every agency has a full time planner on its staff. This is not always the case. Certain characteristics are necessary for whoever does the work. The basic pre-requisites are that "to be effective the worker must have knowledge of the community and its organisation, skills in fundraising, decision making, community awareness and lobbying" (*Zastrow 1985 : 213*). The worker must be able to get along with the local people and be in sympathy with their hopes and needs. He must be genuinely desirous of helping them and be able to offer them support, encouragement, advice and reassurance. He should have an optimistic and warm personality. "The most effective planners are, however, hard nosed pragmatists" (*Lauffer 1978 : 34*). Planners are criticised for settling for what is feasible rather than what is optimal. The social planner is also often caught between the desire to promote change and the dependency on external financing.

Planners must also have a good understanding of planning, programming and budgeting and it would be helpful for them to have a working knowledge of Programme Evaluation Review Technique (PERT) and Management by Objectives (MBO). Finally planners should be capable

of organising and stimulating both agency and public interest and be capable of lobbying and soliciting financial and political support (*Spergel 1977 : 226*).

Voluntary helpers and ordinary citizens can be extremely valuable in social planning activities, especially in times of increasingly scarce resources. They can be involved in direct services, administration and policy making (*Lauffer 1978 : 262*). Volunteers can also serve on advisory boards, advocacy groups and project committees.

Suparsad (*1980 : 6*) sounds a word of warning when he says that planners must guard constantly against working for people rather than with them. Individual planning agencies, the state, provincial and local authorities in a country like South Africa, where the majority of the people have no access to political power, have a tremendous responsibility to involve the local communities in the planning process.

3.3.1.4 Social Action

"The term 'social action' has come to be widely used in a specialized sense in relation to social welfare and the advancement of social causes. In general, it implies an actual or potential conflict situation, and the promotion of a cause or objective by a party to the conflict" (*Dunham 1970 : 248*). Social action may also be defined as "public promotion of a cause, measure, or objective in an effort to obtain support or official action. Ordinarily social action involves organised efforts to influence public opinion or official policy or executive action through enlistment of the support of groups or individuals" (*Dunham 1970 : 248*).

Another viewpoint is that social action "presupposes a disadvantaged segment of the population that needs to be organised, perhaps in alliance with others, to make adequate demands on the larger community for increased resources or treatment in accordance with social justice or democracy. Its practitioners aim at basic changes in major institutions or community practices. They seek redistribution of power, resources or decision making in the community or changes in basic policies of formal organisations" (*Skidmore and Thackeray 1976 : 311*). This is achieved through racial and ethnic militant groups, the student movement, women's liberation movement etc. "Social action is therefore the organised effort made to bring about a change in social policy or to create, eliminate or modify a particular aspect of a social institution. Social action is concerned with change and the nature of the change is to seek the redistribution of power or economic resources. Use is made of conflict strategies and

accompanying disruptive tactics such as boycotts, public protests and variations of these actions which can accomplish a favourable outcome. Tactics of this nature are referred to as "direct action" (*Mitchell 1987 : 123*).

Political action and social action are often seen as one and the same thing. The change sought by social activists is usually aimed at some specific legislation, a government department or local authority. Social action can take two different forms. Procedural action, which is conducted through formal channels, and direct action, which normally involves some kind of protest action and is often militant in nature.

Dunham has analysed both these methods. The distinguishing aspects of social action are:

- * In social action there is always a proposal for change and resistance to it.
- * The goal of social action is considered desirable by the activists.
- * Every case of social action involves an endeavour to convert or pressure a person or group of people.
- * There is no physical persuasion or coercion in social action, the methods adopted are education, propaganda or pressure.
- * The aims of social action may be legal or illegal. They normally have the objective of changing existing legislation (*Dunham 1970 : 249 - 251*).

Characteristics of direct action are as follows:

- * There is usually a reasonably high level of personal involvement, commitment and dedication.
- * Direct action is normally planned to dramatise the aims of the cause or struggle.
- * Very often the action results in the recognised strategies of confrontation and conflict.
- * The actionists are often militant and the tactics employed are tolerated but not altogether socially acceptable (*Dunham 1970 : 263*).

Direct action may take the form of demonstrations (marches, picketing, vigiling), non-cooperation actions (strikes, boycotts, tax refusal) and intervention strategies (sit-ins, fasts and obstructionist tactics (*Dunham 1970 : 265*)). Increasingly social action is being viewed as a major strategy for change and much has been accomplished from these tactics in South Africa in recent times. The skills required by a social worker for involvement in this type of activity

would include an ability to recruit and organise personnel, fundraising and communication competence and a knowledge of local authority regulations.

3.3.2 Administration and Management

Modern social work and social welfare practice emphasises the significant role of administration and management in the delivery of effective social services. These techniques are not unique to the social sciences and have much in common with public and business administration procedures. Social administration endeavours to integrate the basic management principles with a humanising of relationships, with special emphasis being placed on the needs of the client.

Social work administration has numerous definitions. Skidmore (1983 : 14) calls it "the process of transforming social practices into social services. It is a field and a method, both of which have come into prominence in the last few decades." Spencer (1961 : 32) refers to it as "the conscious intervention between the agency and the larger community". Administration is an ongoing and dynamic process as described by Trecker (1971 : 24 - 25) and " a process of working with people in ways that release and relate their energies so that they use all the available resources to accomplish the purpose of providing needed community services and programs." Stein (1970 : 7) states that administration is " a process of defining and attaining the objectives of an organisation through a system of co-ordinated and co-operative effort". Spergel (1977 : 227) believes that "ideally we should define social welfare administration as a process of efficient and effective implementation of social policy and plans within a framework of community values and support." Sarri states that "there is a substantial consensus for a broad definition of administration in social welfare. Within a single organisation, administration is the sum of all the processes involved in:

- * Formulation of policy and its translation into operative goals.
- * Program design and implementation.
- * Funding and resource application.
- * Management of internal and inter-organisational operations.
- * Personnel direction and supervision.
- * Organisational representation and public relations.
- * Community education.
- * Monitoring, evaluation and innovation to improve organisational productivity" (Sarri 1987 : 29).

According to Smit "to distinguish between the concepts of 'management' and 'administration' is, however, not that easy. Administration is the older of the two concepts and has traditionally been associated with the public sector (public administration). Management, a more recent concept, is associated more with the private sector" (*Smit 1987 : 289*). For the purpose of this discussion the two concepts will be treated as one and the same thing.

"Administrative functions are performed through a series of interactive activities that include:

- * Setting and ordering goals.
- * Planning the means for goal attainment including the acquisition of material and non-material resources.
- * Controlling and co-ordinating the performance of organisational members.
- * Negotiating and problem solving.
- * Developing and motivating staff.
- * Communicating and managing information.
- * Monitoring the quality and quantity of services delivered to clients.
- * Assessing future needs of the organisation.
- * Representing the organisations in the external environment" (*Sarri 1987 : 33*).

Administrative procedures normally relate to agencies providing one or a limited number of specialized services. In order that these services be adequately delivered a full back-up system of administrative services is necessary i.e. employment and personnel records, methods of transmitting inter-departmental policies and instructions, filing, bookkeeping, the purchasing of current supplies and a telephone service (*Dunham 1970 : 340*).

One of the most important tasks in social welfare administration and management today is to develop quality leaders who can be responsible for dynamic direction in the field, well suited to their work and able to carry out policy and plans effectively and efficiently. A service delivery can be no better than those administering and managing it. Skidmore (*1983 : 29*) states categorically that "the leader of the team is without doubt the major contributing factor to the success or failure of the agency." Schottland (*1976*) emphasises the point. "The administration of these programmes is complicated and important and the training of persons in the art and skill of administration, specifically geared in the administration of human services is an extremely important and significant contribution" (*Schottland 1976 : xi*). Finally "leadership is

a process through which a leader provides directives, influences and motivates individuals in a non-coercive manner to achieve community held goals" (*Smit 1987 : 299*).

Spergel describes the three overlapping and interacting levels of administrative function - executive, managerial and technical. At the executive level the administrator needs to translate and implement certain social and community mandates. At the managerial level major activities are mediation with consumers directed towards the procurement of services, design, co-ordination, recruitment of staff, their training and supervision. At the technical level consultation, teaching, evaluating and monitoring occurs. "Each role interacts with or overlaps another in such fashion" (*Spergel 1977 : 228*).

Leadership can take many forms. The two most common types are participative or democratic and directive or autocratic, each of which has distinct advantages and disadvantages. The participative style makes use of many skills and encourages open communication but it is very time consuming and often results in compromise and diffused responsibility. The directive style with its centralised control is more authoritarian but can be inflexible and cause hostility and alienation (*Skidmore 1983 : 135*).

The following skills and attributes appear to be major components required by good administrators and dynamic leaders to deal with the creation, growth and change of social welfare programmes. The list that follows is a collation of qualities from numerous sources including Skidmore (*1983 : 30*), Smit (*1987 : 301*), Spergel (*1977 : 228 - 230*) and Middlemist and Hitt (*1981 : 349*).

- * To have a basic knowledge of the dynamics of human behaviour and community resources.
- * To understand management principles, processes and techniques.
- * To have a working knowledge of financial management and budget preparation.
- * To possess the ability to think ahead and plan realistically.
- * To have self-confidence, dynamism, initiative and creativity.
- * To have the ability to analyse problems and make decisions.
- * To be able to handle multiple tasks and roles simultaneously.
- * To be sensitive, flexible and have sound judgement.
- * To use and delegate authority constructively.
- * To communicate effectively, to be charismatic and extrovert.

- * To be organised and able to manage oneself and others.
- * To have perseverance and the ability to stick to a course of action.
- * To possess a working knowledge of evaluation techniques.
- * To be able to handle conflict situations and work towards consensus.

3.4 The CSD as Part of the Field of Social Welfare

This literature review has been very helpful in providing insight into the ways in which the basic interventions are applied and to what affect. It has also provided the framework in which to relate the research problem to existing theory, to enable observations to be linked to generalisations and to suggest new hypotheses. Many assumptions are made in this study based on personal and professional values as well as the results of reading and discussion. These are presented in the form of ideas, concepts, variables and definitions, all of which have been derived from existing relevant theory.

In the following discussion the strengths and weaknesses of social development, community development, social planning and social action will be assessed. Those methods most appropriate to the CSD and its projects will be abstracted. The value of the various models in community work practice for meeting needs and developing resources will be stressed. In order to maintain adequate standards of administration, financial control and management in both social welfare programmes and community work practice, specific proposals will be considered.

3.4.1 Social Development

The perspectives on social development are rooted in ideology. The two ideologies of Socialism and Capitalism have dominated the debate in the literature for a considerable time. The basic underpinnings of social development are egalitarianism and an equal distribution of wealth. These concepts, particularly in the light of recent events in Eastern Europe, are no longer valid and they never were readily applicable to the South African situation.

Social development is the planned change which brings about acceptable institutions, social policies, programmes and procedures. Much of the approach is conceptual. Great emphasis is placed on collective action and economic redistribution so that opportunities will be readily accessible to people who need them.

Table 3 has been designed to demonstrate graphically the seven major concepts of social development derived from the theories described in the literature review. The comments pertaining to each concept are those of the researcher. They particularly apply to the practical experience gained from work in the field.

Table 3
Basic Concepts of Social Development and Comments

	Concept	Comment
1	Institutions are to be changed	If this is to be accomplished the process will inevitably be a top-down one. One of the basic principles of the CSD is that all initiatives follow the bottom-up approach.
2	Much emphasis is placed on the elimination of poverty	While this is a very worthwhile ideal there is considerable doubt that it can be accomplished in an impoverished developing country.
3	The equal distribution of wealth and wages is proposed	This role model has not achieved any measure of success elsewhere. Social and economic stratification in a country like South Africa is inevitable and a modified capitalist system is needed for the creation of wealth and the provision of jobs.
4	The broad based participation of people is necessary for successful social development	This is easier said than done. The poor spend so much of their lives simply surviving that they either have no time for community based initiatives or they are apathetic and uninterested.
5	Social integration is a vital ingredient	This can work in a one-culture nation, but in a multicultural country it would be extremely difficult, if not impossible, to achieve.
6	No one person may dominate, control or exploit others	This approach has not succeeded elsewhere.
7	Much emphasis is placed on the assumption that most people are not greedy, exploitative and competitive. Co-operation in a society where the profit motive has been eliminated and where the workers will be directed by other workers is regarded as ideal.	Most practitioners in the field would have to disagree with the validity of these concepts.

Not every aspect of social development is negative. There are many useful components and many high ideals. Most examples in the literature are given from Far Eastern countries and Israel where the populations are homogenous and the work ethic and level of motivation high. None of these basic premises are applicable to South Africa. It must therefore be concluded that the social development model does not apply to the work of the CSD.

3.4.2 Community Development

The second model of community work is community development. When this model is considered in the South African context it is clear that it cannot be applied to overcome serious

national or regional problems and differences, and people cannot be infused with hope and confidence when the political and economical environment is discriminatory, denies mobility and lacks equality of opportunity. Where the migratory system is well developed, community development is emasculated because so many of the members of the community are away seeking their livelihood elsewhere.

In order to achieve its goals community development should be closely linked to economic and social development programmes, land reform and population control and there should be real and meaningful co-operation between national governments and local communities (*Henderson, J. 1976 : 185*). None of these conditions are applicable to South Africa where the legislation of the apartheid regime has precluded the disadvantaged populations from economic partnership, land ownership and co-operation between the regime and grassroots communities.

Community development practitioners stress the importance of community self-sufficiency. In impoverished regions self-sufficiency in the villages and smaller communities is a pipe dream. Economic development should be closely allied to community development, as without a solid economic base communities are unable to afford certain basic necessities such as sewerage, electricity, education and health services. People will not be satisfied with the provision of cottage industries or improved agricultural productivity (*Henderson, J. 1976 : 186*).

Much of the literature suggests that in community development projects process goals are more important than task goals. This viewpoint is questioned as there is "solid value in concrete achievements. Process without tasks is like faith without works. Process in a vacuum is meaningless" (*Henderson, J. 1976 : 187*).

Other criticisms of community development are made by O'Dowd who states that despite twenty years of practice in South Africa its "track record of achievement is extremely spotty. There can be few areas of human endeavour where so many resources have been devoted to producing so little effect. One could almost say that the conventional wisdom now is that community development has failed" (*O'Dowd 1991 : 8*). His three statements which summarise his views are as follows:

- (i) "Maybe somebody who lives in a place may actually know more about it than somebody who has read the books about it" (*1991 : 15*).

- (ii) For successful community development "there must be adequate structures in place in the recipient community" (1991 : 27).
- (iii) "The people cannot function without leaders and it is they, not we, who are going to decide who these leaders are" (1991 : 29).

The statements are all valid. Far too much theory on community development has been developed by academics who have had little hands-on experience. Practitioners will hopefully contribute more to the literature in future. The experience of the CSD has been that development programmes need to be linked to actual community structures. The first task of the Centre was to set up, at the request of the community, a number of child care facilities. Development programmes are now being run from and in association with these structures. The third statement that community leaders are necessary and that the people themselves decide who their leaders are, is one that is not questioned.

The community development model attaches considerable importance to the total needs of people which are to be expressed by the people through a democratic decision making process. Consensus is a necessary component. It also relies heavily on the initiative of the community. If people in a particular location express their felt needs it is unlikely that they will be unanimous and reach consensus because needs vary from person to person and from place to place. Reliance solely on what the community wants may work in some instances but experience has shown that poor people cut off from the mainstream of life often do not know what they want as they do not know what the options are. In cases like this a tactful, professional input could be valuable. Community initiative is usually at the lowest ebb where community needs are greatest. The experience in Grahamstown has shown that people debilitated by deprivation, meagre food and an inadequate education are so concerned with their own survival that they lack even the basic ingredients of initiative and motivation necessary for community involvement.

Finally, it has been found that specialised services, resources and finances come from outside the community. Very often support is required from government for the successful outcome of a community project. While some of the concepts of community development are valid many of the elements are ideologically pure and the whole approach needs to be reconsidered and reconstructed, especially in the South African situation. As it stands, community development as a method does not apply to the work of the CSD.

3.4.3 Social Planning

The social planning model is one that best fits the methods and initiatives of the CSD. The match is not perfect, but in the social sciences it is generally accepted that many lines are blurred and that no one particular model developed in a particular environment will ideally suit programmes which have been evolved in other countries with their own ethnic, cultural and legislative heritages. The concepts also often overlap and are interdependent.

The work of the CSD basically deals with the planning, implementing and evaluating of community projects. Pre-planning is embarked on when new projects are planned, needs are assessed and the whole sequence of events necessary to build and implement programmes is embarked on. In all cases goals are defined and every effort is made to reach them. The state has not been instrumental in establishing community projects in Grahamstown, but in some instances state subsidies have been obtained once a project is underway and the standards and programmes are acceptable. No large scale or institutional change has been attempted and all initiatives have been strictly at the local level. People in a community who have few facilities need to feel they are being helped with local projects which directly affect them. They are not immediately concerned with or interested in national change.

In the case of the CSD the major resources have come almost completely from outside of the community. These include the financial resources as well as those necessary for architectural planning and the provision of equipment. The local Black and Coloured communities have no skilled architects, draughtsmen, quantity surveyors and landscape gardeners. These skills have come from White Grahamstown, but the builders, carpenters and plumbers have in most instances come from the Coloured community. The unskilled labourers, without exception, have been Black Grahamstonians.

The CSD experience has shown that the four major components outlined by Skidmore (1983 : 44) "efficiency, effectiveness, accountability and morale" are essential to community work. All projects are built and equipped cost effectively and every cent received is accounted for. A professional approach is adopted throughout the process which starts with research into background information about the proposal and the people it will serve, and ends with a function to celebrate the opening of the facility.

Community participation has been a major component in the planning process. People have been interested in being involved in something new. Attendance at planning meetings has always been good. The interest of people in most projects declines once the programme is underway and the work is no longer exciting. The hardest part of project development comes at this stage. The monthly meetings which are held year after year and which deal with financial, maintenance and staffing matters are of little interest to the ordinary members of any society. Training in committee procedures does help, but very often by the time one committee is trained another group has been elected at the AGM to take its place. Good advice is given by Skidmore on committee structures. It should be adopted where possible. Meetings should be held at those times and places that best suit its members (*Skidmore 1983 : 115 - 121*).

Careful financial management and control are without doubt the most important aspects of social planning. Good stewardship of funds is essential for the success of any project. Donors will provide on-going funding for projects which run well and efficiently and produce regular audited statements. They will by-pass those who do not. The public too, is highly sensitive to the handling of public funds and irregularities could seriously damage the reputation of an agency. The CSD has developed a noteworthy system of raising and accounting for funds and the Director is in demand for sharing her experiences and methods at seminars, conferences and in private consultations.

Evaluation in all CSD projects is ongoing and no outside evaluation process has yet been undertaken. This will be done when the workers in the projects feel ready and sufficiently secure in their positions. The right person to do the evaluation will have to be found. He will have to have a good knowledge of the field as well as an empathy for the work being done.

The writing of proposals and motivations in the CSD has become a well developed and refined task. All agency staff write two reports each year and the Director produces formally bound reports in June and December. These are used for dissemination purposes. They are also sent to all existing donors and are part of the motivation documentation sent to prospective donors.

Voluntary helpers are used from time to time depending on their skills and commitment. They also serve on many of the committee structures and management boards. As regular members of staff voluntary workers have generally not proved to be satisfactory because they come and go when they please, often have other commitments which prevent regular attendance and

cannot be relied on. The CSD does however employ skilled Rhodes staff and students and members of the public at R6 per hour to run specialised courses in basket making, basic bookkeeping, karate, aerobics etc.

The injunction about working for people rather than with them (*Suparsad 1980 : 6*) must be taken very seriously. In this kind of work it is easy to adopt bad habits, and doing things for rather than with people should be guarded against at all times. Where people have no resources, no transport and no easy access to banks and building societies they constantly solicit the help of the CSD staff to assist them. The lines between what the CSD will do and will not do have been drawn and staff are expected to adhere to them. These lines are however not always that clear and regrettably become blurred at times. Inevitably members of the CSD staff end up by doing too much for the township projects, not by choice but from necessity.

3.4.4 Social Action

In recent years social action has to a large extent become the responsibility of the political parties and the civic associations, but in the days when most of the people who are now involved were in detention or hiding, the work was done by other groups. The Director has been involved in numerous of these initiatives. She played an important role in the Fingo Village Action Committee which finally persuaded the government against the forced removal of 7 000 Fingo villagers to a rural location some 45 kilometres distant. She wrote numerous memoranda to government ministers and attended many meetings with local government officials. When Shaw Hall was established she managed to obtain an exemption from the Group Areas Act so that the day care centre could function as a non-racial facility. In 1989 and 1990 she was asked by two community groups to spearhead their requests to the local authority for the provision of sewerage and electricity to their suburbs. She also helped Black and Indian families to obtain living premises in the White area of Grahamstown prior to the repeal of the Group Areas Act. She played a very active role in two major committees, the work of which came to naught. One to restructure and redevelop Fingo Village and the other to establish a non-racial school in Grahamstown at a time when such institutions were not sanctioned. She served as the Chairman and Vice-Chairman of numerous national conferences including the "National Education Conference : The de Lange Report, Assessment and Implementation" (*de Lange : 1982*) and "An International Conference on Population

Dynamics in Southern Africa" (*Population Dynamics : 1985*). Many national changes can be attributed to resolutions passed at these deliberations.

Direct action has not been a tool of the CSD.

3.4.5 Administration and Organisation

Careful and professional administration and management procedures have been developed and practised by the CSD. Social welfare practices have been translated into social welfare services and many needed community services and programmes have been established and maintained. Spergel's definition can readily be applied to the work of the CSD. "Ideally we should define social welfare administration as a process of efficient and effective implementation of social policy and plans within a framework of community value and support" (*Spergel 1970 : 7*).

Leadership development, an ongoing task in social welfare today, is another major priority of the CSD. A number of dynamic leaders in the field have been produced and more are emerging. Leadership development does not only take place in the projects, it also occurs through the provision of bursaries which enable hundreds of young people to realise their full potential at institutions of tertiary study. The skills and attributes which appear to be the major components for effective leadership in social welfare programmes are described in Chapter 3. All of them are valid to the work of the CSD.

Social planning is a necessary pre-requisite for community work. Community work is an accepted method for the promotion and development of social welfare practices in the community. The CSD is thus involved in most aspects of this dynamic process and ensures that social welfare programmes and community work practice maintain adequate standards of administration and management and are as efficient and effective as is humanly possible in the circumstances which prevail.

CHAPTER FOUR

GRAHAMSTOWN : BACKGROUND INFORMATION

4.1 Region D

In terms of the government's Regional Development Strategy, greater South Africa has been divided into eight developmental regions on the basis of need, potential, functional relationships and physical characteristics. Following an analysis to establish priorities, Region D which comprises the Eastern Cape, Ciskei and Transkei, was identified as the first priority. The criteria upon which this analysis was made were in terms of the demand for employment opportunities, the aspiration to a higher standard of living and the potential of a region to satisfy its own employment needs in the future (*Department of Constitutional Development and Planning 1983 : 1 - 2*). The city of Grahamstown is situated in Region D and thus forms part of what has been identified as the poorest and most deprived region in the country (*Mitchell and Henderson 1984 : 1*).

4.2 History

"Grahamstown owes its existence to a decision by the Governor of the Cape Colony, Sir John Cradock, to establish a military post near the Great Fish River which had become the frontier with the Xhosa after the 1811 - 1812 war" (*Mc I Daniel 1974 : 1*). In August 1812, Colonel John Graham established a military post and a small settlement which became known as Grahamstown. The community was almost annihilated in the 1819 Battle of Grahamstown when the Xhosa leader, Makana, attacked. Population growth was slow in these early years and for this battle 32 civilian men were called on to provide assistance. In 1820 the British Settlers landed at Algoa Bay and were placed on small farming settlements throughout the area. These unfortunate people suffered enormous privations including severe droughts, crop diseases and a disastrous flood in 1823. Many were ruined and decided to seek employment elsewhere. The majority settled in Grahamstown where they worked at their former crafts or became involved in trading enterprises. By May 1823 56% of all male settlers had left their farms. This influx of farmers and an increase in the military establishment transformed the struggling settlement into a thriving little town. By 1834 Grahamstown with a population of 3 500 had become the major settlement in the Eastern Cape and was second only in importance to Cape Town (*Mc I Daniel 1974 : 1*). The town became the seat of a Bishopric

in 1853 and the Eastern Districts Supreme Court in 1864, as well as the venue for a session of the Cape Colony Parliament (*Grahamstown : 1988*).

With the discovery of diamonds in 1867 the economic focus of the country moved to Kimberley and later, with the discovery of gold, to Johannesburg, and Grahamstown remained a local trading town for district farmers. From 1850 onwards it grew into one of the most important educational and cultural centres in the country. Education and law gradually superseded the commercial and military functions as the most important activities (*Mc I Daniel 1974 : 1*). The establishment of Rhodes University College in 1904 gave added importance. In 1991 the university had a total of 3 600 students and a combined academic, technical, administrative and service staff of over 1 100. The growth and development of the 1820 Settlers Monument built in 1974 contributed greatly to Grahamstown's reputation as the premier cultural centre of South Africa. The annual Arts Festival and its other related activities attract tens of thousands of visitors to the town. The economic spin off is considerable.

The City Council is presently promoting Grahamstown as a major tourist centre. With its excellent museums and rich social and cultural history this is possible, but the long term survival and prosperity of the town will depend almost exclusively on the provision of jobs for the burgeoning Black population.

4.3 The Group Areas Act

The growth and natural development of the population in Grahamstown was seriously impaired as the result of the social engineering legislation implemented by the Nationalist Government in pursuance of their ideology of apartheid. The Group Areas Act had particularly devastating effects.

Davenport traces the passage of the act from its declaration in Parliament in 1950 to the gazetting of the proclamation for Grahamstown in April 1970. "In 1955 the Group Areas Board was empowered to demarcate areas in which members of any race group might reside or own property and to expropriate property for this purpose" (*Davenport 1980 : 17*). In May 1957 at a public meeting in the City Hall the citizens were made formally aware of the Board's proposals for Grahamstown. The first was that a buffer strip would be created between the White and Black communities as a result of which a wide swath of buildings in the Fingo Village would be demolished. The second was that a Coloured Group Area would be created,

and the third that a Chinese or Indian Group Area was being considered. "There was much opposition at the public enquiry" (*Davenport 1980 : 18*). In February 1959 the City Council was requested to submit their proposals to the Group Areas Board. This plan "reflected, almost exactly, the residential pattern as it was" (*Davenport 1980 : 19*). In October 1964 "another public meeting was called to consider a new plan which set aside the whole of Fingo Village below the railway, and the whole of the village north of Raglan Road as a group area for either Whites or Indians, and incorporating the whole of the rest of the village and the south municipal location in the White area" (*Davenport 1980 : 19*). In March 1970 the Nationalist Government confirmed its decision for Grahamstown and gazetted that the Fingo Village above the railway line was henceforth a Coloured Group Area. Fingo Village was a so-called black-spot which was to be removed and in the process an entire community of over 7 000 people was to be uprooted and dislocated. The public agreed to the proposals, because it felt that if Grahamstown opposed the Government other hoped for developments, particularly the establishment of industries in the city, would be curtailed. Moves were subsequently made to relocate all the Fingo Villagers to Committees' Drift, a location on the Fish River, 45 kilometres from Grahamstown. There followed many years of meetings, announcements, visits, delegations, newspaper articles, amendments of plans, a Fingo Village referendum, further uncertainty and the ongoing unsettling effect on people's lives.

In 1969 the Secretary for Bantu Education, stated that the building of conventional family houses would be prohibited in the Black areas with only hostels for migrant workers being allowed. This resulted in the spawning of many hundreds of informal shacks in existing backyards to accommodate the growing population. Overcrowding became and continued to be a serious problem.

Members of the Indian population of Grahamstown were also put under strain by the passing of this act. They had successfully traded and lived in the White area for generations and the proposed removals threatened not only their economic survival but also their lifestyle. They had no intention of relocating in Grahamstown and it was feared that they would be lost to the town altogether when it was heard that they were considering moving to Port Elizabeth.

In October 1980 following thirty years of anger, frustration, uncertainty and deteriorating living conditions, formal steps were initiated by the government to re-proclaim the Fingo Village as a Black residential area. While this was indeed welcomed many believed that the irreparable

damage incurred by this legislation would take many generations to repair and overcome. After so many years of restrictions, permanent houses could once more be legally erected and people were granted some freedom in choosing their own living arrangements. The Group Areas Act was finally repealed in the Government Gazette in June 1991.

4.4 Population

Table 4
Population Census Statistics: 1921 to 1991

Date	Black	Coloured	White
1921	5 631	1 898	7 237
1936	9 131	2 322	8 198
1946	10 874	2 884	9 054
1951	11 814	3 117	8 680
1960	17 586	4 000	10 500
1970	25 517	4 877	11 248
1978	33 485	6 508	12 227
1991	* 63 007	* 7 091	* 13 503

Notes on table:

The statistics from 1921 to 1978 are from the national census. A census was conducted in 1991 but the published results are not available.

Estimations (*) have been made from the average percentage increases of previous years. Statistics for the Asian community are not given. These have remained constant for many years at between 240 and 280.

The phenomenal growth of the Black population since 1951 is of particular interest. During the period under review the Black population has increased at an annual average rate of 4.8%, the White at 0.83% and the Coloured at 0.73%.

The Black growth rate is attributed to the high birth rate, the steady drift of people from the farms and nearby rural areas into the town and the reduction of the death rate as the result of effective local health services. In the post Influx Control Legislation period it became easier for rural Blacks to move into smaller towns than into larger metropolitan areas, so centres like Grahamstown bore the brunt of this in-migration. Another important factor is the presence in Grahamstown of many support services such as GADRA School Feeding, GADRA Education, Cripple Care, The Black Sash Advice Office and Legal Aid. Few of these or similar organisations exist in other towns in the Eastern Cape.

The figures quoted for the White group include all school boarders and resident students at the university whose homes are elsewhere but who were in residence when the census was conducted. As this group numbered approximately 4 000 in 1991 the actual permanent economically active resident White population is about 9 000. A high percentage of young professional Grahamstonians leave the town once they are qualified to take up positions in the larger metropolitan areas. There is thus a steady out-migration from this group. This is compensated for by the steady growth of local institutions and an in-migration of staff from elsewhere.

The Coloured community, with its average annual growth rate of 0.73%, is a small cohesive group. There is a steady in-migration from the surrounding rural areas and a balancing out-migration of young professional people, work-seeking matriculants and artisans unable to find employment in Grahamstown. The Coloured population is a stable one with 75% of the people having been born in Grahamstown. Some 48% are under the age of 18 and 23% of household heads are over 60 years of age. Close to 24% of the economically active group is unemployed, 14% are old age pensioners and 6% are disabled. There is a serious housing shortage and existing dwellings are overcrowded. Approximately 72% live in sub-economic houses while 19% own their own homes (*Middleton 1982 : 2-4*).

4.5 The Residential Divisions

Davenport divides the town into three parts. A large residential and central business area mainly occupied and owned by Whites. A much smaller residential area occupied by Coloured and a large sprawling residential area lived in by Blacks (*Davenport 1980 : 4*).

Following the repeal of the Group Areas Act in June 1991 the former White designated area is likely to change most. Coloureds, Blacks and Indians have been trading freely in the CBD for some time and a growing number of residential properties are now beginning to move away from White ownership.

The Coloured area originated in the Old Hottentot Village in 1929 (*Davenport 1980 : 4*). Recent major developments include that of Lavender Valley, Mary Waters Heights and the Sun City squatter camp (Figure 5). The squatter camp started in 1978 and now has 61 shacks housing some 467 people. A site and service scheme is presently being developed for people who wish

to move away from the squalid unhealthy conditions of the squatter camp which is built on an old rubbish dump.

The Black residential areas are in the Fingo Village, Tanti, Xolani, Makaanaskop and Phumlani. The area towards the Fort Beaufort Road has been developed since 1986 and the housing stock has increased considerably.

4.6 The Housing Situation

4.6.1 In the Black area

In 1855 320 freehold title deeds to erven in the Fingo Village were issued in the name and on behalf of Queen Victoria. It is traditionally believed, but not historically correct, that this was the reward to the Fingoes for having fought on the side of the Settlers in the Frontier wars (*Davenport 1980 : 11*).

As people started drifting into the town from the surrounding rural areas further residential areas were opened up in the Old Municipal Location, Tanti and Makaanaskop. Poverty was always present and the conditions in the townships were neither orderly nor healthy. "It should not be thought that the African townships of Grahamstown even remotely resembled a Garden of Eden in the days before control was taken over by the central government", all evidence suggests that "life for Black Grahamstonians was tough - appalling slum conditions and inadequate and unsuitable sanitary conditions" existed (*Davenport 1980 : 9*). Between 1921 and 1935 the Black population increased by 62.8% and was about 3 000 in 1935 (*Davenport 1980 : 9*).

In 1968, when the total Black population was about 25 000, the proposed removal of 7 000 Africans from the Fingo Village and Tanti to Committees Drift and the 1969 ban on the building of houses in the African townships caused irreparable problems.

In 1968 the shortfall of houses was estimated as 1260 (*Davenport 1980 : 26*). In a City of Grahamstown Newsletter in 1972 (*No 2*) the Town Clerk gave examples of cases where 70 people occupied 1 erf and 20 to 30 people lodged in houses of three rooms. The 1973 Mayor's Minute estimated that 3 000 new dwelling units were required.

The ban on housebuilding resulted in the erection of thousands of shacks, lean to's and wattle-and-daub structures in backyards. The strain on the existing latrine and water services became intense. Instances were cited where over 100 people were sharing one bucket toilet. The diseases of overcrowding and poverty (scabies, gastro-enteritis, hypertension and tuberculosis) at times reached epidemic proportions. The psychological affects have never been studied but are thought to be considerable.

In 1979 149 corrugated iron shelters were erected at the east end of the Fingo Village in the area which came to be known as Sunnyside. To begin with people refused to live in these "sardine cans" which were uninsulated and had neither floors nor foundations. After some time the homeless, aged and indigent moved in because there was nowhere else for them to go.

After the Committees Drift scheme was abandoned and the Fingo Village freehold titles were reinstated, people started to explore inexpensive ways and means of building their own houses. Government housing subsidies became available to salaried staff at the university as well as to nurses, teachers, clerks and social workers employed in state and parastatal organisations. In 1985 the South African Permanent Building Society became the first building society to offer housing loans to Blacks and Coloureds. The Rini Town Council was prevailed on to rezone and open up further areas for residential development.

In 1980 216 cement block scheme houses were built in Makaanaskop Ext 1 at a cost of R 7272 each. They comprise a lounge, kitchen, bathroom and two bedrooms. These houses are fully serviced and are situated in an area with tarred streets and mast lighting. Half have been privately purchased while the other half are owned by the council.

At this time the Zenzele-type house, which was pioneered by the Grahamstown Abalizi Committee, was perfected and approved by the East Cape Development Board. A tract in the buffer zone between Tanti and the Coloured area was surveyed and plots were allocated. A four roomed house of 52 sq. metres constructed from poles, fencing wire, a mixture of soil and clay in-fill and an asbestos roof could be built at a minimum of cost of R5 000 in 1985. The cost by 1991 had risen to R11 500. The name Zenzele means "do it yourself". Many family members including women and children helped to construct these houses, while others employed sub-contractors. Over 220 Zenzele houses were built in the Xolani township, all of which were privately funded. Rhodes University pioneered this venture for their members of

staff and much of the credit for the success of the scheme must go to them. A further 400 Zenzele houses have been built by the Rini Town Council in Makanaskop Extensions 2 and 3 while an additional 2 500 sites have been made available. This latter scheme falls under the auspices of the National Housing Commission. Zenzele houses have no services. They are supplied with bucket latrines and water is available from communal taps in the streets. Most owners will pay off their homes over a 30 year period in addition to the monthly rates of R33 payable to the Council.

The owner-built private development houses in Rini are in Makanaskop Extensions 4 and 5. The houses in Extension 4 have no electricity while those in Extension 5 have no sewerage. Bridging finance is being sought to provide these services. The cost of these properties range from R36 000 to R110 000. The rates in these areas are lower than elsewhere because the water is metered and a separate charge is levied.

Rini Town Council has been selling off old government stock houses since 1989. Over one thousand units were put on the market and by June 1991 547 had been sold. The cost of these 2 1/2 and 4 roomed houses ranges from R300 to R700. In 1989 the CPA¹ Department of Roads built 44 houses costing R45 000 each while in 1988 the SAP² erected 3 pre-fabricated staff houses at R16 000 each.

In 1990 two new schemes were embarked on. UNIFOUND Housing a company of the Urban Foundation constructed 130 houses costing from R15 000 to R25 000 at Kings Flats and the Rini Town Council developed a site and service area of 673 sites close to the Fort Beaufort road at the far northern edge of the township. This latter area remained unoccupied for many months as people refused to live there. Its distance from the town centre is a sufficient deterrent but its proximity to the sewerage works with its appalling smell, combined with the fact that the development overlooks a cemetery, made it unacceptable. By June 1991 the pressure for land was so great that sixty shacks were in the process of being erected on these stands. Water is provided for each site along with a bucket toilet. The development has high mast lighting.

¹CPA - Cape Provincial Administration

²SAP - South African Police

Late in 1990 informal squatter settlements were built on unoccupied parcels of land throughout the whole of Rini. By June 1991 there were at least 400 illegal dwellings. Most are situated away from roads and water points and few have acceptable toilet arrangements. UNIFOUND Housing plans to develop a site and service scheme at Makanaskop Extension where many of the squatter shacks have been built. These informal illegal settlements are of deep concern to both Rini Town Council and the Grahamstown Municipality as they pose enormous health hazards which are likely to affect the entire community.

In October 1991 the Rini City Council gave UNIFOUND the go-ahead to service 1951 sites in Makanaskop. Funds from the Independent Development Trust totalling R15m will be used. A joint agreement was signed with GRACA, the Grahamstown Civic Association. This project is aimed to assist the poorest of the poor (*Grocott's Mail 25 October 1991 : 1 - 2*).

Despite these recent impressive developments and the breaking of the housing log jam, it is estimated that there are still some 3 000 shack dwellings in the backyards of houses in the townships. They have an estimated average occupancy of ten people. Thus out of an estimated Black population of 63 000, approximately half live in substandard shack type dwellings. The problem has been exacerbated since the scrapping of the Influx Control legislation and the consequent steady drift of farm and rural people into the townships. The Rini authorities have no figures to support this in-migration but they have no doubt that it has accelerated in recent years.

Note that:

- (i) If the average occupancy of a conventional house in Black Grahamstown is 7 and 10 in a squatter shack the population is accommodated approximately as follows:

In conventional houses	(4 028 x 7)	28 196
In squatter shacks	(3 400 x 10)	34 000

- (ii) If an acceptable occupancy per household is seven (mother, father, four children and grandmother), the total number of houses required for Rini is 9 000. This estimate places the number of conventional houses still needed at 4 972. As all dwelling places must be affordable, a high percentage of proposed homes will have to be self-built structures in site-and-service developments.
- (iii) Enormous strides have been made to house the burgeoning population of Rini since 1985. A still greater effort will be necessary in the years ahead. If more jobs were available people would be able to afford better houses and the quality of the housing

stock would improve. The key to better housing and to a better quality of life lies with job creation initiatives on an unprecedented scale.

(iv) At an Urban Foundation meeting in Port Elizabeth in June 1985 the Executive Director, Mr R Matlock, reported verbally on an "Affordability of Housing Survey" conducted in Port Elizabeth's Black townships. The figures demonstrated that the type of house a person is able to live in depends on what he can afford and what is available.

- * 4% can afford contractor built houses costing R20 000 and more.
- * 5% can afford municipal type block houses.
- * 22% can afford minimum standard block houses.
- * 24% can afford Zenzele type houses.
- * 45% can afford nothing better than an inadequate shack.

It can therefore be concluded that most people live where they do because they have no choice and because they cannot afford anything better. It must be borne in mind that the wage levels in Port Elizabeth are higher and the unemployment rate lower than those in Grahamstown. Fewer Grahamstown residents will therefore be able to afford any types of housing other than inadequate shacks.

4.6.2 In the Coloured area

4.6.2.1 Housing stock

Table 5
Housing Stock in the Coloured Area

Area	No	Details
Irving Heights	214	Subeconomic, 3-4 room, Municipal scheme. Rental under R30 pm. High density
Lavender Valley	80	Municipal scheme. Rental R50 to R300 pm.
Sun City	62	Squatter shacks. Service charge R25 to R29 pm. High density.
Central area	257	Established houses. Privately owned by professionals, artisans, clerks etc.
Scotts Farm	95	Sub-economic.3-4 rooms. Municipal scheme. Rental under R30 pm. High density.
Scotts Farm ext	87	Brick semi-detached. 1 to 4 rooms. Rental R30 to R60 pm.
Johnson/Wylde St area	48	Sub-economic. 3 to 4 rooms. Municipal scheme. Rental under R30 pm. High density.
Good Samaritan cottages	8	In Black area. Cottages. Occupancy density is 7 persons per room. Service charge R25 to R29 pm.
TOTAL	852	

All these properties, with the exception of those in Sun City, Irving Heights and Scotts Farm have water-borne sewerage. In the sub-economic areas the toilets are of the bucket type and are located in backyards. There are also an estimated 200 backyard shacks for which the monthly rentals range from R15 to R150.

4.6.2.2 Housing Needs

A municipal survey on the housing needs was done in June 1990 (*Mager 1990 : 3*). It was estimated that a further 418 homes are urgently required, 42 for welfare cases, 104 in the sub-economic bracket and 252 in site-and-service developments. These requirements are based on the numbers of people without homes and their relative earning capacities. People earning over R1 300 per month were not included as it was felt that they can make their own housing arrangements.

In 1978 because of the unavailability of houses people started erecting wood and corrugated iron shacks on a disused rubbish dump in a settlement which became known as Sun City. A

survey undertaken in 1990 (*Mager 1989 : 2*) reveals the following information about this squatter camp. 62 shacks house a total of 467 residents (including 216 children of whom 77 are of school going age). The plots are small, the roads unpaved and no drainage is provided. The bucket toilet system is used and each site has its own outhouse. Street taps provide cold water with the residents of eight stands sharing one tap. The settlement is described as slovenly and dirty. The houses are poorly constructed and most roofs are kept in place with heavy stones. The residents complain that in wet weather their houses leak.

Table 6
Rooms per Shack in Sun City
(*Mager 1989 : 2*)

No of Houses	No of Rooms
11	1
23	2
21	3
3	4
3	5
1	7

The income levels of the residents of Sun City are noteworthy because they indicate that the majority of the people are not destitute. The housing shortage has forced them to build their own shacks and live here.

- 21 household have residents in employment
- 9 households receive their income from old age pensions
- 18 households receive their income from disability allowances
- 1 household depends on income from the collection and distribution of wood
- 9 households receive no income at all.

Those with jobs earn between R250 and R1 000 per month per person (*Mager 1989 : 3*).

4.6.3 In the Indian Residential Area

The Indian Group Area in Oatlands North was proclaimed on 13 May 1983. Twenty owner built houses of superior quality have been erected in this prestigious suburb. Seven sub-economic houses erected by the municipality have been occupied by Coloured families. Even though this development is within the boundaries of the White residential area, a number of Indian families

had such negative feelings about the Group Areas Act that they refused to build here and obtained other accommodation on the Rhodes campus and elsewhere in Grahamstown.

4.7 Water, Sewerage and Electricity in the Black Townships

4.7.1 Water

According to the 1990 Rini Town Council Statistical Report (*CPA 1988*) 1 200 sites have running water and there are 800 street taps. If the occupancy of the houses with running water is 7, the number of people with access to running water is 8 400. If one presumes that the balance of the population uses street taps, 54 600 people share 800 taps this means that each street tap is used by 68 people. In the White area where most households have an average of five taps, the monthly consumption of water is 103 005 kl, this averages 7.62 kl per person. In Rini the monthly consumption is 23 649 kl, which averages 0.37 kl per person.³ The amount of water used by an individual family is generally regarded as an important indicator of the standard of living attained by that family. Mr A Stone has stated that "without the availability of accessible water it is difficult for a community to advance" (*Grocott's Mail 27 April 1984 : 1*). Water consumption and availability is also a fair indicator of health and hygiene levels.

4.7.2 Sewerage

According to the 1988 Rini Council Statistics (*CPA 1988*) at which stage the population was estimated to have been 54 000, 637 houses had indoor sewerage connections. With an average occupancy of 7 per household this gave 4 459 individuals access to indoor water-borne sewerage, while 49 540 people had to share 2 357 bucket toilets, i e an average of 21 people to each toilet. It is therefore not surprising to receive reports that they often overflow and that the twice weekly night soil removal service is inadequate. Poor sanitary conditions are directly linked to the incidence of tuberculosis, gastro-enteritis, cholera and typhoid. In many parts of the townships there are no drains and dirty water thrown out along with other garbage results in extremely unpleasant and unhealthy conditions in the streets.

4.7.3 Electricity

The number of individual houses in Rini with electricity in 1990 was 1 500 (*CPA 1990*). With an average home occupancy of 7 people 10 500 people have access to this most important commodity. The number without electricity is approximately 52 500.

³ Grahamstown Rates Office 24.9.91

4.8 Lack of Industry and Unemployment

Grahamstown's geographical position lies at the root of many of the town's present day problems. It is situated between two coastal metropolitan areas, 200 km from East London and 130km from Port Elizabeth, on a branch railway line served only from Alicedale and has no direct railway link with East London. The local hinterland lacks the natural resources for the provision of raw materials for industrial development. Despite the fact that it is located on a massive kaolinite deposit there is only one commercial pottery in the town. The water supply is erratic depending as it does on rainfall, and severe droughts and periodic water shortages occur (*Addendum 5*). During 1973 the water stored in the four main reservoirs dropped by 30% and the available water was reduced to seven months supply. This problem will be resolved when water diverted from the Orange River into the Fish River reaches the city. The cost of electricity obtained from ESCOM is one of the highest in the country as it has to be rerouted back to Grahamstown from East London. The supply is also unreliable and service faults are often experienced. In an article in *Grocott's Mail* (10 September 1991 : 1) it was claimed that "Grahamstown was the second most expensive centre in South Africa as regards electricity charges. It was also the second most expensive centre in South Africa as to water charges." The town has also suffered from excessive road transportation costs which are the byproduct of the government's traditional policy of protecting the railways.

The City Council has made numerous efforts to attract industry to Grahamstown, but because of the conditions cited above their endeavours have failed.

Since 1970 a large number of institutions and organisations have shut down or moved away. With their demise at least 500 jobs have been lost along with the economic benefits these organisations would have provided for the service and provision industries of the town. These include St Aidan's College, the South African Broadcasting Corporation's Regional Office, the Butter and Ice Factory, the S A Wool and Textile Institute, the Grahamstown Teachers' Training College, the Grahamstown Potteries, the Albany Divisional Council, the Assumption Convent and Corobrik. In the recent economic recession further jobs have been lost as positions have been declared redundant.

Unemployment has long been a serious problem in Grahamstown. The fact that poorly educated rural people have continued to stream into the town has not improved the situation. The actual unemployment rate has become difficult to determine particularly since the Work

Seekers' Register was discontinued by the East Cape Development Board in 1981. Charton (1979 : 6) calculated that in 1969 just over 30% of the economically active population was underemployed. In 1971 a survey conducted in the Fingo Village (Roux and St Leger 1971) showed that 28% of adult men were unemployed.

"In the Eastern Cape a study of Grahamstown and Port Elizabeth found that in both centres the level of unemployment was approaching 40%. This was a survey of 500 adults in 187 households conducted in 1984. In Grahamstown in mid 1988, Prof W. Davies of the ISER said that whilst very few studies had been done 'our figures indicate that the unemployment rate among the work force must be between 60 and 70%' (*Weekend Argus 4.6.88*)" (Wilson and Ramphela 1989 : 91).

In the Coloured community 60% of people's earnings fall below the minimum effective level of the Poverty Datum Line. While 24% of the economically active group are unemployed, of those employed 43% are in blue collar jobs and 9% in white (*Middleton 1982 : 2 - 3*).

The following figures reflect the education levels:

Up to and including Std 4	36%
Standards 5 and 6	35%
Standards 7 and 8	21%
Over Std 9 & tertiary qualifications	8% (<i>Middleton 1982 : 5</i>)

Other factors which have contributed to the high unemployment levels include the handout mentality, the poor work ethic and the fact that some people are not only unemployed but also unemployable. This is especially true in families where parents and grandparents have been unemployed and the will to work has disappeared. For many years employers, especially those of domestic servants, have paid extremely low wages. They have however assisted their staff by paying rents, children's school fees and providing rations. Street urchins and house to house beggars requesting "bread because I am hungry" have become ubiquitous. They have flourished because people continue to provide the handouts they request.

A growing group of people are earning an income from non-formal work and self-employment. Various Department of Manpower two-week training schemes have been conducted in Grahamstown but no statistics exist as to how many of the trainees receive and remain in

employment. The Small Business Development Corporation opened an office in Grahamstown in 1988 and a great effort is being made to assist individuals set up their own small enterprises. It is too early to assess the results.

4.9 Major Social Problems

4.9.1 Introductory Remarks

The prevailing conditions in considerable areas of the townships can most adequately be described as medieval. The lack of the provision of electricity, sewerage and water supply to individual homes causes acute deprivation. Communal bucket lavatories and street taps used by large numbers of people make it impossible for adequate standards of health and hygiene to be maintained. The housing shortage has been dealt with in some detail and there is no doubt that this coupled with high unemployment levels are at the root of practically all the problems in Grahamstown. Excessively crowded houses and yards, lack of privacy in bedrooms, overflowing and smelly bucket toilets and no electricity, all readily combine to produce an environment that is conducive to the proliferation of social problems. Adequate housing and the availability of indoor electricity, water and sewerage are necessary for the growth and stability of well balanced communities.

Overcrowding causes enormous stresses and strains in the lives of adults. They have no privacy, their arguments and disagreements are overheard in the street and become a public affair. This and the violence and uncertainty that surrounds their lives is responsible for the rising incidence of alcoholism, particularly in the Coloured community, and the serious increase of hypertension amongst women.

4.9.2 Disease, Malnutrition and Infant Mortality

That tuberculosis and related lung diseases are the major causes of death in both Coloured and Black communities comes as no surprise. These and the other known diseases of poverty such as scabies, (which reached epidemic proportions in 1990), gastro-enteritis and the increasing incidence of sexually transmitted diseases will not be overcome until the overcrowded and unhealthy living conditions are improved. Five cases of typhoid were reported by the Municipal Health Department of Grahamstown between March and August 1991. Fortunately they were isolated and unrelated.⁴

⁴Interview with official in Municipal Health Department. 9.9.91

Overcrowding and lack of privacy are to some extent also responsible for the high incidence of teenage pregnancies. The personal lives of adults are by no means private and their sexual activities are copied by mere children and adolescents with not altogether unexpected results. The superintendent of the Settlers Hospital estimates that 13% of all births in the hospital are to unmarried teenage girls between the ages of 13 and 19 years.

Malnutrition and high infant mortality rates are also poverty related. The greatest cause of infant mortality is gastro-enteritis, followed by pneumonia, prematurity and malnutrition. The official birth and infant mortality statistics must, however, be disregarded, because no accurate data exists. For example the 1978 City of Grahamstown Health Report states that in the year under review 669 Black births were registered but that a total of 2 214 were estimated.

The causes of adult deaths in 1990 in the Black community were given as pneumonia (23), cardiac respiratory failure (23) and congestive cardiac failure (21) (*Grahamstown : 1990*).

Malnutrition, while being a disease of poverty, is also one of ignorance. Many of the traditional grandmothers are refusing to care for the children of grandchildren and inexperienced young girls are being hired as child minders. They have been known to consume the babies rations themselves and to water down the powdered milk. The tragic results can be seen in the wards of Settlers' Hospital. Briscoe states that in 1990 92 cases of kwashiorkor and marasmus and 192 of gastro-enteritis were admitted to the children's ward. He said he is deeply concerned about the increasing evidence of the breakdown of family life in Grahamstown, especially in so far as the care of children and the high teenage pregnancy rate are concerned. The number of kwashiorkor cases in the hospital is increasing and the readmission rate is presently around 25%. Children in an emaciated and deplorable state are brought into the hospital by well dressed young women who seem to have plenty of money for clothes and yet none to feed their babies. "What has happened to mother love? Do these young women have no sense of responsibility or love for their own children? It is heartbreaking to keep a kwashiorkor baby for three to four months (at a cost to the taxpayer of at least R100 per day), to send him home in perfect condition only to have him returned again in a pitiful state some six to eight weeks later"⁵.

⁵ Interview with Dr R Briscoe, Superintendent of Settler's Hospital. 26.8.91

4.9.3 Crime

Kriel⁶ outlined the major crimes the Detective Division of the South African Police in Grahamstown has to deal with in a typical month. He said that housebreaking, petty theft and shoplifting are the major problems. Fights, assaults, stabbings and rape follow a close second. The main perpetrators of theft crimes are Blacks and Coloureds with up to 60% of them being under the age of 20.

Table 7
Monthly Incidence of Crime in Grahamstown

Crime	Cases
Petty Theft and housebreaking	120
Shoplifting incidents	80 (2% White)
Theft of Cars	4
Theft of credit cards at auto-tellers	12
Assaults, stabbings, fights with grievous harm	100
Rapes	10
Murders	5
Fraud	17 (10% White)

Kriel said that most of the crimes are associated with unemployment, poverty and alcohol abuse. In the winter months clothing, blankets and food are more consistently stolen, whereas in the warmer months the emphasis is on videos, radios, television sets and money. Stock theft occurs at a steady rate throughout the year but peaks at Easter and Christmas when goats and sheep are needed for township celebrations. Assault and rape are very often associated with drunkenness, dagga and jealousies involving the opposite sex. Weapons used are mainly knives, broken bottles and blunt instruments (not guns), and men and women are equally responsible. As deaths usually occur as the result of assault murder is not normally the intent of the perpetrator. Rape is difficult crime to assess because a high percentage of girls become sexually active at puberty and do not fully understand what rape is, nor do they have the confidence to discuss such incidents with their mothers or the relevant authorities. The actual incidence is therefore thought to be considerably higher than the average 10 cases per month cited.

⁶Interview with Warrant Officer Kriel, Detective Division, South Africa Police. 11.6.91

4.9.4 Effects of Overcrowding on Education

Problems relating to overcrowding seriously affect the academic performance of school children. A survey conducted at the Nathaniel Nyaluza High School in 1984 with 815 respondents showed that very few pupils come from homes where the conditions are conducive to study.

275	pupils are from single parent families
234	live with both parents
222	board with relatives
73	board with non-related families and pay for their lodging and food
11	rent rooms and live alone or with other school children
106	live in houses of 1 room
302	live in houses of 2 rooms
219	live in houses of 3 rooms
188	live in houses of more than 3 room (<i>Henderson 1985 : 35</i>)

In response to the question "How many other persons sleep in the same room as you?" the following replies were received:

1 person	41
2 persons	141
3 persons	224
more than 3	332

Only a handful of pupils had their own rooms (*Henderson 1985 : 36*).

The matriculation results at Nathaniel Nyaluza School in both 1989 and 1990 reflect the living conditions of the pupils. The pass rate in 1989 was 12.8%, while that in 1990 was 12.7%. Of those who passed in 1990 only one obtained university exemption. These results are to be compared with the national pass rates of 41% and 49% respectively for which grave concern has been expressed (*GADRA : 1990 and 1991*).

4.9.5 Child Beggars and Street Children

The growing incidence of child beggars and street children living in the town's gutters and alleyways has caused concern in Grahamstown. The reasons believed to be responsible are:

- (i) Increasing levels of poverty which encourage parents to dress children in rags and send them out to beg for money.

- (ii) No compulsory education for Black children.
- (iii) The serious dropout rate from the schools.
- (iv) The absence of probation officers in the Black and Coloured communities.
- (v) Sympathetic students, tourists and festival goers who feel guilty about the poverty in Grahamstown and willingly hand out money.
- (vi) A decline in the care of children in the township by mothers, grandmothers and others, and the growing disrespect which children have for their elders.

In November 1990 a public meeting was called by the Albany Council of Churches in response to increasing expressions of concern about the street children. A committee was elected to explore and plan a ministry to meet their needs. The elected action committee met monthly and made plans for a temporary shelter and a permanent building. A concerned citizen then opened his home to four boys and the number soon grew to seventeen. His garage was extended with funds from the action committee and the children are presently accommodated in it and in an adjacent rondavel. Suitable premises for a temporary shelter had not been located by the action committee by August 1991.

4.10 Concluding Remarks

Poor housing conditions, the paucity of basic amenities and the high levels of unemployment contribute to the serious social and health problems of Grahamstown. The continual erosion of accepted norms and the break-up of family life give cause for serious concern. While all these factors contribute to the vicious cycle of deprivation and impoverishment it must be borne in mind that the social problems of Grahamstown are symptoms of the far greater problems of South African society which are rooted in the basic structures of apartheid which have bedeviled development and change for over forty years.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE CENTRE FOR SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT (CSD)

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter the factors leading up to the establishment of the Centre for Social Development (CSD) at Rhodes University are described and analysed. Certain events and circumstances in the writer's background which influenced her outlook and provided her with the requisite skills are considered. The various catalysts which led up to the decision to start a Centre in Grahamstown are described. These included a chance meeting with the Executive Director of OXFAM. He and his staff were the first people to expose the writer to some of the basic principles of social planning and community development. Professor C Muller's visit to Grahamstown and her suggestion that a CSD be established at Rhodes encouraged the head of the Department of Social Work, Professor W Mitchell, to write a funding motivation and the Vice-Principal, Professor W Brommert, to put the proposal to the Rhodes University Council.

The CSD became operational on 1 August 1981. Its subsequent history is traced through the development of community based projects and other programmes in the fields of bursary provision and education, pre-school initiatives, adult education and service centres for the aged. Its function as a resource, administrative and service organisation are described. Its funding strategies are explained and the process which was followed in establishing community based facilities. The final section deals with the administration and management of the CSD.

The information contained in this chapter is important because it highlights individual qualities which might produce successful community workers and then describes the processes followed in the planning and development of a broad cross section of community based facilities. The seminal role played by the CSD is crucial to understanding what makes project development work - the provision of funds, support, training and financial control. These processes and methods which have been successful in one milieu can no doubt be replicated in others.

5.2 Stages of Involvement in Community Work

5.2.1 Community Awareness

In 1949 when the writer was 15 years old she experienced some of the realities of the South African situation first hand at a four day conference held at a Johannesburg private school for schoolgirl leaders. This experience of becoming personally aware of the problems confronting most Black South Africans and meeting the people who were working to address them made a lasting impression on her life.

The programme included a tour of Sophiatown conducted by Fr. Trevor Huddleston and a talk on his work in the community, a meeting with Miss Eleanor Ponsonby, the founder of the African Children's Feeding Scheme and a visit to St Peter's School in Rosettenville run by the Community of the Resurrection. The group attended church services at the church of Christ the King in Sophiatown and at St Peter's and had an opportunity of meeting members from the different communities over tea. On another occasion the group visited the Jan Hofmeyr School of Social Work and the Bantu Men's Social Centre in Eloff Street. They met the students, watched a play rehearsal and were shown over the Arts and Crafts' Centre. The most memorable day included visits to the Ekutuleni School for the Blind and to Diepkloof Reformatory where Mr Alan Paton took the group on a tour and then gave a talk on his experiences and philosophy. Evening sessions took the form of in-depth discussions led by the headmistress of Kingsmead School.

Never before had the writer met Black people as equals, never before had she been into a Black township. She was overcome by the squalor and poverty in the townships, but heartened by the cheerfulness and lack of bitterness she encountered. She was impressed with the young people she met and especially with the excellent English spoken by the pupils of St Peter's. Fr. Huddleston's magnetic appeal for the Sophiatown children was inspiring, as were Mr Paton's innovative and thought provoking ideas. She regarded this experience as a turning point in her life. Her introduction to South Africa's other communities came at a most impressionable stage and her perceptions and resolutions were stored away to be used and implemented at an appropriate time in the future.

5.2.2 Definition of the Problem

During a four year sojourn in the United States from 1958 to 1962 the writer was invited to address innumerable audiences on the South African situation. This interlude enabled her to

read and study widely, with the result that she was able to define the problems and their causes in a less than superficial way. She was invited in 1961 to join the Department of the African Studies at New York State University. The ensuing contact with academics from other African countries was a stimulating and broadening experience. Accumulating facts and ideas, and then having to impart them accurately and inspirationally for her lectures was a great challenge. Being able to speak in public is an important attribute for a community worker. It is often necessary for a practitioner to pass on concepts and programmes to colleagues and clients through the spoken word. This experience gave the writer an opportunity to study and define South Africa's problems and to gain confidence as a public speaker and lecturer.

5.2.3 Managerial and Organisational Skills

From 1963 to 1975 the writer was Dean of the Women's Residence at the University of the Witwatersrand. She was responsible for the administration of the establishment as well as for the personal wellbeing of 156 students and 36 Black and 4 White members of staff. In 1972 she undertook the added responsibility of a second women's residence for 320 students. This required that she work with architects to plan the building, purchase furniture and equipment and select and train the staff. She ran both residences from 1973 to 1975. The management and organisational skills she acquired during this period were of inestimable value for her later work as a community worker. These included the following:

- * An ability to work with people, to advise, counsel and to help them deal with their own problems.
- * Committee training experience. Every year a newly elected house committee had to be trained.
- * Record keeping. Full personal, academic and disciplinary records were maintained for each student.
- * A knowledge of food, menus, nutrition, costing and portion control.
- * An understanding of the construction processes, building materials and the need for on-going building care and maintenance.
- * The importance of grounds and gardens and their care.
- * The selecting and training of African staff.
- * Interviewing techniques. Interviews were conducted with students, their parents and members of staff.
- * Public speaking skills. In-house and public lectures were delivered regularly.

These skills learned and obtained over a twelve year period were extremely valuable in the community development context. A working knowledge of these abilities should ideally be a pre-requisite for aspirant community workers.

During her twelve years in Johannesburg the writer was involved in other activities which contributed to her subsequent competence in social development practice. She was employed as a lecturer in the University's Geography Department where her responsibilities included course work in both Human and Economic Geography. Knowledge in these fields provided useful background information for her subsequent work with the Xhosa speaking people and gave an insight into the reasons for the lack of industry and the high unemployment rates in Grahamstown. She was also involved in local and national politics and was well known for her work to prevent the demolition of historic homes. All community work requires contact with local and national authorities and her many contacts with various bureaucracies proved invaluable for subsequent negotiations in Grahamstown, especially when Group Areas issues necessitated meetings with political figureheads in Cape Town. The fact that she was personally acquainted with some of them helped considerably.

5.3 Catalysts in the Development Process for the Establishment of the CSD

5.3.1 In Grahamstown.

The writer's first contact with the Grahamstown situation resulted from her spearheading the Women for Peace movement in 1976. This followed nation-wide initiatives in the aftermath of the 1976 Soweto riots. Women of all races joined forces to redress the damage. They met in the homes of members to discuss the injustices and problems. She thus had vital and early contact with the women leaders in the Black and Coloured communities and became familiar with the many problems at first hand. Her visits to the townships provided her with a working knowledge of the geographical layout, the paucity of facilities and the many problems. When Black members were harassed and threatened by the Security Police it was decided to disband and to regroup under the auspices of the National Council of Women (NCW), a non political organisation with international status. In 1977 the writer became the founder president of the Albany Branch of the NCW. In 1976 she agreed to take on the Chairmanship of the Grahamstown and Area Distress Relief Association (GADRA) Educational Welfare Subcommittee. The work brought her into contact with, and made her constantly accessible to, countless numbers of township pupils and students and their families as well as the principals and teachers in the schools. Within eighteen months of her arrival in Grahamstown she was

serving the community as chairman of two high profile committees, had met most of the community leaders, many of whom she had visited in their homes, and had been exposed to the major problems including that of police intimidation.

5.3.2 SAAECE Address

In 1976 the writer delivered the keynote address at the national conference in Grahamstown of the South African Association for Early Childhood Education (SAAECE). It included factual information about the pre-school situation in South Africa as well as a vision of what could be realised locally. She stressed the importance of good food in combatting malnutrition and suggested the provision of home care centres as viable alternatives to formal facilities. Numerous proposals referring to the training of pre-school workers and the establishment of educare and family counselling centres were made (*Henderson, T. 1976*). Some of these suggestions were subsequently implemented in CSD projects.

5.3.3 OXFAM principles for Community Workers

During 1976 the writer had a fortuitous meeting with the Executive Director of OXFAM. This international organisation funds projects worldwide which relieve distress and develop disadvantaged people. The Southern African representative visited Grahamstown in 1977 and through his intervention a development process for the Makanaskop Creche was discussed and subsequently initiated. It was from these sources that the writer first learned the basic principles of community work. These were as follows:

- * For any development to be successful it must come from the bottom upwards and not be imposed from the top down.
- * The smaller the programme the better its chance of success.
- * Try to choose projects which can bring the most immediate results.
- * Interventions should not create a dependency on outside aid.
- * If a project is not working do not prop it up from below but restructure it and start again.
- * Never expect people to do a job unless they have been trained to do it.
- * Involve the women of the community in development projects.
- * Never tell people what they need but respond rather to the requests they articulate.

5.3.4 Visit by the Director of the CSD, University of the Witwatersrand

In December 1980, Professor C Muller, Director of the Centre for Social Development at the University of the Witwatersrand, visited Grahamstown to investigate the possibility of

establishing a centre for social development at Rhodes University. In-depth discussions were held with the writer, Prof W A Mitchell, head of the Department of Social Work and Prof W Brommert, Vice-Principal. It was agreed that:

- (i) Prof Mitchell draft a motivation for the establishment of a CSD at Rhodes.
- (ii) The University Council be requested to sanction the proposal.
- (iii) The Anglo American and De Beers Chairman's Fund be approached for funding.

5.4 The Proposal for the Establishment of a CSD at Rhodes

A community development initiative in Grahamstown in 1978 had failed (*Charton 1979*). It was clear that a new and different initiative was necessary. Government intervention to alleviate the suffering and distress was unlikely. The task of the proposed CSD would be to initiate programmes which would bring about meaningful change to the lives of individuals and families. In his motivation to the Chairman's Fund, Mitchell described the situation in Grahamstown, particularly the boycotts and riots of 1980. The root causes of the disturbances were fully documented, especially unemployment, housing shortages, overcrowding, inadequate provision of services and the prevalence of disease (*Mitchell 1981*).

The initial aims of the proposed CSD were:

- (i) To provide members of the disadvantaged communities with access to existing resources.
- (ii) To assist community integration through grassroots self help projects.
- (iii) To provide recreational, cultural, counselling and vocational services for young people.
- (iv) To provide parents, especially mothers with supportive services and skills.

It was intended that these provisions would help to reduce crime, delinquency and begging, that they would strengthen institutions such as the family and school and would generally promote a greater sense of responsibility among township inhabitants.

The Centre would be administered by Rhodes University and would have close contact with the Department of Social Work. It would work in conjunction with the schools and families in the Black and Coloured townships. The broad purpose would be to achieve greater community integration, participation and responsibility.

5.5 The Establishment of the CSD at Rhodes

Seed funding to administer the Centre was guaranteed by the Chairman's Fund for three years in the first instance. The Rhodes University Council agreed to its establishment. Premises were found in a four-roomed Settler cottage in Somerset Street. The building was well situated and provided easy access to both members of the university and community clients. The writer assumed her responsibilities as Director in August, 1981.

The following were the initial strategies:

- (i) To administer and establish bursary programmes to enable disadvantaged young people to remain in school and to study at the tertiary level.
- (ii) To establish facilities in the townships to provide for the needs of specific groups through specially designed programmes.
- (iii) To initiate in-service training programmes for the staff of the community facilities.

The aims of these strategies were to empower people and communities to obtain the skills to run their own projects, take decisions and be in control of their own lives. Empowerment would result from practical action and would enable people who lacked access to resources to gain access to and control over them. Self-confidence and self-discipline, important by-products of education and training, would assist people to regain their humanity and sense of worth.

The Centre opened with four members of staff each of whom was responsible for a particular portfolio (*Figure 2 and Addendum 3*). The Director assumed overall control with particular responsibility for developmental programmes and negotiation with community groups as well as the administration of the GADRA bursaries and other activities. The Pre-school Co-ordinator provided support for existing pre-school centres where she introduced in-service training programmes. The Social Worker took responsibility for the advice and counselling service and the Information Officer acted as the liaison person between the Centre and the township's residents and took responsibility for student volunteer projects. In 1982 the staff complement remained the same, but new projects were inaugurated. Planning for the St Peter Claver's Nursery School commenced, a survey on mentally handicapped children was done and a counselling service for Black teenagers was initiated.

Figure 2
Staffing Situation in the CSD: 1981 to 1991

	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Director	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Secretary		*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Pre-school Co-ordinator	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Social Worker	*	*	*	*						
Information Officer	*	*	*	*						
Pre-school Fieldworker I				*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Bursaries Administrator				*	*	*	*	*	*	*
General Assistant				*	*		*	*	*	*
Pre-school Fieldworker II					*	*	*	*	*	*
Bursary Assistant						*	*	*	*	*
Pre-school Fieldworker III						*	*	*	*	*
Pre-school Fieldworker IV						*	*	*		
NEST Co-ordinator						*	*	*	*	
Project's Accountant						*	*	*	*	*
Pre-school Rural Co-ordinator							*	*	*	*
P.T. Pre-school Co-ordinator							*	*	*	
Commercial Centre Instructor							*	*	*	*
Pre-school Trainer								*	*	*
Commercial Centre Assistant								*	*	
Pre-school Health Worker								*		
Pre-school Fieldworker V								*		
Rural Pre-school Fieldworker								*	*	*
Secretarial Assistant								*	*	*
Assistant to the Director									*	*
Vezi Danga Fieldworker									*	*
P.T. Librarian									*	*
P.T. Commercial Assistant										
P.T. Commercial Assistant										
P.T. Rural Co-ordinator										
TOTALS	4	5	5	8	7	11	15	21	21	18

The GADRA Education programme was extended with the introduction of a Winter School, a Careers Day and a Bursars' tea party. Negotiations with the Bernard van Leer Foundation for a pre-school development and training programme were successfully concluded.

In 1983 the beggar situation in Grahamstown was investigated and a committee appointed to seek solutions and make proposals. A mother-baby nutrition project and a dental hygiene programme were initiated. Three new bursary funds were inaugurated and this necessitated the appointment of a Bursaries Administrator. By 1984 the staff had grown to eight with the appointment of the first pre-school fieldworker and a general assistant. Home care groups and adult education programmes in baby and child care were started. The first formal pre-school training programmes for teacher-aides got under way.

In 1985 a comprehensive Directory of Grahamstown's organisations and societies was published (*Henderson 1975*). This was in great demand and sold well. That year saw the launching of the popular and much needed basic book-keeping course for community treasurers.

By 1986 the staff had grown to eleven with the appointment of two additional fieldworkers, a projects' accountant and a New Era Schools Trust Co-ordinator who worked with the Director on the planning of a non-racial private school in Grahamstown. That year four new bursary funds were taken on, the Rural Outreach programme was started and the GADRA Science and Maths Education Centre was opened. With the planning of the Sun City Nursery School, St Philips Nursery School, the Shaw Hall Day Care Centre, the programme for children in hospital and the opening of the GADRA Commercial Centre in 1987 the staff complement increased to 15.

In 1988 and 1989 with a staff of 21 more programmes were inaugurated. These included another two bursary funds, the incorporation of the Vezi Danga Organisation for the Black Aged, the GADRA Science and Maths Winter School, the Raglan Road Child Care Centre and the Sun City Community Hall. A new pre-school programme in nutrition education was initiated but fell away when the nutritionist left Grahamstown. In 1990 and 1991 staff numbers stabilised at 18 or 19. At Raglan Road an adult education programme was inaugurated and work on a children's sportsfield began. GADRA started a Saturday School for matriculants and the Rural Outreach programme extended into the District of Alexandria. The Commercial Centre which

was oversubscribed offered evening courses. In two separate building operations in 1986 and 1989 two new wings were added to the Somerset Street premises increasing the accommodation by four new offices, a kitchen, toilet, pre-school resource room and seminar room.

The work of the Centre fell naturally into four major divisions:

- (i) Bursary and education programmes.
- (ii) Pre-school facilities, training and support.
- (iii) Adult education.
- (iv) Programmes for the aged.

5.6 Major CSD Programmes

5.6.1 Bursary and Education Programmes

The philosophy of the CSD has been that if resources are available, development programmes should be undertaken at all levels from that of pre-school children, through primary and high school children and students in tertiary institutions to the elderly and aged. The bursary and education programmes provide young people with skills which enable them to become fully participating members of society. Each and every person with ability and motivation needs education of one kind or another to develop his potential and sense of self-worth. Education is the key to a better life and to a more rewarding future and as such is a major factor in the development process.

The bursary programmes and the GADRA Education projects form an important part of the CSD's work. Through the provision of financial assistance for bursaries the CSD has been able to assist in the education of the children and youth of Grahamstown's seriously deprived families. This intervention has kept children in school and provided a tertiary education for young people who, without the financial assistance, would have become unemployed loafers or the recipients of menial, low-paying jobs. The programmes also provide a number of educational services which are not available to Blacks and Coloureds in their schools. Funding is set aside to enable physically and mentally handicapped children to attend special schools and to ensure that desperately poor matriculants write the matriculation examination. These initiatives have enabled countless numbers of young people to escape the cycle of deprivation and poverty and enjoy more useful and fulfilling lives and improved standards of living. This

intervention enables successful bursars as well as their families to participate in the development process.

5.6.1.1 GADRA Educational Welfare Sub-committee

When the CSD was established the administration of the work of GADRA Education Committee became its first major project. The size and scope of the work increased tenfold between the years 1981 and 1991. The initial objective of this organisation was to provide text books and stationery for impoverished local school children to help them to remain in school. Overwhelming poverty was a major contributor to the high drop out rates, as the parents could not afford to pay for the subscribed text books and stationery and no child was admitted to school without them. As the income from the fundraising appeals increased and larger amounts of money were available, the committee was able to offer a wider range of educational projects and services.

These projects varied according to the need and the resources, both financial and human. For example the Enviroventure Programme could only be offered when the Enviroventure specialist lived in Grahamstown, and school upgrading programmes were embarked on following periods of school destruction and vandalism. Careers Days were mounted when teachers from the local schools were prepared to assist with their organisation and Winter Schools were organised at the request of the pupils. The Science Education Centre, in which PLATO computer assisted teaching methods were used, was functional for two years, but was so expensive that it had to be discontinued. The programmes which have been regularly offered on a continuous basis for many years include the Commercial Centre, Educational Outings, the Bookroom and support to Caritas, a school for mentally handicapped children. The Saturday School for matriculants should become a long term project judging from the support it is receiving in 1991.

Figure 3
GADRA Education Projects: 1976 to 1991

	Enviroventure Programmes	School Upgrading	Commercial Centre	English Language Tutorials	Crisis Intervention	Careers Days	Winter School	Saturday School	Science Education Centre	Bursars Tea Parties	Educational Outings	Bookroom	Support of Caritas
1976													
1977													
1978													
1979					*					*			
1980		*			*					*			
1981		*			*	*	*			*		*	
1982	*			*		*	*			*	*	*	
1983	*			*							*	*	
1984	*					*					*	*	*
1985	*					*					*	*	*
1986			*	*		*			*		*	*	*
1987			*			*	*		*		*	*	*
1988		*	*				*				*	*	*
1989			*				*				*	*	*
1990			*				*	*			*	*	*
1991			*					*			*	*	*

In 1988 when the Department of Education and Training (DET) agreed to the provision of text books and stationery for all children in their schools, GADRA terminated this particular service and increasingly invested in the provision of bursaries for students at universities, teacher training colleges, technikons, technical and commercial colleges. In 1988 assistance was given to poverty-stricken matriculation students to enable them to pay the fees for their final examinations. Unless this fee is paid they are prevented from writing the examination.

The work of the GADRA Education Committee is based on the premise that help is given to those who want to help themselves. Every student has to make some contribution for every service, with one exception. The donated books in the Book Room are given away free of charge to all who need them, but each recipient must come in person to the Book Room to collect them. The bursary allocations provide only a part of the composite fee and the students and their families are expected to find the balance from their own contributions, bank loans and other bursary funds. Bursaries are awarded to students who have demonstrated they have an ability to study further but who do not have the financial means to realise their ambitions.

From 1977 to 1991 GADRA Education allocated R1,2m for bursaries for Grahamstown students. There is no other comparable service in any other South African centre outside of the large cities. This service has assisted 5883 people in the fifteen year period which is summarised in Table 8.

By far the largest group has been school children. Thereafter, the second largest category is prospective teachers at teachers' training colleges. This has been money well spent as the need for teachers is great and the pass-rates at the teacher training colleges is high. To have produced over 300 professional teachers from this small community in fifteen years is a significant contribution.

Table 8
GADRA Education Bursary Allocations: 1977 to 1991

Year	Amounts Allocated R	Bursaries Awarded				
		School	Teacher Training	Technical	University	TOTAL
1977	15 340	199	20	-	7	226
1978	14 730	95	21	-	16	132
1974	19 000	227	12	-	21	260
1980	23 912	296	12	-	20	328
1981	24 638	283	23	8	32	346
1982	31 401	519	19	7	35	580
1983	45 500	635	17	10	33	695
1984	79 209	751	40	9	40	840
1985	63 950	449	32	10	38	529
1986	47 192	41	36	13	45	135
1987	61 106	36	51	28	42	157
1988	110 001	127	79	80	45	331
1989	127 795	150	76	54	47	327
1990	159 825	119	103	50	56	328
1991	230 475	393	131	80	65	669
TOTALS	1 222 634	4320	672	349	542	5883

5.6.1.2 Other bursaries administered by the CSD

From 1985 to 1991 the Centre has been responsible for the administration of seven other bursary funds, the details of which are summarised in Tables 9 and 10. The D G Murray Trust Bursaries are available to Black and Coloured students from the Eastern Cape planning to become teachers of Maths or Science or wishing to train in scientific disciplines at technicons or technical colleges. In seven years R244 238 has been allocated to 278 bursars.

The SAMCOR (formerly Ford Motor Co) Bursaries, previously allocated mainly for university study will from 1991 onwards be available to disadvantaged Eastern Cape students wishing to study at technicons or technical colleges. R123 110 has been allocated to 168 students during the period under review.

The W K Kellogg Foundation of the United States has provided annual bursaries of R1 000 each for Black students resident in the Eastern Cape wishing to train as teachers. A "D" matric aggregate is the minimum requirement. From 1988 to 1991 143 students have been assisted.

The Winifred Maxwell Bursary Fund provides financial assistance to the children of Black Grahamstown residents at local private schools. Since 1986 nine students have received awards valued at R35 740.

The Grahamstown Training College Trust provides R10 000 per annum for the same purpose. Since 1988 25 recipients have received bursaries worth R40 000.

Two smaller bursaries have been administered on behalf of former Grahamstown residents. Funds are no longer received for the Alice bursary. The Helping Hamm fund is used for academically able, but financially disadvantaged, girls at Mary Waters Coloured High School. R500 is allocated to two recipients each year and since 1986 12 students have been assisted.

Table 9
Other Bursaries - Total of Awards and Amounts Allocated: 1985 to 1991

Bursary Fund	Amount allocated	No of Awards
D G Murray Trust	R 244 238	278
Ford/Samcor	123 110	168
W K Kellogg	153 000	143
Winifred Maxwell	35 740	9
Gtn T C Trust	40 000	25
Helping Hamm	3 000	12
Alice Bursary	1 500	3
TOTAL	R 600 588	638

The total amount spent on GADRA and other bursaries administered by the Centre during the period 1977 to 1991 was R1 821 192. The number of students to whom awards were made totalled 6 521.

Table 10
Other Bursaries Administered by the CSD: 1985 to 1991

	DG Murray Trust				Ford / SAMCOR				W K Kellogg		Winifred Maxwell		Grahamstown T C Trust		Helping Hamm		Alice Bursary	
	Amount Allocated	University	T. Training	Technical	Amount Allocated	University	T. Training	Technical	Amount Allocated	T. Training	Amount Allocated	School	Amount Allocated	School	Amount Allocated	School	Amount Allocated	University
1985	12 363	12	4	1	18 550	26												
1986	12 775	18			25 000	32	7	1			4 800	1			500	2	500	1
1987	25 200	22	5	3	50 000	62	4	1			5 100	1			500	2	500	1
1988	34 850	27	13	1	17 350	21			22 000	22	6 000	1	10 000	9	500	2	500	1
1989	48 500	24	27	5	3 000	2			34 000	34	7 590	1	10 000	5	500	2		
1990	44 150	15	27	4	960	2			40 000	36	8 250	1	10 000	6	500	2		
1991	66 400	15	22	33	8 250	-	-	10	57 000	51	4 000	4	10 000	5	500	2		
TOTALS	244 238	133	988	47	123 110	145	11	12	153 000	143	35 740	9	40 000	25	3 000	12	1 500	3

5.6.2 Pre-school Initiatives

There was never any doubt that the greatest community need lay in the area of pre-school education and child care. Working mothers required care facilities for their children while they were away from home. The emphasis to begin with was for the care of children, especially in the Black community. While Coloured parents enunciated the need for pre-school education, Black parents were unaware of it. The pre-school programmes initiated and developed by the CSD have been innovative and varied. They comprise:

- * Formal centres in conventional and unconventional buildings in the urban townships.
- * Home care groups in private township homes.
- * Pre-school groups on farms in the districts of Bathurst, Trappes Valley and Alexandria.

(i) Formal Pre-school Centres in Grahamstown

Table 11
Formal Pre-school Centres in Grahamstown

Year	Facility	No of Children	Type of Building	Trained Staff
1978	Makanaskop Pre-school	130	Brick	6
1981	Heidi Nursery School	30	Brick	2
1984	St Peter Claver's Nursery School	62	Renovated Church Hall	4
1987	Shaw Hall Day Care Centre	74	Renovated Church Hall	5
1987	Sun City Nursery School	75	Corrugated wood and iron	4
1989	St Phillip's Nursery School	65	Clapboard pre-fabricated	3
1990	Raglan Road Child Care Centre	65	Concrete pre-fabricated	4

Each project was undertaken at the request of the community. Elected steering committees were involved in every step of the planning. The Makanaskop Pre-school was a poorly functioning facility in an existing community hall that was renovated. The history and development of Heidi Nursery School and St Peter Claver's Nursery School were different in that a completely new facility was planned and built for Heidi whereas in the case of St Peter Claver's a dilapidated church hall was renovated. These projects are analysed fully in Chapter 7.

In 1987 the Commemoration Methodist Church in Grahamstown offered its historic Shaw Hall, built in 1823, to the CSD for use as a community facility. The premises would be provided rent

free for nine years and eleven months in the first instance on condition that the CSD took full responsibility for the restoration and ongoing maintenance of the building. At a public meeting held in May 1987 representatives of numerous race groups requested that the building be used for a non-racial pre-school and day care centre for the children of working mothers. A steering committee was elected and regular monthly meetings were held. Planning and fundraising commenced immediately.

The Shaw Hall project met many community needs. There continued to be a great need for facilities for pre-school children. There was, however, a reluctance to build premises in the townships because of problems experienced by contractors during periods of unrest. Shaw Hall is situated in the Central Business District and is ideally placed to serve children of all races. At that stage professionally qualified Black and Coloured parents were seeking pre-school facilities where their children could be educated with children of other races so that later they would qualify for acceptance at local private and government schools. The importance of their becoming fluent in English was a major priority.

Shaw Hall opened its doors to children of all races on 1 October 1987 (40 Blacks, 35 Coloureds and 9 Whites). Permission was obtained from the Group Areas Board to run a non-racial facility in a White Group Area. Between 1987 and 1991 the racial composition changed dramatically. In July 1991 the enrolment was 70 Blacks, 5 Coloureds and 1 White. The reason for this was that the need for pre-school facilities is greatest in the Black community. As more Black children were admitted the numbers of Coloured and White children declined. The school is now a non-racial facility in theory rather than practice. The building is owned by the Methodist Church and leased by the CSD, the moveable assets are the property of the CSD and the whole is controlled by an elected management committee.

The planning and development of St Philip's Nursery School which opened in January 1989 is described in Chapter 7. Two second hand prefabricated classrooms were used for the building which is housed in the grounds of St Philip's Church in the Fingo Village. It is owned by the CSD and controlled by an elected management committee.

The Sun City Nursery School established in April 1987 is a corrugated iron structure in a squatter camp. There were no facilities in this community until a soup kitchen was started in 1984 by an Anglican nun. The need for a pre-school for the local children was often

articulated, but no formal move was made until the Director received a donation of R20 000 from an American computer company. A committee consisting of two local school teachers, a social worker, two Sun City representatives and the CSD Director and Pre-school co-ordinator met regularly to get the project underway. The Anglican nun undertook responsibility for the grounds and gardens. The entire project development took five months. This included the training of prospective staff, the building operation and the purchase of furniture and equipment. The school initially housed fifty children. In 1988 it was extended so that 75 children could be accommodated. The total cost was R21 102. An anaerobic lavatory has since been installed. This waterless toilet provides the methane gas which is used in the kitchen to cook the children's meals. The committee has functioned extremely well and the management of the school has been good. The staff have however caused consistent problems. Young women from the squatter camp were trained as the first child care workers. They were not a success as they were slovenly and lacking in responsibility. They abused the use of the telephone, were casual in their approach to their work, and showed no sense of leadership. The second batch to be trained were young unemployed matriculants from residential areas outside of Sun City. They learned fast and did well, but left as soon as better paying jobs became available.

The presence of a nursery school and later a community hall, vegetable gardens and a children's park has had a marked physical impact on the settlement. The appearance of the camp has improved, the pre-school children are clean and well fed and the residents' attitudes appear to be more positive. It is hoped that the provision of these facilities will prove to provide further impetus in uplifting the living standards of this very deprived community.

The Raglan Road Child Care Centre was established by the CSD in the Fingo Village in 1990 to fulfil a number of needs. It provides for the following:

- * All day pre-school care including a full pre-school programme for 60 children aged 3 to 6 years.
- * After-school care and educational enrichment facilities for 60 children aged 6 to 9 years.
- * Adult education programmes in topics relating to child care, family health matters, nutrition etc.

This project was planned and developed by the CSD Director and the pre-school staff with assistance from an appointed community advisory committee which included a minister of

religion, a primary school principal and a community health nurse. The Director raised the funds and the committee met monthly to plan the facility. The Centre opened in April 1990 and all programmes were fully subscribed. The complex is owned by Rhodes University and managed by the CSD. The parents' committee is responsible for the organisation of concerts, outings and fundraising activities.

(ii) Details of the Home Care and Rural Outreach programmes are given in Chapter 7.

5.6.3 Adult Education

(i) Pre-school Training and Resource Facilities

Training sessions are held throughout the year and attract participants from not only Grahamstown but also from different areas of the Eastern Cape. These courses are run at various levels and include the following:

- * An Orientation course.
- * A Basic Training course.
- * An Intermediate course.
- * A Refresher course.
- * An Advanced course.
- * A Supervisors' course.
- * A Childminders' course.

The formal courses are run for five consecutive days and the participants are housed in either university residences or hotels. A nominal fee is charged and certificates of attendance are issued. Workshops are held monthly in Grahamstown, Bathurst, and Kenton-on-Sea for the care-givers in the Rural Outreach programme and for the "mothers" of the Home Care groups. These sessions which run in the mornings are followed by a simple lunch. The subjects covered include daily routine, toymaking, storytelling, outdoor activities, outings and school readiness.

Resource material includes over fifty theme packs which contain the material necessary for monthly planning, nature tables, suitable stories and songs. Reference books are available on most topics relating to pre-school children. A bi-annual newsletter is published to keep project staff informed of events and to disseminate information. The CSD has a Resource and Waste Room which acts as the central depot for the storage and distribution of a wide range of

materials including second hand books, toys and equipment and a variety of waste materials which can be used for art and construction activities.

(ii) Baby and Child Care Programme

This ongoing programme is presented every week at each of Grahamstown's three clinics by the fieldworkers. Brief presentations are made in the waiting rooms. Topics on various aspects of baby and child care are covered and leaflets illustrating the particular theme are handed out. A large number of people are exposed to these programmes.

(iii) Parent Education Programmes in Pre-school Centres.

These programmes are presented at the most convenient times for parents. At the Raglan Road Child Care Centre four parent education afternoons are held annually. Sundays have been selected as the best time and the programmes are specially designed so that the participants not only benefit from the formal talks but also have an enjoyable afternoon. Refreshments and cakes are served and there is a lucky draw with prizes. The entire programme is conducted in Xhosa. The following topics have been covered:

- * Hygiene in the home.
- * The role of today's parent.
- * The nursery school and the home.
- * Children and alcohol and drugs.
- * The importance of balanced and nutritious food.

All the sessions have been well attended and enjoyed. The parents help to select future programme topics.

(iv) Training in Committee Procedures.

Training is done in situ at committee meetings. CSD staff are assigned specific committees for which they are responsible. The work is difficult as most committee members have had no prior decision making or committee experience. Attendance at meetings is often erratic and the turnover of committee membership is high, especially in pre-schools where the children are enrolled for relatively short periods. A further problem is that no sooner is a committee functioning well when an annual general meeting is held and a completely new committee is elected. The whole training process has to start all over again. The CSD representative on the committee is expected to assist with the preparation of the agenda, to ensure that the minutes

are typed and mailed. Regular monthly meetings are held and the chairman and secretary are given ongoing assistance and support. The typing and mailing of documents is done by the CSD secretaries as none of the centres has access to typewriters and duplicators. Strict procedures at all meetings are followed.

(v) Basic Course in Bookkeeping

This six hour course is offered annually to enable community treasurers to become proficient bookkeepers. Receipting, banking, ledger keeping and payment of accounts are the major components. The course is conducted by the staff of the Accounting Department at Rhodes University. Attendance certificates are issued.

(vi) Commercial and Secretarial Centre

For many years the CSD received requests to establish a non-racial Commercial and Secretarial Centre in Grahamstown. The need was considerable because the local Technical College, administered by the House of Assembly, was unable to admit students other than Whites. In January 1987 a Commercial teacher moved to Grahamstown and made herself known to the Director. Within the period of one month premises were found, furniture and equipment was purchased and students were interviewed and selected. The Centre was registered as a Pitman Examination Centre and courses in Elementary and Intermediate Typing, Office Practice and Communications were offered. Fees are nominal and are subsidised by the GADRA Education Committee. Students are required to have passed Standard 9 and to be proficient in English. They are encouraged to join the Public Library and to read one English book each week. To broaden their knowledge they are taken on visits to a bank, a hotel, an office, a print unit, a computer centre and a travel agent.

The examination papers are marked in England. The results have been consistently good and 94% of students have passed all modules. The major stumbling block has been the students' poor grasp of the English language.

Table 12
Commercial Centre Enrolment: 1987 to 1991

Year	Full-time Students	Part-time Students	Full-time Staff	Part-time Staff
1987	18	12	1	1
1988	31	16	2	-
1989	18	15	1	1
1990	16	-	1	-
1991	21	36	1	2

From 1987 to 1991 a total of 104 students have attended the full time course and 79 the part-time evening courses. The part-time students are in employment and hope that their better qualifications will secure them promotions and improved salaries. The full-time students are all job-seekers and each year only five or six of them are successful in finding employment in Grahamstown.

5.6.4 Programmes for the Black Aged

In August 1988 the Director of the CSD was asked by the South African National Council for the Aged (SANCA) to assist in re-organising and revitalising the work of the Vezi Danga Organisation for the Black Aged in Grahamstown. In order to involve the whole community in taking responsibility for their own aged, a public meeting was held in October to publicise the organisation and to elect a representative management committee. In December 1988 1 500 pensioners were entertained to a Christmas Party and invited to become members of the organisation which was planning to establish a service centre in the Makaanaskop Township.

The Centre, built by the Rini Town Council and funded by SANCA, attracted a membership of over 100 and opened its doors in February 1989. A fieldworker was appointed to see to the wellbeing of the old people and to manage the Centre. The daily programme begins with devotions after which coffee and bread is served. Thereafter a variety of activities are embarked on which include arts and crafts, basket making, sewing and knitting, geriatric exercises and health talks. A well balanced subsidised meal is served at 12.30 pm at a cost of 20c to members.

The fundraising has been successfully undertaken by the CSD Director and a second service centre is to be established in the Fingo Village early in 1992.

The management committee and the fieldworker work well together. The old people have a purpose in life and appear to be contented. The CSD plans to be involved for a limited time only, after which the management committee will assume full responsibility for both centres.

5.7 Resource, Administrative and Service Provision

5.7.1 Fundraising Strategies

The CSD's fundraising attempts have been singularly successful. During the period 1976 to 1991 the Director has raised over R7m for the establishment and maintenance of many projects and programmes. The administrative costs of the CSD have been funded by a fee of 10% on all funds raised.

Most of the major business and industrial organisations set aside significant funds for social responsibility programmes. The embassies of foreign countries distribute considerable sums for development, education and black empowerment. There are many educational and charitable trusts to which application may be made for financial assistance. Grant making has become such big business in South Africa in recent years that fundraising advisory councils have been established, and directories of fundraising bodies published. It is now relatively easy to establish donors' preferences, but the actual securing of funds is becoming increasingly difficult. As more and more grassroots and community organisations are established increasing demands are made on a static number of funding agencies. Any group planning to embark on a fundraising campaign should therefore study the literature carefully and select the most likely organisations to approach.

The first document of request to a funding agency is an extremely important one. Ideally it should be so well done that it stands out amongst the many other applications received. The details included should be accurate and concise and the presentation should be attractive and professional. A covering letter of no longer than one page should give a clear indication of what the project is and how much funding is required. It should also list the contents of the enclosures. The following details should be included in the main submission when appropriate:

- * Information about the requesting agency. Aims. Constitution. Committee members. Fundraising number. Welfare registration. Name and address of project co-ordinator or contact person.
- * Community profile. Population statistics. Unemployment rate. Existing facilities. Literacy rate. Problem areas.

- * Definition of problem. What problems will the project be addressing?
- * Objectives of the project.
- * Project Design. Community consultation and support. Details of programme. Management. Fees. Staff and staff training. Building plans. Daily programme.
- * How progress will be measured and evaluated.
- * Cost of the project.
- * Draft income and expenditure statement for first year of operation.
- * Financial arrangements. Name and address of bank and number of bank account.
- * Annual Report and the previous audited financial statement are to be sent if the organisation is an established one.

Once donations have been received the obligations of the receiving agency to the donor agency are by no means over.

- (i) Progress reports are to be sent every six months while the facility is being established.
- (ii) Representatives are to be invited to the Opening Ceremony. If the donors are unable to attend the ceremony they very much appreciate receiving copies of speeches, photographs and newspaper cuttings of the occasion.
- (iii) Every year thereafter the Annual Report and the audited financial statement should be sent as a matter of course.

It is recommended that:

- * The quality of all documents sent to funding agencies should be of a high standard. Letters should be well typed on quality paper. The information in the memorandum should be clear and precise.
- * Good relationships between the donor and the receiver are to be fostered through regular reports and other contacts. The donor may visit the project from time to time. Such visits should be carefully planned and executed.
- * A donor may lose interest in a project if it takes too long to get off the ground. To encourage movement and to protect their own interest some donors release their funding in instalments as certain construction stages are reached. It is thus important that all the preliminary work is done before the donation is made, so that once it is received work on the project can proceed immediately.

- * Most funders give money to individuals and not to causes. It is therefore vital that the person requesting the money has an impeccable personal record and a sound reputation in the field of community work.

5.7.2 Funds Raised and Administered by the CSD

These are shown in Table 13. All amounts received prior to and after the establishment of the CSD are given up to and including August 1991. In so far as the administration of these funds is concerned the following should be noted.

- (i) The central administration of the CSD takes final responsibility for all projects for which funds are raised.
- (ii) The procurement of funds and subsidies and the financial management of all projects are the responsibility of the CSD.
- (iii) The CSD acts as a resource centre for all projects and is prepared to undertake typing, duplicating and the preparation of minutes, reports and agendas.
- (iv) CSD staff are prepared to assist with the ordering and purchasing of new equipment.
- (v) All accounts are paid by the project accountant. He also attends to the monthly salary cheques, investments and insurances.
- (vi) An administration levy is charged for major fundraising.
- (vii) The Finance Division of Rhodes University takes full responsibility for all funds other than those controlled by the accountant assigned to specific community based projects.

Table 13*Funds Raised and Administered by the Director and/or the CSD: 1976 to 1991*

(The amounts are rounded off and include donations received up and to including August 1991)	
Centre for Social Development 1982 to 1991	R 1 730 736
Pre-school Development project 1979 to 1991	514 100
GADRA Educational Welfare 1977 to 1991	1 312 634
Heidi Nursery School 1980 to 1991	111 091
Makanaskop Creche 1979 to 1990	290 886
St Mary's Day Care Centre 1981 to 1991	674 746
St Peter Clavers Nursery School 1982 to 1991	353 160
St Philip's Nursery School 1987 to 1991	211 190
Shaw Hall Day Care Centre 1987 to 1991	336 601
Sun City Nursery School 1988 to 1991	79 797
Raglan Road Child Care Centre 1989 to 1991	640 440
Raglan Road Children's Sportsfield 1990 to 1991	20 000
Vezi Danga Centre for the Black Aged 1989 to 1991	82 080
Sun City Community Hall 1989 to 1991	55 768
Helping Hamm Bursaries 1987 to 1991	3 000
Alice Bursary Fund 1987 to 1989	1 500
D G Murray Trust Bursaries 1984 to 1991	244 238
Ford/SAMCOR Bursaries 1985 to 1991	123 110
W K Kellogg Foundation Bursaries 1987 to 1991	153 000
Winifred Maxwell Bursaries 1986 to 1991	35 740
Grahamstown Training College Trust Bursaries	40 000
School for the Mentally Handicapped 1990 to 1991	125 000
Miscellaneous :	
Assumption Clinic 1979 to 1986	55 000
Assumption Nursery School 1989	70 500
Gladys Williams Creche 1980	4 000
Diepu Stadium 1978	4 000
St Mary's School 1977	5 000
Ntsika Junior Secondary School garden layout 1979	5 000
Libraries at Nombulelo and Nathaniel Nyaluza 1980	5 000
Vegetable growing project 1981	3 880
TOTAL	R 7 301 206

The benefits of this system are as follows:

- (i) Administration costs in projects are negligible.
- (ii) Project funds are professionally administered, monitored, invested and controlled.
- (iii) Project staff feel secure and confident in their jobs with the knowledge that the CSD can assist with problems and emergencies.
- (iv) Project staff and management committees learn and practice correct procedures. Meetings are held regularly, minutes are recorded and set planning patterns are followed.
- (v) When major works and repairs are necessary a qualified architect prepares the drawings and obtains quotations. His intervention ensures the high quality of the work undertaken and that reasonable charges are made.

- (vi) The ongoing support from the CSD ensures that the projects continue to function irrespective of staff problems, township traumas or other emergencies.

5.7.3 Involvement of International Funding Agencies

(i) The Bernard van Leer Foundation

From 1982 funding for the pre-school training and development programmes was secured from the Bernard van Leer Foundation in Holland. Van Leer, a Dutch industrialist who died in 1958, bequeathed the entire share capital of his worldwide enterprise for humanitarian purposes. Innovative projects designed to improve the educational, social and developmental opportunities for deprived children of 3 to 8 years are supported. These include children of ethnic minorities and children in slums and shanty towns and remote rural areas. While the Foundation does not organise or manage projects, it offers advice and support services and demands precise and regular project and financial reporting. An important part of the worldwide network is the exchange of information and ideas, inter-project visits and workshops and seminars. Decisions concerning major projects are taken in Holland by a Board of Trustees. The long term sustainability of a project is an essential ingredient (*Van Leer : 1989*). The Foundation has funded the pre-school training and development programme of the CSD since 1983. This will come to an end in 1991. Alternative funders are being sought for this vital work.

Table 14
Funds Received for Pre-school Training and Development Programmes: 1983 to 1991

1983	R 34 600
1984	40 400
1985	43 300
1986	18 400
1987	65 000
1988	64 500
1989	84 000
1990	87 000
1991	76 300
TOTAL	R 514 100

(ii) Kindernothilfe Germany

In 1956 in Frankfurt Germany after a challenging sermon from Pastor Niemoller a group of concerned Christians started tithing to feed the poor and hungry of India. This small beginning grew into a worldwide organisation which was formally constituted in 1959. The scheme is based on a foster parent - foster child relationship with subsidies being given to church based organisations. In Grahamstown fostership grants are received for 30 children at St Peter Claver's Nursery School and 70 children at St Mary's Day Care Centre. Procedures are defined in detail. Only the poorest of the poor, destitute or abandoned children may be selected. Subsidies are to be used for salaries, maintenance and administration costs, clothing, food, school books and fees and medical treatment. Money is also to be spent on reading books, musical instruments and games equipment. The children are to be taken on excursions or picnics at least once a year. The children correspond with their foster parents. Annual Reports and audited statements have to be submitted. If the home circumstances improve children are to be removed from the Centre and sent home to become the responsibility of their parents.

5.7.4 The Establishment of Community Based Facilities

The following procedures have been formulated and used by the CSD. A pre-school facility is used as the project example.

- (i) Ideally the needs and requirements for a particular facility should be formulated in the community and brought to the resource agency by a group of responsible community representatives. A reason for the high rate of CSD project success is that practically all have grown from the bottom up where the problem and need has been felt and considered at the grassroots level. Those projects which are imposed from the top down stand little chance of success.
- (ii) The community representatives suitably augmented with selected CSD professionals should then meet informally to discuss in detail the needs and requirements, concrete proposals and approximate costs. Five or six such meetings may be necessary before any conclusions are reached.
- (iii) Thereafter a community survey should be conducted to ascertain more accurately the numbers of children who would make use of the facility. The affordability of the project in terms of the monthly fee should also be canvassed. This can be done by conducting a house to house survey or by addressing groups in churches or at school meetings. Simple questionnaires are to be completed.

- (iv) Information about the proposals should be given to the local press.
- (v) A list of suitable and available buildings or plots should be compiled. The town council and estate agents provide the information required.
- (vi) Rough estimates of the cost for either a new building or a restored building should be obtained from an architect. A shopping list of equipment with prices should also be compiled. It is always sensible to start off with something small and manageable. Disadvantaged communities usually want to see results in the shortest possible time. If a project is too elaborate, too big and too expensive the chances are it will never get off the ground and not only will much effort be wasted, but people will feel let down and disappointed.
- (vii) Enquiries should then be made about possible sources of funding. There is little point embarking on a project and raising community expectations if the chances of obtaining adequate funding are remote.
- (viii) A public meeting should now be called. This should be carefully planned and the correct people selected to present the proposals. Ideally a local community hall or church should be the venue with the meeting being held at the most convenient time for the target audience. Notices of the meeting with a full agenda should be widely circulated and distributed and arrangements made for the serving of refreshments. This social time provides people with an opportunity to get to know each other and to discuss matters raised by contributors. Every effort should be made to have as many community leaders as possible present - school principals, ministers of religion, nurses, teachers, social workers and civic representatives. A well known and respected community personality should be invited to take the chair.
- (ix) The objectives of the public meeting are threefold:
 - * To present the proposal to the community.
 - * To ask the audience to recommend that the proposed project be implemented.
 - * To elect six to eight community representatives to serve on the steering committee. This committee will be the body responsible for bringing the project to reality. Members will remain in office until the management committee is elected at the first annual general meeting which normally takes place after the facility is built, equipped, staffed and occupied. The reason for this is that parent representatives are to be elected and without formally registered children there are no parents.

(x) The office bearers are elected by the steering committee at their first meeting. The steering committee comprises community representatives, CSD representatives and members who are co-opted for their expertise. Every matter is to be fully discussed by the committee along with all decisions affecting the project. The following tasks are to be attended to:

- * A bank or building society account is to be opened. The treasurer and two other members are to be nominated as signatories.
- * The organisation is to register with the Director of Fundraising and a Tax exemption certificate is to be applied for.
- * A fundraiser is to be appointed.
- * An architect is to be appointed to work in consultation with a building sub-committee.
- * A list of requirements with prices and suppliers is to be prepared.
- * A decision has to be taken as to whether the facility will be a new building or a reconditioned one.
- * If a new building is to be built land must be secured.
- * A draft constitution is to be worked on.
- * Dates, times and venues of monthly meetings are to be arranged.
- * The approval of building plans, the appointment of a quantity surveyor, the calling for tenders and the selection of the building contractor are subsequent tasks.
- * Staff are to be appointed and trained.
- * Application forms, rules are to be drafted.
- * Children are to be selected.
- * The daily programme and menus are to be prepared.
- * When the centre is built and operational it has to be registered with the appropriate government authorities.
- * A certificate from the Municipal Health Department has to be obtained prior to commencement.
- * The building has to be checked by the Fire Department.

(xi) The first annual general meeting is to be held as soon after the opening as possible. At that meeting the following has to take place:

- * The constitution is to be adopted.
- * Five parent members are to be elected to serve on the management committee.

- * The official auditors are to be appointed.
 - * A date for the official opening to be decided on.
- (xii) The management committee thereafter takes full responsibility for the project and ensures that the conditions of the constitution are adhered to. Should the committee decide to apply for state subsidy a request is to be submitted to the relevant government department.

5.7.5 CSD Contact with Community Groups, Organisations and Networks

The staff of the CSD have contact with thousands of people each year. While the majority visit the Centre seeking resource assistance and information, others volunteer to work in community projects. Donations in kind are delivered daily and the Centre acts as the conduit for their distribution. The Centre plays an ongoing dynamic role in dealing with a wide range of individuals, groups and organisations, all of whom have different requirements and expectations.

Staff members of the Centre have a wide set of contacts through their membership of local, regional and national organisations. The Centre acts as a major link between members of the university and local township groups, eg Christian students became involved in a three year project to upgrade the cottages of Black pensioners and a Rhodes Rag initiative involved hundreds of students in preparing and planting a grass field at St Mary's. Other groups have offered their time and expertise to township projects for sports, art, drama and English language programmes. Students and staff involved in research projects have been introduced to the individuals and groups they wish to meet. Centre staff have regularly lectured to student classes on topics ranging from "The social responsibility of business" to "Social planning, fundraising and project establishment."

With the Centre acting as the intermediary, Grahamstown school children have become meaningfully involved in projects ranging from organising soup kitchens, to running an educational programme for long term Black child patients in the local hospital to painting a community hall. The Director's advice has been sought by schools planning to run their own outreach programmes.

The Centre has made its professional services and premises available to other organisations with similar aims and objectives. The South African Society for Marriage and Family Life and

Legal Aid were provided with office space from 1982 to 1984 when they were new and struggling organisations. The Eastern Cape New Era Schools Trust (NEST) Board, of which the Director is Chairman, worked out of the Centre from 1983 to 1990. From 1982 to 1986 the pre-school staff worked in the Red Cross Creche in an endeavour to upgrade the level of education, standards and procedures.

Centre staff have assisted with the establishment or restructuring of community organisations. For example when the Mother and Child Nutrition programme, established to educate mothers to feed babies suffering from Kwashiorkor, foundered when health workers complained that bad mothers were being rewarded, the Director was called in to investigate and advise. Centre staff have assisted in the establishment of new organisations and programmes such as the South African Council for Higher Education (SACHED), the Gold Shield Award Scheme and the Street Law Programme. They have served on numerous councils such as the Urban Foundation, Nombulelo School and the Phalo Children's Home. They have played a role in bridging the gap between the town and the townships through conducting organised tours and by agreeing to address and show slides on their work to organisations, schools and student groups.

The Director has from time to time agreed to raise funds for various outside projects and organisations. In 1983 R7 000 was raised to enable the Read, Educate and Development Organisation (READ) to conduct a five day librarianship course for forty school teacher participants in Grahamstown. This was a pre-requisite for the establishment of three READ libraries in local Black schools. In 1983 a donation of R5 000 enabled the pupils of Ntsika School to landscape and beautify the grounds of their school. In 1985 R28 000 was secured to launch the Primary School Science Education project in forty schools in Grahamstown and the surrounding rural areas. In 1990 the Sun City hall and children's play park were established from a R32 000 donation, and the Vezi Danga Organisation was able to build and equip two service centres from appeals which realised R43 000. A special school for mentally retarded children will shortly be established from donations raised and promised worth R225 000. Many community groups planning to embark on their own fundraising drives have consulted the Director for advice. These include the Red Cross Society, the Methodist Church, the New Horizon School and the Kenton-on-Sea Ladies' Benevolent Society.

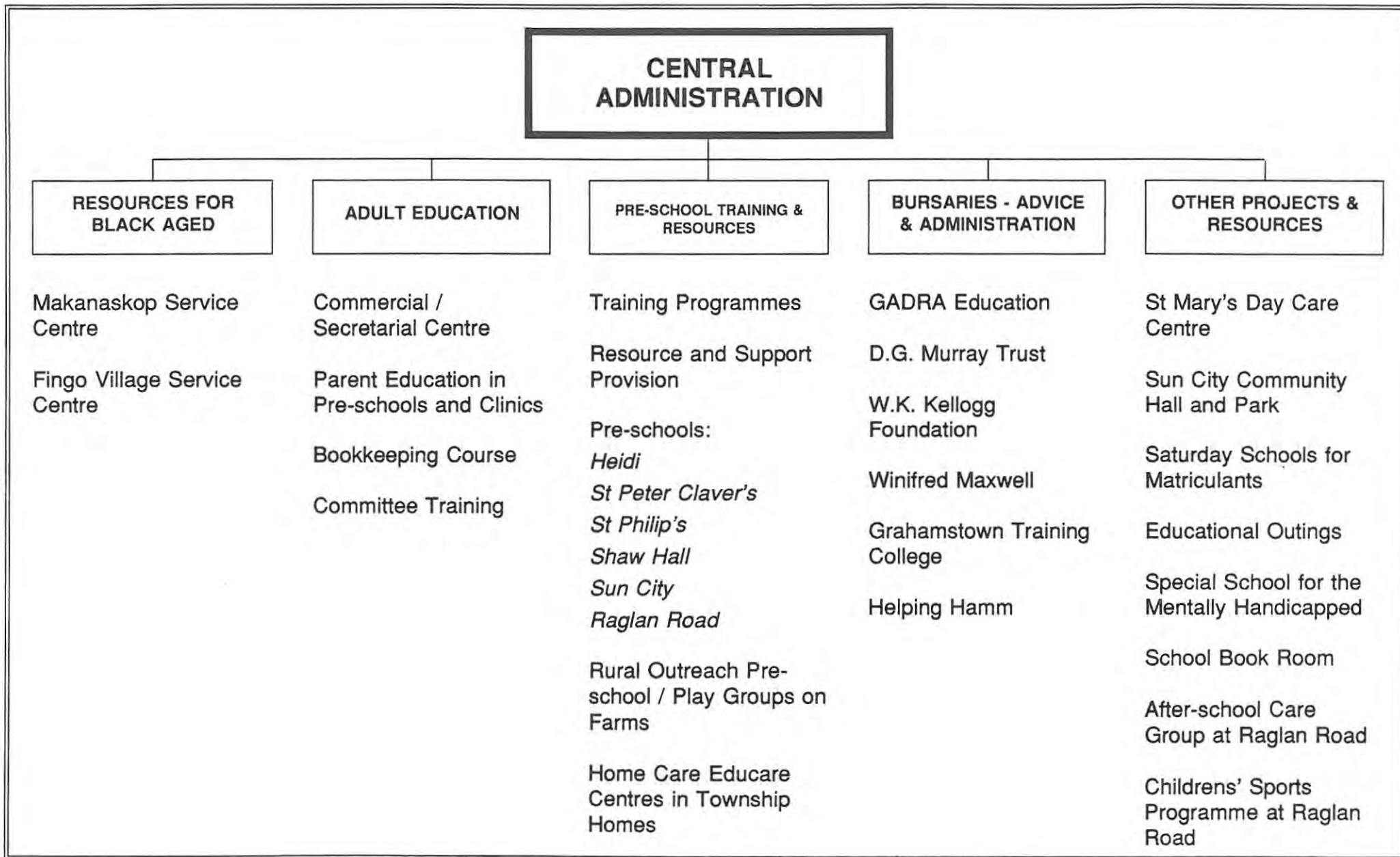


Figure 4
Diagrammatic Representation of Relationship of the CSD Administration and Projects

5.8.2 Organisation and Control (Figure 4)

Different members of staff have been assigned to particular aspects of the work and centre-linked projects. These are as follows:

The Central Administration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Administration * Public Relations Director * Fundraising * Financial Control * Secretarial services 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Director & Admin. Secretary Director Director Director Admin. Secretary & Assistant
The Pre-school Division	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Urban Pre-schools * Rural Pre-schools * Home Care groups * Training programmes * Committee attendance * Fundraising * Financial Control * Resource & Waste Room 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Co-ordinator and Trainer Rural Co-ordinator & Fieldworker Fieldworkers 1 & 2 Co-ordinators & Trainers & Fieldworker Director & Co-ordinator & Trainer Director Projects' Accountant Fieldworker 3
The Bursaries Division	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Committees * Fundraising * Student contact * Administration * Financial Control 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Director & Co-ordinator & Assistant Director Co-ordinator & Assistant Co-ordinator & Assistant Projects' Accountant
School Related Projects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Saturday School * St Mary's Day Care Centre * Raglan Road After-school * Student Outings * Fundraising 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Bursaries Administrator Director Director & Pre-school Co-ordinator Director Director
Adult Education Programmes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Commercial Centre * Basic Bookkeeping * Clinic Programme * Parent Education * Committee training * Sun City Hall 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Commercial supervisor & staff Director Fieldworkers 1 & 2 Parent Educator & Director Pre-school Co-ordinator, Parent Educator and Director Director
Old Age Projects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Makanaskop and Fingo Village Service Centres * Fundraising * Financial Control 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Director Director Projects' Accountant

Wherever possible delegation of responsibility has taken place. Communication both upwards and downwards is maintained through the reading of minutes and brief informal meetings. All staff members have free and ready access to any other member of staff and regular contact is encouraged. As the Director assumes the final and full responsibility for all the projects she expects to be informed about any problems or irregularities immediately they occur. Very often difficulties can be resolved if they are detected and dealt with early. Brief consultations held timeously usually prevent problems from escalating and becoming major difficulties.

5.9 Conclusion

This chapter traced the development of the CSD from its inception to the present time. It also investigated the factors leading to the Director's involvement in community and development projects. The management and organisational skills cited are important because many of them are new to the literature. The emphasis lies in experience in the fields of personnel and managerial organisation prior to entering the social welfare arena. The importance of employing suitably trained and experienced personnel cannot be sufficiently stressed, as this policy has contributed significantly to the orderly growth and development of the CSD. There also seems to be a strong case for not placing young and inexperienced workers in control of development projects.

The steady growth of the projects and programmes along with their successful implementation needs careful investigation. The fact that no new project was embarked without strong community support and adequate financial backing is significant. Practically all the priority needs expressed by NGO's, after their proliferation following the unbanning of political organisations and the release of the detainees in 1989 and 1990, were embarked on by the CSD in its early stages of development. The programmes have been modified with changing needs and requirements. The fluctuating dynamics of the CSD have enabled the projects to remain relevant to the changing times.

None of the community based projects and programmes could have been implemented without the professional input of the CSD staff, with particular reference to both fundraising and administration. Most importantly the umbrella-like function of the CSD has enabled the projects to run cost-effectively because there has been no duplication of service provision. The projects themselves, while having very minor administration expenses, have a good administration framework and, most importantly, the services of a qualified bookkeeper or accountant.

The fundraising strategies have been successful and the Director has become pre-eminent in this field. She has conducted numerous seminars on fundraising and has shared her expertise with many other organisations.

The administration and management of the CSD is based on the delegation of authority and responsibility. It is of the utmost importance that all members of staff are motivated and committed, and that their loyalty to the Centre and the communities they serve is unquestioned.

CHAPTER SIX

INTERVENTION STRATEGY 1 : ST MARY'S DAY CARE CENTRE

6.1 Introduction

Members of the Coloured community have long regarded themselves as the neglected people of Grahamstown when provision is made for the allocation of facilities and financial resources. Their deprivation and need seldom seems as acute as that in the Black townships, despite the fact that many families in the poorer areas are equally deserving. The Principal of St Mary's Primary School has long been deeply concerned about the welfare of many of her pupils and makeshift arrangements have been made from time to time to nourish them and keep them warm in winter. A soup kitchen provided bread and soup and warm jerseys were distributed annually. This intervention provided band-aid treatment but did little to address the real problems.

The establishment of a day care centre for severely disadvantaged and deprived schoolgoing children has been a milestone achievement in meeting these needs. It is the only institution of its kind in South Africa and was established in 1981. Its history, sources of funding, management and daily programmes are described and evaluated in this chapter. The case studies of fourteen children provide insights into their home and economic circumstances of the children it serves. The problems of the Centre are described and its aims are described and evaluated. The respective roles of the CSD, management committee, church and parents are also investigated.

The work of St Mary's should be viewed as an ongoing struggle between its constructive programmes, values and attitudes on the one hand and the harmful influences of the home environment on the other. While providing for the physical, educational and emotional needs of the children, the staff of the Centre believe that the well being and future of children can be influenced regardless of the prevailing economic and environmental conditions.

6.2 The Sponsoring Agency: Kindernothilfe (KNH)

The major sponsor of the Centre has been KNH, a German based Christian organisation. Without their ongoing monthly support the Centre would cease to exist. The KNH programme was established in post World War II Germany to assist severely disadvantaged children

throughout the world. It is a foster-parent foster-child relationship. German families adopt a child or children and subsidise their keep at a KNH approved centre which has to be associated with a mainline Christian church. In 1991 the monthly value of a single subsidy was R64,08. Subsidies are used for salaries, maintenance and administration costs, clothing, food, school books and fees and medical treatment. The children are expected to correspond regularly with their foster parents. Annual reports and audited statements have to be submitted. If home circumstances improve and parents can afford to care for children who are in KNH centres, the children are asked to leave so that other more needy young people can take their places.

6.3 History

In November 1980 the writer was visited by two representatives from KNH Germany. She took them to St Mary's school in the Coloured community, where they were met by the Principal, who said that that very morning she and her staff had met to discuss what they could do about the starving children who were falling asleep at their desks. After a tour of inspection and an in-depth discussion the visitors said that if a strong case could be motivated they would do their best to provide financial assistance for the establishment of a facility to assist the poorest and most needy children.

In January 1981 representatives from St Mary's school, St Mary's church and The Society of St Vincent de Paul met with the writer to discuss the KNH proposal. It was agreed that a motivation be sent to Germany. This was prepared and mailed within the month. The proposal was that a day care centre be established to provide nutritious meals, clothing, and care for 70 severely deprived primary school children. In April 1981, a letter from KNH was received informing the committee that they had agreed to sponsor 70 children at the rate of R17 per month per child. A series of meetings followed, parents were interviewed, application forms were completed, a steering committee was elected and the work of launching the project began in earnest. The Assumption Order was approached about the possibility of a sister being seconded to run the centre.

Thereafter monthly meetings of the steering committee were held. The writer took responsibility for raising the funds, an architect worked on the building plans and equipment was purchased. In October a start was made in rented premises where lunches were served to seventy children. The building and equipping of the Centre was not completed until November 1982

when the supervisor, an Assumption sister with nursing qualifications, took control. The steering committee made way for the management committee which was elected at the annual general meeting in May 1983. After a year in office the supervisor resigned and her place was taken by the chairman of the management committee who had been associated with the project since its inception. He was well known and respected and had strong community links having grown up in Grahamstown.

6.4 Aims and objectives

The aims and objects in the constitution with respect to the care of children are very general.

They read thus:

To assist the physical, educational and spiritual development of needy children of primary school age by:

- (i) providing facilities for rest, recreation and supervised study in a Christian atmosphere.
- (ii) providing material assistance, particularly in the form of food and clothing.

A more detailed and specific set of aims and objectives have been developed over the years and the following now provides the direction and guidelines for the management of the Centre.

- (i) To provide deprived school going children with pre and post schooltime care.
- (ii) To provide the children with school clothes, books and basic school requirements.
- (iii) To ensure that the children wash and bath regularly and are clean and tidy.
- (iv) To provide the children with nourishing and appetizing meals at breakfast and lunchtime and a snack at closing time.
- (v) To provide facilities where the children can do their homework.
- (vi) To organise afternoon programmes which include the use of library books, sporting activities, indoor and outdoor games, art, music, films and gardening.
- (vii) To ensure that the children receive good medical attention when necessary.
- (viii) To give as much love and personal attention as possible to each individual child and by so doing to increase and improve the child's self concept and self-confidence.
- (ix) To involve the parents in the life of the Centre and to conduct educational programmes for their benefit.
- (x) To take the children on at least one outing, picnic or excursion, each year.
- (xii) To provide for the spiritual welfare of the children.
- (xiii) To equip the children to cope with the demands of the school system and the challenge of living in a complex society.

6.5 The Establishment of the Centre

6.5.1 Selection Procedures

6.5.1.1 KNH Guidelines

The KNH South Africa committee has set certain criteria for the selection of KNH foster children. There are two major cut-offs which ensure that help extends as far as possible in aiding really needy children. The first is the family income level and the second is that only one child from each family may be accepted.

- (i) Children should be selected who, without KNH support, would not be able to attend school. Selection should be according to the greatest needs i.e. full orphans, semi-orphans without mothers/fathers, abandoned children, destitute children, children of very sick or aged parents without means of support, children from broken homes and children from families who are extremely poor and have a large number of dependents. The religious affiliation of the child shall not influence the decision.
- (ii) Only one child from each family will be considered for fostership except in particularly depressing circumstances when two children from the same family may apply. The warden of the Home should send an accompanying note with applications which come from the same family in which he will elaborate on the circumstances of the family in question.
- (iii) The following factors are to be taken into account - if the father works and supports the family, if he is out of work, if older children are working and if they help the family.
- (iv) The income of the family should not exceed:
R120 per month for a small family (1-3 children)
R150 per month for a medium family (4-5 children)
R180 per month for a large family (6 plus children).
- (v) Children should preferably not be older than 14 years, and never more than 17 years old. Amongst qualifying children, more intelligent ones capable of completing a high school education should be selected (*KNH 1978 : 13*).

6.5.1.2 The Process

- (i) The staff of St Mary's Primary School investigated the family circumstances of every child in the school and selected the most needy and neglected. The members of the St Vincent de Paul Society met to choose the most needy children from their files.

- (ii) Members of the steering committee and the St Vincent de Paul Society visited the homes of all these children and completed a KNH Identity Sheet for each (*Addendum 8*). Detailed descriptions of family and home circumstances were taken.
- (iii) The Identity Sheets were studied and sorted by the steering committee. Eighty completed sheets were sent to the Johannesburg KNH office where the final selection of 70 children was made. In later years referrals made by the Grahamstown Child Welfare Society were considered. These are normally children who have been raped or abused.

The concept of the proposed Day Care Centre was met with suspicion and disbelief by most parents and community members. Numerous meetings called by the steering committee to keep them informed of progress were poorly attended. The parents needed to see actual concrete evidence of the building before they were able to accept that their children would be assisted.

6.5.2 Clothing and Equipment

The KNH Manual has very specific instructions about clothing. "KNH expects that each foster child should receive each year a set of clothing. Very deserving children should be provided also with underwear" (*KNH 1978 : 19*). The Centre has been able to provide every child with two full sets of school uniform and underwear i.e. shirts, gymslips or trousers, jackets, jerseys, socks, vests and underpants. They are also given a pair of shoes, gymshoes and a school satchel. All clothing is replaced as it wears out. When children outgrow their clothes the articles are handed down to the smaller children. All children come to the Centre and return home again in their own clothes for practical and security reasons. All the laundry is done in the Centre. If Centre owned clothing is taken home there is no guarantee that it will be returned. Every Christmas KNH provides additional funds for individual Christmas presents for each child. The children are taken to town by the supervisor to choose their own gifts. They normally select clothes that they can wear at home. One Christmas morning, the supervisor was visited by two heartbroken little girls. Their mother had sold their Christmas dresses in order to purchase alcohol. The dresses were located and bought back, but the incident illustrates the poor home circumstances, the lack of interest in the children and the parents' dependency on alcohol.

Adequate clothing is important for a number of reasons. Firstly the children must learn to change their underwear every day and school uniforms every week. They are told that the practice is hygienic and prevents disease. Secondly it is vital that they go to school each day looking and feeling smart and clean. This is important for their image and for their relationships with the other children. They are not branded as poor or deprived because their clothes are clean, pressed and mended and they themselves are clean and tidy.

The Centre is well equipped and stocked. In the toilet area the provision for each child is two towels and facecloths, a hairbrush and a toothbrush. In the dining/study area the furniture comprises pine tables and brightly coloured plastic chairs. The kitchen has two stoves, a large refrigerator, a washing and drying machine and a full range of pots and pans, plates and dishes and cutlery. There is a well equipped sick room and a fully appointed office. The Centre has a piano which is put to good use and a library with hundreds of donated children's books. The games room has a wide range of indoor and outdoor equipment for all interests and age groups.

6.5.3 The Daily Programme

This is as follows:

- | | |
|----------------|---|
| 6.30 - 7.00 am | The children change out of their own clothes into their school uniforms. They arrange their clothes neatly in their individual lockers. They have turns in the bathroom to wash thoroughly. |
| 7.00 | Breakfast is served and grace is said. The children help to clear away dishes and tidy up. |
| 7.15 | They go back to the bathroom to visit the lavatory, wash hands, brush teeth and brush and comb their hair. The staff inspect them to ensure they are neatly turned out for school. |
| 7.30 | They leave for school. While most attend St Mary's and George Dickerson Schools which are close by, the older children have a long walk to the Mary Waters High School. |
| 12.45 pm | The younger children return to the Centre. They read or play until the older children arrive. All children wash their hands. |
| 1.30 | Lunch is served and grace is said. The children help to clear away dishes and tidy up. |

2.00 to 4.00 The afternoon programme.

This varies from day to day and also for the younger and older groups. All children have to bath and wash their hair once a week. This routine continues despite the arranged activities. The activities include the following:

Soccer, netball, tennis, aerobics, gymnastics, karate, cooking lessons, homework and silent reading, films, drama, art, crafts and English classes.

4.00 The children come inside to change back into their own clothes, tidy up and prepare to go home. They visit the bathroom for final ablutions.

4.15 Snack-time. Each child has a peanut butter sandwich and a glass of milk.

4.30 Home time. All children walk home.

6.5.4 Comments

- (i) Food is the most important part of the programme. The children enjoy their meals and always clean their plates. This is because very few of them receive substantial meals in their own homes. Good manners and conversation are encouraged at table. The older children are taught to help the younger ones and to ensure that utensils are passed carefully. They are also encouraged to clear away the dishes and help with the washing up.
- (ii) Routines are meticulously adhered to. Hands are washed before all meals and after all visits to the toilet. Teeth are brushed after breakfast. Grace is said before breakfast and lunch. The same things happen every day at the same time. The reason for this is that the children have little or no routine in their own homes. Routine aids discipline and enables the staff to know who has done what and when.
- (iii) The activities vary from year to year depending on which Rhodes students and community members offer their services. A fee of R6 per hour is paid to all helpers. Experience proved that voluntary workers were unreliable and uncommitted. Students have to have specific skills to be engaged.
- (iv) The activities always differ from those provided at school. Every effort is made to widen interests and teach specific skills. One little girl with music talent was given piano lessons and went on to win a gold medal at the Grahamstown Eisteddfod.
- (v) The outings to places of interest such as museums and nature reserves give the children a knowledge and experience which their fellow classmates do not have. These experiences enable them to participate more fully in the classroom situation.

- (vi) The children are encouraged to do many chores in and around the Centre. They work in the vegetable and flower gardens, the boys help with the drying of the dishes and the girls iron their dresses. When the supervisor's bakkie has to be cleaned the children do it.
- (vii) The older children are encouraged to help the younger ones dress, attend to their toilet and put on their shoes. This helps them to share and not to be selfish.
- (viii) The programme aims to keep the children stimulated and busy. They are involved in activities which are not offered in their schools and they are exposed to books and games which are absent from their homes.

6.5.5 Food and Menus

The provision of good nutritious food is a major part of the Centre's work. Without exception, every child coming to the Centre for the first time is underweight and undernourished. Many show the symptoms of kwashiorkor and protein deficiency. Two full meals and a snack are served daily from Monday to Friday. It has been established that most children receive meagre fare at home. When the Centre closes in December the supervisor is inundated with requests for food from starving children. The KNH manual instruction about food reads as follows "The first claim on the fostership grant should be for an adequate and balanced diet for all the children i.e. a diet containing not only starch but also fat, vitamins (vegetables, fruits) and protein (meat, chicken, fish, cheese, milk, beans) in adequate quantities" (KNH 1978 : 19).

For breakfast hot porridge and milk with bread and jam alternates with eggs, french toast or liver with bread and jam. The lunches include fruit, meat, vegetables and pudding. The two week cycle (*Addendum 6*) which is strictly adhered to has proved to be popular and successful. These menus provide the basic minerals, calcium and nutrients for growing children. The servings are more than adequate and the children can always ask for seconds. The afternoon snack served before home-time consists of a peanut butter sandwich with cold milk in summer and hot chocolate in winter.

The Rhodes University nutritionist, Miss Jane Dalton, was requested to comment on the nutritional value of the weekly menu. Her reply dated 24.7.91 is as follows: "I have examined your two week cycle of breakfast and lunch menus. I find that the menus are well planned and that they meet the daily nutritional requirements (assuming that the children will be fed at home each evening). Breakfast is the most important meal of the day and it is known that pupils who

have had sufficient protein at breakfast were more alert than others who only had carbohydrates for breakfast. Your breakfast and lunch menu provides the pupils with varied and appetising meals containing sufficient protein, carbohydrate, fat, fibre, vitamin, calcium (needed for bones and teeth), all sources for energy, growth and body maintenance."

6.6 The Children and their Circumstances

6.6.1 Selection Procedure for Case Studies (*Addendum 7*)

Fourteen children were selected for this study from the files of those who have left the Centre. The folders were not sorted. Every sixth one was selected. The information used was taken from the KNH Application and Leavers' Forms, School and Social Workers' reports and verbal comments from the supervisor. The files were placed in alphabetical order and numbered from one (1) to fourteen (14). The circumstances described closely reflect those of all Centre children (*Table 16*).

Fifty percent of the children selected were admitted in 1981 when the Centre opened its doors to 70 children. The remaining 50% were admitted in subsequent years as vacancies occurred i.e. 2 in 1983, 2 in 1984, 2 in 1987 and 1 in 1989.

Table 15
Numbers on Roll, Leavers and Acceptances: 1981 to 1991¹

Year	Children on Roll	Leavers	New Acceptances
1981	70	0	9
1982	79	2	9
1983	86	11	3
1984	78	14	14
1985	78	4	0
1986	74	15	31
1987	90	11	17
1988	96	12	12
1989	96	16	18
1990	100	16	6
1991	78		

¹From St Mary's Day Care Centre Register & Leavers' Forms. 1981 to 1991.

- (vi) The children are encouraged to do many chores in and around the Centre. They work in the vegetable and flower gardens, the boys help with the drying of the dishes and the girls iron their dresses. When the supervisor's bakkie has to be cleaned the children do it.
- (vii) The older children are encouraged to help the younger ones dress, attend to their toilet and put on their shoes. This helps them to share and not to be selfish.
- (viii) The programme aims to keep the children stimulated and busy. They are involved in activities which are not offered in their schools and they are exposed to books and games which are absent from their homes.

6.5.5 Food and Menus

The provision of good nutritious food is a major part of the Centre's work. Without exception, every child coming to the Centre for the first time is underweight and undernourished. Many show the symptoms of kwashiorkor and protein deficiency. Two full meals and a snack are served daily from Monday to Friday. It has been established that most children receive meagre fare at home. When the Centre closes in December the supervisor is inundated with requests for food from starving children. The KNH manual instruction about food reads as follows "The first claim on the fostership grant should be for an adequate and balanced diet for all the children i.e. a diet containing not only starch but also fat, vitamins (vegetables, fruits) and protein (meat, chicken, fish, cheese, milk, beans) in adequate quantities" (KNH 1978 : 19).

For breakfast hot porridge and milk with bread and jam alternates with eggs, french toast or liver with bread and jam. The lunches include fruit, meat, vegetables and pudding. The two week cycle (*Addendum 6*) which is strictly adhered to has proved to be popular and successful. These menus provide the basic minerals, calcium and nutrients for growing children. The servings are more than adequate and the children can always ask for seconds. The afternoon snack served before home-time consists of a peanut butter sandwich with cold milk in summer and hot chocolate in winter.

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1987	90	11	17
1988	96	12	12
1989	96	16	18
1990	100	16	6
1991	78		

¹From St Mary's Day Care Centre Register & Leavers' Forms. 1981 to 1991.

The numbers on the roll have averaged 84 with a low of 70 and a high of 100. The actual numbers correspond to the 70 KNH sponsorships and additional sponsorships received each year from the Lutheran Scholarship Fund, the St Vincent de Paul Society and private sources. The number of awards varies from year to year.

6.6.2 The Children and the Centre (Table 16)

There are 8 boys and 6 girls in the sample. All were accepted into the Centre as primary school children and over half left in their high school years. The duration of their stay was as follows: 2 for 9 years, 2 for 8 years, 2 for 7 years, 1 for 6 years, 3 for 5 years and 1 child for each of 4, 3, 2 and 1 years.

The difficulties the children experienced in adjusting to the Centre were considerable. The home circumstances were such that many children had never sat at a table to eat a meal and had never learned how to handle a knife and fork. Most had little conception of cleanliness and hygiene having grown up with communal street taps and outside toilets. On arrival they were dirty and in tatters and the task of getting them clean and presentable was a major undertaking. Many had never had a proper bath, nor had they ever washed their hair. Getting them accustomed to these new routines took many difficult months and much patience. Interestingly enough they loved brushing their teeth. The staff report that it took them a couple of years to reach the standards of cleanliness that satisfied them. One of the major difficulties was that the children went home fairly clean each afternoon only to return the following morning in a filthy condition.

Food was never a problem, but table manners were. They had to be shown how to use a knife and fork, when to use a spoon, how to pass and not to stretch. They were taught how to set the tables for meals and how to stack and clear away the used dishes. To begin with they were so busy concentrating on what to do and how to do it that meal times were strangely silent affairs.

They had to be taught not to swear and not to shout. They also had to learn when they could make a noise and when they had to be quiet. The Centre was clearly a strange new world for them.

Table 16
Selected Case Studies of 14 Children who have left St Mary's Day Care Centre

Child	Year of Entry	Sex	Age of Entry	Class of Entry	Children in Family	Father	Father's Income p/m	Mother	Mother's Income p/m	Other	Status	Income p/m	Total no of Rooms in House /Shack	Total no of People in Dwelling	No of People in Family	Actual Family Accommodation	No of Years in Centre	Area Lived in
1	1981	F	7	Sub A	2	Employed	R95	Unemployed	-	-	-	-	1	Not known	4	One room	9	Scotts Farm
2	1981	M	13	Std 4	4	Disability allowance	R93	Deceased	-	-	-	-	3	13	5	One room	7	Scotts Farm
3	1981	M	8	Sub B	8	Deserted	-	Employed	R30	-	-	-	1	Not known	7	One roomed shered shack	9	Johnson /Wyke
4	1981	M	9	Std 1	7	Employed	R120	Employed	R76	-	-	-	1	Not known	9	One room in house	9	Scotts Farm
5	1981	F	10	Std 2	2	Social Pension	R62	Foster Parent	R77,50	-	-	-	3	8	3	Shared house	7	Scotts Farm
6	1984	M	11	Std 2	4	Deserted	-	Foster parent	R102	-	-	-	Not known	Not known	5	Not known	6	Johnson /Wyke
7	1983	F	9	Std 1	8	On Farm	Not known	Unemployed	-	-	-	-	3	16	8	Shared house	5	Johnson /Wyke
8	1981	F	9	Std 2	3	Deceased	-	Maintenance grant	R91	-	-	-	1	10	4	Shared shack	4	Fingo Village
9	1983	M	10	Sub A	3	Deserted	-	Deserted	-	Grandmother	Social Pensioner	R65	2	4	4	Own house	5	Scotts Farm
10	1984	M	11	Std 4	5	Temp. employment	Not known	Employed	R40	-	-	-	3	11	7	Shared house	5	Irving Heights
11	1981	M	9	Sub B	6	Deserted	-	Part-time employed	R40	-	-	-	1	Not known	8	One room in house	8	Scotts Farm
12	1987	F	12	Std 3	12	Employed	Not known	Unemployed	-	-	-	-	5	13	13	Own shack	3	Sun City
13	1989	F	8	Sub A	7	Deserted	-	Employed	R65	-	-	-	2	8	8	Own shack	1	Sun City
14	1987	M	7	Sub A	4	Deserted	-	Mother	-	Grandmother Grandfather	Social Pensions	R117 R117	No details	6	6	Own house	2	Scotts Farm

Other problems involved discipline, lateness and an inability to relate to adults. Rules and routines had to be learned and disciplinary procedures adhered to. The children had to know that they were loved by the Centre staff, but that unacceptable behaviour would not be tolerated. By and large they were afraid of adults because in their world the grown ups drank and swore and were cruel to children.

Much learning had to be done on both sides through trial and error. The staff had no previous experience and it is to their credit that they coped as well as they did. The supervisor and the three helpers had to train, discipline, feed, clothe and love up to 100 children at any one time.

The reasons for their leaving the Centre are essentially linked to the considerable mobility of the people in their socio-economic group. Much of the movement is linked to improved or hoped-for employment opportunities. In a few cases children have been sent back to the farming and rural areas where conditions are perceived to be an improvement on Grahamstown. This demonstrates how desperate some circumstances are, as most people seek a better life in the urban areas. Being responsible for teenage pregnancies resulted in the departure of two boys, while one boy had a conflict with the law and one girl was sent away to a Place of Safety and Detention. One child was withdrawn so that she could stay at home to care for her brothers and sisters. In 1989 sixteen children left the Centre. Six went to live with grandparents or aunts in other centres and on farms. Four left Grahamstown with their parents who had found employment elsewhere, four left because of improved home circumstances and two no longer attended because they had dropped out of school.

6.6.3 Home and Family Circumstances

"A household is in poverty when its income, however wisely used and however carefully budgeted, is inadequate to meet the basic costs in the short run for healthy survival and decency. There must be at a minimum sufficient food, clothing, fuel and lighting, personal care and household cleansing and shelter for the family" (*Watts 1971 : 40*). Using these guidelines there is no doubt that all the St Mary's children come from poverty stricken households.

The number of children per family varies from a low of 2 to a high of 12. It is important to note that not all the children are blood brothers and sisters and some are not physically related to their so-called mothers, fathers and grandparents. Children and grandchildren of other relatives are often included in the numbers quoted.

Many of the "parents" are not parents at all. Guardians include grandparents, adoptive parents, single mothers and fathers, unmarried mothers and fathers, foster mothers and the like. Almost none of the children come from stable, balanced, normal families. Of the 14 families studied 3 have a regular mother and father, 2 have a father only, 1 has a father and a foster mother, 1 has an unmarried mother and father, 4 have mothers only, 2 have a grandmother and grandfather and 1 has a grandmother only.

The number of deceased or deserted parents in the sample is high. Seven of the fourteen families have one deceased parent, one has two. There are grandmothers and foster mothers in four of the homes. Of the 22 adults in the sample 9 have permanent jobs, 2 are employed in a temporary or part-time capacity, 4 rely on old age pensions, 1 on a disability grant, 1 on a maintenance grant, and 2 on grants for foster children and 3 are unemployed.

The home circumstances are overcrowded and inadequate. Only four families live in a house or shack of their own. The majority live in one room in a shared house or shack with the number of occupants per room ranging from 4 persons to 9. This density demonstrates the extent of the overcrowding. None of these dwellings has a bathroom or inside toilet and many children sleep on the floor. Every household has problems which range from alcohol abuse to various ailments including asthma and malnutrition. All suffer from extreme deprivation and poverty.

6.7 The Management of the Centre

6.7.1 The Management Committee

The parish priest, the principal of St Mary's School, two members of the St Mary's parish, one representative from the St Vincent de Paul Society, one representative appointed by KNH, two parent members and the supervisor of the Day Care Centre comprise the membership of the management committee. The treasurer and the CSD Director are co-opted members. The management of the Centre has been of a very high order in spite of the fact that committee meetings are normally poorly attended. The most regular and constant attenders are the supervisor, the treasurer, the school principal and the CSD Director. They have, in effect, taken full responsibility for running the Centre since its inception.

The attendance at meetings of the other members is sporadic and occasional. Parent attendance has normally been better than that of the church representatives. The fact that a

total of six priests have been responsible for the parish since the inception of the Centre, indicates the serious level of instability in the church. This has had a negative effect on the attendance at management meetings. Every effort has been made to encourage the greater participation of church members in the Centre, but the men who are elected show little or no interest.

The women's organisations use the Centre for many of their meetings and a good relationship exists with them possibly because the three women employed at the Centre are all members of the St Mary's Women's Society. While no woman has ever been nominated by the church or the St Vincent de Paul Society to serve on the Management Committee, no man has ever been elected by parents.

6.7.2 The Staff

The success of the Centre is in no small measure due to the calibre of the staff and the fact that there have been few staff changes. The present supervisor is a self-taught man. He is a skilled manager, types, keeps books, drives, does the shopping and shows tremendous concern for the children. The three women, who share the chores of cooking, cleaning, washing, ironing and caring for the children, have no special educational qualifications. None has more than a Standard 6 education, they are all middle-aged and are devout members of the church congregation. They are down to earth, straightforward honest people who love children and are prepared to work hard. One of the most important factors is that they are good friends and get along well together.

6.7.3 The Church and Members of the Parish

The Catholic Bishop of Port Elizabeth, in that he owns all Catholic property in the Diocese of Port Elizabeth, is the owner of St Mary's Day Care Centre. The Centre is built on ground belonging to St Mary's Catholic Church, but it functions as a separate entity with a separate constitution and management committee.

The second major aim and objective of the Centre, as written in the constitution, is to provide facilities to further the aims of all parish societies. This has been the cause of recurring clashes between the Centre and members of the parish. As the church had contributed R23 000 towards the building out of a total of R260 000 raised, the management committee granted it the use of the upstairs hall. The parishioners were never satisfied with this and constantly

requested the use of the downstairs area as well. They were never able to understand that the premises pose security problems and that locking up and checking switches has to be undertaken by responsible people, that bookings must be done in advance and that usage requests must be routed through the management committee.

During the ten years of operation the Centre has worked with six different priests. Each one had a different idea about the relationship between the church and the Centre and no clear lines of authority were ever established. The priests usually made decisions themselves without prior consultation with the parish council. This caused enormous difficulties and confusion.

On one occasion after church youths had used the building they left all the stove plates on throughout the night. On another occasion they failed to lock the front door. The church has consistently failed to meet their financial responsibilities by neglecting to pay their share of the municipal accounts from the use of the upstairs hall. The constant arguments between Centre staff and church members has been disruptive. Many attempts have been made to resolve the difficulties but none have succeeded.

It is a fact that the parishioners have never participated in the life of the Centre. They never attend meetings and seem to feel that the care of the poorest children in the community, many of whom belong to other religious denominations, are no concern of theirs. One possible reason is that Catholics tend to leave all decision making matters to the priest, involvement in management being no concern of the ordinary layman. Another reason is that most of St Mary's parishioners are poor and disadvantaged themselves and therefore feel no sense of responsibility to work for a project that is of no direct benefit to them personally or their children.

6.7.4 The Parents

The management committee has constantly expressed disappointment about the lack of involvement of parents. This attitude needs careful evaluation in relation to the facts. Whenever possible the parents on the management committee have attended meetings. They have, however, never contributed much because they have possibly felt out of their depth.

Parents attendance at other meetings has been poor. The numbers attending the Centre's annual general meetings from 1983 to 1991 for example have been documented and these are as follows: 28, 29, 32, 15, 23, 33, 15, 18 and 22. Only mothers, aunts and grandmothers have attended, never the fathers or grandfathers. Most of these adults would see no reason to spend Saturday or Sunday afternoons at Centre functions. Many, no doubt, have so little money that finding the right clothes could pose problems. Many are also so poorly educated that they lack the confidence to attend parents' meetings or functions. It is not surprising that fundraising activities have been poorly supported as very deprived people do not have the resources for this kind of activity.

Table 17
Annual Income from KNH and Children's Fees: 1982 to 1990

Year	Fee Charged R p m	No of Children	R p.a. KNH Subsidy Received	R p.a. KNH Subsidy per Child *1	Total Fees Income R p.a.	Parent's Fee per Child R p.a.
1982	2,00	79	10 317,00	147,38	95,00	1,20
1983	2,00	86	16 375,00	237,64	1 495,00	17,38
1984	3,00	78	18 662,00	266,60	1 825,00	23,39
1985	3,00	78	23 599,00	337,12	779,00	9,98
1986	4,00	74	36 665,00	523,78	792,00	10,70
1987	4,00	90	36 128,00	516,11	806,00	8,95
1988	5,00	96	47 783,00	582,61	487,00	5,07
1989	5,00	96	48 092,00	687,02	6 339,00	* 2
1990	6,00	100	53 830,00	769,00	3 537,00	* 2

*1 Note the KNH subsidy is for 70 children each year and it varies according to the Rand value of the Deutsche mark.

*2 The 1989 and 1990 inflated fee income includes fees paid for high school students by the Lutheran Scholarship Fund. It is therefore not possible to calculate how many children paid fees.

Parents are also expected to be involved in the work of the Centre through the payment of fees. The fee which was set at R2 per month in 1981 and R6 in 1991 has been almost impossible to extract. The actual monthly cost of caring for a child in 1991 is R64, so the fee is a purely nominal one. It does however engender a commitment and prevents the project from becoming a wholly charitable one. Some parents would rather see their children leave the Centre than pay the fee. This attitude is hard to understand. The management committee agreed that the children would not be penalised for their parents negligence and children would not be excluded because of the non-payment of fees. At one stage the supervisor went to the

pension payout counter each month to see if he could extract the fees at source, but the committee felt this was ill-advised and the practice was stopped.

The average number of fee paying children has been as follows:

1 in 1982, 17 in 1983, 23 in 1984, 10 in 1985, 11 in 1986, 8 in 1987, 5 in 1988.

A social braaivleis evening was held at no cost to the parents during 1988. This was the best attended function ever held with over 35 parents present. Despite the success of the occasion the management committee decided not to repeat the exercise, as not only was it an expensive undertaking, but it fostered the very hand-out syndrome which the Centre was endeavouring to break.

6.7.5 A Social Worker

The need for an experienced full time social worker has long been felt. The staff are not trained to cope with the many problems which the children present such as child abuse, incest, child neglect and the breakdown of family life. They have so many duties to perform and so many children to attend to that they are unable to give the individual attention that is so urgently required. Ideally a social worker could work in the community as well as in the Centre to help bridge the gap between the two. She would be expected to guide the staff in their dealings with the children and to conduct group therapy and individual counselling sessions. Various welfare agencies have been asked to second a social worker for a couple of afternoons each week, but all requests were turned down. Appeals for funding for a social worker's salary have also been unsuccessful as the organisations approached were reluctant to contribute when KNH was already funding the Centre so generously. KNH makes no provision for the funding of a social worker.

6.8 Accomplishments and Successes

6.8.1 Staff Development and Growth

One of the most impressive results of this project has been the growth and personal development of the present supervisor. His previous job was with the Provincial Library Services where he sorted and delivered books. Since coming to the Centre he has taken on the role of manager, supervisor, buyer, organiser, bookkeeper, carpenter, typist, driver and most important of all, friend and father to up to 100 children. He knows every child intimately as well as their families and their family circumstances. He not only understands these

children, he also loves them. He has learnt all these vital skills without any formal training or course work. His instincts are unerring and he seems to know what to do from an extraordinary kind of sixth sense. As a result of his sensitive leadership and guidance there have never been serious problems with either the staff or the children.

6.8.2 Care and Maintenance of the Centre

The Centre has been immaculately kept since its inception. The cook and the two minder-cleaners are solid middle-class women who have high housekeeping standards. The fact that the supervisor is a handyman who can turn his hand to making cupboards, installing security doors and painting ceilings has also helped. Very often the maintenance of community buildings is allowed to deteriorate. This has certainly not been the case at St Mary's. Care and hard work along with ongoing repair work have been responsible for this.

6.8.3 Good Food, Cleanliness and Health

On admittance most children are malnourished, sickly and dirty. Their diet at home along with the conditions in which they live are largely responsible. Centre children spend 9 hours a day away from home in clean and hygienic buildings. Their balanced and nutritious diet helps build up a resistance to disease, and this coupled with the fact that they wash and bath regularly and use clean water-borne toilets helps to keep diarrhoea, scabies and tuberculosis at bay. The KNH manual advises that "clinic and transport costs to the clinic be paid from the grant, that annual medical examinations be conducted and that weight and height records be taken monthly. In the case of an accident or severe illness a child must receive the best medical care from a good doctor at a good hospital, even if the treatment is costly. No expense must be spared to save the life of a child" (*KNH 1978 : 20*). At the request of the management committee the supervisor arranged for a community nurse from the Albany Road Municipal Clinic to give the children a thorough health inspection. Her cards dated 16.7.87 reveal the following:

- 79 children were examined.
- 66 were in good health with nothing abnormal detected
- 5 had dental caries and were advised to see a dentist.
- 7 had septic sores on their legs or feet treated.
- 4 were given advice on teenage pimples.
- 1 had an itchy rash at the back of the right leg. Advised to visit the day hospital.

- 2 were advised to wash their hair three times a week to prevent head infections. Healed sores on their heads revealed previous infections.

Of the 79, five were advised to visit a dentist and one to visit the Day Hospital. The nursing sister suggested that future visits were unnecessary as the children were well and healthy. All the ailments detected were minor.

Despite the fact that the Manual requests that monthly weight and height readings be kept, the supervisor took weight readings only for a period of 36 months at which stage the scale was stolen and never replaced. The first twenty girls and the first twenty boys in the record book have been selected for the following sample in which weight gains are recorded.

The average maximum weight gain recorded was 1.3 kg per month for 12 months for a girl and 0.69 per month for 36 months for a boy. The minimum weight gain for a girl was 0.08 kg in 12 months and 0,03kg in 36 months for a boy. The average monthly gain for the girls was 0.35 kg while that for the boys was 0.31kg. Thirteen girls gained less than the girls' average as compared with ten boys who gained less than the boys' average. The range of the average monthly increase is higher for the girls at 1.25 kg as compared with that for boys which is 0.66kg.

Table 18
Weight Gains of Girls and Boys at St Mary's Day Care Centre: 1985 to 1988

Girls				Boys		
	Weight Increase kg	Period of Time Mths	Average per Month kg	Weight Increase kg	Period of time Mths	Average per month kg
1	7	21	0.33	19	36	0.52
2	1	12	0.08	11	36	0.30
3	18	36	0.50	9	36	0.25
4	7	21	0.33	7	20	0.35
5	1	12	0.08	13	36	0.36
6	14	36	0.38	6	36	0.16
7	9	12	0.75	8	14	0.57
8	11	36	0.30	11	36	0.30
9	8	20	0.40	11	36	0.30
10	4	36	0.11	1	36	1.00
11	2	12	0.16	12	36	0.33
12	10	36	0.27	14	36	0.38
13	10	36	0.27	13	36	0.36
14	10	21	0.47	4	36	0.11
15	10	21	0.47	25	36	0.69
16	3	21	0.14	18	36	0.50
17	14	12	1.16	8	36	0.22
18	16	12	1.33	8	36	0.22
19	9	24	0.37	10	36	0.27
20	6	36	0.16	7	36	0.19

A study from the Centre for Child and Family Studies at Syracuse University demonstrates how eighty two children from disadvantaged backgrounds were placed in an enriched loving day care environment for the first five years of their lives. Ten years later when they were teenagers the children were compared with a control group from a similar background. "The results were startling in terms of social behaviour. There was a dramatic difference, which related mainly to the boys, in court, detention and probation costs. As far as school work was concerned, teacher ratings of programme girls showed them to be rated significantly higher than their controls on school achievement, positive attitude toward self, positive attitude toward others, and impulse control" (*Wilson and Ramphale 1989 : 175*). While the effects of good nutrition during the first five years of a child's life are well known, no study has been done of

the effects of a good nutritional and environmental provision during the time from six years onwards. The St Mary's initiative should be studied by documenting the progress of a selected number of children through their primary and high school years. This has not been possible in this study but considerable improvements, particularly in behavioural patterns, have been noted. The fact that the children are seldom ill and attend regularly is also indicative of the influence of good food and a happy and loving environment.

6.8.4 School Results and Progress

There is no evidence to support any suggestion that the Centre children's intellectual skills improved as a result of their Centre attendance. A comparison of school reports of Centre children and others from similar backgrounds shows very little difference in the actual marks obtained over a five year period. The Principal of St Mary's School² stated that the Centre children's attendance at school was considerably more regular and their participation in the classroom was noticeably better than that of other children from similar backgrounds. They were more alert and they responded well to questions and in discussions. When the Principal met the KNH team in 1980 she told them that her greatest concern was for the children who came to school with no food in their stomachs and fell asleep at their desks. This is no longer happening. The Centre children are also not dropping out of school as early as they used to. The majority remain until Standard 8 but very few continue on to the matriculation year. In 1988 one boy wrote the matriculation examination and failed. Since then no Centre child has reached Standard 10.

It would seem that the Centre experience has produced children who are healthier, more alert and better able to cope with the demands of the classroom. It has not, however, improved their intellectual capacity and academic performance.

6.8.5 Outing and Visits

The supervisor has endeavoured to take the children on at least one outing each year. Very few of them have previously had visits away from Grahamstown. The visits have included the following:

²Interview with Principal of St Mary's School. 17.9.91

- (i) Day and overnight trips to nearby nature reserves where they are introduced to the outdoor environment. Cooking their meals on an open fire and spending the night away from home are exciting experiences.
- (ii) Visits to local museums in Grahamstown are conducted by experienced educational officers.
- (iii) Day outings to the beach at Port Alfred where they have the opportunity to swim in the lagoon and help with the braaivleis lunch. A visit to the beach has often been chosen by the children in preference to an indoor Christmas party.
- (iv) The highlight for all the children is a visit to a mountain resort for disadvantaged children at Hobbiton-on-Hogsback. They love the long hikes, the snug dormitories, the mountain scenery and the excellent food. Some have been there during a snow storm and have had an unforgettable time sledging, tossing snow balls and making snowmen.

For children living in dreary and overcrowded surroundings experiences such as these are a highlight in their lives. They are exposed to the beauties of nature and they are allowed to escape into a wonderful new world, albeit for a limited period of time. These visits and outings are important to their overall growth and development and are conducted as often as funds permit.

6.9 Conclusions

The launching of the Day Care Centre in 1981 was a singular effort to provide low income children with a comprehensive developmental programme designed to focus on the whole child and his social, emotional and physical well-being. It was hoped to involve parents in the programme but this was not to be. There was also disappointment that the local community responded so poorly to requests for help. The following conclusions are drawn from the ten year experience:

- (i) The Centre has undoubtedly helped the children at school in that they attend more regularly and they participate enthusiastically. Their academic achievement has not benefitted from Centre attendance.
- (ii) Self-esteem is difficult to measure and record but observation shows that the children at the Centre are self-assured and confident, at home in their surroundings and happy with themselves. They relate well to adults and display normal behavioural patterns.
- (iii) Centre children are healthy children. Because of their balanced nutritious meals they put on weight and become more energetic. They also have fewer school absences and

cope well physically. All children participate energetically and enthusiastically in the afternoon sports' programmes. The fact that the clinic sister no longer visits the Centre because the children are so healthy, is clear evidence of success in this field.

- (iv) The teeth of the children remain a problem. Most children's teeth are in a poor condition when they enter the Centre and all receive screening and treatment. Intervention is often too late to rectify earlier damage.
- (v) The parents are grateful to the Centre for looking after their children but they are not prepared to become involved. Home visits have been conducted by the supervisor with little or no success. The Centre also has no influence in increasing parental involvement in community affairs.
- (vi) The lack of involvement of the local community has been explained. These are not their children and the Centre has nothing to offer them personally.
- (vii) In a community where resources are minimal everyone wants some benefit for himself. As the Centre's responsibility is for the poorest of poor children, even church members have shown little interest because there is nothing to be gained for themselves and their immediate families.

CHAPTER SEVEN

INTERVENTION STRATEGY 2 : PRE-SCHOOL INITIATIVES

7.1 Introduction

In today's economic climate the provision of pre-school care and education has become a necessity and not a luxury in many communities. Increasing numbers of young mothers are having to enter the work force and children are being born to teenage mothers who need to return to school.

The healthy development of young children is crucial to the development of a nation. By promoting the welfare of its people, which includes healthy development from the moment of birth, a country promotes its own health and strength. In underdeveloped nations prolonged malnutrition and illnesses in childhood rob people of many of their mental and physical capacities. It is clear that if any community is to tackle its problems effectively, it must start with its young children.

Pre-schools and day care centres in South Africa serve only a very small percentage of children. The dominant strategy of the past few decades has been to establish formal institutions. Pre-schools have been hailed as the panacea of an educational headstart. Most children attending pre-schools come from families who can afford to pay the fees and normally from homes where parents are reasonably educated. The question as to whether the children's headstart has been the result of the family's or the pre-school's intervention is one that is difficult to answer.

In practice all pre-school and care centres are costly. They require one trained adult for every 25 children as well as buildings, furniture, equipment and food. Operation Headstart in the U.S.A. established in 1965 had 400 000 children in care by 1980 at a cost of \$1 500 per child per annum to the American taxpayer. From 1965 to 1980 eight million economically disadvantaged children passed through Headstart centres. While the goals, methods and results of the programme were excellent the programme was not sustainable and fell on hard times when the welfare grants were reduced and cut (*Headstart 1983 : 1 - 2*).

In South Africa where only 11% of the population will be White by the year 2000 we cannot hope to establish the traditional programmes for an entire population. There is therefore an urgent need to find alternative and less expensive models.

The basic needs of the young child are an adequate diet, freedom from serious illness and disease, a warm and clean place to sleep and a positive self concept. When considering these basic needs it becomes clear that the promotion of the right home environment is more important than the provision of a pre-school. It is therefore important that consideration be given to:

- (i) parent education programmes which will ensure an adequate diet in the home.
- (ii) programmes which will strengthen the ability of families to meet the basic needs of their children.
- (iii) programmes which will lead to self help and self reliance in the family and the community.
- (iv) programmes which will serve as many children and families as possible within set financial and human constraints.

Most pre-schools in the deprived communities of South Africa continue to centre predominantly on the children and work in isolation from the family and community. The programmes attend to the physical and educational needs of children during school hours. There is a need to develop programmes for parents and families.

The question is often asked why the CSD became so heavily involved in the field of pre-school education. The reasons are numerous:

- (i) Parents have long regarded the care of their children as a major priority. A high percentage of Black and Coloured women in Grahamstown have full-time jobs and it is important for them to know that their children are properly cared for while they are at work. Many of the traditional child minders, such as grandmothers, are no longer prepared to be responsible for the growing number of small children belonging to their children and grandchildren. They are particularly unhappy about the offspring of young teenage girls who need someone to look after their babies and children so that they can return to school. Very often these grandmothers themselves have jobs and are unable to help out in the time-honoured way. The number of children requiring full day care is escalating along with the demand for good pre-school facilities.

- (ii) When the first pre-school was established at Makaanaskop it served as a model and example of what could be accomplished. As more pre-schools were set up further models were established and a growing number of people were able to see for themselves what a pre-school was, how it functioned and how it suited their particular needs. Very often poor and deprived people do not know what kind of community facility they want because they have no idea what the choices and options are. Having seen a working model of a pre-school and not having other established facilities to select from, they simply opted to have a replica of what already existed elsewhere.
- (iii) The CSD was able and willing to meet the requests brought by community groups. The first reason was that funding was secured from the Bernard van Leer Foundation for the provision of pre-school training and resource facilities. The money was to be spent on pre-school trainers and fieldworkers to train child care workers, to provide support and assistance for pre-school facilities and to pioneer imaginative and innovative programmes in the pre-school field for poor and disadvantaged children. None of this work could have been done without the existence of a number of pre-school facilities. The building and establishment of pre-schools therefore became an urgent priority. The fact that this was exactly what the parents requested was a fortunate co-incidence.
- (iv) The second reason that the CSD welcomed these requests for the establishment of pre-schools in a wide-cross section of neighbourhoods, was the fact that deprived children require a planned and structured pre-school programme to prepare them for entry into the primary school. Children from middle class backgrounds who grow up in homes with books, construction toys, puzzles and outdoor equipment are normally ready for school when they reach the age of six. Disadvantaged children are seriously handicapped in their pre-primary years unless they have been the beneficiaries of a structured and balanced pre-school programme.
- (v) The third reason for embracing the pre-school field was that community work and development programmes can most easily be facilitated in communities by working through and with children. In order to have positive feelings about themselves, people need to be proud of their children. Warm and positive family attitudes are basic to individual development and progress. The emotional need of self-concept is closely linked to the interaction between children and adults. The most important people affecting the development of the child are the mother, the rest of the family, friends and finally the caregiver. Unless the mother is helped to overcome her own difficulties she will pass on her own poor self concept to her children. The parent education

programmes run by the CSD contribute to the parent's knowledge and understanding of their own and their children's circumstances. One of the ideal entry points into a community is therefore through projects which assist, care for and educate children.

- (vii) The final reason for deciding to embrace pre-school programmes was that the importance of a balanced diet in the early years was recognised. If a child is to develop into a healthy adult attention must be paid to scientific studies which indicate that children born to malnourished mothers will in all probability be malnourished themselves for the first four to five years of their lives. This is the time when the brain cells are developing. If children are not well nourished in those early years the brain cells will never develop properly and when they grow up they will become the kind of people who behave irresponsibly, unpredictably and irrationally. This is why great emphasis is placed on the balanced and adequate nutrition of pre-school children (*Reid 1971 : 24 - 25*). If two nutritious meals a day (breakfast and lunch) and two substantial snacks in the mid-morning and mid-afternoon can be served to all pre-school children none of the children should suffer from kwashiorkor or marasmus, the protein deficiency illnesses which are so widespread throughout Southern Africa and the rest of the continent.

7.2 Aims and Objectives

- * To promote the interests of pre-school children irrespective of race or creed.
- * To provide pre-school education and day care facilities for disadvantaged children.
- * To promote confidence in children and to prepare them for entry into the primary school.
- * To increase the ability of pre-school children to relate to their families and other adults and children.
- * To create a sense of dignity and self worth within children.
- * To provide balanced and nutritious meals.
- * To establish low cost affordable pre-school facilities.
- * To train pre-school workers and child minders.
- * To provide support services for pre-school and child care centres.
- * To encourage parent involvement in the education of their children.
- * To run parent education courses in baby and child care and to promote better parenting.
- * To train committee members to manage and be responsible for their own centres.

7.3 Overview of Pre-school Initiatives

7.3.1 Formal Facilities

As the provision for pre-school education for disadvantaged children in the Grahamstown area was so inadequate the first task was to build formal community based facilities in which pre-school education could be carried out. This was done in the following centres:

1978	The Makanaskop Creche	135 children	6 staff
1981	Heidi Nursery School	30 children	2 staff
1984	St Peter Claver's Nursery School	65 children	4 staff
1987	Shaw Hall Day Care Centre	75 children	4 staff
1987	Sun City Nursery School	75 children	4 staff
1988	St. Philip's Nursery School	65 children	3 staff
1990	Raglan Road Child Care Centre	65 children	4 staff

These pre-schools are all affordable to the communities they serve as the result of strenuous fundraising, the procurement of sponsorships and the registration of the schools with the relevant government departments so that subsidies could be claimed. Registration requires certain minimum building and equipment specifications.

7.3.2 The Home Care Programme

In 1984 the CSD Pre-School Fieldworker trained the first batch of four suitable townships mothers to run small child care projects with between six and ten children in their own homes. Since then the number of operational groups has fluctuated. The capital costs for these centres are very low as all that is required is an equipment box. This kind of child care is affordable and ideally suited to deprived communities. The key to the success of these centres is constant and close supervision but the cost is considerable to the agency providing the service. A major difficulty in a poor community is the low wage paid to the care-giver by the parents who cannot afford to pay economic fees. Experience has also shown that despite the cost factor parents prefer to have their children in formal centres. In January 1991 there were 15 centres in the Black townships with 123 children enrolled.

7.3.3 Pre-schools and Play Groups on Farms

This project began in 1986 when the Bathurst Welfare Association asked the CSD to assist in the development of pre-schools and playgroups on farms in the Bathurst Trappes Valley area. By 1991 there were 23 centres serving 366 children. Farm children have long been the Cinderellas of our society, not only because of their isolation, but because of the inadequate provision of education at all levels. These farm centres have not only benefited the children they have also provided jobs for unemployed wives of farm labourers.

7.3.4 Parent Education Programmes

These are conducted in many places and at various levels. All pre-school, homecare and farm centres are required to conduct parent education programmes. One of the major activities of the Raglan Road Child Care Centre is parent education. Specific courses in baby care and child care are also conducted every week at the clinics and day hospital in the townships. These programmes complement those undertaken for the children and help to empower parents to take responsibility for their children's lives. They also help to bridge the gap between the pre-school and the home.

7.3.5 Pre-school Teacher-aide Training Programmes

Training is one of the keys to the work and success of the CSD. Three professionally trained pre-school teachers, one para-professional and three in-house trained pre-school fieldworkers are involved in the training of pre-school workers in the formal centres, home care groups and farm centres. They are also responsible for conducting the parent education programmes. Training is provided in formal week-long residential training sessions, day-long workshops and ongoing in-service training in all centres. No child care worker is expected to do a job unless she has been specifically trained for it. CSD staff insist that the training for centre related project staff should be done by them. They actively discourage attendance at training programmes in other centres because the CSD training programmes and resource materials are specifically designed to meet the needs of the particular communities they serve.

7.4 Formal Pre-schools

7.4.1 The Makanaskop Creche

The establishment procedures of this facility and the subsequent events are given in some detail as this was the first pre-school project on which the writer worked, and her first experience in community work. The problems, solutions and lessons learned are given in some detail, especially as the successful practices, methods and approaches were subsequently adopted for most of the other programmes and projects which followed.

(i) History

The community has been involved in this centre since 1957 when a group of Makanaskop women asked the Child Welfare Society to establish a creche in their township. The society's request to the municipality was refused because at that time any statutory body other than the local authority was not permitted to operate in a black municipal location. A few black women

went ahead anyway and started a creche in one of their own houses. In 1962 the municipality gave the creche a rent free house and a grant of R10 per month. Fifty children were cared for in these premises. In 1968 the municipality built a hall to house the creche (*Grocott's Mail: 27 February 1981*). By 1977 the facility had deteriorated considerably. The centre had no furniture, very little equipment and no committee. The previous committee had been forced to resign because of financial irregularities. The writer visited the creche and wrote the following report: "It was a miserable sight. Some 40 to 50 children were huddled together on a foam rubber mat on the floor, fully dressed in their winter jerseys and coats to keep warm in the huge empty hall. They were eating their food out of small plastic bowls on their laps. The hall was practically bare, for there was no furniture and only a handful of cast off toys in a small cupboard."

(ii) Restructuring and Renovating

The NCW Child Care Committee, of which the writer was the prime mover, and a newly elected Makaanaskop Creche committee decided to work together to renovate and restructure the school. In October 1978 a decision was taken to apply for an OXFAM grant for the salary of a qualified pre-school teacher. It would be her task during a three year period of secondment to train the staff and her successor, and to introduce a fully structured pre-school programme. The writer undertook to be responsible for the fundraising campaign, and donations were requested for structural changes, furniture and equipment. Parents and committee members visited other pre-school centres to envisage what could be done to upgrade their school. When sufficient income had been received builders moved in to construct a wide verandah, an office, sick bay, toilet block and conservancy tank. Unemployed carpenters were hired to make and paint the tables and chairs. Plans were considered and every decision was taken by the full committee. A new constitution was drafted and the creche was registered as a welfare organisation. The NCW treasurer agreed to become the school's treasurer. A trained teacher-aide from the Mdantsane Creche was appointed supervisor on the recommendation of the Chairman of the Early Childhood Association in East London. The committee, confident that their problems were over, had high expectations. She commenced work on January 4 1979.

(iii) Developmental Problems

The committee's high hopes were short-lived. The supervisor, who had worked well in her previous position under a more experienced person, seemed incapable of introducing the

planned programme and of training the staff. By the end of January no progress had been made despite committee support and encouragement and many assurances and promises of good intentions. The person responsible for her initial training and for recommending her was invited to the school to observe the situation and help resolve the impasse. The Chairman of the East London Early Childhood Association spent two days in the creche and made the following recommendations:

- * That the numbers be reduced to 90.
- * That no expansion be considered until the programme be established and stabilised.
- * That the committee be responsible for admissions.
- * That a mature (retired) teacher be appointed to support the supervisor.
- * That a fully trained pre-primary school teacher visit the creche regularly for in-service training sessions.
- * That the committee take responsibility for all financial matters, maintenance, the purchasing of food, and all decisions relating to the running of the school.
- * That parents be involved in the activities of the creche to help to bridge the gap between the school and the home.

All of these recommendations were studied, adopted and implemented. The situation at the creche improved.

The second difficulty arose during 1979. When the supervisor came to Grahamstown no suitable accommodation could be found in the overcrowded townships. The local Catholic priest offered the use of his flat behind the church and he moved into town. The arrangement seemed imminently suitable. Shortly after the supervisor had moved in it became clear that the community knew something about her that the committee was unaware of, but no-one was prepared to say anything. Later in the year her boyfriend caught her in a compromising situation with another man. In October the community finally talked, and it emerged that she was running a brothel in the priest's flat. After this was firmly established she was given a month's notice by the church. The creche committee, still unhappy with her performance at the creche, requested her resignation as from the end of December. The retired teacher who had been appointed to help out was then promoted to the supervisor's post as from 1 January, 1980.

The third difficulty arose from an unexpected source. In August 1980 the new supervisor attended a Pre-school Orientation Course at the Early Learning Resource Unit in Athlone. This introductory three week course is designed for new teacher-aides in the pre-school field. She participated well and showed interest and enthusiasm. Her written report on the course was presented to the management committee (*Addendum 9*). Despite her inability to express herself in English it is clear that the course was not wasted on her, but that her overall perception was somewhat superficial. There is no doubt that the flight to Cape Town and her involvement in the course improved her self-confidence and was important for her personal development. She received an attendance certificate which stated that she had completed all the written assignments, that her participation and contribution in groups was good and that her general interest and enthusiasm was very good. The fact that she now regarded herself as a fully trained pre-school teacher became evident shortly after her return. The qualified pre-school teacher who was assigned to visit Makanaskop on a regular basis for support and in-service training found it impossible to tell her anything. She made it quite clear that she was now a trained pre-school teacher and that she knew everything there was to know about pre-school education. She refused to attend the in-service training programmes offered by the CSD and became extremely difficult to work with. This attitude remained constant throughout her period of tenure.

(iv) Subsequent Progress

From 1981 to 1985 the CSD Pre-school Co-ordinator visited the creche regularly, provided resources, helped out in emergencies and attended management committee meetings. The annual reports from those years indicate a growing independence and a healthy input from parents and committee members. This independence was viewed by the CSD as a good thing in that the community was once again prepared to take full responsibility.

From 1986 to 1988 there was almost no contact with the CSD, although parents occasionally visited the Director to complain about declining standards and poor control. At the end of 1988 the management committee came to see the Director to ask for help. They admitted that the whole situation had deteriorated. Practically all the programmes and procedures which had been instituted for both the educational and administrative work had fallen away. Committee meetings were being held irregularly, the minute book was in disarray, no fundraising had been done and the bank balance was perilously low. The quality of the food had declined, attendance time had been cut by two hours, in order to balance the books the numbers had

been increased from 90 to 135 and no additional equipment or furniture had been bought nor had any maintenance been done. The supervision of children was poor and the daily programme was not being followed.

The CSD staff agreed to help out on condition that they were used not only for the provision of material resources but also for staff training and development. The Director and the Pre-school Co-ordinator helped the committee to launch fundraising and renovation campaigns. Teams of parents were inspanned and a great deal of work was accomplished. The parquet floor in the playroom was repaired, the refrigerator mended, a new sink installed in the kitchen, the ablution block received a facelift, all the furniture was repaired and painted, curtains and mattress covers were washed and new furniture and equipment was purchased. Regular committee meetings were held. The financial situation was overhauled and the fees were increased. A street collection and a graduation ceremony were organised and well-supported. On the surface everything looked good but the education programme remained unchanged and the staff consistently refused to attend the training programmes. The management committee was informed on a number of occasions that the CSD was prepared to act as a resource body on condition that the staff attend the pre-school upgrading programmes. To clarify matters the Director wrote to the committee in January 1990 outlining what was expected from CSD affiliated schools. This letter was never answered despite numerous reminders. There has been no subsequent contact with the school. It was clear that the management committee and staff saw the CSD's role purely and simply as the supplier of financial and physical resources. Educational and management expertise was not required. The CSD was not prepared to continue being involved in a situation in which the handout syndrome was perpetuated.

(v) Conclusions and Solutions

- * It is unwise to appoint staff from outside of Grahamstown in community-based projects.
- * Training of pre-school staff in CSD related projects is best done by the CSD.
- * The committee must accept full responsibility for the management of the project. The supervisor is subservient to the committee and should take instructions from the chairman.
- * The committee must pay particular attention to the fees, petty cash and accounts. Financial controls are vital to the success of a project.
- * A fully-trained pre-school teacher should visit the project regularly, to provide support and in-service training.

- * The attendance of staff at workshops and seminars is essential for their professional and personal growth.
- * Committees have to be trained in committee procedures as most members have had no previous committee experience.
- * Committee membership should be staggered from year to year so that the composition of the committee does not change completely after every annual general meeting.
- * Black committee members find it extremely difficult to reprimand Black staff members, similarly a Black supervisor has enormous problems admonishing her Black staff. This has continued to be a problem. Very often when reprimands are necessary they have to be administered by the White staff of the CSD.
- * All staff vacancies are to be advertised in the press so that the jobs are not automatically given to existing staff.
- * No equipment is to be given to a facility unless it is clean and in good working order. Well meaning do-gooders often give township centres broken equipment, incomplete puzzles and dilapidated books. All donated equipment is to be sorted and mended before it is passed on to the schools.
- * Maintenance is to be done as the need arises. Major maintenance is to be undertaken at the close of each school year.
- * It is easier to start a new project from scratch than to revamp a rundown facility and expect the staff to adopt new methods and procedures. In retrospect it would seem that the final outcome would have been more satisfactory if a different set of staff had been appointed at Makaanaskop. None of the inherited staff were suitable and they have continued to hamper progress right up to the present time.
- * The easiest part of establishing a facility is raising the funds, erecting the building and purchasing the equipment. The ongoing effort of solving problems, maintaining standards and sustaining community interest year after year is the challenging and difficult part.
- * No serious attempt to provide parent education at Makaanaskop was made. This has remained a very grave omission.
- * A management committee comprised of parents who remain in office for a year or two is an inadequate mechanism for taking responsibility for the school. An outside umbrella and resource agency like the CSD should have at least two places on the committee. This would provide continuity and an ongoing support system. As the membership of committees change there comes a time when not a single serving member knows

anything at all about the school's history, pre-school education or management procedures and the staff of the school have a virtually free rein to do as they please.

- * Professional pre-school expertise in community pre-school structures is essential if the children are to benefit educationally. Without this input these facilities will cease to be educational centres and will revert to being child care centres and nothing more.

7.4.2 Heidi Nursery School

(i) History

In May 1978 a group of mother's approached the writer about the possibility of establishing a good pre-school in their community to prepare their children for acceptance by the private primary schools in Grahamstown. Numerous meetings were held and ideas and proposals were discussed.

The project officially commenced in August 1978 when a public meeting was held in the Currie Street Library Hall. A steering committee was elected with a mandate to establish a pre-school in the Coloured community. Thereafter regular monthly meetings were held. The writer was appointed fundraiser and co-ordinator of the project and by March 1979 R15 000 had been guaranteed. The project proposal was taken to the wider community at a public meeting in the Recreation Hall in May 1979. Elected to the management committee were teachers, social workers and other professional people. During 1980 the project developed in an exemplary fashion. Land was secured, a draft constitution prepared and an architect commissioned. A qualified teacher from the community was appointed. A further donation of R5 000 was received. A local builder was awarded the tender and building operations commenced in July. A house to house survey was conducted to solicit support and application forms were completed. Equipment and furniture was purchased and groups of mothers met on Saturday afternoons to make curtains and toys. A father made the cupboards and shelves. The school opened with twenty-five children on 21 January 1981. Of the R20 000 raised R17 000 was spent on building and equipment costs. The brick building was small and compact and the grounds of a manageable size. The teacher was well known in the community and the management committee worked as a team. The writer and her pre-school helper were appointed to serve as ex-officio members of the committee. The project proceeded in an ideal fashion from start to finish. The parent body was consistently supportive and enthusiastic. Subsidisation was granted by the Department of Education and Culture, House of

Representatives. In 1987 the building was extended and the number of children increased to thirty.

(ii) Problems and Solutions

In 1988 a political activist, who was subsequently detained, was elected chairman. The management committee informed the CSD that they were prepared to run the school themselves and no longer required the support and assistance of the CSD. The CSD withdrew but the constitution remained unchanged. The school was run for some months by the chairman and the teacher without reference to the management committee. No committee meetings were held, money was borrowed from the children's fees, no petty cash details were kept and every aspect of the school suffered deterioration. When the treasurer realised that something serious was amiss he approached the Director of the CSD for help. It was established that over R5 000 could not be accounted for. After innumerable meetings and investigations the two members of staff were given notice and a vote of no confidence was passed in the chairman. A new supervisor was appointed, a new chairman was elected and the damage was slowly undone. The CSD became involved again in a training and resource capacity.

(iii) Management and Parent Involvement

Heidi has been fortunate to have had good committee members and chairmen for most of the time with the exception of the example described above. For the most part parent and management committee meetings have been well attended and successful parents' fundraising functions have been held. Fathers continue to assist with outside maintenance and mothers provide the refreshments for all meetings and functions.

In general, the management of the school has been consistently good. The Director and the Pre-school Co-ordinator have continued to attend management committee meetings as resource providers. They give assistance with fundraising, financial management, typing and duplicating and attend to follow-up matters resulting from committee decisions. Most committee members have had previous committee experience and some have responsible jobs in the town. For this reason taking responsibility for the affairs of the school has not been a new experience. The women, in particular, have been very helpful and co-operative and willing. The fact that the supervisor at Heidi has always been a dedicated professionally trained school teacher has had a considerable affect on the overall management. The day to day

administrative procedures, the completion of subsidy forms, the communication with parents and crisis management have been of a high order. A professionally trained teacher has the confidence and background to have the respect and regard of the parents and the community as a whole.

While there have been marked exceptions, the fathers have generally been less reliable and helpful than the mothers. At committee meetings they readily agree to attend to maintenance matters, but seldom manage to complete the undertakings. For example in January 1989, four fathers undertook to build a sandpit and construct a shaded play area. After the February meeting the cement and bricks were ordered. In March it was reported that inclement weather had delayed the start of the work. In May the poles were erected for the play area. By August nothing further had been accomplished. In November the shade cloth was attached to the poles. At the December meeting a decision was taken to have the sandpit professionally constructed and quotations were called for.

The management committee handled the 1988 - 1989 problems extremely well. Despite the fact that the Coloured community in Grahamstown is small and most people not only know each other, but are also closely related, the committee was unanimous in the decisions taken, even though one of their number was a sister of the chairman in whom the vote of no confidence was passed. This strong sense of responsibility to do what is right is consistently reflected in the minutes of meetings.

A summary of the factors contributing to the successful management of Heidi is as follows:

- * The provision of support and resources from the CSD.
- * Most committee members have had previous committee experience and their standard of education is higher than that of members of other CSD related committees.
- * The supervisor has always been a professional school teacher.
- * The women and mothers, in particular, have been supportive, trustworthy and reliable.
- * In times of crisis the committee has stood firm and acted unanimously.
- * Because of the small size of the community the committee is made up of people who know each other and relate well to one another.
- * Heidi has one focus and committee members are not distracted by other allegiances as is the case where a pre-school is linked to a church.
- * Parents have a genuine concern for and interest in their children.
- * Committee members have been willing to learn new and correct committee procedures.

7.4.3 St Peter Claver's Nursery School

(i) History

This project began in March 1982 when the parish council expressed the need for a pre-school facility. It was agreed that the dilapidated church hall be renovated and adapted. The Director was asked to act as co-ordinator and fundraiser for the new project. The CSD Pre-school Co-ordinator agreed to assist with equipment purchasing and educational planning. Kindernothilfe (KNH) agreed to sponsor 30 children. The chairman of the steering committee was also the chairman of the parish council. He undertook to keep the parish community informed. Monthly meetings were held. An architect was appointed and sewerage and electricity arrangements were discussed with the local authority. A qualified bookkeeper-treasurer was appointed. KNH application forms were completed. A draft constitution was considered. A total of R52 305 was raised for capital expenditure. Furniture and equipment was purchased. Staff were appointed and their initial training commenced. Renovations to the building were started in October and completed in January 1983. The pre-school opened its doors to 50 children on 1 February 1983. The first annual general meeting was held in June when a management committee was elected. In December 1984 the Bishop of the Port Elizabeth Diocese formally opened the building. The development and growth of this project progressed on oiled wheels. Christmas parties, graduation ceremonies, children's concerts and school outings were inaugurated and became regular annual events. The Director and Pre-school Co-ordinator of the CSD served on the management committee and in-service committee training took place. There were few staff changes and no serious disruptions occurred during the period 1983 to 1987.

(ii) Problems and Solutions

The first major problem occurred in October 1987 when a church youth group used the nursery school without the management committees' permission. They demanded that the caretaker hand over the keys so that they could use the premises for a youth concert. The parish priest advised that if possible the facilities should be shared, but that the correct procedures should be followed. The following year the youth were granted permission to use the hall for a concert in December. The Christmas decorations were stolen, furniture was damaged and no attempt was made to clean the premises. The nursery school staff had to clean up the mess the following day. No apology or explanation was received. In October 1988 the church youth again started using the premises without management committee permission. As the church was being renovated they had nowhere else to meet. The nursery school committee was prepared to allow them the use of the hall provided proper permission was requested and the

keys were returned each evening. The youth leader physically threatened the supervisor and took away her keys so that duplicates could be made. The group continued to use the hall at will. The parish priest was unable to influence the youth who in turn intimidated the supervisor. The chairman and the management committee, short of calling in the police, did not know what to do. The CSD was asked to mediate and an inconclusive meeting with the management committee and parish council was held in November. A list of demands was produced by the youth and compromise seemed unlikely. The management committee sent a memorandum to the parish council which was rejected. In the end the parish priest agreed to accept responsibility for the keys and the building. In reality nothing changed and the youth continued to use the hall for regular meetings at great inconvenience to the nursery school staff. This continued until the new church building was ready for occupation in April 1990 when the problem was finally resolved. The school premises were loaned out to the women's organisations in the parish on many occasions and no problems ever occurred. The women always cleared up after their functions and left the premises in perfect order.

The second major problem occurred in July 1989 when the school was broken into and large quantities of food and cleaning materials were stolen. As duplicate keys had been made by the youth in 1988 and never returned it was presumed that they were used to enter the premises. In April 1990 a second break-in took place when equipment was stolen and the premises vandalised. The culprits were four school boys with brothers and sisters in the school. They were all under the influence of drugs and alcohol and were remanded to stand trial. Despite the fact that security doors and burglar proofing were subsequently installed, a third break-in occurred in June 1991. A bunch of keys dating back to 1988 were found by the police inside the building.

(iii) Management and Parent Involvement

The school has consistently had good staff, willing chairmen, and supportive committees and parents. All the functions and parents meetings have been well attended and fundraising has been attempted, albeit not very successfully. In December 1989 the parents' committee undertook full responsibility for a children's and parents' braaivleis on the beach at Port Alfred. The Christmas parties, graduation ceremonies and concerts each year have been happy and memorable events. The staff and parents work well together with the interest of the children being their main concern.

All committee meetings are attended by the Director of the CSD and the Pre-school Coordinator. This has been necessary and important to the successful functioning of the school. The majority of the committee members have never served on a committee before and not one of the people elected to serve as the chairman has had any previous experience in this capacity. It was therefore necessary to introduce all the members to committee procedures as the meetings progressed. Most parents over the years were elected to serve on the committee when their children were in their final year at the school. This meant that they only served for one year. Committee training, therefore, was a never ending process. Just as one committee started to function well they were voted out of office and an uninitiated group was elected. There was little that could be done to remedy the situation, as parent representatives are elected democratically each year at an annual general meeting and CSD staff never influence the process in any way. A major problem has been the irregular attendance of the chairman and committee members at meetings. The people in this community are poor and have no access to transport. Hence on very cold or rainy days they are unable to attend meetings. Because they have no recourse to telephones they also have difficulty in telephoning through their apologies. A CSD representative has often been asked to chair a meeting in the absence of a suitable alternative member.

The financial management of the school has been the responsibility of an accountant who is paid a small honorarium. He not only attends all the management meetings to present the financial statement of the previous month, but he visits the school regularly to collect the fees and attend to the petty cash.

A positive factor has been the close and friendly relationship which the supervisor and staff have maintained with the CSD. If a problem arises, or if help is required, they do not hesitate to telephone to ask for advice or assistance. This back-up has given the supervisor much needed confidence to do a difficult and responsible job for which she has received no specific training. All supervisors are trained as pre-school workers and are promoted when vacancies occurred.

The goodwill of the staff and the parents has been a further major contributor to the successful and happy management of the school. Parents have consistently offered their services for tasks they are able to perform, such as washing curtains and blankets and mending toys. Jobs for which they have no expertise are contracted out to maintenance firms who charge for their

services. The CSD staff have ensured that minutes and agendas are typed and posted, that annual general meetings are held on time, that functions are planned timeously and that the subsidy forms are completed and mailed by due date.

When problems have occurred members of the management committee have stood firm in putting the interests of the school and the children first. It was noteworthy that they did not bow to threats of intimidation and political pressure in 1988 and 1989 when the church youths bullied them, and again in April 1990 when, following the break-in, they were unanimous that the culprits be punished and that justice be done. A number of them were prepared to go to court as witnesses.

(iv) Factors Contributing to the Successful Management of the School

- * Good relationships between the CSD, staff, parents and management committee members.
- * A common objective in that the interests of the children come first.
- * A united front in the face of opposition.
- * A solid resource back-up from the CSD.
- * Financial control and management in the hands of a qualified accountant.
- * Financial security because of concurrent subsidies from the Department of Education and Training (DET), the Cape Provincial Administration (CPA) and KNH.
- * Good supervisors who have had happy, loving personalities. Their relationships with the children and the parents have always been excellent.
- * Parents who have been interested in the school, who have attended the functions and who have contributed where-ever possible according to their means and abilities.

7.4.4 St Philip's Nursery School

(i) History

In November 1986 the wife of the priest at St Philip's Anglican Church in the Fingo Village visited the Director to request assistance in establishing a pre-school at the church. She herself had run a pre-school in a Port Elizabeth township and wanted to put her talents and experience to use in Grahamstown. A meeting was held with the parish priest, church wardens and CSD pre-school staff to discuss and approve the proposal. The parish council's blessing was obtained. A steering committee was elected and the development of the project progressed according to set CSD procedures. The Director was appointed fundraiser and the

Pre-school Co-ordinator co-ordinated the project. Two prefabricated classrooms donated by the Urban Foundation were modified to meet the needs of a pre-school for 60 children. Outside kitchen and toilet blocks were built and the whole area was fenced. The school opened in October 1988 with 30 children and the priest's wife in charge. There was a clear understanding that the project belonged to the church. The CSD's role was to assist in its establishment.

(ii) Problems and Solutions

After the nursery school had been operational for a few months the newly appointed Bishop ruled that the parish could neither raise funds nor take financial responsibility for the project. He also insisted that if the project was to continue it had to be under the auspices of the CSD and not the church, as the Anglican Church was unable to take responsibility for a project of this nature. He made it perfectly clear that St Philip's Nursery School is not an Anglican school, but a CSD project for which Anglican land has been made available. The CSD thus found itself owning the school and assuming full responsibility for it. A monthly rental of R50 is paid to the parish for the use of the ground. This arrangement has proved to be a serious stumbling block to the involvement of the wider community and to the well being of the school.

In January 1987 the supervisor started to make major changes on her own without reference to the management committee. For example, she increased the number of children to 60 and dismissed the cook/cleaner. By March she had not submitted a single cash book statement to the treasurer and the expenditure of the school was in considerable excess of the income.

In April the first annual general meeting was held and a management committee was elected. The fees were increased from R15 to R20 per month to meet the escalating costs. In spite of this the treasurer reported that the financial resources were fast being depleted. The purchase of liquid floor polish, fruit juice, chicken wings and sausages in excessive quantities was questioned. Matters came to a head in May when it became clear that the supervisor was unable to meet her responsibilities. The children were unsupervised, there was no sign of a daily programme, the educational input was poor and the financial situation unsatisfactory. CSD staff attempted in-service training and the supervisor was sent to observe at other schools. All to no avail. Various emergency management committee meetings were held to discuss the serious problems. On 8 June 1989 the committee unanimously agreed to offer the supervisor the opportunity to resign, failing which her appointment would not be confirmed at the end of the probation period.

The Bishop was kept informed of the events and supported the decisions of the management committee. The parents were divided in their reaction and blamed the management committee for not having informed them of the problems. The churchwardens and the priest demanded a meeting with the Bishop. The supervisor, having left the employ of St Philip's Nursery School set up an alternative school in church premises and siphoned off half of the St Philip's children. This was done without the Bishop's permission. A CSD fieldworker agreed to act as supervisor. The CSD Director conferred with the Bishop and was informed that there were other serious problems with the priest and his wife. The matter was resolved in March 1990 when the priest was transferred to a distant parish. He has since been removed from this parish and has been absolved of his priestly responsibilities. The nursery school recovered slowly and by January 1991 the children's enrolment was back to normal. The opposition school was closed down in June 1991. The standard of care and education is satisfactory and the staff are to be commended on their perseverance and loyalty in difficult circumstances.

(iii) Management and Parent Involvement

When the parish priest approached the CSD about the possibility of establishing a pre-school on church premises there was never any doubt about it belonging to and being administered by the Anglican Diocese. A complicating factor at this time was that the retiring Bishop was in the process of leaving Grahamstown and his replacement was preparing to come. When the new Bishop arrived he was fully briefed by the Pre-school Co-ordinator. He volunteered to raise money for the project on an impending visit to England. The project went ahead on the assumption that it would be owned and controlled by the Anglican Church. The Bishop returned to an impossible situation at St Philip's. He gave the nursery school committee no specific reasons, but said that under no circumstances could the church take responsibility for the project.

When the supervisor was asked to leave, the congregation took sides, with half the people supporting her and the other half supporting the management committee. Those parents who were her friends removed their children from the school and enrolled them in an unofficial school some 10 metres away. The St Philip's management committee decided to carry on as if nothing had happened; new children were enrolled and within six months the numbers had reached capacity. It is noteworthy that no person on the management committee resigned nor did anyone waver in their resolve. Despite this, the situation within the community was

unhappy and there was much talk and gossip. While attendance at committee meetings at this time was reasonable, attendance at parents' meetings was poor.

A pre-school trainer on the CSD staff agreed to act as the temporary supervisor for six months. In her quiet and unthreatening way she ran the school efficiently and won over the confidence of the parents. When in November she decided to have a special function to mark the school's first birthday, at which a delicious buffet supper was served, all the parents attended and the mood was positive. The assistant child care worker was asked to take over as supervisor in January.

When the Bishop moved the priest and his wife away from Grahamstown at the end of December at least half the congregation reacted angrily and negatively. Many decided not to accept the new priest. The unfortunate man received a number of death threats for some months after his arrival. The Bishop persevered with meetings and peace initiatives and eventually had no alternative but to close the church down in June 1990. The community continues to be a divided and unhappy one.

The pre-school thus finds itself in an isolated set of buildings on a deserted plot. It is not supported by the community as a whole, and the parents of attending children are the only people who have any interest in its affairs. The CSD Director and staff have had to assume considerable responsibility for the management of the school. Some parents on the management committee have remained loyal, but the attendance at the meetings continues to be poor. The parents appreciate what the staff and the school have done for their children. They have helped when necessary with chores such as blanket washing and gardening.

(v) Conclusions

- * With an unsatisfactory church-school relationship at the commencement of the project the subsequent events were to have been expected.
- * In the matter of the supervisor's appointment the committee was regrettably influenced by the priest. Her appointment was erroneously seen as one that would unite the church and school communities.
- * All posts, including this one, should have been advertised.
- * References from previous employers should have been requested.

- * The wisdom of appointing a priest's wife is now being questioned as it would seem that they are a law unto themselves and do not subject themselves to the wishes of any committee on which parishioners serve.
- * The most serious indictment of the supervisor was her dishonesty. It would seem that the temptation of using school groceries for private use was too great.
- * Even though church members had no connection with the nursery school their attitudes and opinions greatly influenced the school's well-being. In hindsight it would have been preferable to have had no project at all than to have had one fraught with problems that had nothing to do with the care and education of the sixty children in the school. Becoming inadvertently involved in the internal politics of the church was most unfortunate.

7.4.5 Pre-school Management Procedures

7.4.5.1 Management Committees

(i) Membership

All the formal pre-schools have very similar constitutions with respect to representation on the management committees. In the case of a school belonging to a church, provision is made for two church representatives, one being the nominee of the bishop and the other the chairman of the parish council. If the school receives major sponsorship, as in the case of Kindernohtilfe, the organisation is entitled to a place on the committee. The Director of the CSD or her nominee has one place and the parents are entitled to elect five representatives at the annual general meeting. From this constituency come the chairman and vice-chairman who are elected by the committee at their first meeting. The school supervisor is usually the secretary ex officio. The treasurer is elected from the ranks of available and proficient bookkeepers or accountants and in most cases a monthly honorarium is paid. This is necessary as a high level of accountability is required by the National Director of Fundraising and the various sponsoring organisations. All books are audited annually. The supervisor handles the fees and petty cash, while salaries, accounts and insurances are the responsibility of the treasurer. The level of competence required is the ability to bring the books to trial balance.

(ii) Duties and Responsibilities

The entire management of the school is the responsibility of the committee. Meetings are held every month at a time that best suits the members. The duties and responsibilities are laid down in the constitution and are as follows:

- * The appointment of staff.
- * The remuneration and discharge of staff.
- * The setting of tuition fees.
- * The supervision and management of the financial affairs and administration of the school.
- * The collection of funds in aid of the school.
- * The appointment of an auditor.
- * The submission of estimates of expenditure and revenue.
- * The purchasing of furniture and equipment.
- * The acquisition of further accommodation in the event of expansion.
- * The care and maintenance of buildings and grounds.
- * To encourage the involvement of parents.
- * To ensure that a daily attendance record is maintained and full particulars of all children is kept.

(iii) Meetings

The dates and times for the meetings for the year are set at the first meeting each year. Minutes of the previous meeting are sent out with the agenda for the next. The basic agenda is as follows:

- * Prayer, welcome and apologies
- * Minutes of previous meeting
- * Matters arising
- * Supervisor's report
- * Treasurer's report
- * Planned events for the coming month
- * General

Specific items are included when the need arises. For example, salary increases are discussed in June, the Christmas party and graduation ceremony in October and November and opening and closing procedures are considered prior to all holidays. Minor maintenance problems are attended to as they occur and major maintenance such as painting, rewiring and landscaping is done every couple of years. The supervisor is requested to include in her report the events of the past month and the problems and needs. These are dealt with immediately. The treasurer is required to give a monthly income and expenditure statement. The committee is

thus able to exercise the necessary financial control. The CSD assists administratively with the typing, duplicating and mailing of minutes, thus providing skills and resources which are not otherwise available.

7.4.5.2 Parent Involvement

One of the responsibilities of management committees is to encourage parent involvement. This is done through parents' groups which meet at least four times a year. These informal get-togethers are normally a mixture of business and pleasure. Singing and dancing are often interspersed with serious discussion, educational talks and the serving of refreshments. The parents have an opportunity to learn more about pre-school education and to raise problems and proposals. If specific recommendations are made they are raised at management committee meetings. Parents normally assist at functions and outings and help with the washing and mending of curtains, mattress covers, stuffed toys and equipment. Their fundraising activities normally take the form of raffles, concerts and social functions. Parent education in the form of talks on health, hygiene and child care is encouraged. Attendance figures vary considerably from school to school, year to year and season to season. The presence of fathers at these meetings is rare.

7.5 Other Pre-school Initiatives

7.5.1 Home Care Programme

(i) Overview

This programme was introduced in the Black townships in 1985 to provide day care facilities for children which are easy and inexpensive to establish and affordable to parents. The overhead costs are modest, in that all that is required is an equipment box for each house which costs approximately R600. The scheme provides modest jobs for unemployed women and enables others to go out to work. Suitable "mothers" and homes are carefully screened and selected by CSD fieldworkers. The "mother" should have a fondness for children and be prepared to undergo training, and the family should be prepared to have their house used every weekday from 7.30 a m to 5.00 p m. The homes are checked to ensure they are clean, have adequate sleeping space, good toilet and kitchen facilities and reasonably large play areas both inside and outside. The property should be fenced and have a good gate.

(ii) Training

After an initial training period of one afternoon a week for two months the "mothers" admit their first children. Thereafter the fieldworker visits each home every day to demonstrate activities

and provide support and encouragement. Her task is to ensure that standards are maintained and ideas disseminated. The programme followed is identical to that in the formal pre-schools, but the quality of the educational programme is inferior because of the limited educational background of the home care "mother".

(iii) Equipment (*Addendum 10*)

Each home receives an equipment box which remains the property of the CSD. If for some reason a particular group ceases to function the box can be taken to another home. A box equipped for 6 children contains the following: 6 blankets, 6 bowls, mugs and teaspoons, 6 washcloths, toothbrushes and toothpaste tubes, 1 large plastic washing bowl, scissors, paintbrushes, crayons, glue, poster paints, paper, magazines, blocks, threading beads, puzzles, stuffed toys and a wide variety of educational games. The boxes are recalled annually to be re-equipped. Each home also receives a suitcase of books from the Centre's suitcase library.

(iv) Food

From 1986 to 1989 World Vision provided the basic food for these groups. The fieldworkers packed, sorted and delivered a month's supply, which comprised 2 kg ProNutro cereal, 2 kg mealie meal, 3 kg powdered milk, 3 kg brown sugar, 2 kg rice, 2 kg soya mince, 1 kg powdered meal soup, 120 Kupugani fortified biscuits and 1 large jar of peanut butter. The "mothers" bought the bread and were encouraged to purchase the fruit and vegetables from township hawkers in an endeavour to support the informal sector. When the World Vision food was withdrawn the project suffered a major setback. Funding was subsequently secured for only soup, milk and biscuits. While the provision of the World Vision food proved to be a tremendous boon to the project, it was also a cause for serious concern. The fieldworkers could never be certain whether it went to the children or whether the mothers were using the provisions for general family consumption. Suspicions were confirmed when, in a number of instances, the carefully rationed food ran out well before the expected date.

(v) Organisation

The "mothers" are all members of the Amakhaya Home Care Association. They have regular meetings at which they discuss matters of common concern. They are responsible for the organisation of parents' meetings.

(vi) Concerts and Outings

Annual concerts are held to raise funds for the children's Christmas party and presents. Outings to the museum, Botanical Gardens, a farm and the beach are arranged. Many of the

cutback in food has made these centres less appealing to parents. There are however a number of other contributory factors to the declining support.

- * There is a paucity of suitable "mothers". Several prospective caregivers were turned down because either they or their homes were unsatisfactory. In a few cases after training had taken place parents simply refused to send their children to certain homes because the "mothers" were unacceptable to the community.
- * There is a growing dissatisfaction about salaries. In 1991 the fee per child is R15 per month. If a "mother" is caring for six children she will receive R90 p m. The need for more money has encouraged a number of "mothers" to drop out of the scheme, which allows for a maximum of 10 children, and to start their own centres taking up to 30 children. The CSD has been unhappy with this development as the houses, toilet facilities and "mothers" with their limited training cannot cope with these large numbers. These centres are fast becoming places where children are being abused rather than cared for. Despite numerous requests to the local authority to take action, a blind eye has repeatedly been turned.
- * An increasing number of parents want their children to attend the formal pre-schools. The difference in the quality of care and education is clear to all. When the Raglan Road Child Care Centre opened in 1990 a large contingent of Home Care children was admitted.

(ix) Future Plans

Two Safmarine containers have been purchased for conversion into care centres. These will be adapted and placed in the homes of two of the best "mothers". They have a number of advantages. Ten children can easily be accommodated and the "mother" does not have to use her house. The wear and tear on a house with ten children using it day after day is considerable, as is the inconvenience to other family members. Should these two containers prove popular and successful, others will be purchased.

(x) Conclusions

- * While this project worked well in the early years and seemed ideal for the conditions in Grahamstown, it would seem on reflection that the disadvantages outweigh the advantages. The accommodation for the majority of people in the Black townships is unsatisfactory. Bucket toilets used by too many people, street taps and overcrowded yards are the norm. The venues of most home care

groups are far from ideal. If quality care and pre-school education are the aims of the CSD it must be concluded that the project has failed. There is no doubt that the care in the homes is better than no care at all, but it falls far short of what is offered in the formal centres.

- * When World Vision withdrew the CSD was able to invest a substantial donation and use the monthly interest to purchase the soup, biscuits and milk. In 1991 R460 was being spent on 153 children each month or R3 per month per child. This is such an insignificant amount that it is unlikely to have any significant affect on the health and wellbeing of the children. The major food supply continues to come from the homes in lunch boxes and is generally neither nutritious nor interesting.
- * These centres are not inexpensive to run. Two fieldworkers earning over R800 pm each service them. The full monthly amount spent on salaries for the whole project (including the "mothers" cumulative earnings) is almost the same as the salaries paid to the child care workers in a formal school with a similar number of children. Transport and equipment costs have not been considered. An independent conclusion which states that "the home care group principle would therefore appear to address several important issues and could well provide a feasible alternative to much needed child care facilities" (*Davidson: 1989 - 138*) needs to be challenged and re-evaluated in the light of these findings.
- * Community acceptance is what is important in the final analysis. If the community supports projects they will grow and flourish, if the community rejects them they will wither and die. Community support will be the deciding factor as to whether or not the Home Care Groups in Grahamstown continue to exist.

7.5.2 Rural Outreach Programme

(i) Introduction

The need for care and pre-school education facilities in the urban townships of the Eastern Cape was well recognised by 1986. In the rural townships and on the farms the need was largely unrecognised. In May 1986 a resident in Bathurst published a survey on the educational needs of Black children of the Bathurst District (*Currie : 1986*). She expressed the need for pre-school facilities in the Bathurst township and on local farms. The Bathurst Welfare Society and the local authority undertook to build a school in the Black township. The committee appealed to the CSD for funds for equipment and requested training for their

prospective staff. At the same time the wife of a Trappes Valley farmer with primary school teaching qualifications contacted the CSD Director and expressed her willingness to become involved in a pre-school programme for the children of farm labourers.

The CSD recognised the need and importance of intervention. "People residing in rural areas in Southern Africa are especially vulnerable because of the inter-relatedness of forces that lock them into a cycle of poverty" (*Wilson and Ramphela 1989 : 173*).

These events resulted in the establishment of the Rural Outreach Programme. In this chapter the programme design will be described, the aims and objectives listed and the stages of the implementation of the project detailed. Thereafter the growth and development of the farm school project from 1987 to 1991 will be traced, including the most recent developments in the Alexandria District. Full details of the programme's structure will be described including information about the buildings and equipment, the daily routine and parent involvement. The project will then be analysed with the factors contributing to its success being listed, the costs interpreted, the management procedures described and the advantages and disadvantages of the programme outlined.

(ii) The Programme Design

In July 1986 a decision was taken to launch the Rural Outreach programme and the Director sent a full motivation for funding to the Bernard van Leer Foundation (*Henderson 1986*). Funds were requested for salaries, training programmes, equipment, transport and administration for a three year period. The project design was as follows:

- * To develop a pre-school educational programme in the Bathurst Township for 100 children. A building had been provided. The CSD agreed to furnish and equip the centre and train the staff as para-professional child care workers.
- * To extend and improve the facilities of an existing farm pre-school that could serve as a model school and a training centre.
- * To establish a pre-school facility on the farm of the Rural Co-ordinator designate. These two centres could be viewed by farmers and their wives who were planning to provide accommodation on their own farms for pre-school centres.
- * Thereafter to develop a further 10 to 12 pre-schools on farms depending on the number of offers and the suitability of the accommodation. The farmer was to be responsible for

the accommodation and the worker's salary and the CSD would provide the furniture and equipment.

- * To develop a series of training programmes for child care workers from the farming communities.
- * To introduce parent programmes in conjunction with the Mobile Clinic staff to help mothers understand their children and be better parents, and to foster hygiene and nutritious foods in the homes.
- * To appoint a part-time Rural Co-ordinator and a part-time fieldworker to take responsibility for the programme.

(iii) Aims and Objectives

The aims and objectives of this programme are as follows:

- * To train suitable rural women as child care fieldworkers who in turn would train child care workers to work in pre-schools and playgroups on farms.
- * To provide employment for women who would otherwise be unemployed. The training and experience would hopefully enhance their status in their communities.
- * To enable hundreds of rural children in the 3 to 6 year age group to receive a pre-school education and to be prepared for primary school entrance.
- * To give rural children a good headstart in life.
- * To provide adult education for the parents of these children in child care, nutrition and hygiene.
- * To uplift rural communities through the work of the programme.

(iv) Programme Implementation

In July 1986 the prospective Rural Co-ordinator attended numerous farmers' association meetings in the district to publicise the proposals. Articles were published in the local press. It was agreed that the approach for a pre-school on his farm had to be made by the farmer. In no circumstances was a farmer to be requested to provide facilities. On July 14 the CSD Pre-school Co-ordinator and fieldworkers conducted a "Pre-school Awareness" workshop in the Bathurst pre-school building. They set up the hall as a pre-school and encouraged the participants to be the pre-schoolers. Much interest and enthusiasm was generated. The Rural Co-ordinator designate inspected premises on farms and helped to select suitable farm women to participate in the training programme. In August the fieldworkers addressed district nurses at a conference in Port Alfred. They aimed to make the nurses aware of the importance of pre-

school education and to prepare the way for the involvement of the rural fieldworker in the Mobile Clinic parent education programme. In September the first training session was held. There were twenty-five participants. The course was planned to last for twelve months. No fee was charged and CSD certificates would be awarded at the end of the course.

The Rural Co-ordinator was appointed from 1 January 1987. Her job description was as follows:

- * To train the fieldworker and care workers.
- * To publicise the programme so that farmers could decide whether or not they wished to join the programme.
- * To inspect proposed premises on farms.
- * To ensure that the centres were adequately furnished and equipped.
- * To visit the centres regularly to ensure that high standards were maintained.
- * To run a Resource and Waste Room.
- * To attend a Pre-school Orientation Course at the Early Learning Resource Unit (ELRU) in Athlone.
- * To visit the Ntataise Pre-school Farm Project in Viljoenskroon.
- * To take full responsibility for the administration of the programme and to write mid-year and annual progress reports.
- * To work in close co-operation with the CSD Pre-school Co-ordinator.

Basic furniture and equipment was purchased for the Bathurst Pre-school and 13 farm pre-school centres. A meeting chaired by the CSD Director was held with farmers' wives from selected schools to establish operational guidelines. These included the following: A school will be established only where adequate facilities exist. No building operations could be financed. All facilities should be innovative and low cost. Parents will be expected to pay a small fee and the farmer will be responsible for the salary of the child care worker. The furniture and equipment purchased by the CSD would remain the property of the CSD. In the event of a school closing down the equipment would be moved to another farm.

Thirteen farm centres supervised by 19 women were opened in February 1987 catering to a total of 224 children. A Resource and Waste Room was opened on the farm of the Rural Co-ordinator.

In February the Pre-school Co-ordinator, the Rural Co-ordinator and two trainee women visited the Ntataise Farm school project in Viljoenskroon. They saw numerous schools, discussed training programmes, parent involvement strategies and low cost practical equipment. In April the Rural Co-ordinator attended a Pre-school Orientation Course at ELRU.

(v) Growth and Development

Table 20
Growth of Rural Outreach Programme: 1987 to 1991

	No of Centres	No of Children	No of Teacher-aids
1987	13	224	19
1988	15	198	21
1989	16	183	16
1990	14	195	17
1991	23	311	24

While the number of farm centres remained fairly constant between 1987 and 1990 the number of children declined from 224 to 195. There appear to be two reasons for this. The first was because of successful birth control programmes on specific farms and the second was that it has become increasingly easy for Black farm residents to move into the urban areas since the repeal of influx control. In 1988 the most competent of the trainees was appointed to the post of Rural Fieldworker. She took driving lessons and obtained her licence a few months later. Training sessions conducted in Xhosa were held once a month and the attendance at all sessions was good. Further fundraising on the part of the Director enabled the project to purchase a jungle gym and a portable lavatory for each centre. A suitcase library system was initiated by the Co-ordinator. In 1989 a bakkie was purchased. This acquisition with its built-in seats and canopy made it possible to take the children on outings, the most notable being a day excursion to Grahamstown. This was done on five different days in order to accommodate all the children. Monthly training sessions were again conducted and the confidence of the trainees grew apace. The Resource and Waste Room was well used and the equipment in the centres was put to good use and well looked after. The Fieldworker had a baby in November and took accouchement leave. In 1990 it became clear that she had no intention of returning to the project. She was replaced in October by the supervisor of the Bathurst Pre-primary school. The Co-ordinator resigned to become secretary of the Bathurst Show and her place was filled by a graduate teacher with pre-school experience.

Inter-school visits were undertaken in October and the Christmas treat was a day's outing to the Big Pine at Summerhill. The new Co-ordinator settled in well and tackled the work enthusiastically and energetically. In November a number of farmers from the Alexandria District made enquiries about the possibility of establishing pre-schools on their farms. It was clear that an extension of the project into a geographical area some distance from Bathurst would necessitate the appointment of a second Rural Co-ordinator. A successful fundraising campaign was launched by the Director. The Rural Co-ordinator's appointment was made full-time and an Alexandria Co-ordinator, a fully trained pre-school teacher, was appointed to commence her duties on a part-time basis in January 1991. The procedure followed in the establishment of the Bathurst-Trappes Valley schools was repeated. Farms were selected, trainees were interviewed and basic equipment was ordered.

In February 1991 ten pre-school centres on farms in the Alexandria District were started with 126 children and 11 trainee child care workers. The old bakkie was traded in and replaced with a newer model. Three separate week-long training courses were offered. Supplementary food comprising fortified soup powder was obtained for all centres from Operation Hunger. Fortified biscuits are provided by the farmer's wife. Mothers agreed to cook the soup each morning.

Pre-schools in the Black townships of Port Alfred, Bathurst and Kenton also receive regular visits from the Co-ordinator and Fieldworker and their staff attend the training programmes. The number of children and child care workers served is as follows:

Table 21
Rural Outreach Centres: 1991

No	Centres	Children	Staff
1	Bathurst Pre-schools	100	5
13	Bathurst-Trappes Valley farms	185	13
2	Port Alfred Pre-schools	283	8
3	Kenton Pre-schools	139	5
10	Alexandria farms	126	11
29	Total	833	42

(vi) The Rural Child Care Workers

African rural women are at the bottom of the economic pyramid in this country because of the added problem of paucity of resources and more rigid sexist practices in these areas" (*Wilson and Ramphela 1989 : 179*).

The women in this programme are the wives and dependents of farm labourers. They are selected by the Co-ordinator and the farmer's wife after some initial training has taken place. Women with no aptitude for the work either drop out of the course or are asked to leave. Most of the women have little education. Of the 19 women in employment in 1987 for example, 1 had completed Sub A, 2 Standard 2, 1 Standard 3, 2 Standard 4, 3 Standard 6 and 6 Standard 7. As a person is regarded as literate after four years of formal education, all but one of these women was literate. While literacy is not essential for the work it is recommended, as registers have to be kept and simple instructions have to be followed. Approximately half of this sample have had a year or two of high school experience. It is unusual to find applicants with better qualifications than this, as farm schools seldom offer education beyond the Standard 6 level.

The women have responded well to the training programmes, all of which are conducted in Xhosa. The relevant material for training has been translated into Xhosa by the Rural Fieldworker. The standard of work in the centres is good and continues to improve. The training sessions and the weekly visits from the Fieldworker provide confidence and support. The wages are paid by the farmer. These vary from farm to farm from a low of R8 per week to a high of R16. The initial training wage is the same as that of a farm labourer working as a pineapple planter or milker. The farmer is encouraged to increase the rate as the child care worker becomes more skilled. Regrettably not all farmers make the necessary adjustments. Many of these women have blossomed in their work. They are fulfilled in what they are doing, they have learned much about child care from their courses and they have a new-found status in their communities.

(vii) Buildings and Equipment

While the farmer is expected to take full responsibility for the buildings the CSD purchases the furniture and equipment which remains their property. The quality of the school buildings used vary considerably from new structures and reconditioned pigsties and stables to mud huts. Some farmers provided inadequate accommodation initially with the promise of something better later. Regrettably in these instances no changes or improvements were made. The Co-

ordinator was then faced with the decision of having to close down a good school with a trained worker and many children, depriving a trained woman of a job and the children of the one good educational opportunity they may ever have, or allowing the school to continue in dilapidated and dangerous accommodation. The farmer is also responsible for the provision of outdoor equipment and the maintenance of the grounds. The quality of the equipment varies from good to very bad. Where the farmer has a good relationship with his male staff he is able to encourage them to make swings, sandpits, storage boxes and climbing frames. On a few of the farms the only outdoor equipment is what has been purchased by the CSD. The indoor equipment provided by the CSD includes tables, chairs, painting easels, room dividers, bookshelves, pinboards, books, a wide range of educational games and toys and an ongoing supply of paint, paintbrushes, crayons, scissors and paper. The Fieldworker delivers supplies and waste material for creative activities on her weekly visits.

(viii) The Daily Routine

The daily routine is identical at all centres. All children do the same activities every day.

8.30 am	Outside free play followed by toilet routine.
9.00	Prayer and hymn singing. The register is taken.
9.10	Ring-time activities, singing, recitations etc.
9.30	Creative activities, drawing, painting, cutting etc.
9.50	Tidy up time and toilet routine.
10.00	Snack time. Fortified soup & biscuits are served.
10.15	Music and dancing activities
10.50	Number and language development activities
11.30	Tidy up time and toilet routine
11.40	Outside free play
12.15 pm	Home time

All the centres use the CSD Theme Packs and the child care workers plan their month's work at the monthly training sessions. They are helped and assisted by the Fieldworker who visits each school at least once a week. The activities are exactly the same as those offered in the urban township schools and the equipment the children use is identical.

(ix) Parent Involvement

A meeting is held every year with new parents to acquaint them with the school and its rules. In those instances where farms have Workers' committees these members are also invited to attend. Further meetings are held as the need arises. At least one meeting per term is recommended. The problems discussed at these meetings throw light on the parents' circumstances and expectations.

- * Many found it difficult to pay the fee of R2 per term. In these schools parents have been encouraged to arrange fundraising activities. The money raised is accepted in lieu of fees.
- * In those instances where the R2 fee had been paid parents wanted to know what it was spent on. They were suspicious that the worker was putting it in her pocket!
- * No parents wanted their money to be used to buy supplementary food for the mid-morning snack. They were determined that this should be the farmers' responsibility.
- * Many questioned how an ordinary farm woman with a primary school education could be a "teacher".
- * A number were concerned that their children were not learning to read, write and do arithmetic.

Since the beginning of 1991 mothers have shown a willingness to prepare the daily soup on a rotational basis. In those cases where mothers and grandmothers tell and teach traditional stories and songs they are always welcome to become involved. Some mothers attend from time to time to help out and seem to enjoy themselves.

(x) Factors Contributing to Project's Success

- * The project is never imposed on the farmer. He has to request that a facility be established on his farm.
- * The building overhead costs are low and are affordable.
- * The demands on the farmer are reasonable.
- * The average equipment cost per school of 15 children is R4 000 or R260 per child as compared with a total capital expenditure of R2 500 per child in a formal township school.
- * The monthly expenditure on each farm child in the programme is estimated at a low R14.

- * The teacher child ratio is low. For the farm schools it is 1:14 whereas in the urban centres it is 1:25.
- * Training sessions for all workers are conducted once a month.
- * There is an excellent support system. All centres are visited by the Fieldworker or Co-ordinator every week.
- * The high degree of dedication, motivation and commitment of the Co-ordinators and Fieldworker has been a major factor.

(xi) The Cost of the Programme

The capital costs are not considered here. The figures below reflect the 1991 annual estimated budget.

Salary of the Full-time Co-ordinator	R 24 000
Salary of the Part-time Co-ordinator	6 000
Salary of the Part-time Fieldworker	7 000
Expenses for January training course 20 trainees @ R200	4 000
Three five day courses for Alexandria workers	1 500
Transport for training courses	600
Annual transport costs Bathurst - Trappes Valley 10 months @ R700	7 000
Annual transport costs Alexandria 10 months @ R500	5 000
Administration costs. Telephone, duplicating etc 10 months @ R250	2 500
Ongoing equipment requirements 10 months @ R200	2 000
Miscellaneous expenditure	<u>1 000</u>
TOTAL	<u>R 60 600</u>

If the 366 children in the farm centres are considered the annual cost per child is R166, the monthly cost being R14. If the 833 children in the entire project are taken into account the annual cost per child is R73 and the monthly cost is R6. This is an extremely economic rate especially when the quality of the training and education are considered.

(xii) Management of the Programme

The responsibility for the programme is delegated to a number of people. The farmer is responsible for the building, grounds, outdoor equipment and salaries. The farmer's wife and the child care worker are responsible for the condition and cleanliness of the inside of the school. The Rural Co-ordinators and Fieldworker look after the training arrangements and the Rural Co-ordinator takes full responsibility for the vehicle, schedules of work, liaison with farmers, equipment needs and liaison with the CSD. The Pre-school Co-ordinator in the CSD takes final responsibility for the training programmes and the ordering of furniture and

equipment. The CSD Director undertakes responsibility for the fundraising and finances, the writing of motivations and contact with the funding organisations. The final responsibility for the entire project rests with her. Regular meetings, good communication and a thorough knowledge of the project have successfully combined to make this a very well managed and controlled programme.

(xiii) Advantages and Disadvantages

Advantages

Hundreds of farm children are given a good head start in life and a good pre-school education.

Many unemployed women have received a good training and jobs as child care workers.

The lives of many women and children are considerably enriched.

Parents and families benefit from the parent education programmes.

Farmers are increasingly realising the importance of this and similar programmes as a contributor to good employer-employee relationships.

The equipment is not fixed and can readily be moved from one farm to another. The flexibility of the programme is highly advantageous. Facilities can be moved and changed with changing needs and population patterns.

The cost of the project is highly economical.

Disadvantages

The project depends on ongoing training and support.

The project depends on outside funding. It can never become independent and self-sustaining.

A farm school depends on the goodwill of the farmer. If he decides to withdraw from the programme the school on his farm will close down.

The project administrators have no control over the child care workers salaries which are far from satisfactory.

The quality of the education offered on the farms is inferior to that in the towns.

The quality of the child care workers is inferior to that in the towns and the choice is more limited.

If a child care worker leaves a farm it is extremely difficult to find a suitable replacement.

The major disadvantage is the fact that the educational background of the farm worker is poor and that the choice of workers for the pre-schools is limited. The advantages of this low-cost programme, which brings a structured and professionally supervised pre-school educational programme to hundreds of disadvantaged rural children, far outweigh the disadvantages.

(xiv) Conclusion

This programme is both innovative and low cost and is well suited to the poor and deprived communities it serves. The overhead and running costs are low and hundreds of farm labourers' children are receiving a good pre-school education. The aims of the project have to a large extent been realised. Suitable women have been trained and continue to be trained as adequate and satisfactory child care workers. In 1991 twenty four formerly unemployed farm women are in high profile jobs on their farms. Their education has been enhanced by the training they have received. Most importantly hundreds of farm children now have the

opportunity to receive a good pre-school education and a headstart in life. Not only are they prepared for entrance into the primary school, they are also exposed to routines like grace and handwashing before meals that will remain with them for the rest of their lives. Instead of spending meaningless mornings in their kraals, they are engaged in interesting and meaningful activities in bright and colourful surroundings. Their educational, emotional and physical needs are attended to. The schools provide some food (fortified soup and biscuits) and the farmers provide the families with rations which comprise milk, pineapples, samp, sugar and dried beans.

This is a programme that has successfully evolved. It is one that is realising its aims and objectives and is growing and expanding to reach out into communities in rural areas that heretofore have been isolated and neglected. This Rural Outreach programme is one that could and should be replicated elsewhere.

CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Conclusions and Recommendations

The conclusions and recommendations made in this final chapter have been drawn from direct procedures and practices which have been described and developed in the preceding chapters. The theories of the major international practitioners have been studied and applied to the CSD's development projects and initiatives in the townships of Grahamstown and the surrounding rural areas. A number of conclusions and recommendations relating to specific programmes and projects have been suggested in the text. These will be summarised and included with other general deductions and proposals which have resulted from the cumulative research experience. All relate directly to the stated aims and objectives of the research topic.

8.1.1 The CSD as Part of the Field of Social Welfare

- (i) The perspectives on social development are rooted in Socialist ideology with the basic underpinnings being egalitarianism, the redistribution of wealth, collective action and social integration. These concepts are not applicable to the work of the CSD. Schumacher's views are however appropriate. Development starts and ends with people, it is slow and cannot be hurried and small manageable projects are recommended.
- (ii) The community development model is closely linked to economic programmes, land reform and population control, with meaningful co-operation between national governments and local communities. Community initiative is a major component. This model does not apply to the situation in Grahamstown where deprived people, inadequately educated, are so concerned with their basic survival that they exhibit little interest in community affairs and community involvement.
- (iii) The social planning model best fits the methods and initiatives of the CSD which are basically those of programme development and planning, staff training, programme management and evaluation. The state is not financially involved except in the provision of basic subsidies for established projects. The match is not perfect, but in the social sciences there is considerable overlap and no one particular model is ideal.

- (iv) All major resources for development programmes in Grahamstown come from outside of the community. The provision of finance and skills from the recipient communities are meagre.
- (v) Professional administrative and management procedures have been carefully developed, practised and disseminated by the CSD. These are viewed as a major key to the success of projects. The dynamic processes involved in the various CSD development programmes ensure that social welfare programmes and community work practices maintain the highest possible standards and are as efficient and effective as possible in the circumstances which prevail.
- (vi) A professional fundraising methodology has been developed. This coupled with the careful husbanding and accountability of project resources is viewed as a major ingredient for project success.
- (vii) Social planning is a necessary pre-requisite for community work. Community work is an accepted method in the promotion and development of social welfare practices.
- (viii) A balance is maintained between development and preventative programmes. A broad preventative and development strategy transfers social welfare services to the local level. The concept of developmental social welfare is practised. The CSD is thus meeting a social welfare function at the community level with private funding and resources.

8.1.2 Project Planning and Development

- (i) Projects most likely to succeed are those which grow from the bottom up. These are the projects the people really want and those which most truly reflect their needs. Programmes and projects should never be imposed on communities.
- (ii) Serious harm has resulted in the past where people have attended meetings, been promised facilities and spent much time and effort planning them, often to no avail because there has been no money to finance the proposal. The community worker and the steering committee should have firm funding commitments for a project prior to any public involvement or announcement.
- (iii) Unless the people can see immediate action and movement they lose interest. They are not interested in meetings and talk sessions which seemingly lead nowhere. In poor communities new projects must evolve and develop quickly. If a project looks as if it is

developing to meet the felt needs of the community strong community support and interest will be maintained throughout the planning period.

- (iv) Many projects fail because they are too big. Small projects are easier to handle, establish and maintain. Funds are more readily available for something small, and inexperienced people can better cope with less ambitious schemes. Small projects stand a better chance of success than large ones. They also develop quicker and maintain the interest of the community.
- (v) Projects most likely to succeed are those in which the people want to develop and improve their own condition and that of their own communities. Helping people to help themselves pre-supposes that people want to be helped. For effective results it is advisable to work with those people who have a strong commitment to better themselves and their communities. Without this commitment the development process will not succeed.
- (vi) If there is no chance of long term sustainability a project will inevitably have to close down. Projects should be planned for financial self-sufficiency. Adequate funds should be raised so that a considerable portion can be invested and the interest used for annual expenditure. The facility should be built and planned in such a way that government subsidies may be applied for and granted. Careful budgeting should be done so that as far as possible the total income is able to cover the general running costs.
- (vii) No project has the right to continue to exist in certain adverse circumstances. Workers and planners must have the courage to say "no" to high risk projects. They should be prepared to modify projects which are not meeting their aims and objectives because they are either too expensive or because they have not worked. Thorough evaluations should be regularly conducted and all factors fully assessed. Decisions which are in the best interests of the community should be made, no matter how hard they may be.
- (viii) It is not easy to revive and resuscitate a project which has failed. It requires less effort to start a completely new project than to revamp and revitalise one that has collapsed. The ideal solution is to start again and employ a new complement of staff. It is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to teach old members of staff new procedures and techniques.
- (ix) If a project is not working it is inadvisable to prop it up from below because the cause

of the problem is likely to be found at the top. The supervisor has to accept full responsibility for the project and she alone is accountable. A change of supervisor is very often all that is needed to rectify the problem and get the project back onto an even keel.

- (x) The easiest part of developing a new project is starting it. The most difficult part is keeping it going, maintaining high standards, preventing staff and committee complacency, constantly fundraising and attending interminable committee meetings month in and month out, year after year.
- (xi) In disadvantaged communities it is advisable that development projects commence with the construction of buildings. Training and resource provision can follow. Disadvantaged people are more interested in actual facilities than in development programmes. Planning achieves more when it focuses on particular programmes, and people respond better to these than to changed laws and institutions.
- (xii) In the final analysis people are more important than the programme and the process is more important than the result. Even if a project fails the experience gained must be analysed and evaluated because it could be of value to future projects and developments.

8.1.3 Workers and Volunteers in Development Programmes

- (i) The community worker should not enter the community with the expressed purpose of helping people to ascertain their needs. The people should decide themselves, without the help of an outsider, what their requirements are. Natural leaders will emerge in the process. The group should then approach the community worker with their suggestions and proposals.
- (ii) All those who work with people in development projects should do small things with great love. All workers in the field should set about their work in a loving and sympathetic way. "Love and caring are amongst the most important things in the world. The biggest disease today is not leprosy or tuberculosis, but rather the feeling of being unwanted, uncared for or deserted by everybody. The greatest evil is the lack of love and charity and the terrible indifference towards one neighbour who lives at the roadside, assaulted by exploitation, corruption, poverty and disease" (*Mother Theresa 1990 : 5*).

- (iii) Young women fieldworkers, no matter how impressive their educational qualifications, are not acceptable to older women in the community. Black fieldworkers should ideally be middle aged mature women who are known in the communities where they work. It is felt that young women cannot know much about family matters and child rearing because of their inexperience and immaturity.
- (iv) Black community workers and professional people recruited from outside of Grahamstown are not readily accepted by the local community. They are regarded with suspicion and are not welcome. Ideally community workers should be local people.
- (v) No community worker is neutral. Community work is determined to a large extent by the personality and background of the worker. A person with an agricultural background is likely to show a greater interest in a vegetable growing scheme than in an adult education centre. Similarly a pre-school specialist will be inclined to encourage pre-school development programmes.
- (vi) Social planners and community workers should endeavour to work with and not for people. They do not always succeed. The dividing line is sometimes unclear because in certain circumstances certain jobs have to be done by the worker. The worker must constantly guard against undertaking tasks which are the responsibility of the project staff. This can be a difficult problem in South Africa where government bureaucracies have the effect of frightening and discouraging contact with Black and Coloured people. Very often the only person able to cut through the red tape and bureaucracy is the professional worker. While one accepts that community groups should play their own advocacy role, it is not always either easy or possible. Flexibility and sensitivity are to be encouraged in these situations.
- (vii) Fieldworkers are vital to the success of development programmes. They work at the coal face, visit facilities and offer support, resources, in-service training and supervision. They act as the security blanket for people lacking confidence and ensure that projects run according to plan. They are well known figures in the community, respected and loved by children and adults alike.
- (viii) It is not always easy for the worker's role to be that of a facilitator only. Many practitioners suggest that workers should get projects going and then move on. It is, however, essential that before doing so they make every endeavour to ensure that those who will take over the project have been trained to take full responsibility.

- (ix) Normally committee members have had little previous committee experience and financial training. Very often the composition of a committee changes after the annual general meeting. Experience has shown that in those instances where projects have taken these changes in their stride an umbrella support group has been available to provide ongoing assistance. Without this continuum many projects would not survive. An umbrella organisation offering skills and resources may be necessary on a permanent or semi-permanent basis for considerable periods of time. Too often support groups have withdrawn prematurely and the project has collapsed. The training and preparation period necessary for community autonomy is much longer than most practitioners are prepared to admit.
- (x) The importance of para-professional workers has not been sufficiently stressed in the literature on development strategies. In developing countries professional staff are scarce and expensive and need to be used as productively as possible. Para-professional staff, trained by professionals and working under their guidance and supervision, can perform good work at affordable costs. It is not necessary that all workers be professionally trained. Para-professionals have much to recommend them. They are accessible to the people, they speak their language and share their culture. They usually come from the communities in which they work and are known and respected by the people. The para-professionals employed by the CSD in the towns and rural areas make a valuable contribution to the welfare of the people and communities they serve.
- (xi) The abilities of workers and leaders engaged in community practice are considerable and formidable. The characteristics as described in the literature include an ability to relate to people and to facilitate relationships among individuals and groups, to analyse a problem and see its potential, to locate and utilise resources, to organise effective structures, to see potential for change, to handle oneself professionally, to work under pressure and establish priorities, to have public relations expertise, budgeting and administrative experience and an ability to use knowledge by applying it to practice (*Barry 1959 : 82 - 83*). Other important characteristics not included are as follows: Workers should not be paternalistic and should have infinite tact and patience. They should be willing to attend community meetings at nights and over weekends and be prepared to cope with crises and emergencies at any time of the day or night. A

knowledge of the local language, while not necessary, is highly recommended. Workers should have a good understanding of the local bye laws and municipal regulations and a knowledge of building and maintenance procedures. A commitment and dedication to the purposes of the project is also necessary.

- (xii) Voluntary workers have serious limitations despite the fact that many practitioners expound on their virtues. Experience has been that volunteers are practically extinct. In these times of economic hardship anyone who can find gainful employment accepts it and has little time for voluntary service. Unemployed people cannot afford to offer their services gratis, and poor people are not prepared to do voluntary work. In this context it is difficult, but not impossible, to encourage people to do small voluntary tasks in community projects. Often the simplest and most efficient way to get a job done is to hire a professionally qualified person who knows what he is doing, can be held responsible for what he does and is likely to complete the job by due date. The CSD has experimented with volunteer students in some of its projects. While a few are reliable, most are not. All projects now pay R6 per hour to helpers with particular skills. The scheme works well and there are seldom letdowns or disappointments.

8.1.4 Development Projects and Children

Development projects in disadvantaged communities should start with children through pre-school, after-school, educational or sporting programmes. If a community is to tackle its problems effectively the ideal place to start is with children. Working through children makes family and community development programmes easier, more natural and logical. "Children are the most vulnerable victims of poverty in South African society and they must be the primary target group in any development strategy" (*Wilson and Ramphela 1989 : 176*). "South Africa has a large young population. Children under 15 years of age make up 40% of the total population and their needs will require special intervention to ensure their optimal development. Children under five years of age are especially vulnerable and at risk to poverty and constitute a large sector of the population. Roughly 1 in 5 children is 6 years or less and African children make up 72%, Coloureds 8%, Indians 3.5% and White children 15.3% of the total number of children under 15 years" (*Patel 1991 : 34*). While child care facilities are necessary and important they must not be seen as an end in themselves. The establishment of a nursery or pre-school provides an excellent base in the community for related development programmes.

The parents develop a sense of pride in the facility and in their children, they learn more about child rearing and become better parents. Parent education programmes fortify the home environment, supplement the educational role of family members, promote self-esteem and assist parents to develop skills to better interact with each other and their families.

8.1.5 Community Consultation and Empowerment

- (i) Community consultation is necessary but problematic. Meetings are held and decisions are taken by democratically elected communities. Those decisions are often taken back to grassroots community formations for approval. Sometimes recommended changes are brought back to the next meeting often by people who did not attend the first one. Progress can be extremely slow and the process delayed. If the delay is significant it may be necessary to change documentation, especially that relating to funding and budgets. Funders express concern that nothing is happening and committee members become disillusioned and dissatisfied. It is hoped that the period of excessive community consultation which is presently fashionable will be one of passing duration. The consequences could otherwise be serious.
- (ii) Helping communities to obtain real power has not been possible through the CSD approach to development. Prior to 1990 most Blacks and Coloureds were afraid to step out of line, and to stand up for their rights. After the changes which came with the de Klerk era, the political formations emerged and took on this responsibility. The result has been that the role of ordinary community members has remained basically unchanged.

8.1.6 Parent and Community Involvement and Parent Education

- (i) Where children in a project come from the poorest backgrounds where parents are unemployed, uneducated and disadvantaged, parent involvement and community support is likely to be at a low level. Parents from the professions and middle-class homes are more likely to become involved in community project planning. Poor people are so concerned with basic survival that they have little time for other activities. Another common problem is that many parents believe that once they have sent a child to a care centre or school and paid the fees, their responsibility for the child is no longer theirs. The projects which have the best chance of long term survival are those where

the parents and committee members are middle class professionally qualified people like nurses, teachers, policemen, army, post office and municipal employees.

- (ii) Parents do not know about their responsibilities for their children instinctively. They often need to be told about their obligations. Wherever possible the parents should be included in any decision making that affects the lives of their children.
- (iii) Parent education should go hand in hand with all pre-school education programme. There is little point teaching small children particular routines unless the parents are prepared to adopt the same practices at home. Education programmes should aim to bridge the gap between the school and the home and to enable the adults to become better and more responsible parents. In projects involving children, their care, nutrition and education are not the only objectives. Unless parents can be reached for education and improvement programmes, only half the task is accomplished. Parent education is viewed as a vital part of any social development programme.
- (iv) In order for parent education programmes to attract large audiences and be successful the CSD has developed a few simple strategies. Notices of the event are sent no earlier than four days before the programme. They are given to the children or put into their suitcases, as mail deliveries are generally unreliable. Posters are displayed in schools and churches. Refreshments (tea, coffee and softdrinks) and cakes are served prior to the commencement of the event. As each person arrives she is warmly welcomed and made to feel important. The presentation is planned to be as interesting and varied as possible. Information is transmitted through a speaker or panel of speakers, a video or film or a practical demonstration. Time is set aside for questions and discussion. The proceedings closes with a lucky draw and a prize to match the topic. When the subject was "Hygiene in the Home" the prize was a bucket, mop, sponge, scrubbing brush and soap powder. If the participants wish to sing and dance they are encouraged to do so. Programmes run this way enable the participants to have an enjoyable time, to meet and converse with their friends and to learn something useful along the way.
- (v) Normally parent education programmes can only be conducted when parents come to the venue where the sessions are held. The CSD has found another very effective way of reaching parents, grandmothers and care-givers who would not usually attend these sessions. Trained fieldworkers visit the waiting rooms in the clinics and day hospitals where people are awaiting medical treatment for their sick children. They are a captive

audience. Brief ten minute talks are given on a wide variety of topics pertaining to baby and child care. Illustrated leaflets in the vernacular are handed out to be taken home, so the information may reach the rest of the family.

- (vi) Everyone talks about parents and parent education. What they really mean is something quite different. A high percentage of the children in the CSD's pre-schools are the offspring of teenage mothers, who after the birth have their children formally or informally adopted by their parents so that they can return to school. Many "mothers" are therefore grandmothers and pensioners. Fathers and grandfathers are almost unknown. It is on very rare occasions that a man attends a pre-school meeting. Most of the fathers are young boys and men, who having impregnated the girls, show no further interest in them or their offspring. When parent education sessions are conducted in the clinics and day-hospital, a high percentage of the clientele are young child minders or old grandmothers. Many children are therefore growing up with little or no male influence in their lives. Very few have the benefit of a normal family. According to the Grahamstown municipal authorities the majority of household heads in Rini are female.

8.1.7 Financial Control of Community Projects

- (i) The importance of the satisfactory financial control of projects has not been sufficiently stressed in the literature. Without this no project can survive and the huge effort in establishing the facility is wasted. It is recommended that the funds of all projects are controlled by a qualified bookkeeper or accountant who is paid a monthly honorarium for his services.
- (ii) The CSD runs annual basic bookkeeping courses for community treasurers. It is recommended that these or similar courses be offered in all centres at regular intervals. All committee members of projects should be mandated to attend. Even well educated people have no grasp of basic economics and simple budgeting. Attendance at these or similar courses should enable responsible members in the community to participate more fully in financial decision making at all levels.

8.1.8 Management Committees and Umbrella Bodies

- (i) A management committee needs the ongoing support and resources of an umbrella organisation such as the CSD. As fast as one committee group is properly trained it is replaced by another group following elections at annual general meetings. The training procedure starts again and the process continues ad infinitum. An umbrella body is essential for the sake of continuity. Committee training is a long and slow process. Agencies must be prepared to offer ongoing but slowly diminishing support and assistance for long periods. Many concepts are new and strange and people need considerable exposure to them in order to understand them fully and feel at home with them. Committee work and particularly decision making are totally new experiences. Poor people in an apartheid society do not make many decisions in their daily lives. Learning new procedures takes time and these processes cannot be hurried.
- (ii) Planning ahead is a strange and unfamiliar concept in poor communities. Unless matters about future events are brought to the attention of members of staff and management committees, they are neither thought about nor discussed until the very last moment. Most impoverished people think only about today because tomorrow may never come. An umbrella advisory body is able to assume responsibility for ensuring that events are both planned and arranged timeously.
- (iii) Many Black supervisors find it extremely difficult, if not impossible, to report irregularities and to discipline those working under them. One cannot be sure if this is a traditional attitude, whether they fear intimidation and reprisals or whether apartheid is to blame in that Blacks been conditioned to take orders from Whites and therefore feel uncomfortable about placing themselves in an authoritarian position. An umbrella organisation can help supervisors to be more assertive and can share the disciplinary role with them until they have the confidence to act independently.

8.1.9 Training Programmes and Development

- (i) Training programmes are an essential ingredient in development work. Few social development practitioners and community workers have stressed their importance. In the CSD no person is asked to do a job unless she has received prior training and preparation and on-going in-service training. It is essential that everyone is trained for the work they undertake. No young person can become a child care worker without this

and no one can run a project and take responsibility for money. Where none of the staff employed in community projects are professionals, young people with ability and motivation are trained as para-professionals who require on-going training and support to carry out their duties responsibly and competently. Many projects have not survived because the initiators withdrew before the staff had been sufficiently trained to become independent.

- (ii) The training of para-professionals is best done by the professional staff with whom they work i.e. the professional staff of the local umbrella body. When training is done at a distant centre, the local professionals are not familiar with the content of the course. Difficulties may arise from misinterpretation of information. Workers often believe that if they attend a course away from their home, it is superior to the local course and that no further training is necessary.
- (iii) Recognition in the form of certificates of competence or attendance should be given to all who successfully complete training courses. Certificates should be presented at formal occasions and due recognition should be given.

8.1.10 The Provision of Bursaries and Development

- (i) Bursary programmes are an integral part of community development. They have enabled thousands of underprivileged young people to realise their potential by becoming teachers, lawyers, social workers, doctors and skilled artisans. Education is a major key to a better life, self-esteem and new horizons for entire families. The CSD provides partial bursaries only, as it has been shown that for successful results it is necessary for families to be financially involved, even marginally, in their children's education. CSD policy is in full agreement with the opinion that "education and training is essential if poverty amongst the rising generation is to be wiped out" (*Watts 1971 : 51*).
- (ii) A general attitude of entitlement is prevalent in disadvantaged communities. Many individuals believe that the White affluent group owes them something because of the deprived circumstances in which they have been raised and educated. This may be part of the handout syndrome, it may be something more serious. Most students believe that bursaries are their due no matter how poor their marks. They cannot understand that funds are limited and that bursaries are given to those who are likely to benefit from

them. When financial assistance is given, for example, to enable desperately poor students to write matric, all the students want to receive a percentage of the total. Poverty and family circumstances are not considered and everyone believes that he or she is entitled to be helped irrespective of their personal circumstances. It is extremely difficult to cope with this attitude.

8.1.11 Job Creation and Development

Job creation is an important part of social development. For every new facility established by the CSD at least four new jobs have been created. The importance of a job in providing the recipient with self-esteem and a feeling of worth cannot be over estimated. Job creation and development processes are therefore closely linked. Many of the project positions have been filled by women. Schemes using women's traditional skills have a greater chance of success than those requiring new skills.

8.1.12 Development and the Provision of Nutritious Food

Almost no theory concerning development mentions food. "Professor John Hansen pointed out that in South Africa one third of all black children up to the age of fourteen suffer from malnutrition" (*Wilson and Ramphela 1989 : 175*). In the CSD it is accepted that without the provision of good nutritious food, holistic development is unable to occur. If children are hungry at school they cannot learn; in extreme cases they collapse at their desks. Food should form an important aspect of all programmes; the more disadvantaged the children and adults the better the provision of food. Food is not only important as an ongoing daily provision, it is an important ingredient at training sessions, parent education programmes and meetings. If good appetizing food is available people are far more likely to attend sessions than if no food is provided. Development processes seem to occur more satisfactorily and naturally around food.

8.1.13 Development and Charity

Social development must not be confused with charity. All clients in development programmes should be expected to make a financial or service contribution for the assistance they receive. If people pay for a service, they not only value it, they also maintain their self respect. "Yesterday a charity handout of bread and soup saw them through the day. Tomorrow, the day after, next week ... they will stand in another queue for yet another handout. And slowly over

the months ahead, for as long as the charity continues the corruption of dependence will set in. What they really needed in the first place was not another hand-out but a hand up. The focus of charity in our country must shift from alms giving to development of both the individual and the community" (*World Vision pamphlet : undated*).

8.1.14 Development Projects and Churches

- (i) Projects associated with churches can be problematic. Church council members are concerned mostly with their own church activities and not with projects which are unrelated to their own particular interests and affairs. Priests often have their own problems. Church members are more interested in what the project can provide for them (i.e. accommodation and facilities) than with the service it is providing for the underprivileged of the community. Parish members can develop negative attitudes towards projects because they receive one-sided information from the council representatives. It is unwise to employ a priest's wife if her husband is the chairman of the project's management committee. The Grahamstown experience has been that it is generally imprudent to establish community projects on church property. A conflict of interests results and produces problems that are difficult to solve. It is noteworthy that the major problems at St Mary's, St Philip's and St Peter Claver's have been related to the churches and priests. Heidi, Sun City, Shaw Hall and Raglan Road, which are not connected to churches, have had no external problems and few internal ones.
- (ii) Much of the literature proposes the multiple use of project buildings in communities where venues are sparse. On those occasions when it has been attempted to share project premises with church groups it has been singularly unsuccessful. Large numbers of people using a facility which is not theirs do not respect it. Equipment is removed or stolen. Should it be necessary for a facility to be used by an outside group, a member of the project committee should be on duty to take responsibility for the buildings, equipment and possessions. This can be problematic if the group uses the building for a dance or disco which lasts well into the night! Unless all the project equipment can be packed away, and only if a large deposit is charged, does this arrangement work. Further serious problems result from adults using and abusing children's toilet facilities and not cleaning up when the function is over.

8.1.15 Conclusions and Recommendations regarding specific CSD Projects

- (i) St Mary's Day Care Centre has transformed the lives of hundreds of children. Neglected, poorly fed and uncared for on arrival, they respond almost immediately to the good food and the availability of bathrooms and showers which help them to keep clean and presentable. The provision of school uniforms which enable them to look and feel like children from more affluent backgrounds help them to overcome the stigma of being poor and disadvantaged. They find new meaning in their lives especially when they are no longer permanently hungry, and they are able to work and concentrate in the classroom. They can look forward to a future which offers hope rather than despondency and misery. KNH funds are given exclusively for the welfare of the children. Parent involvement is not a major aim, in fact no directive concerning the children's parents is given in the Supervisor's Manual. The set aims have to a very large extent been reached. The unwritten aims relating to parents have not been successful. It is recommended that this model be introduced in other centres. The advantages are that children are not removed from their families and communities. They are clothed, fed and educated in such a way that they will have a role to play in the future, instead of becoming another social welfare victim dependent on state aid for the rest of their lives.
- (ii) The Home Care Programme has been an interesting and worthwhile experiment. If the centres run well, and if the premises used are good, the facilities offered can match those in the townships' pre-schools. In general, however, even with costly supervision home care groups are problematic, and unless carefully monitored they can become child abuse centres where unqualified women care for large numbers of children in sub-standard premises with inadequate toilet facilities. The advantage to the families of the lower fees, greater proximity to the homes, provision of employment and a familiar setting for the child, can readily be outweighed by the disadvantages: the poor quality of the "mothers", low salaries, inadequate indoor and outdoor facilities, poor control of food, overcrowded premises and unhygienic toilets. Home care groups can only work well in carefully controlled circumstances where the homes are supervised daily by fieldworkers, where ongoing training is done and where the local authority is extremely strict about the factors pertaining to hygiene and health in the homes, toilets and yards. The provision of food needs to be regularly checked and controlled. By providing

Safmarine containers the concept of care in the home is negated. The containers should be viewed as small nursery schools established on private property, rather than home care facilities. All informal child care centres should have to be registered by the local authority and should receive regular ongoing inspection.

(iii) The Pre-schools on Farms

This programme has proved itself to be innovative, cost effective and well suited to the poor and deprived communities it serves. The overhead running costs are low, labourers' children receive a good pre-school education and an excellent preparation for the primary school. The aims of the project have to a large extent been realised. The transformation which has resulted in the lives of the ordinary farm women selected for para-professional training has been remarkable. The schools provide food, and the farmers and the workers' committees are involved in the management and decision making. The project is expanding and reaching out into new communities in the rural areas. This programme is one that could and should be replicated elsewhere. Trained pre-school teachers to co-ordinate the programme and well motivated Xhosa speaking fieldworkers are necessary elements. Ongoing training and support is essential along with regular inspections and support visits. The programme has a high level of flexibility, it reaches thousands of otherwise neglected and deprived children and its costs are affordable.

(iv) The Formal Pre-schools in Grahamstown

These have all to a large extent fulfilled their aims and objectives. Because staff and committee members come and go the training job is never done. Management problems occur regularly, but as their solutions are part of the development process, they must be seen as positive rather than negative occurrences. The level of education is on a par with the better pre-schools in Grahamstown and the provision of food excellent. A large number of jobs have been created. After two or three years in these pre-schools most children are socially, emotionally, physically and academically prepared for primary school. The teachers and principals in the primary schools comment favourably on the children from these centres. They are all school ready and have a considerable academic and social advantage over the other children.

The reasons for the success of these centres can be summarised as follows:

- * The support and resources provision from the CSD's umbrella organisation.
- * The careful control and management of money and fees.
- * The ongoing training and supervision of the staff.
- * Regular parent education programmes.
- * Well looked after and maintained buildings and grounds.
- * Good educational programmes.
- * The provision of nutritious food.
- * The provision of state subsidisation.

8.1.16 General

- (i) Dissemination of ideas, concepts and theories is an important aspect of community work that receives little attention in the literature. Lecturing to students, welfare groups, para-professionals and funders forms an important part of the work of the CSD. Staff are regularly invited to address national bodies and like-minded organisations. Annual Reports are widely distributed and articles describing the projects are submitted to a wide range of newspapers and publications. The sharing of ideas, concepts and theories is a vital aspect of development work which should not be overlooked or minimised.
- (ii) Evaluation should be done as an integral and ongoing part of the development process. If it is done regularly and systematically changes can be made timeously and people can learn from their mistakes before any serious harm is done.
- (iii) The policy of the CSD has been to provide only the best educational equipment for disadvantaged children. There is no equipment that is too good for deprived communities. They should receive better opportunities and facilities for education and development than those people who come from more affluent backgrounds.
- (iv) The holistic approach to development, which embraces programmes covering a wide spectrum of ages and interests, is ideal. Through the opportunities provided, children and people of all ages can become the beneficiaries, provided they have the will and determination to make use of the existing social and economic circumstances for their own advantage and that of the community as a whole.
- (v) The CSD has accomplished a great deal in a relatively short space of time. This has

been done when both national and local circumstances were far from ideal. Many thousands of unqualified people have been trained to become contributing members of society and countless numbers of poverty stricken people have been helped to live better lives through a variety of programmes and services. The work has been accomplished on a small budget by a highly motivated and dedicated staff. A great deal more could have been done had further funds been available for professional salaries. It is hoped that in the future the CSD will be provided with unencumbered resources which can be used to strengthen the professional staff base. In the future dispensation of South Africa quality projects will be in great demand and countless numbers of qualified people will be required to run them. The CSD is well placed to meet these needs. All CSD projects have been based on community needs, they have been planned and constructed in consultation with the community and local residents have staffed and managed them. The work undertaken by the CSD has been successful because the correct procedures have been followed, there have been no hidden agendas, the interests of the community have been paramount and high quality programmes have been implemented. There are no short cuts in community work and there are no accolades for the second best. Dedicated hard work and a sincere interest in the client population have been the vital ingredients for the successes achieved. Above all the people working as planning and resource agents love their work and identify closely with the aims and aspirations of the communities they serve.

8.2 Proposals for Future Research Topics

8.2.1 Teenage Pregnancies

There is a need for researchers working in pre-school educational fields in deprived communities to know more about teenage pregnancies and children born to teenage mothers. The questions which need to be addressed are as follows:

- * What are children being taught about teenage pregnancies, are they accepted or taboo? How do families, church authorities and educational institutions view them?
- * Are young mothers expected to take responsibility for the nutrition, upbringing and education of these children? Are counselling services available and what advice is given?
- * What are the views of grandmothers and other family members about having to care

for babies and small children so that the young mothers can return to school or college.

- * What percentage of total births are those of unmarried teenage girls? Is there a correlation with economic, cultural or social factors?
- * When do teenage girls become sexually active? Do they have one partner or multiple partners? How prevalent are gang rapes and what percentage of pregnancies can be attributed to them? What are the circumstances in which the conceptions occur, are alcohol and drugs contributing factors?
- * What percentage of girls marry the fathers of their children? Do the fathers accept responsibility? What percentage of teenage mothers marry? What is the husband's attitude to the children if they are not his?
- * What happens to these children in later years? What percentage become victims of kwashiorkor, child neglect and child abuse?
- * What percentage of these teenage mothers were themselves the children of teenage mothers?
- * When should instruction in marriage and parenthood be given, should it be part of the formal school curriculum, how should the material be presented and by whom?
- * What is the attitude of the churches, school authorities and families to pre-marital sex and promiscuity?

8.2.2 The Long Term Effect of Pre-school Education in Disadvantaged Communities

As increasing numbers of children from deprived backgrounds are becoming recipients of pre-school headstart programmes it has become necessary for the effects of this experience to be measured against those children who have not attended pre-school or educare facilities over a longitudinal period for a significant period of time.

- * The academic performance of the two groups should be compared, contrasted and assessed from Sub A to standard 5.
- * The attitude of Sub A teachers to pre-school children in their classes should be studied. Do the teachers value having these children in their classes or are they seen as a threat? How does the teacher manage to cope with the school-ready pre-schoolers and the rest of the children who have had no pre-school education in the same classroom? Are the pre-schoolers sidelined so that the teacher can concentrate on the other group? Are the pre-schoolers regarded as forward, precocious and cheeky? Is their pre-school

education regarded positively or negatively? Should children with pre-school experience be taught in separate classes so that their progress is not impeded?

- * How do pre-school children cope academically, socially and physically in the primary school as compared with the control group? Are they more intelligent, do they learn faster, do they know more, do they relate better to other children and adults and are they stronger and more co-ordinated on the sportsfield?

8.2.3 The Culture of Learning

Educationalists are concerned that Black pupils and students have little understanding of or interest in learning. Many attend school so that they can write and pass exams in order to acquire a job. A small percentage of pupils are prepared to do homework and study at home. Most believe that education is a one-way process emanating from the teacher and that the role of the pupil is a receptive and passive one. Learning for learning's sake is a rare phenomenon. This problem needs to be researched.

Some of the questions that need to be considered are as follows:

- * Was there ever a culture of learning? Under what circumstances did it exist and what caused it to diminish?
- * What are the effects of this phenomenon in the classroom and in the workplace?
- * What can be done to restore this learning culture in the homes, schools and universities?
- * What are the long term affects of this problem?

ADDENDA

Addendum 1 Summary of the Housing Stock in Rini: June 1991¹

Area	Sites	Sites with Houses	Comments
Fingo Village	388	360	Privately owned. Freehold rights.
Old Cemetery	126	126	Council owned. Rented and for sale.
Old Municipal township	267	260	Council owned. Rented and for sale
Sunnyside	149	149	Corrugated iron houses. Rented.
Makanaskop Municipal	1 136	1 129	Council owned. Rented and for sale
Makanaskop Old Age Village	24	24	Council owned. Rented.
Makanaskop Ext 1	216	216	Council. Block houses. Half owned by Council and half privately.
Makanaskop Ext 2	233	233	Zenzele. Owners paying off.
Makanaskop Ext 3	195	190	80% Zenzele. 20% Block.
Makanaskop Ext 4	324	304	Privately owned. No electricity
Makanaskop Ext 5	222	196	Privately owned. No sewerage.
Tantyi	604	604	Council owned. Rented and for sale.
Kings Flats	2 366	130	UNIFOUND Block houses. Privately owned.
		60	Site-and-service shacks
Cape Provincial Administration	44	44	Owned by CPA
South African Police	3	3	Owned by SAP
Total Conventional Houses	6 297	4 028	
Illegal Squatter Shacks	0	400	
Shacks in Backyards	0	3 000	This is an estimate
Total Unconventional Houses	0	3 400	
TOTAL	6 297	3 400	

¹Information provided by Mr A Brown, Rini Town Council.

Addendum 2
Statistical Data for Rini

1.	<u>October 1988 (CPA : 1988)</u>	
1.1	<u>Population</u> (Estimated)	60 - 70 000
1.2	<u>Electricity</u>	
	Individual house connections	770
	Street lights	460
	High mast lights	11
	Consumption per month (units)	218 594
1.3	<u>Water</u>	
	Individual house connections	496
	Street standpipes	263
	Consumption per month in Kilolitres	2 985
1.4	<u>Sanitation</u>	
	Individual sewerage connections	637
	Conservancy tanks	90
	Buckets	2 357
1.5	<u>Refuse removal</u>	
	Number of points	3 084
1.6	<u>Streets</u>	
	Tarred roads	14.9 km
	Gravel roads	26.5 km
	Curbing	10.0 km
2.	<u>October 1990 (CPA : 1990)</u>	
2.1	<u>Population</u>	
	Total population in developed area	50 000
	Total population in uncontrolled squatter area	8 000
2.2	<u>Residential sites</u>	
	Number of developed sites	4 075
	Number of undeveloped sites	2 425
2.3	<u>Area</u>	
	Total area of township	749 ha
	Total area of developed land	338
	Total area of underprivileged land	411
	Total area of land proclaimed for future development	269

2.4	<u>Housing</u>	
	Number of council housing units	526
	Number of private housing units	3 507
	Number of shacks in uncontrolled squatter area	230
	Number of shacks in developed area	3 066
2.5	<u>Selling Schemes</u>	
	Number of housing units sold to date	796
	Number of housing units for sale	526
2.6	<u>Roads</u>	
	Total length of tarred roads	25 km
	Total number of gravel roads	65 km

Addendum 3

The Growth and Development of the CSD: 1981 to 1991

Year	Projects initiated and administered
1981	Makanaskop Creche Heidi Nursery School Staff training in Red Cross Creche St Mary's Day Care Centre GADRA Educational Welfare Sub-committee Bursaries Winter School Book room Renovation of Ntsika school Self-help housing project Renovation of Ethembeni cottages New Era Schools Trust Advice and Counselling service Legal Aid Centre operating from CSD Book and Resource Room
1982	St Peter Claver's Nursery School Survey of mentally handicapped Black and Coloured children Financial assistance for Riebeeck East School Guidance and Counselling service at Ntsika school FAMSA operating from CSD Bernard van Leer Foundation commitment Assistance to READ programme Job Creation survey GADRA Education Winter School GADRA Bursars' tea party GADRA Education Careers' Day
1983	Investigation into Beggar situation Mother-baby Nutrition programme Vegetable Growing project Dental Hygiene programme in pre-schools Director lectures to Social Work I students Upgrading of Grounds at Ntsika school Godfrey Bobbins Trust bursaries D G Murray Trust bursaries Ford Motor Company/SAMCOR bursaries GADRA English as a Second Language programme Xolani pre-school negotiations
1984	Home Care groups Baby and Child Care Education programme Parent Education programme Training programme for pre-school teacher-aides
1985	Training of Bethlehem pre-school staff School Boycott crisis meetings Basic Book-keeping course for community treasurers Directory of Grahamstown organisations

- 1986
 Director lectures to Social Work III students
 GADRA Science Education Centre
 Fundraising for Assumption Clinic
 Pre-school teacher-aide seminar
 Rural Outreach programme
 GADRA Education: outings and excursions
 Helm family bursary fund
 Helping Hamm bursary fund
 Alice bursary fund
 W K Kellogg Foundation bursary fund
- 1987
 Sun City Nursery School
 Shaw Hall Day Care Centre
 Programme for children in hospital
 Pre-school orientation training programme
 Pre-school Resource Room
 CSD Pre-school Newspaper
 Pre-school Suitcase Library programme
 St. Philip's Nursery School
 GADRA Commercial Centre
- 1988
 Winifred Maxwell bursary fund
 Grahamstown Training College bursary fund
 GADRA Science and Maths Winter School
 Vezi Danga service centre for the Black aged
 Township tours
- 1989
 Township "Operation Clean-up"
 Grahamstown Association for the Care of Children
 Makanaskop Ext V Sewerage Committee
 Raglan Road Child Care Centre
 Nutrition programme
 School for Black mentally handicapped children
 GADRA matriculation fee payments
 Sun City Hall
 Fundraising for Assumption Nursery School
- 1990
 Makanaskop Ext IV Electricity Committee
 Adult Education programmes at Raglan Road
 GADRA Saturday School for matriculants
 Raglan Road Children's Sportsfield
 GADRA school desks project
 Anaerobic toilet project, Sun City
 Rural Outreach extension into Alexandria
 Home Care container project
- 1991
 Commercial Centre evening classes
 Fingo Village Service Centre for the Black Aged

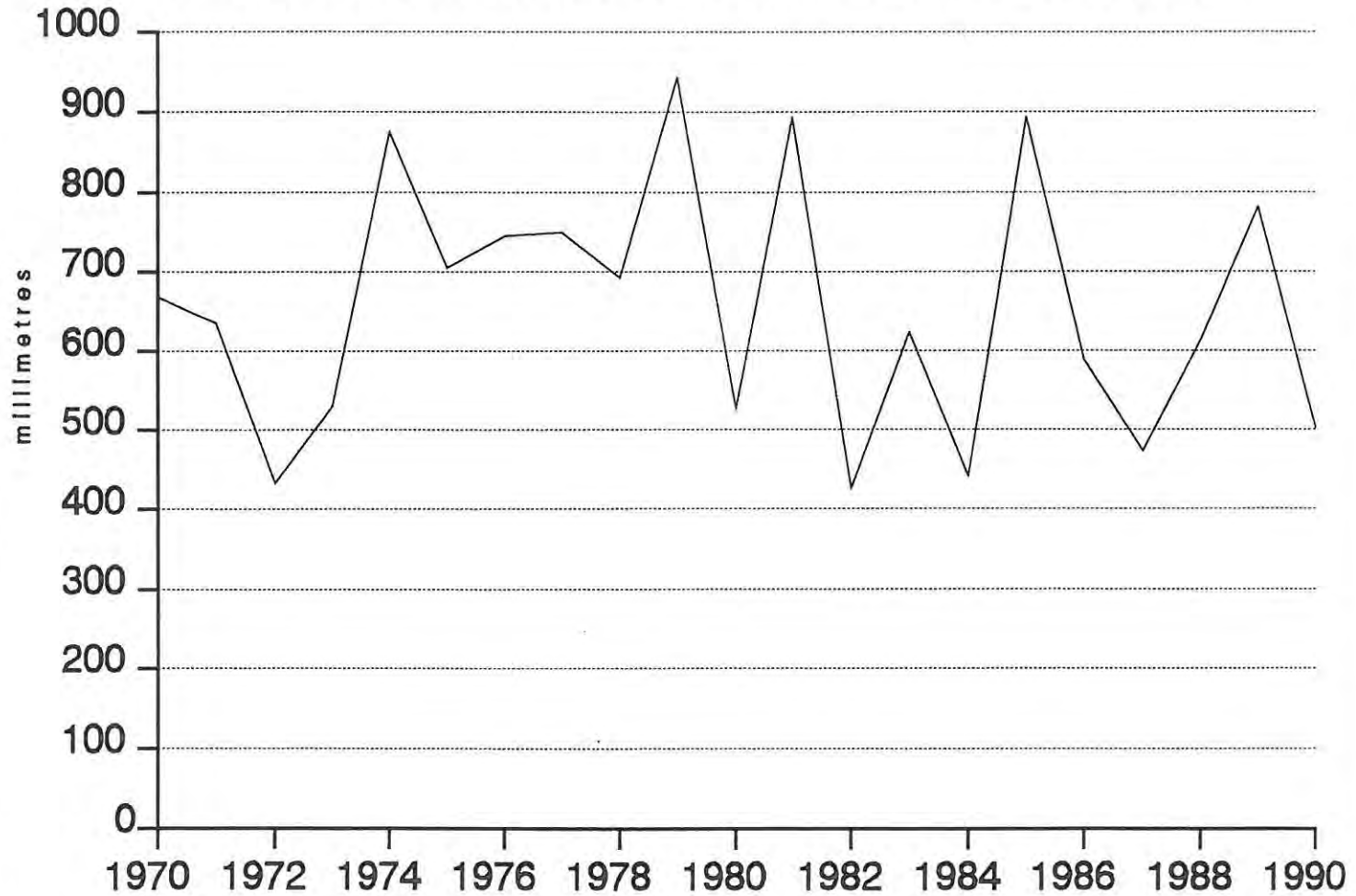
Addendum 4

Shaw Hall Day Care Centre. Church, Municipal and Government Department Negotiations: 1988

1. The Methodist Church of South Africa
re: *The alienation of Methodist church property for use as a day care centre.*
2. The Commemoration Methodist Church in Grahamstown
re: *Restoration of building, 9 year lease and insurance payments.*
3. The Grahamstown Municipality.
re: *Change of title from church usage to educational usage.*
4. The Health Department, Grahamstown Municipality.
re: *Health clearance certificate with regard to the number of toilets, adequate in-door and outdoor play areas, the number of children to be admitted and adequate kitchen space.*
5. The Fire Department, Grahamstown Municipality.
re: *Fire hydrants and exit doors.*
6. The Department of National Education, House of Assembly.
re: *Registration for White children.*
7. The Department of Education, House of Representatives.
re: *Registration and subsidy for Coloured children.*
8. The Department of Education, House of Delegates.
re: *Registration for Indian children.*
9. The Department of Education and Training.
re: *Registration and subsidy for Black children.*
10. The Department of Health and Welfare, House of Representatives.
re: *Registration and subsidy for Coloured children.*
11. The Department of Health and Welfare, House of Delegates.
re: *Registration for Indian children.*
12. The Cape Provincial Administration.
re: *Registration and subsidy for Black children.*
13. The Group Areas Board.
re: *Permission to run a non-racial centre in a White Group Area.*
14. President's Council member.
re: *Request to overturn decision of the Group Areas Board.*
15. The Administrator of the Cape Province.
re: *Request to overturn decision of the Group Areas Board.*

Addendum 5

Grahamstown Annual Rainfall : 1970 to 1990



(Figures from Hydrology Unit, Rhodes University)

Addendum 6

Two Week Cycle of Breakfast and Lunch Menus: St Mary's Day Care Centre

<u>BREAKFAST</u>	<u>LUNCH</u>
Porridge Bread and peanut butter Hot cocoa	Orange Juice Spaghetti, Mince, onion, Toppers, tomato sauce Chocolate instant pudding
Scrambled eggs on toast Bread and jam Tea or coffee	Orange juice Boerewors & vegetable stew, Mealie rice, cabbage Fresh fruit
Porridge Bread and jam Tea or coffee	Orange juice Meat stew & vegetables, mashed potatoes. sliced tomato Bananas and custard
French toast & tomato Bread and peanut butter Tea or coffee	Orange juice Sausage and baked beans, carrot salad Fruit jelly
Porridge Bread and jam Hot cocoa	Curried mince Mealie rice, pumpkin Bread & butter pudding
Chicken liver/ Onions on toast Bread and jam Tea and coffee	Pilchard pie (potatoes), cabbage, pumpkin Vanilla instant pudding
Porridge Bread and jam Hot cocoa	Hot dogs and rolls with tomato & onion sauce Fresh fruit
Scrambled egg on toast Bread and jam Tea or coffee	Macaroni cheese and tomato, Pumpkin and spinach Jam Doughnuts
Porridge Bread and jam Hot cocoa	Liver and onions, mealie rice and carrots Sliced fresh pineapple
Boiled egg and toast Bread and jam Tea or coffee	Chicken stew Mashed potatoes, pumpkin, cabbage Hot rice or sago pudding

Note: Bread, butter and jam are on the tables at all meals. The children may help themselves and have as much as they need.

Addendum 7

Case Studies of Fourteen Children who have left St Mary's Day Care Centre

Child 1. Entered Centre at 7 years in Sub A in 1981. Scotts Farm. (F)

Total number of children 4 (2 deceased)

Father Has a job in a bakery R96 pm

Mother Housework

Home circumstances:

Four people share one room. The family has no bathroom and no stove. The rental is R3.30 pm. The room is neat and tidy. The children are well cared for. Neither parent is in good health, both suffer from chest problems.

School results

1987	400/800	Passed Std 5
1988	36%	Failed Std 6
1989	420/900	Passed Std 6

Reason for leaving:

The girl's mother re-married and the circumstances of the family improved so that it was no longer necessary for the girl to attend the Centre.

Child 2. Entered Centre at 13 years in Std 4 in 1981. (M). Scotts Farm.

Total number of children 4

Father Unemployed with disability allowance of R93 pm

Mother Deceased

Home circumstances:

A sister stays at home to care for the family. She left school in Std 2 and has a child of her own. The family lives in one room which is neglected and poverty stricken. The children sleep on the floor. There is no bathroom. The family lives with two other families and 13 people share a 3 roomed house. They receive weekly food parcels from the St Vincent de Paul Society. Drunkenness in the household is a common occurrence.

School results:

The boy is the first Centre child to have written matric. Sadly he failed his final exam.

Reasons for leaving:

He was sent to St Joseph's Trade school in Aliwal North in 1988, with help from GADRA Education and the Lutheran Scholarship Fund, where he successfully completed a three year course in upholstery and motor trimming. According to his reports he was a good learner, an exemplary pupil, well behaved, reliable, sober and trustworthy. He obtained an excellent job in Grahamstown in January 1991 with a starting salary of R1 000 pm.

Child 3. Entered Centre at 8 years in Sub B in 1981. (M) Johnson Wyke Street area.

Total number of children 6 (2 deceased)

Father Deserted. Not married to mother

Mother Employed as a nanny at R30 pm

Home circumstances:

The family receives no grant. They share a backyard shack with another family and struggle to keep going. The seven of them live in one room.

School results:

1987	163/800	Failed Std 5
1988	271/900	Failed Std 6
1989	180/900	Failed Std 6

Reason for leaving:

The boy's mother found a better paying job in King William's Town as well as a house to live in, so the whole family left Grahamstown. The boy intended returning to school.

Child 4. Entered Centre at 9 years in Std 1 in 1981. (M). Scotts Farm.

Total number of children 7

Father Casual painter at R120 pm.

Mother Employed at potteries at R76 pm

Home circumstances

Nine people share one room which has beds. Father is often ill and is addicted to alcohol.

School results:

1986	403/800	Passed Std 5
1987	373/900	Passed Std 6
1988	38.6%	Failed Std 7

Reason for leaving:

Left school in 1989 having made a girl pregnant. Decided to join the army in order to support the girl and the child.

Child 5. Entered Centre at 10 years in Std 2 in 1981. (F). Scotts Farm.

Total number of children 2 (1 died of meningitis)

Father Social Pensioner R62 pm

Mother Receives a foster-parent grant of R77.50 pm

Home circumstances:

The girl is a foster child. Both parents are asthmatic. They live in a three roomed house with another family, a total of 8 people. It is said in the community that the girl was fostered so that her parents could receive an additional grant. The school principal described the girl as a neglected child who received very little care or attention from her family.

School results:

1985	356/800	Passed Std 5
1986	360/800	Passed Std 6
1987	256/900	Failed Std 7

Reason for leaving:

The parents withdrew the girl as they said they could afford to care for her at home with the additional grant they were now receiving.

Child 6. Entered Centre at 11 years in Std 2 in 1984. (M). Johnson Wylde Street area.

Total number of children 4

Father Deserted

Mother Foster-mother receives a foster parent grant of R102 pm

Home circumstances: The boy's own father is an African who cannot be traced. The foster-mother receives a grant to care for the boy. His own mother died of alcoholic poisoning.

School results:

1986	48.2%	Passed Std 6
1987	909/2200	Passed Std 7
1988	27.5%	Failed Std 8
1989	42.5%	Passed Std 8

Reason for Leaving:

The boy left school in 1990 because he said it no longer interested him. He was later responsible for making a girl pregnant, so he felt he should seek employment.

Child 7. Entered Centre at 9 years in Std 1 in 1983. (F). Johnson Wylde Street area.

Total number of children 8 (three died at birth)

Father on farm in Cradock

Mother Unemployed

Home circumstances: The family lived near Cradock. When the father started to drink and abuse the family, the mother and children moved to Grahamstown. Mother lives with a municipal worker but is not married to him. The family lives in a small 3 roomed house with 16 other people. The house has no inside water, electricity or sewerage. The family receives food parcels twice a week.

School results:

1986	Passed Std 3
1987	Passed Std 4

Reason for leaving:

In 1988 the mother withdrew the girl from the Centre as she had found a job and needed the girl to stay at home to care for her younger sisters and brothers.

Child 8. Entered Centre at 9 years in Std 2 in 1981. (F). Fingo Village Squatter area.

Total number of children 3

Father Deceased (stabbed)

Mother Unemployed. Receives maintenance grant of R91 pm

Home circumstances: The girl's father, a farm labourer, was stabbed to death by a girl friend. They live in a one-roomed squatter shack with a total of 10 people. As there is no toilet they use the bush. Food is cooked on a primus stove. The shack belongs to the mother's brother who has 4 children of his own. The mother is slovenly, irresponsible and drinks excessively. A social worker recommended on 27.6.84 that the children be placed in foster care.

Reason for leaving:

The girl was moved to Port Elizabeth in December 1984 to a Place of Safety and Detention.

Child 9. Entered Centre at 10 years in Sub A in 1983. (M) Scotts Farm

Total number of children 3

Father Deserted

Mother Deserted

Grandmother Social Pensioner R65 pm

Home circumstances: The boy lived on a farm in Cradock with a couple who were unrelated to him. His grandmother brought him and his brothers to live with her in Grahamstown in a two-roomed house.

School results:

1986		Passed Std 2
1987	63%	Passed Std 3

Reason for leaving:

In 1988 the boy's grandmother decided to return to Cradock and took her three grandchildren with her.

Child 10. Entered Centre at 11 years in Std 4 in 1984. (M). Irving Heights.

Total number of children 5

Father Temp. construction worker. Wages not known

Mother Employed at National Lamps R40 pm

Home circumstances: Eleven people share a 3 roomed house. The children sleep on the floor. The boy does his homework in the kitchen. Despite the overcrowding the house is well furnished and tidy. Over weekends the husband drinks excessively and becomes aggressive.

School results:

1986	407/800	Passed Std 5
1987	33.8%	Failed Std 6
1988	983/2200	Passed Std 6

Reason for leaving:

In 1989 the boy dropped out of school and his parents reported that he was no longer sleeping at home. He was charged for housebreaking and theft and was due to appear in court.

Child 11. Entered centre at 9 years in Sub B in 1981. (M).Scotts Farm.

Total number of children 6

Father Deserted

Mother's male companion Unemployed

Mother Works part-time R40 pm

Home circumstances:

Father was jailed for stabbing someone and now lives with another woman. Mother has a live-in boyfriend. Eight people live in one room.

School results:

1986	52%	Passed Std 4
1987		Passed Std 5
1988	249/600	Failed Std 6

Reason for leaving:

The mother got a better paying job in King William's Town and took the whole family with her. The boy intended returning to school.

Child 12. Entered Centre at 12 years in Std 3 in 1987. (F). Sun City Squatter Camp.

Total number of children 12

Father Farm labourer (Salary not known)

Mother Unemployed

Home circumstances:

Three of the adult children have jobs. The family lives in a 5 roomed wood and iron shack which they built themselves. The children are malnourished and the whole family is poverty stricken. They struggle to survive and there is seldom enough to eat or wear.

School results:

1988	53%	Passed Std 3
1989	50%	Passed Std 4

Reason for leaving:

In 1990 the parents took the child out of the Centre and school and sent her to live on a farm with her grandparents.

Child 13. Entered the Centre at 8 years in Sub A in 1989. (F). Sun City Squatter Camp.

Total number of children 4 children and 3 grandchildren

Father Deserted

Mother Shop assistant R65 pm

Home circumstances:

The mother cares for her 4 children and 3 grandchildren in a two room wood and iron shack. They live in extremely poor and deprived conditions.

School reports

None in file

Reason for leaving:

In 1990 the children were sent away from Grahamstown to live on a farm. The mother found a job in Port Elizabeth but was unable to take her children with her.

Child 14. Entered the Centre at 7 years in Sub A in 1987. (M). Scotts Farm.

Total number of children 4

Grandfather Social Pensioner R117 pm

Grandmother Social Pensioner R117 pm

Home circumstances:

The grandparents are not married. He is an alcoholic and is irresponsible about family affairs. She receives psychiatric treatment. The four children are believed to be the illegitimate offspring of the grandparents' children.

School results:

1987	Passed Sub A
1988	Passed Sub B

Reason for leaving:

At the end of 1988 the boy's own mother decided to take him with her to Cape Town where they will live with her sister.

Addendum 8 Kindernothilfe Identity Sheet

IDENTITY SHEET (Personalbogen)

Please type in information or use block capitals.

Photo (to be cut to size)	Only complete AFTER receipt of computer list from KNH	Date of acceptance _____	Reg No. _____/_____
	Name and address of the centre : Name und Anschrift des Heimes		Church Name :
	Name of Principal/supervisor Name des Heimleiters		

Name of child _____ Name des Kindes (first name)	Surname _____ Familiennamen
Meaning of the name _____ Bedeutung des Namens	Male/Female _____ Junge/Mädchen
Birth date _____ Geburtstag	Place of birth _____ Geburtsort
Character _____ Charakter	Favourite subject _____ Lieblingsfach
School level (e.g. lower primary etc.) _____ Schulbesuch	School standard _____ Schuljahr

Family Details : Church denomination _____
Kirche/Konfession

Tribe _____ Mother tongue _____
Volkgruppe Muttersprache

Name of Father _____ Vater	Occupation _____ Beruf	Income per month _____ Einkommen monatl.
Name of Mother _____ Mutter	Occupation _____ Beruf	Income per month _____ Einkommen monatl.

Brothers and Sisters — the name of the applicant should NOT be shown here.

Name	Sex	Age	Occupation	Name	Sex	Age	Occupation
Name	Geschlecht	Alter	Beruf	Name	Geschlecht	Alter	Beruf
1				5			
2				6			
3				7			
4				8			

Deceased family member(s) _____ Cause(s) of death _____
Verstorbene Familienangehörige Todesursache

Family Background - be as detailed as possible _____
Einzelheiten über Kind und Familie

Recommended by (Chairman of committee etc.) _____
Zur Patenschaftsunterstützung empfohlen durch

Anticipated duration of fostership _____ years
Voraussichtliche Dauer der Patenschaft Jahre

Signature of Principal/Supervisor
Unterschrift des Projektleiters

Addendum 9

*Report from Supervisor of Makanaskop Creche on the Pre-school Orientation Programme
Athlone, 4 - 28 August, 1980*

"What I have gained:

Be able to think into and handle ripples that come out of the concentration on this area of child education. I have gained better ways of grouping children realising that rest is not necessarily sleeping. Application of the childs' needs as a whole and this covers all the needs of the child. Will be able to give much more even to my grandchildren. I can refer to my experience more at ease with the area of child discipline. Learning that comparing children and evaluating them on the performance of others is a deadly sin. Parents are the first teachers of the children and the impact this has on the children's progress. I have learnt lay out of different areas - art area, discovery corner, water play, make believe corner, educational toys, block corner, nature and interest corner. Providing childs basic needs. Educational goals for the children. The teachers needs. The importance of a regular daily programme. Understanding children's development i.e. physical, social, emotional and mental. Co-ordination of staff relations from domestic to the highest authority.

I have gained a source of expert reference which can be ongoing i.e. Early Learning Resource Unit. Have gained a certain amount of self-confidence in the job I am doing. There is still a need for a lot of reference but at least I am beginning to know what I am about i.e. I am in an area of a lot of responsibility in dealing with the child. A very important job even for the future of my society.

I heartily say thank you ever so much for all the efforts you made for me to attend this Treasurer Island Pre-school Orientation Programme and be able to fly to and from Cape Town for the first time my life"

Florence Ntsundwana

6.11.80

Addendum 10

Contents of a Home Care Pre-School Equipment Box for Six Children

- 1 large wooden toy box
- 1 Wonder box (for cooking)

General

- 1 large plastic bowl for washing hands
- 6 small bowls
- 6 mugs and teaspoons
- 6 blankets
- 6 facecloths
- 6 toothbrushes and toothpaste
- Plastic mats
- Carpet samples

Manipulative Dexterity, Construction & Educational Toys

- 6 Lego helicopters and pilots
- 1 set of small wooden blocks
- 1 set Constructo Straws
- 1 Inset puzzle
- 2 Homemade puzzles
- 1 set skittles
- 2 balls
- 2 Lacing cards
- 1 9 piece puzzle
- 1 set of 4 x 2 piece puzzles
- 1 plastic construction set
- 6 books

Fantasy Play

- 1 soft mouse
- 1 soft pig
- 1 soft bear
- 1 woollen clown
- 1 woollen animal
- 2 woollen figures
- 2 dolls and doll's clothes
- 1 handbag
- 1 purse
- 1 plastic rabbit
- 2 rattles
- 1 iron
- 1 large truck
- 2 small cars
- 1 pull toy

Musical Instruments

- 1 Xylophone
- 2 shakers
- 1 Disc shaker
- 2 pairs rhythm sticks
- 1 hand drum

Creative Activity Materials (provided and replenished as required)

- 1 pair scissors
- 1 paintbrush
- 1 pkt Polycell glue
- 1 box chalks
- 2 boxes crayons
- 5 tins poster paint
- 1 bottle Alcolin cold glue

Waste Materials (provided and replenished as required)

- Old toothbrushes (for painting)
- Paper
- Card
- Yoghurt cups
- Sorting trays

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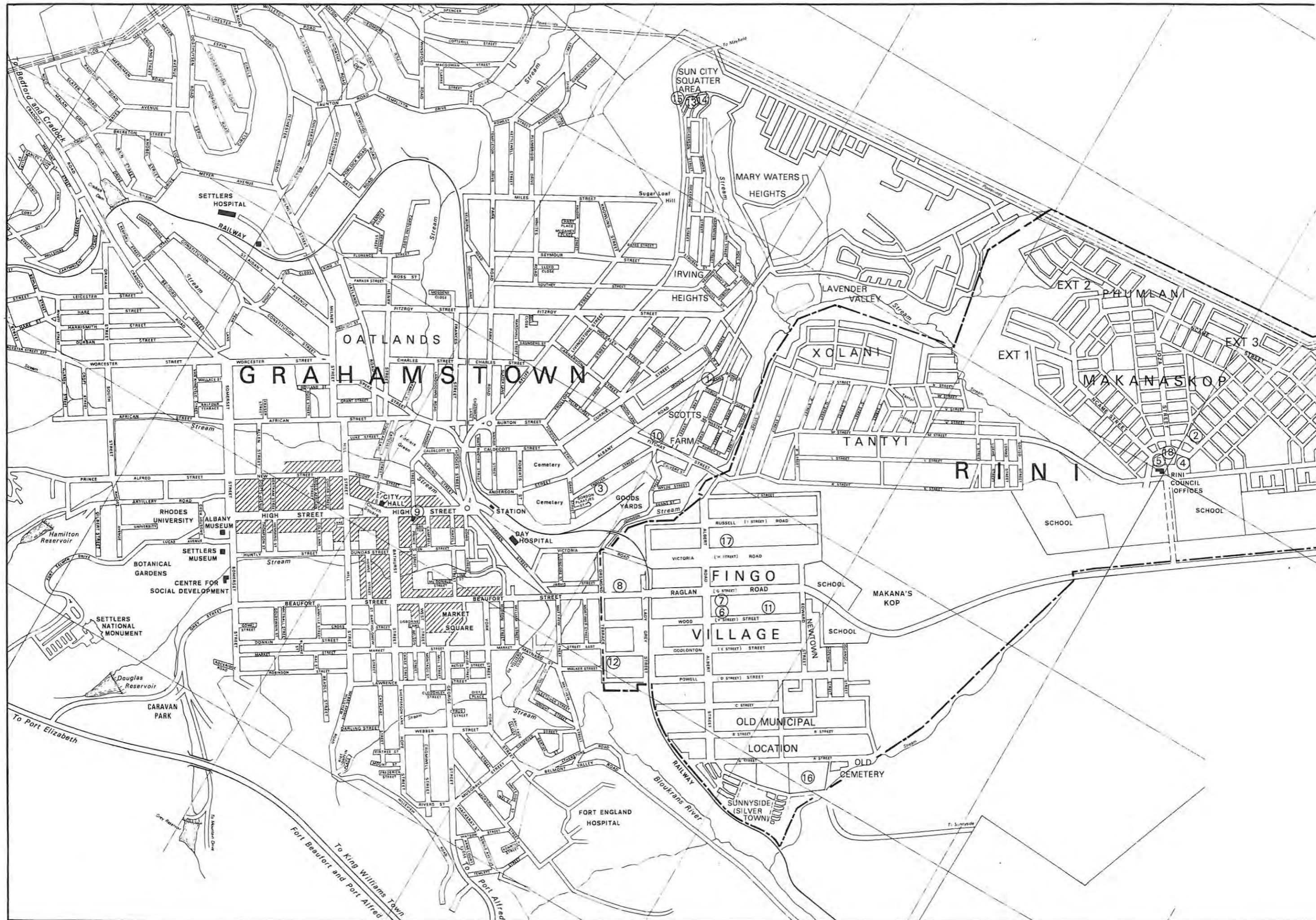
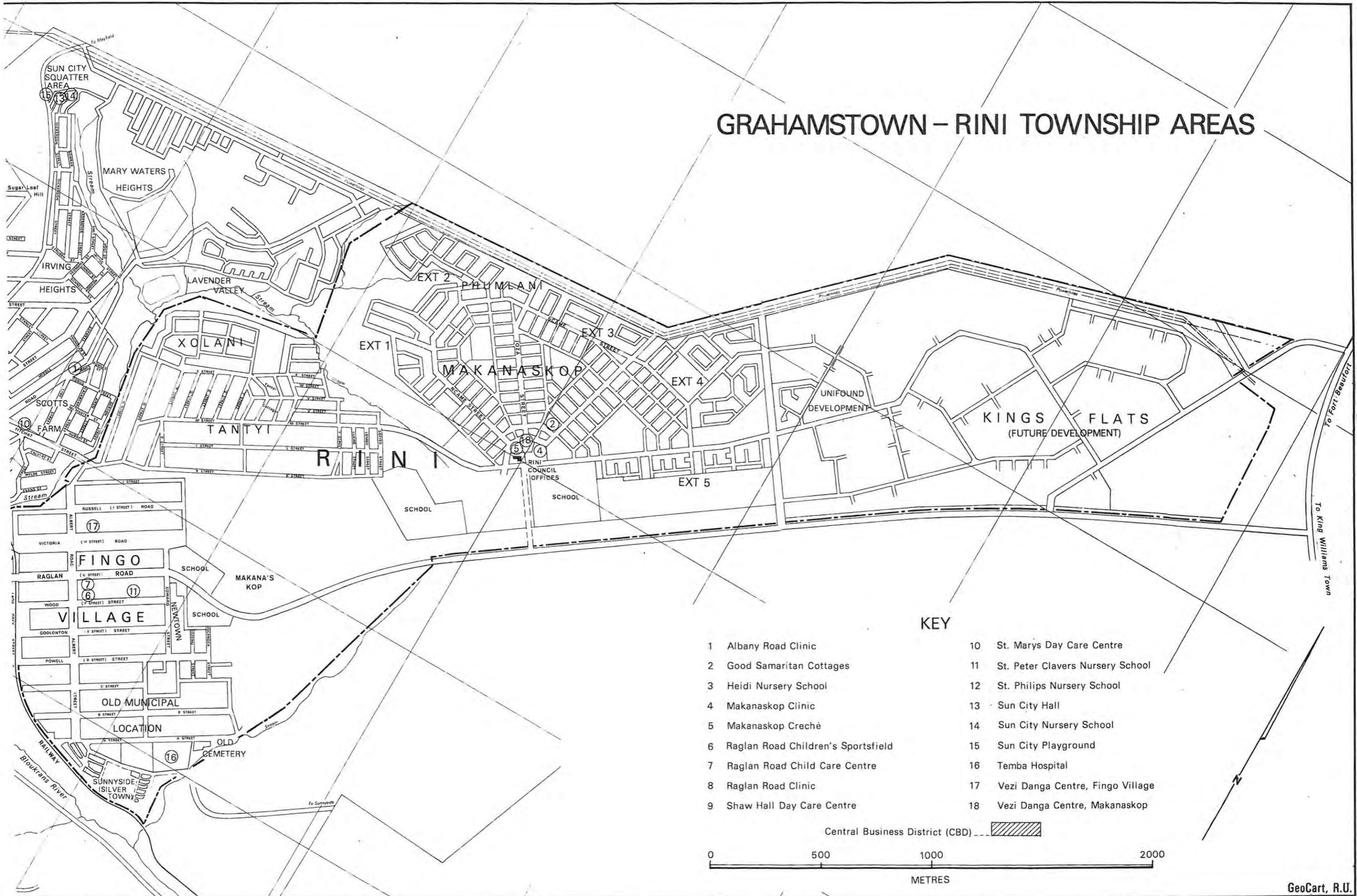


Figure 1

GRAHAMSTOWN – RINI TOWNSHIP AREAS



- KEY**
- | | |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1 Albany Road Clinic | 10 St. Marys Day Care Centre |
| 2 Good Samaritan Cottages | 11 St. Peter Clavers Nursery School |
| 3 Heidi Nursery School | 12 St. Philips Nursery School |
| 4 Mkanaskop Clinic | 13 Sun City Hall |
| 5 Mkanaskop Creche | 14 Sun City Nursery School |
| 6 Raglan Road Children's Sportsfield | 15 Sun City Playground |
| 7 Raglan Road Child Care Centre | 16 Temba Hospital |
| 8 Raglan Road Clinic | 17 Vezi Danga Centre, Fingo Village |
| 9 Shaw Hall Day Care Centre | 18 Vezi Danga Centre, Mkanaskop |

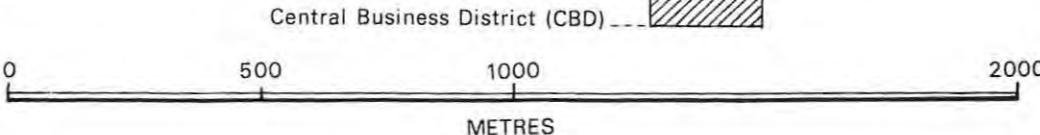


Figure 5