

***THE EDUCATIONAL DISTRESS
OF THE
STREETCHILD***

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SUMMARY

The aims of the investigation were threefold:

- Firstly, to describe the educational distress that exists within the life-world of the street child from a psychopedagogical perspective at the hand of available relevant research literature.
- Secondly, to conduct an empirical survey consisting of structured questionnaires in order to ascertain the support rendered by child care workers to streetchildren in shelters.
- In the light of the findings obtained from the literature study and empirical survey determine certain guidelines according to which accountable support can be instituted in order to meet the educational distress of the streetchild.

As introduction a psychopedagogical perspective on the child in educational distress is given. Education as a true human activity which finds its expression in the relationship between adult and child is examined more closely. From a psychopedagogical perspective the streetchild finds himself in a situation of dysfunctional education mainly because he goes through life without the assistance and guidance of a

responsible parent or adult. This results in the psychic life of the streetchild being under-actualized. The life style of the streetchild is an example of the outcome of disharmonious educational dynamics. The lack of responsible adult intervention and guidance, which is based on the pedagogical principles of love, trust and authority, results in the streetchild forming relationships within his life-world which are inadequate for his emancipation. The streetchild thus fails to constitute a meaningful life-world.

At present only a few social workers and voluntary organizations, such as Shelters, reach out to these streetchildren in an endeavour to rehabilitate the families and supervise those children who return to their original homes. The fact that the streetchild is a "child" who should be assisted by parents and the school in his process of becoming is at present often overlooked by the voluntary organizations that render support.

Most of the shelters that have come into existence to provide some measure of support exist illegally under present statutory provisions. They lack the services of suitably qualified personnel and are often haphazardly organized. Furthermore they cannot cope effectively with the present

situation and there is a duplication of certain services in the provision of support.

Due to his neglect, both at home and at school, the streetchild has built up a considerable backlog regarding the formation of an adequate life-world. This gives rise to the fact that the streetchild, once identified, cannot be returned to an ordinary school. The streetchild is in need of special care which will enable him to erase his backlog with regard to formal education and at the same time enable him to constitute a meaningful life-world. The streetchild needs to be placed in a transitional school where, via re-education, therapy and remedial teaching his special needs can be addressed.

In order to establish the support presently rendered by child care workers, shelter managers and child care workers were requested to complete questionnaires. Questionnaire A was completed by shelter managers and questionnaire B by child care workers employed at the shelters. Analyses of fifty-one questionnaires from child care workers and sixteen from shelter managers were done. The data obtained from the questionnaires was statistically analyzed by means of computer programmes and interpreted via descriptive and

inferential statistics.

In light of the findings of this research the following are recommended :

- compulsory education should be initiated for all children between the ages of six and thirteen ;
- transitional schools should be established for all pedagogically neglected children;
- school social workers should be trained and placed at schools to assist and identify pedagogically neglected children ;
- remedial teaching training programmes for all teachers should receive more attention during their training;
- parent guidance and involvement programmes should be instituted at all schools;
- welfare services should be co-ordinated to prevent duplication;
- streetchildren should be routinely tested for AIDS;
- further in-depth research regarding the instituting of accountable support for streetchildren should be initiated.

OPSOMMING

Die doel met hierdie studie was drieledig:

- In die eerste plek, om die opvoedingsnood van die straatkind vanuit 'n psigopedagogiese perspektief aan die hand van beskikbare relevante navorsingsliteratuur te beskryf.
- Tweedends is 'n empiriese ondersoek onderneem wat bestaan het uit gestruktureerde vraelyste ten einde die steun wat in shelters aan straatkinders deur kinderversorgers verskaf word, vas te stel.
- Derdens word in die lig van die bevindings van die literatuurstudie en empiriese ondersoek sekere aanbevelings gemaak waarvolgens moontlike verantwoordbare steunstelsels ingestel kan word wat in die opvoedingsnood van die straatkinders sal voorsien.

As inleiding is a psigopedagogiese perspektief op die kind in opvoedingsnood gebied. Opvoeding, wat 'n eg-menslike taak is en tot uiting kom in 'n verhouding tussen 'n volwassene en 'n nie-volwassene, word van nader beskou. Vanuit 'n psigopedagogiese perspektief bevind die straatkind homself in 'n

disfunksionele opvoedingsituasie hoofsaaklik omdat hy die lewe betree sonder die hulp en leiding van 'n verantwoordelike ouer of volwassene. Die psigiese lewe van die straatkind kan dus nie selfstandig ontwikkel nie. Die leefwyse van die straatkind is 'n goeie voorbeeld van wat gebeur as die opvoedingsdinamika ontoereikend is. Die afwesigheid van verantwoordelike ouerbegeleiding wat gegrond is op die pedagogiese norme van liefde, vertrouwe en gesag veroorsaak dat die straatkind relasies vorm binne sy leefwereld wat onvoldoende is vir sy emansipasie. Die straatkind is dus nie in staat om 'n betekenisvolle leefwereld vir homself te skep nie.

Op die oomblik is slegs 'n paar welsynswerkers en vrywillige organisasies gemoeid met pogings om straatkinders te rehabiliteer en toesig te hou in gevalle waar straatkinders na hul oorspronklike tuistes terug geneem is. Die straatkind bly egter 'n "kind" wat deur sy ouers en die skool begelei moet word na volwassenheid. Die aspek van die opvoeding word egter dikwels deur van die vrywillige organisasies wat steun verskaf, oor die hoof gesien.

Die meeste van die toevlugsoorde ("shelters") wat tot stand gekom het om 'n sekere mate van steun aan die straatkind te voorsien, bestaan

disfunksionele opvoedingsituasie hoofsaaklik omdat hy die lewe betree sonder die hulp en leiding van 'n verantwoordelike ouer of volwassene. Die psigiese lewe van die straatkind kan dus nie selfstandig ontwikkel nie. Die leefwyse van die straatkind is 'n goeie voorbeeld van wat gebeur as die opvoedingsdinamika ontoereikend is. Die afwesigheid van verantwoordelike ouerbegeleiding wat gegrond is op die pedagogiese norme van liefde, vertroue en gesag veroorsaak dat die straatkind relasies vorm binne sy leefwereld wat onvoldoende is vir sy emansipasie. Die straatkind is dus nie in staat om 'n betekenisvolle leefwereld vir homself te skep nie.

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Die meeste van die toevlugsoorde ("shelters") wat tot stand gekom het om 'n sekere mate van steun aan die straatkind te voorsien, bestaan

egter onwettig volgens bestaande wetgewing, ondervind 'n tekort aan die dienste van behoorlike gekwalifiseerde personeel, is dikwels ondeurdag georganiseerd, kan nie in die bestaande behoeftes doeltreffend voorsien nie en is 'n duplisering van dienste wat steun verleen.

As gevolg van sy verwaarloosing by die huis en die skool ondervind die straatkind 'n groot agterstand rakende die skepping van 'n toereikende leefwereld. Dit het tot gevolg dat die straatkind nie na 'n gewone skool kan terugkeer nie. Die straatkind het spesiale versorging nodig wat hom in staat sal stel om die agterstand rakende sy formele opvoeding uit te skakel om sodoende 'n betekenisvolle leefwereld te kan skep. Die straatkind behoort in 'n oorgangskool geplaas te word waar sy spesiale behoeftes deur heroepvoeding, remedierende onderwys en terapie aangespreek kan word.

Ten einde die huidige steungewing van kinderversorgers aan straatkinders te bepaal, is shelter-hoofde en kinderversorgers by shelters versoek om vraelyste te voltooi.

Die data is statisties verwerk; beskrywende en inferensiele statistiek is aangewend om die navorsingshipotese te toets.

Sekere aanbevelings is geformuleer :

- Verpligte onderwys behoort vir alle kinders tussen die ouderdom van ses tot dertien jaar ingestel te word;
- die daarstelling van spesiale skole vir die pedagogiese verwaarloosde kind ;
- die opleiding van skoolmaatskaplike werkers wat by skole geplaas moet word om die pedagogiese verwaarloosde kind te identifiseer en die nodige steun te verskaf;
- remedierende-onderwysopleiding vir alle onderwysers behoort meer aandag te geniet ;
- voorligtingsprogamme rakende die straatkind moet aan alle ouers by skole aangebied word;
- welsynsdienste behoort gekoördineer te word om duplisering te voorkom ;
- periodieke toetsing van alle straatkinders vir VIGS ;
- verdere navorsing rakende die instelling van 'n verantwoordbare steunstelsel wat die opvoedingsnood van die straatkind direk sal aanspreek.

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**CHAPTER 1
ORIENTATION****1.1 INTRODUCTION**

It is accepted as fact that for the period a human is a child he is directed towards becoming an adult i.e. the ultimate aim of the becoming child is adulthood. As soon as the child reaches this destination in life he stops being a child and being in a position of educational situatedness and takes his place in society as an adult. It is also accepted as fact that the adult has the responsibility to assist the child in reaching adulthood and to gradually free the child of his childhood (Van Niekerk, 1982 : 6). The child is thus personally involved in his becoming because the process of becoming demands that he must change as a person i.e. from child to adult. The child designs his own situatedness himself, as well as his relationship and his own world of meaning (Wentzel & Mahlangu, 1985 : 10). The process of becoming involves a personal expansion of his life-world in the sense that he expands his relationships with reality. He changes himself because he does not want to remain a child, but strives to become an adult by thinking, feeling, doing, believing and evaluating in a changing manner. As Langeveld (Kruger, 1979 : 43) says, the child wants to become someone. This process of becoming in which each child is involved is the act of education. Langeveld (Kruger, 1979 : 44)

emphasises the fact that the child cannot become without education: "...de mens een wezen is dat opvoed, opgevoed wordt en opvoeding is aangewezen, is zelf een van de fundamenteelste kenmerke van het mensbeeld." The process of becoming is thus dependent on two parties: namely the child himself and the adult that directs, assist and guides him. The level of attainment in the process of becoming thus depends on the result of the process of selfactualization of the psychic-life of the child and the quality of guidance, assistance and direction given by the adult in this act of selfactualization (Vrey, 1984 : 16).

Normally the child's place is within a family i.e a father and mother and usually brothers and/or sisters who are bound together by a bond of blood and love. The child feels secure within the family and it offers a place where he can identify with himself (Urbani, 1972 : 1). The family milieu offers a secure environment in which the child feels that he belongs and that the family belongs to him. The family offers a safe environment from where the child can explore, experience and emancipate adequately in his process of becoming (Pretorius, 1979 : 23). It is a fact that most families function normally with both parents who are dedicated and responsible as well as actively involved in educating the child\children God has

granted them (Maree, 1990 : 3). There are, however, many children in South Africa who do not enjoy this right or share this privilege.

According to Richter (1988 : 5-7) there are approximately 9 000 streetchildren in South Africa " who have abandoned (or have been abandoned by) their families, schools and immediate communities, before they are 16 years of age, and drifted into a nomadic street life ".

1.2 ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM

According to Schroeder (1989 : 16) 100 000 youths in Western Europe live their lives on the streets. He estimates that there are 100 million children living on the streets worldwide of which many are runaways from home. Schroeder (1989 : 16) maintains that we are living in the age of "moral orphans". These runaways are on the street and at the mercy of unscrupulous adults who exploit their vulnerabilities. The numbers vary from country to country. In England and Wales alone the numbers increase between 13 000 and 15 000 each year. The Federal Republic of Germany has about 20 000 under the age of sixteen. In Copenhagen the centre for runaway youths deal with 1 500 cases each year (Schroeder, 1989 : 3).

Each year in Britain 5 000 to 8 000 runaways who are aged between thirteen and sixteen turn to prostitution to stop themselves from starving. Most of these runaways become streetchildren (Schroeder, 1989 : 3). The psychological and emotional damage is incalculable. The welfare of any society demands that it protects its most precious national resource, namely the next generation, but many parents are not taking their God-given responsibility toward their children seriously enough.

The emergence of streetchildren in the Republic of South Africa as elsewhere in the world has been linked to socio-structural factors which, primarily through urbanization and impoverishment, cause distortions in family life (Richter & Swart, 1988 : 2). These distortions and disruption of family life have increased due to the level of violence found within many Black residential areas (Janse van Rensburg, 1991 : 7). The personal histories of the children are replete with incidents of physical, sexual and emotional abuse and neglect by their families (Maree, 1990 : 2)

According to Richter & Swart (1988 : 3) most South African streetchildren, as elsewhere in the world, are boys. The lack of an acceptable family life seems to be the strongest

determinant for children to take to the streets. Some run away from violent or rejecting parents and step-parents in fear and desperation; others are evicted or abandoned by whomever constitute the family as it has come to be. A small number of children voluntarily try to support their penniless relatives by "street" activities; others are coerced by their families into earning money "off the streets" (Van Niekerk, 1990 : 2; Pieterse, 1990 : 3). In order to make money, most streetchildren will try their hand at some form of acceptable employment, such as selling newspapers on street corners, helping shoppers with their parcels, or washing cars in public places. However, various forms of begging, being co-opted into criminal activities by individual adults or gangs, and selling sexual services, are the main methods for generating funds (Maree, 1990 : 4; Richter & Swart, 1988 : 5).

It is important to note the distinction that Ennew (1986) makes between "children of the street" and "children on the street". "Children of the street" refers to the streetchildren phenomena as highlighted by this study. "Children on the street" refers to children who go to urban areas in order to earn or beg money and then return home. "Children on the street" contribute all or most of their

earnings to their families. "Children on the street" are usually very attached to their families and are integrally involved with their families.

Streetchildren are running not only from persons and abusive situations, they are also searching for people who will empathise with them (Swart, 1987 : 6-8). Streetchildren are looking for situations where they will be able to reformulate their human dignity. They frequently find empathy among their peers on the street, but they are also looking for something beyond what the peer group has to offer. Although streetchildren are children who have often been abandoned by their parents or who have run away from destitute or brutal homes, their greatest fear is not that they may be maltreated physically, but that they will end up alone and unloved (Van Niekerk, 1990 : 3). Succour is found in small friendship groups amongst themselves and is derived from various intoxicants. Most often streetchildren sniff intoxicants recreationally as well as using them as a form of protection against fears of the dark and the discomfort of cold and unpleasant sleeping places. According to Maree (1990 : 6) children report "heavy dosing up" before going to sleep . Unfortunately by "heavy dosing up" the children become vulnerable to the exploitation of others. They are sometimes

robbed, beaten or sexually molested in their drugged sleep.

Privately run shelters are being established in most large cities, but advertisements for them are already being suspected of playing a role in encouraging children to take to the streets with the hope of finding a place in a shelter (Richter and Swart, 1988 : 3). According to Mbanjwa (1990 :4) schools and skills training centres are being established by certain charity organizations with the aim of providing the children with legal and independent means for earning a living. This educational intervention or assistance presently available for the streetchild is often haphazard, superficial and a duplication of both educational and welfare services and drains existing manpower and renders it inadequate (cf. Van Niekerk, 1990; Urbani, 1988). Various studies have proved that this duplication and almost total lack of co-ordination are expensive and inappropriate (cf. De Lange, 1981; Urbani, 1988; Janse van Rensburg, 1991).

Agnelli (1986 : 556) observed the following regarding street children: " Streetchildren, like all poor children, are often hungry and cold. Cleanliness and tidiness are no requirement for them. These children lead a life that is different from either that of the working or the middle class. They move

around dirty and dressed in rags and tatters. They express their aggression in physical ways. They are esteemed if they fight well. They are loud and rough. They drink intoxicating beverages of whatever kind, sniff glue and inhale methylated spirits. They will experiment with various other types of drugs should they come across them."

Van Niekerk (1990 : 6) maintains that: ".....without the active participation of an adult in the dynamics of the education situation, the essential meaning of education is not fulfilled because the streetchild is not involved in an intimate relationship with an educator (parent) who focusses on adulthood". When an educator and a child communicate inadequately, all the acts of upbringing itself are necessarily performed inadequately (Van Niekerk, 1982 : 9). The lack of educational dialogue between an adult and the streetchild is one of the major factors that short-circuit the dynamics of the educational situation. The point where the subjective interpretations of the adult and the streetchild intersect is insufficient and results in the progression of the streetchild being replaced by retrogression. This gives rise to dysfunctional education. (Van Niekerk, 1990 : 7). Dysfunctional education again leads to failure to develop commitments and attachments within a

particular society, as well as failure to adopt beliefs, values, prosocial action patterns and ethically accepted societal dictates within that society (Cemane, 1990 : 2). Dysfunctional education therefore forces the child into a situation of educational distress. Educational distress in the streetchild's relations with reality leads to non-conformity with the shared cultural and social values and norms within society. Non-conformity inhibits antisocial actions and thus represents a negative dialogic situatedness. Antisocial action by the streetchild manifest itself in acts of theft, drug peddling, psychoactive drug abuse, prostitution and other crimes. This negative dialogic situatedness of the streetchild renders the pedagogic aim and activity structure powerless and the becoming of the streetchild as a responsible member of society virtually impossible. Educational distress (dysfunctional education) thus manifests itself in the life-world of the streetchild as symptoms e.g. juvenile delinquency (cf. Blignaut, 1990; Van Niekerk, 1990; Cemane, 1990). When this occurs, an intervention which is educational in nature, becomes necessary; educational in the sense that one has to rectify a faulty education which has as underlying cause the absence and or failure of the adult in guiding the child and failure to create or provide a secure environment for successful

education.

According to HSRC report (1975 : 34) on pedagogically neglected children it was found that behavioural deviations are closely related to learning problems (casual or as symptoms). If the behavioural deviation is the cause of the learning problems the assistance to be rendered is re-education and not remediation. If the behavioural deviation is merely a symptom of the learning problem, the assistance to the child entails much more than mere remediation. Many learning defects cannot be rectified by remedial education. Assistance to the child in educational distress entails aspects such as assistance in the understanding of the individual potentialities and in the designing of an individual future. It therefore fundamentally remains a task of re-education in a secure environment.

Pretorius (1979 : 56-58) sees the secure environment of the family milieu as providing the child with the following vital aspects which are essential in the child's' efforts of becoming :

- the family milieu provides the child with a safe place from which he can explore his life-world;
- the family milieu supplies the child with answers to problems he may encounter during his explorations;

- the family milieu is a world where love is personally directed towards the child;
- the family milieu is the primary socialising agent where the child learns socially accepted behaviour;
- the family milieu is dynamic in that it adjusts according to, and accommodates, changes and new influences from outside the family milieu;
- the family milieu is one of lasting personal relationships which enable the child to discover personal norms and values.

The problem that faces the street child is that his life-world is deprived of this vital component for his successful emancipation i.e. he must constitute a life-world in the absence of a family milieu.

Ter Horst (1973) has identified categories that might contribute to confusion and perplexity in the child, in respect of his educational situatedness. He mentions the following: anti-authoritative education, poverty, licence, poor housing, deprivation (whenever parents are absent), setting too high or too low a standard, hunger, inconsistency, indoctrination, lack of love, overtaxing, underestimation, disorderliness, authoritarian education,

illness, permissiveness, exaggerated ambition and a disregard of challenges. The streetchild is subjected to most of these categories.

Sonnekus (1976 : 124-129) also refers to matters such as the physical care of the child (including his diet, health and hygiene); social well-being (also implying that the child should be properly housed, have enough friends, be allowed to take part in recreational activities and have adequate relationships with adults); affective neglect which could occur in various ways, e.g. by too much or too little petting or lack of togetherness; inconsistent educational attitudes of the parents which signify an incoherent and disjointed approach to the child, confusing him and causing feelings of insecurity; marital problems where tensions exist between the parents; and broken marriages, where the child may feel that he has been rejected or neglected by one or both parents. The neglect of the physical, social and affective aspects of the streetchild are therefore all contributing factors to his educational distress i.e. to a dysfunction of the pedagogic situation.

It is important to note that the Law in the RSA does provide to a certain extent for streetchildren. The Child Care Act

No. 74 of 1983 defines the "child in need of care" as a child that:

- has been abandoned and is without any noticeable means to survive; or
- has no parents or guardian, or has no parents or guardian that can exercise any control over the child, or are incapable of exercising control; or
- is in the care of a person that has been found guilty of a criminal act against or regarding the said child; or
- cannot be controlled by his parents or guardian; or
- is guilty of acts of persistent truancy; or
- keeps company with an immoral or inherently bad person or live in conditions that will lead to seduction, degradation or give rise to prostitution by the child; or
- begs for a living; or
- is younger than twelve years old and runs a street trading business within the area of jurisdiction of a local authority unless allowed by that local authority according to the regulations of article twenty-two; or
- is older than twelve but younger than sixteen years old and runs any kind of street trading business within the area of jurisdiction of a local authority that is contrary to the bylaws of the local authority ; or- is supported away from the parents or guardian in an environment that is contrary

to the needs of the child whose parents or guardian cannot be traced, or neglect to provide for the child although being instructed to provide adequately; or
- is in a state of physical or mental neglect.

The main aim of the above law is to protect the child in need of care (Mbanjwa, 1990 : 3-5). This implies that the pedagogically neglected child or streetchild is protected by this law. The streetchild must, however, be found by the Court to be "a child in need of care". Then only will the child be recognised as being "a child in need of care" and be placed in a care facility as determined by the Child Care Act. The child cannot declare himself "in need of care" and place himself in a care facility without the approval of a Court of Law. This fact is one of the major problems facing shelters for streetchildren as these shelters are not recognised by the Child Care Act. Shelters are not legally recognised or officially supported by the State because children presently in their care were not placed there by the Child Care Act. Most streetchildren place themselves in the care of these shelters.

With regard to the streetchildren phenomena in South Africa Ivory (1988 : 109) made the following important observation:

" It has become common practice to blame the schools, the system that perpetuates segregated education, the system that requires each race to be taught by staff of that same race, insufficient number of adequately qualified professionals, the sloppy curricula, the poor level of teaching and the slovenly standards set for the school children. But in the end, a school can't educate a human being; an education is not something given to somebody like a suit of clothes. Learning cannot be absorbed passively as if it were a cheque arriving in the mail every couple of weeks. Education must be worked at - usually for life. It must be earned like everything else. It must be taken. Humble origins are no excuse for surrender. Albert Camus's mother was illiterate yet he won the Nobel Prize for Literature ".

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem that will be investigated in this study concerns the educational distress of the streetchild due to his specific situatedness on the street without responsible adult accompaniment in the process of becoming. To promote mutual co-operation and trust between the various parties and agencies involved in the attempts to address this distress, this study addresses the following questions:

- the inadequate selfactualisation of the psychic-life of the

streetchild and the quality of adult accompaniment with regard to his educational distress ;

- the life-world of the streetchild as major contributing factor as it reveals itself in the streetchilds' relations to himself, to others, to things or ideas and to God.

1.4 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

In behavioural research, the statistical hypothesis is almost always a null-hypothesis, i.e. the "no difference" statistical hypothesis. The null-hypothesis is a statistical hypothesis in which the parameter in question is hypothesized to be zero. The hypothesis to be tested is referred to as the null-hypothesis, because it states that the difference between one's sample statistic and the hypothesized value of the population parameter is "null". It is therefore a statement about an unknown parameter.

The research hypothesis for this study is formulated as follows :

- * Child care workers at shelters for streetchildren are not equipped to render accountable support regarding the educational distress of the streetchild.

For the purpose of this study, the research hypothesis is formulated as a null hypothesis and reads as follows:

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1.5 ELUCIDATION OF CONCEPTS

For the sake of clarity it is essential that certain relevant concepts be clearly defined :

1.5.1 Abused child

According to the Bilingual Defining Socialwork Dictionary (Terminology Committee, 1984 : 54) an abused child is a person under the age of eighteen years old that is being physically or psychologically mistreated by the person in whose care the child is. An abused child also refers to a battered child.

1.5.2 Battered child

A young child that shows symptoms (battered-child syndrome) that result from repeated serious injuries which have been administered to him over a period of time (Terminology Committee 1984 : 56)

1.5.3 Broken home

This refers to a family that is fragmentary due to divorce or desertion of a parent (Terminology Committee 1984 : 56).

1.5.4 Dysfunctional education

A dysfunction in the dynamics of education caused by the absence of any of the pedagogic relationships of trust, understanding and authority from the pedagogic situation.

(Van Niekerk, 1982 : 9).

1.5.5 Educational distress

Experienced by the child who finds himself within a situation of dysfunctional education. A distressful educational situation gives rise to experiences fraught with unfavourable meanings for the child such as feelings of extreme anxiety, loneliness, insecurity, helplessness and uncertainty (Van

Niekerk, 1982 : 9).

1.5.6 Family milieu

Pretorius (1979) sees an education milieu (family) as an environment that must ;

- provide a safe living space from which the child can explore and experience life ;
- provide answers to his experiences which will guide him on his life discovering explorations ;
- provide the child with personal experiences of security, caring love and trust ;
- equip the child with cultural and socially accepted virtues and behaviour ;

- must be dynamic to accommodate the changing world and circumstances ;
- must be a permanent intimate circle of personal relationships in order to enable the child to discover his own potentials and capabilities and others around him.

1.5.7 Institution

A building or place where persons with specific needs are temporarily or permanently cared for (Bilingual defining social work dictionary 1984 : 22).

1.5.8 Institutionalization

The admittance of persons with specific disorders eg. juvenile delinquents, alcoholics, children in need of care etc. into an institution (Bilingual defining social work dictionary 1984 : 22).

1.5.9 Life-world

According to Vrey (1984 : 15) life-world is the Gestalt of the individual person's meaningful relationships. One's life-world includes all the people, objects, ideas, systems, forces, attitudes, self, - everything to which one has attributed meaning and which one therefore understands.

1.5.10 Pedagogical neglect

Without the sufficient participation of an adult in the dynamics of the education situation, the essential meaning of education is not fulfilled because the child is not involved in an intimate relationship with an educator (parent) who focusses on adulthood. When an educator and a child communicate inadequately, all the acts of upbringing itself are necessarily performed inadequately (Van Niekerk 1982 : 9). The pedagogically inadequate actualization of the child's psychic life is the inevitable result.

1.5.11 Psychic life

The psychic life of the streetchild, being pedagogically interpreted, directly pertains to the streetchild's modes of exploring, emancipating, distancing, objectification and differentiating (Van Niekerk 1982 : 20).

1.5.12 Rehabilitation

The reinstatement of a client in a useful and constructive role/position within society by means of one or other occupational-, correctional- or therapeutic training or treatment or by means of financial assistance, distress relief or another recovering measure (Bilingual defining social work dictionary 1984 : 41).

1.5.13 Reconstruction services

A family care service that is directed towards the return of a member of a family who was in foster care or residential care (Bilingual defining social work dictionary 1984 : 40).

1.5.14 Streetchildren/Streetchild

A group of pedagogically neglected children failing to develop commitment and attachments within a particular society, as well as failing to adopt beliefs, values, prosocial actions patterns and ethically accepted dictates within that society. These relations with reality of the streetchild should be viewed as leading to non-conformity to the shared cultural and social values and norms within society (Brombeck 1971 : 556).

The Inter-NGO in Switzerland (Swart : 1987) has defined a streetchild as follows : " A streetchild is any girl or boy who has not yet reached adulthood, for whom the street (in the widest sense of the word) has become his or her habitual abode and/or source of livelihood, and who is inadequately protected, supervised or guided by responsible adults."

1.6 AIMS OF THIS STUDY

The aims of this investigation stem from the statement of the problem and can be formulated as follows:

- to describe the educational distress that exists within the life-world of the street child from a psychopedagogical perspective at the hand of available relevant research literature ;
- conduct an empirical survey consisting of structured questionnaires in order to ascertain the support rendered by child care workers to streetchildren in shelters; and
- in the light of the findings obtained from the literature study and empirical survey determine certain guidelines according to which accountable support can be instituted in order to meet the educational distress of the streetchild.

1.7 METHOD OF RESEARCH

This discourse on the educational distress of the streetchild is deeply embedded in the goal and structure of education.

The point of departure for this study will be taken from the perspective of Psychopedagogics. The method of collecting data used in this study has been based firstly on an initial literature study of available relevant research literature.

Secondly, a questionnaire survey will be conducted.

This survey will be done through the use of two structured questionnaires. Questionnaire 1 is to be completed by managers of shelters for streetchildren and questionnaire 2

is to be completed by child care workers attached to the respective shelters. For this purpose, questionnaire 1 will be administered to managers of sixteen (16) shelters in the main metropolitan areas within the Republic of South Africa and questionnaire 2 to fifty-one (51) child care workers attached to the sixteen shelters.

Thirdly, to supplement the above, study visits will be made to shelters and interviews will be conducted with authoritative persons such as social workers, "child care workers", the SAP Child Protection Unit, etc. regarding this phenomenon.

1.8 FURTHER COURSE OF STUDY

In chapter 2 of this study a psychopedagogical perspective will be given regarding the child in educational distress.

Chapter 3 deals with relevant research regarding the life-world of the streetchild.

Chapter 4 discusses available support for the streetchild.

Chapter 5 proposes a future model for accountable support to streetchildren.

Chapter 6 examines research procedures and methodology employed in this study.

Chapter 7 analyses and interprets data from the responses to the questionnaires.

Chapter 8 presents a summary of the findings of this study and offers considered conclusions and recommendations.

1.9 SUMMARY

An exposition of the problem, statement of the problem and the aims of this study are given in this chapter. The method of how research was done is explained and certain concepts elucidated. Lastly, the further course of this study is set out. A psychopedagogic view of the child in educational distress is given in chapter two.

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CHAPTER 2

THE CHILD IN EDUCATIONAL DISTRESS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Sonnekus (1975 : 17-34) no child automatically becomes adult but both the purposeful involvement of the adult and the actualising of his potential by the child are integrally implied in the event. As a person the child is engaged in a dialogue with the world surrounding him. He actively reaches out to the world because he wishes to give meaning to it in order to discover its meaningfulness, basically because he wishes to be somebody in his own right and wants to eventually become an adult himself.

It would be untenable to try to explain the educational distress of streetchildren in a simplistic way by referring to certain specific factors in isolation, such as poverty or drug abuse (Van Niekerk, 1990 :5). Every child's educational situation comprises the entire panorama of possible educative contents, but each element of the content becomes manifest to the child only if and when he intentionally incorporates it into his world of meaning as it is constituted from moment to moment. The effect of each of factors such as drug abuse or poverty on the education or upbringing of a child should be

interpreted and clearly indicated.

The streetchild finds himself without the assistance of a responsible adult, the educative intervention which consists as much in opposing the wilful marring of the streetchild's own humanization as in giving a blessing to whatever spontaneous acts are in the child's own interests. The life-world of the streetchild lacks the protective guidance of the responsible adult which provides opportunities designed to rouse and inspire his charge to a realization of his personal potential as well as his personal orientation towards the community.

The streetchild does not find himself involved in an intimate relationship with an educator who focuses on adulthood. He is in a state of pedagogical neglect. Without this relationship all the acts of upbringing itself are necessarily performed inadequately i.e. a situation of dysfunctional education which stems from pedagogical neglect exists. This educational dysfunction of the streetchild cries out in distress for meaningful help so that the situation of dysfunctional education in which he is caught up can be rectified. Dysfunctional education gives rise to experiences fraught with unfavourable meanings for the streetchild, e.g.

feelings of extreme and uncalled anxiety, loneliness, insecurity, helplessness and uncertainty all symptoms of a distressful educational situation. If this dysfunctional education is not rectified the pedagogically inadequate actualization of the child's psychic life is inevitable (Janse van Rensburg, 1991 : 57-66; Van Niekerk, 1990 : 6).

Where the child is at issue, Pedagogics and Social Work should benefit each other. However, the principle should always be accepted that education is of primary significance to a child's growing up and his socialization as well (Urbani, 1990 : 4-6; Janse van Rensburg, 1991 : 26- 32).

The same applies to a human sciences discipline such as Psychology, when the latter takes the child as a theme of study. Each investigation into the pedagogically neglected child must take the pedagogical situation of the child as the point of departure.

In this chapter, therefore, close attention will be paid to the child in educational distress with the pedagogical situation of the child as the point of departure. It will also be necessary to investigate the dysfunction of the pedagogic situation as this dysfunction results in the educational distress of the child.

2.2 THE PEDAGOGIC RELATIONSHIP

2.2.1 Introduction

The point of departure of Pedagogics as a scientific discipline is the pedagogic situation. This implies that the pedagogic situation and only the pedagogic situation is the aspect which unifies the part perspectives into Pedagogics as a science (Nel & Urbani, 1990 : 2).

2.2.2 The situatedness of man

Man is always situationally related to his world as a totality (Nel & Urbani, 1990 : 4). He does not change from one situation to another. A child playing does not change when he starts learning. Man is one with the world within a situation irrespective of whether he is playing, working, relaxing etc. He does not react to stimuli from outside of himself only but takes the initiative in forming relations and he answers in freedom to appeals addressed to him from his world (Nel & Urbani, 1990 : 5).

A baby does not arrive in this world as a preform of an adult who is bombarded with stimuli and who develops by reacting to those stimuli. From the moment of birth a baby is a complete person. He is not an inadequate adult but an adequate baby. His modes of experiencing are the same as that of an adult but differ qualitatively. Becoming means a qualitative

development of one's discourses with the world which is the study field of Psychopedagogics (Nel & Urbani, 1990 : 5).

(1) World understanding

To be able to live in the world man must constantly increase his knowledge of it (Du Plooy, Griesel & Oberholzer, 1987 : 73). The Umwelt becomes Welt through the world's acquired meaning. The significance of the ordering which has come to be accepted as man's way of living, gradually transpires to the child. Man learns to understand and give meaning to reality in a variety of ways e.g. singing, playing, talking, working etc. His culture is an indication of his way of understanding reality. This understanding comes about mainly by the experiencing of meaning by him which enables man to give meaning to his world.

The point here is not an interpretation of reality but an understanding of the meaning of it. The meaning of the world-order in which the child finds himself is learnt through living together with others. The child becomes aware of the meaning of human norms because he shares the experience of this meaning with others. He learns to live in the world because he lives in it with others.

To help the child to live in this world he must not only be assisted to gain a firm grip on reality but also continually to strengthen this grip for himself by going forward thoughtfully, increasing his knowledge questingly and workingly. His grip on reality will give him confidence in venturing further (Du Plooy, Griesel & Oberholzer, 1987 : 75). The lack of this assistance to the streetchild hampers his confidence and he does not experience meaning (Janse van Rensburg, 1991 :41).

The educator wishing to give the child an understanding of the world must create situations and interpret situations that occur, with the object of letting the child so experience the meaning of the multiformity of man's way of living that he is moved to wonder, and this will make him seek thoughtfully for a fuller understanding of everything.

The essential task in helping the child to understand the world is to teach him to understand the world while living in it and to live in it with understanding. The streetchild in contrast has become a fugitive who tries desperately to escape the world. He does not accept his world but surrenders to it.

(2) World acceptance

World acceptance implies acceptance of man's own origin as irrevocable in so far as the past is concerned (Du Plooy, Griesel & Oberholzer, 1987 : 76). Acceptance of this irrevocability is not fatalism. The present offers another opportunity of assimilating the past meaningfully and of accepting the future as an opportunity for participation in an advancing world design which acquires its meaning through giving meaning to the present.

The world into which the child is born is a reality he did not choose. In this reality he must find his place and task: he must orientate himself to what is and thus constitute what ought to be.

It is the privilege of every man to have to determine for himself the limitations within which he constitutes a human world. This world is a multiform one on which man as an individual must acquire a grip.

World acceptance thus implies the awakening of a preparedness to give meaning to one's own being-in-the-world as an alignment with the future. The streetchild with his obscured future perspective fails to give meaning to his being-in-the-

world (Janse van Rensburg, 1991 : 47).

The awakening of a preparedness to give meaning to one's own being-in-the-world as an alignment with the future implies world orientation. World acceptance therefore implies world orientation.

(3) World orientation

In a multiform world where polyvalent values give rise to a plural way of living severe demands are imposed on education (Du Plooy, Griesel & Oberholser, 1987 : 77). The educator who has to assist the child to live in the world in which he finds himself faces the multiformity of possibilities of giving meaning to occurrences and things. He must choose from these because for human limitation restricts the actualizing of all the open possibilities. Order must of necessity emanate from a disordered multiplicity of things; man must therefore orientate himself and make responsible choices. The child in a situation of dysfunctional education eg. the streetchild fails to make responsible choices because of insufficient world orientation (Van Niekerk, 1990 : 7).

The educator as inhabitant of the world of adults must take into account the world of the educand. As a discoverer of

what is yet unknown to him the educand must gradually become familiar with his heritage. He cannot be summarily released. Releasing man into the world imposes an educative task, a task that implies that the educand must learn to choose, must orientate himself in a polyvalent world (Du Plooy, Griesel & Oberholzer, 1987 : 78). This implies that education that does not teach the child to distinguish and choose between what is approvable or not (dysfunctional education) does not help him to know his position and ultimately to assume his task in the world.

To venture into the unknown is hazardous and the child should not be left alone to face it too soon or for too long (Du Plooy, Griesel & Oberholzer, 1987 : 78). The outcome would be cultural degeneration, demoralization and even derailment. This outcome is clearly evident in the life-world of the streetchild as he does not accept his world but surrenders to it.

Hazard belongs to the essence of education. The educator must grant the educand the opportunity to determine his relation with the world. For that reason he imposes tasks on the educand, allows him to make decisions, offers him the opportunity of acting on his own and confidently harbours the

expectation that the educand will take his stand. He assists the educand to accept the world as his dwelling place because he has a meaningful task to perform in it. The educand is therefore assisted to constitute a meaningful life-world.

(4) Constituting a meaningful world

According to Buitendijk (1966 : 7-31) man is a initiator of relations with a world he has chosen and is chosen by. His world is also changing constantly. On account of his intentionality, his openness and his freedom of choice man does not react to stimuli but takes the initiative in establishing relationships between himself and his surrounding world. By so doing, he composes an own subjective life-world which forms the basis of his self-concept (Vrey, 1984 : 14).

By forming relationships, the child thus constitutes the life-world that forms his psychological space and reality to which he is orientated. Van Niekerk (1984 : 7) noted that through learning the child constantly raises the level upon which he communicates with life and gives meaning to his world. In learning the child will also constantly form new relationships and improve the quality of existing relationships.

Education must therefore take into account the world in which the educand finds himself and the demands it makes on him. It must take into account that the child must participate in a world that is constantly changing.

Van den Berg (1955) pointed out that while the child is living in the world he is shaping it, and while he is shaping it he is living in it. He constitutes his own world as one that is meaningful or meaningless according to his experience of the world as exemplified to him by his fellow-men. This will imply that anyone who does not know the child's world as the child himself has experienced it, cannot assist the child to achieve a more human design.

Man as an intentionality directs himself toward an aim (Du Plooy, Griesel & Oberholzer, 1987 : 81). The world is always a world-for-the-human-being and through his creative activities man gives meaning to the world. The way in which he performs his task is his reply to the challenge inherent in his being as human being. Although man is always bound to a situation, he is not at the mercy of his situation. He designs his own world.

Making the child conscious of what he should be depends

mainly on education (Du Plooy, Griesel & Oberholzer, 1987 : 81). The pedagogic situation reveals that man is a being committed to his fellow-beings, and that he is willing to be called upon by his fellow-beings with a view to giving shape to the idea of humanity. He is called upon to continually redesign his world because of meanings (as values) embedded in the situation. By acting man wills, chooses, evaluates and trusts always in accordance with norms. The streetchild's actions of ascribing significance to matters, i.e. the formation of meaningful relationships, are of insufficient quality. This gives rise to inadequate actions of hoping, planning, gaining insight into himself, of never attaining the freedom to be responsible and thus also of disregarding accepted norms and values (Janse van Rensburg, 1991 : 47).

Man is a co-initiator of every situation in which he finds himself, and is responsible for its establishment and its penetration. Therefore the situation may also be seen as a mode of living in and through the life-world. This fact denotes a close connection between situation and relation.

2.2.3 The connection between situation and relation

Man is an initiator of relationships in a world that he has chosen and by which he is chosen. This explanation describes the primal fact of man's existence within situations in terms

of another primal fact : existence in relationships. He can be situated in no other way than by being in a relationship of some kind (Du Plooy, Griesel & Oberholzer, 1987 : 83). Even when he shuns reality he is, by this act, establishing a relationship with it.

Again man cannot enter into relationships except in situations. A situation implies a revelation of the way in which man experiences his world. Therefore relationship as well as situation denote the mutual involvement of man with reality. It is the existence of relationships that gives a situation its essential quality (Du Plooy, Griesel & Oberholzer, 1987 : 83). No relationship can ever exceed human situatedness. Man penetrates a situation and shifts his horizons in order to create a new situation by altering the constellation of varying constant-relationships. Therefore at any given moment, and continuously, man is situated within some relationship. For education the essence of these relationships are given meaning within the Pedagogic situation.

2.2.4 The nature of the pedagogic situation

The point of departure of psychopedagogics is the pedagogic situation. This implies that categories such as experiencing, cognition, feeling, perceiving, thinking, etc. only acquire

psychopedagogic status within the pedagogic situation. Outside the pedagogic situation they remain anthropological categories. Within the pedagogic situation they become psychopedagogic categories (Nel & Urbani, 1990 : 10). The matrix within which the pedagogic situation develops is the pedagogic relationship. The pedagogic relationship can be defined as a relationship between an educator and one or more educands formed with the specific aim of educating the child or children. The pedagogic situation develops within the relationship. The quality of the relationship has a direct influence on the success or otherwise of the education act. Conversely, the quality of the relationship is also influenced by the success or failure of the education act (Van Niekerk, 1982 : 9; Nel & Urbani, 1990 : 11)

2.2.5 The educator and the educand in the pedagogic situation

(1) A constellation of relationships

Every education relationship is unique and is expressed in non-recurring situation in which unique people are involved. It is not easy to discern their fundamental features for these characteristics do not lie closely packed in the education relationship (Janse van Rensburg, 1991 :24).

The education relationship is one that signifies a gradual

inequality between adults and adults-in-the-making. As a not-yet-adult the child is a full-fledged human being who, depending on an adult, has to find his way toward adulthood. This means that his dignity as a person must be respected. The adult must ensure that the child in his involvement brings to fruition his advancement in a permissible and approvable way. The educator is therefore intensely aware of his own responsibility. As educator and educand are in an unequal relationship, the call for responsibility in the former is particularly strong. (Du Plooy, Griesel & Oberholzer, 1987 : 98). In as much as the educand is not yet responsible and qualified to find his way through the world independently, selectively and by giving meaning to it, he must be supported by the adult in his intentional alignment to the world.

The educand needs an adult; he initiates the educative event by appealing to the adult for support. Without co-existence with his fellowmen and without their example, the human child is lost. This means that the education relationship can also be characterized as a dialogue, an appeal-hear-answer relationship. The child's appeal to the adult raises the latter as, responder, to the status of an educator. The physical presence of the educator creates a sheltered space;

the force of his world holds no threat to the person of the educand. From the intimate nearness established by the presence of the adult to whom he can communicate his need, the educand gains courage and confidence to carry on the dialogue with the world (Du Plooy, Griesel & Oberholzer, 1987 : 87).

The education relationship is a binding relationship. Binding is actualized by a pedagogic tie of love, for love forms the substructure of all pedagogic support. The educative space is enlarged to a loving our-space. Educative love must not be confused with sentimentality and soft-heartedness. Love cannot claim to exclude reprimand for the protection of the child's dignity, on the simple pretext that the love given is intended as support to the child with a view to his becoming self-reliant (Du Plooy, Griesel & Oberholzer, 1987 : 86) .

To overestimate the function of the educator and underestimate the function of the educand in the education relationship is as fatal as to do the opposite. Pedagogic activism one-sidedly emphasizes the importance of the educator; it does not take into account the involvement of the educand in the educative event. Pedagogic negativism

goes to the opposite extreme. Blinded by a boundless esteem for and a blind trust in the "natural development" of the child, every form of interference with the child is condemned. (Van Niekerk, 1982 : 86) What is necessary is only an edifyingly-wealthy growing-milieu, and then nature must be allowed to take her course. If this approach is consistently applied, it cannot fail to give rise to the disintegration of the education relationship. Within the education relationship educative assistance also consists, firstly, in opposing the educand if his own choice will hamper his becoming someone; or, secondly, in agreeing when he does something meaningfully; and thirdly, in providing opportunities that will support the child to orientate himself in a worth-while way regarding the world (Du Plooy, Griesel & Oberholzer, 1987 : 108).

When education relationship is studied and the relationships through which an education situation is established are considered, it will be clear that three basic relationships function as conditions for the establishment of a pedagogic situation, namely the relationships of understanding, trust and authority. These are not the only relationships that make up the total structure as there are also risking with one another the relationship of mutual creative participation.

In the educator-educand relationship we can distinguish two directions: the attitude of the child toward the adult and the attitude of the adult toward the child. Although there is no possibility of two relationships in the education situation, we must give due consideration to the fact that two unique persons are involved in a unique situation. By paying attention to the attitude of the child as the educand and then to the attitude of the adult as educator, we obtain a better insight into the nature of the pedagogic situation as a situation characterized by the need of support, the offer of support and the acceptance of support. This illuminates the nature of the pedagogic atmosphere in which the educator accepts the educand and invites him to surrender himself trustingly to the educator, who must assist the educand in venturing from his own sheltered sphere to create a new, more spacious life-world until ultimately he can himself assume his task as a mature human being.

(2) The educand's attitude towards the adult

At birth man is dependent and has to rely on his fellow-humans for aid. But the child does not merely need help; he seeks it (Van Schalkwyk, 1988 : 66).

Practical life proves that whenever a child is in need, he tends to turn to an adult for help. The child's mode of

being is such that he is prepared to give himself up to, and to accept the aid rendered by the adult. Thus the child should be seen as the one who as an educand lends himself to education (Du Plooy, Griesel & Oberholzer, 1987 : 88). From the very beginning the infant is imbued with the feeling of safety and security that is indispensable for his existence as it is provided by the protecting influence of his home and family. This consists of an intimate personal relationship with his mother, via whom the infant acquires his first knowledge of reality. She is his first reality.

Nitschke (1968) has given a brilliant account of the early course of child life. He concludes that the growing-up of the child demands a relationship of trust and security. He stresses the importance of the mother as the person who can rouse the child's possibilities for forming confident relationships with other people and with things. The cherishing care of the mother creates space in which the child feels at home. In this way the larger world becomes accessible to him.

Beets (1965), another physician-educationist, describes the mother as the ever-present, the security and certainty of human relationships, the protection from danger, the

restfulness of tranquil existence. The feminine mode of existence is that of waiting.

Van den Berg (1963 : 54-63), also points out the indispensability of mother love in child life. It is the mother who makes anxiety, chaos and threats harmless.

Man cannot acquire knowledge of the world except through concrete human relationships. For the infant this progress starts with aid of a single loved person, and the mother is usually the first educator who creates a sphere of security which eventually invites him to venture into the world and mix with others. She is at first the embodiment of the child's world and affords him full security. The healthy mother-child relationship is thus a prerequisite for healthy relationships with the world of things (Du Plooy, Griesel & Oberholzer, 1987 : 92).

Just as only one person is the principal recipient of the child's trust at first so the trusted space or home is from the outset limited to the immediate proximity of this trusted person (Van den Berg, 1963 :70). Through the mother he learns to repose trust in the father and other members of the family. By living with and entering into the activities of the other members of the family he learns to regard the house

as the sphere of security, his abode and home. The security of the home has a particular significance in the life of the child (Janse van Rensburg, 1991 : 38). It is the milieu of the child-world.

It is the home to which he always returns after excursions bent on discovering and conquering the world out yonder. By home we do not mean the four walls and roof of the house, but the life-space where the educand feels at home.

Beets (1965) and Van den Berg (1963) both stress the father's share as a representative of adulthood. Through his association with the child he assists him to increase his knowledge of and confidence in the outer world, because he has authority and in this way creates confidence.

The father constitutes an important part in the discovery of the world and the gradual establishment of a home in it. His task differs from that of the mother because his nature is different. In contrast to the waiting mode of being of the mother, the father's way of existence is that of expansion and conquering. For the child he is the person who knows everything and who can do everything (Du Plooy, Griesel & Oberholzer, 1987 : 92).

Langeveld (1969) also believes that the father occupies a special place. To the child he represents the full life-reality. He sets the standards of adulthood and the norms of the human way of existence. He must assume the responsibility of familiarizing the child with his world, that is, the world of adult norms. If he lacks the feeling of certainty and security afforded by the paternal authority as representing the norms of the adult world, the child cannot make sure choices, but lives rather haphazardly, and may easily lose the track. His father's world invites him to accept his own task in future, the task of the adult: selfrealization. But this appeal to take up his task in the world is not sufficient to encourage the child to daring. Here the example of the father should serve as encouragement to the child. This can only happen if there is an adequate relationship between them and they are able to enter into each other's situations. The child wants to admire a father, but also to trust him. He wants to sense the nearness of supporting strength and manliness as attributes of someone who is at home in the adult world. If this part is played by the mother, owing to the absence or neglect of the father, the child identifies the concept of strength with the mother: the boy will imitate the feminine figure. The child needs both father and a mother to create the sphere of security

that will give him the confidence he needs to undertake the discovery of the world and thus to continually extend the horizons of his home (his situation).

When the child goes to school, the teacher supplements the task of the parent (Van Schalkwyk, 1988 : 76). The fact that the child is willing to trust himself to the school and to the teacher, is in itself an indication that parental education has provided sufficient security to promote the child's emancipation. Neither the parent nor the teacher nor any other adult whose aid the child needs if he is to make the adult world a world of his own, can give this educative aid, if he is unable to rouse trust and a feeling of security in the educand. In the absence of such trust the child is completely at the mercy of the education situation which is his life-world. In this way the educator remains responsible for the education of the child, but does not fulfil his duty completely. The outcome is that though the child does receive education, this education is not responsibly directed. It is haphazard, and if it is a success, it is so only by chance (Du Plooy, Griesel & Oberholzer, 1987 : 93).

If the child experiences the world of the adult as a world of worry, doubt, uncertainty, insincerity and menace, this may

not only retard his progress but could lead to complete disruption of his life-world (Van Niekerk, 1990 : 7). When the relationship is one of knowledge, authority and trust, so that the child feels at home in his environment, child-life takes its proper road to adulthood. A relationship like this perpetually appeals to the child to actualize himself as a being in existence and co-existence with his parents, and according to their example. The child wants to become an adult. The task of the adult is to assist him in such a way that he will eventually give a meaningful content to the idea of adulthood in terms of his own individualness.

Educative aid that is definitely directed towards the future creates the impression that the future is worth-while and thus valuable. This idea gives meaning to the child's life and prepares the incipient adult to accept the responsibility of full humanity under the authority of sound values which compel him to become what he ought to become.

In adolescence, the innocent childlike trust of the infant in the loving and protecting care of his mother and in the might of his father, is often transformed into hero-worship of a youth leader or some other identification figure and a sober respect for his teacher. Bollnow (1958) points out that the

basis of trust can and should be present even in the most matter-of-fact forms of instruction in school, if the teacher's actions evoke the respect of his pupils. The child wants to be proud of his educator (parent or teacher) and therefore he desires to respond obediently to the educative appeal.

According to Van Niekerk (1982 : 83) the educand does not necessarily respond with thankfulness, obedience, love and reverence. Nor does he automatically experience a feeling of trust, affection and love towards the adult, or feel safe and secure with him as a matter of course. The disposition towards the adult is co-determined by the attitude of the adult towards the child and by the general tone and texture of their association.

The educand is always a person who wants to be somebody. He remains in tension between becoming-a-self and an am-not-yet. This tension should spur him on to self-realization via the attainment of adulthood. Initially he merely follows the educator's example in this respect, but as time goes on he increasingly obeys the authority of the norm-structure the educator has endeavoured to present to him.

(3) The educator's attitude towards the child

It is not only the child who needs to know, respect and trust the educator in order to comprehend the world and to re-constitute it as a world of his own, it is equally important that the educator should ;

- have a sound understanding of the nature and destiny of children in general, plus a sound knowledge of the particular child with whom he is dealing;
- have a feeling of respect for the child springing from the acknowledgment of the authority of values to which both he and the child are subject and towards which the realization of his educative actions are directed; and
- trust the child (educand) so that as educator he can entrust himself to the child and gradually entrust to the child the responsibility which he will eventually have to bear fully as an adult.

When one is entrusting a child with responsibility one is making an indirect appeal to him to accept it. This demands sound comprehension on the part of the educator. The child's ability for carrying out tasks entrusted to him has its limits, and these must be taken into account without making a weakling of him. The educator's beliefs about the child

reflect the degree of his trust in the child and impel him to act in accordance with that trust. Bollnow (1958) speaks of an embracing trust in terms of which the educator appeals to the child's conscience. We are not concerned here with trust as it relates to single characteristics or virtues or the ability to carry out a particular task: trust in this sense is trust in the child himself. This springs from a knowledge of the child and of the authority to which he should be subject (Van Schalkwyk, 1988 : 122).

Genuine educative trust is not blind. It takes into account the incomplete self-realization of childhood, as well as human frailty and limitations. There is always a possibility of failure, and confidence always involves an element of risking. But the risk the educator takes is not merely a gamble. It is taken in a spirit of moral responsibility. The educator must take risks if he is to help the educand to become independent, just as the child must be venturesome when he entrusts himself to the educator and lends himself to education. For this reason experimenting with children is depersonalizing, immoral and therefore to be condemned (Du Plooy, Griesel & Oberholzer, 1987 : 108).

Over-protection presents as serious a neglect of educative responsibility as does the failure to intervene at times when

the child cannot choose independently. Oberholzer (1977 : 55) describes educative aid as guiding and causing to act better, perhaps, acting and causing to act. The educator who through fear of failure, does not provide the educand with opportunities to act and bear responsibility in accordance with his capabilities, is just as irresponsible as the educator who takes indiscriminate risks. Kriekemans (1965) endorses the idea that the educator takes a risk every time he releases the educand in order to give him an opportunity to become an adult.

This venturesome attitude of the educator stems from his faith in the possibility to educate the child. It is not a wild challenge to fate. The integrity of the educator who truly has faith arouses a venturesome attitude with the child. When the educator loses faith he can no longer be of any assistance to the child because all pedagogic intervention is directed towards the future. The educator's faith bears witness to his understanding of the child and his possible destiny of independent and responsible self-realization in terms of permanent values. It is also a sign of obedience toward the authority of the values which appeal to the pedagogue and require him to assist the child on his way to the realization of his own dignity (human worth).

Finally it is a sign of trust (hope and expectation) in the future by both child and adult (Van Schalkwyk 1988 : 112).

The educator cherishes expectations and, therefore, arouses expectation in the educand. These expectations should not be unrealistic, and the educator must therefore endeavour not to be impatient for quick responses. Thoroughness demands patience. This applies to the child's physical skills, his intellectual ability, his moral conation and his affective security. It is particularly significant with regard to moral autonomy, the ability to make responsible choices.

The educator can achieve this patience only if he himself is really certain of his goal, has trust in the future, and is imbued with a feeling of security. These qualities are to be found only in the truly adult person who accepts his task in a truly human spirit and with a sense of responsibility, stemming from his own conquest of the confusion, doubts and disappointments in life i.e. through knowledge and the acceptance of a Higher Authority.

The child has a primal trust in the aid offered by the educator. When the latter reveals that he does not consider the problems of the educand to be insurmountable, he inspires him with the courage to persevere in spite of reverses. He

refers him to life-values that are worth-while pursuing (Du Plooy, Griesel & Oberholzer, 1987 : 89).

A close examination of the pedagogic relationship soon reveals that its structure is complex. It is preferable to regard it as a constellation of relationships. This relationship structure consists of a number of unchanging relationships without which the education relationship ceases to exist. In the following pages I propose to explore three of these relationships within the structure of the education relationship. The three essential facets of the pedagogic relationship which are usually grouped under the inclusive term "pedagogic relationship structures" are the relationship of knowing or cognition (also known as the relationship of understanding), the relationship of trust and the relationship of authority.

2.2.6 Essential characteristics of the pedagogic relationship

(1) Pedagogic understanding (knowing)

The relationship of knowing is a condition for creating and maintaining the education relation. To be able to educate the educand, the educator has to learn to know the child well, and to acquaint himself more thoroughly and progressively with him, especially regarding whether and to

what extent he is educable, and who he actually is. On the other hand, the educand should know who his educator is and also what to expect of him. He also has to learn to know him. On the basis of their mutual knowledge, they both establish the education relationship which can be initiated from the educator or from the educand.

Generally it can be stated that man in his human form of existence can be qualified as someone with the will to know; he applies himself to entering into relationships between himself and things, and especially between himself and other people. This enables him to acquire knowledge concerning his world, and to establish such a hold on it that he is able to give it significance. A meaningful grip on reality implies that the child can constitute his own world. (Not only a geometric world demarcated with boundaries).

To understand pre-supposes that one must have knowledge of that which one wants to understand (Van Niekerk 1982 : 11). Understanding implies thinking, in other words, the solving of a problem. This implies a phenomenological approach to that which one endeavours to understand. One will have to differentiate between essential and non-essential knowledge, then proceed to a refined analysis of that which is essential before one can arrive at an understanding of the nature of

the relationships between the different essential characteristics of the situation with which one is confronted. In everyday life we rely heavily on intuition to understand situations. Intuition operates on the pre-cognitive level; it is an essence of sensing (Nel & Urbani, 1990 : 11).

Sensing is described by Strauss (1963) as the grasping of meanings on the pre-cognitive level. It supplies the stable supportive base for perceiving. Intuitive understanding means that as long as the senso-pathic moment of perceiving remains stable we will proceed to act according to our interpretation of the situation. When the senso-pathic gets disturbed doubt will undermine our feeling that we understand and we will then seek for the reason for our doubt (Nel & Urbani, 1990 : 44). Once we have identified it, the problem to be solved will be to fit the aspect about which we have doubted sensibly into its correct place within the network of relations which form the structure of the situation we face. The foregoing means that if the realisation that we do not understand does not effect our feeling, we will not regard it as a problem and one will not even try to understand.

In the various education situations a relationship of trust

between the educator and the educand is implicit. They must of necessity attain a relationship of understanding, so that the venturing child can feel at home in the adult's presence, confident that nothing could make him feel unsafe. This means that the child is able to construct his world significantly, as a confident, existent being in the education situation, because of the support and the guidance of his familiar educator, in the knowledge that he often expects his assistance regarding matters of propriety so that he can learn, for example, to distinguish between good and evil, between what is proper and what is improper. The relationship of trust and especially that of knowing should therefore contribute to the child's growing into adulthood and also to making the adult (the educator) superfluous (Viljoen, 1969 : 9) as soon as the non-adult is acquainted with values, and actualises them as norms in his conduct. This amounts to the effectuation of the education situation in that the "kind met die hulp en steun van die volwassene op selfstandig-wording gerig word, en hy hierdie steun ontmoetend aanvaar, sinvol verwerk en na aanleiding daarvan sy wêreld op so 'n wyse beteken (sin gee) dat dit op 'n voortgang op die weg na selfstandingheid dui" (Viljoen, 1969 : 10). (the child is directed towards becoming independent with the assistance and support from encounter, he

constitutes it meaningfully, and on account of this attaches significance to his world in a manner indicating progress towards independence).

The question now arises: How is the relationship of understanding (knowing) possible? Man while advancing with his presence in the world, has the task of constructing world consciously (Viljoen, 1969 : 17). To carry this into effect, the possibilities should be at his disposal. The child cannot accomplish this alone. He lacks the essential knowledge. Only with the guidance of an adult who knows and is able to, will the non-adult learn to know and to be able to. It is only in the relationship of knowing as primordial relationship that the possibility of human co-existence arises (Viljoen, 1969 : 17).

No child enters the world as ready-equipped with knowledge, but he is certainly equipped with the ability to learn to know. He should therefore actually acquire knowledge from the educator, take it, adopt it, and constitute it for his own purposes. As soon as he takes cognizance of what the educator offers as claims of propriety, and accordingly equips his world in his own way, a decision to this effect is immediately implicit in the action (Viljoen, 1969 : 19).

Only man in his modes of child and of adult existence is able to acquire knowledge in this way, to process it and weave it into his world as a world of meanings. "Die kind bevind hom in 'n wêreld van betekenis. Die opvoeding wil 'n greep op sy wêreld verower" (Van Zyl, 1974 : 108). (The child finds himself in a world of meanings. The educand wishes to gain a grip on his world). It is obvious that in the pedagogic situation we cannot rely wholly on intuitive certainty and intuitive doubt. On the other hand to always reject intuitive certainty will undermine the educand's trust in the educator. The educator will then have to be over inquisitive and the educand will feel that the educator does not trust him. What does the educator need to understand and know within the pedagogic situation?

(a) Essential nature of Man

He needs to understand the essential nature of man. This does not mean that he has to have a doctor's degree in philosophy or education or that his mental potential must be far above average. Knowledge and understanding of man rests on common sense. This common sense is the outcome of a well-balanced education and usually operates on the intuitive level (Nel & Urbani, 1990 : 12).

(b) Cultural society

He needs to have knowledge and understanding of the cultural society in which he lives and in which he educates his children. Education means, inter alia, to lead a child into a cultural society. You lead him to discover facts, principles, norms, values and customs which to some extent differ from culture to culture and even from different social groups within the same culture (Luthuli 1982 ; Cemane 1987). Modern technology has made possible a relatively easy movement of individuals between societies within cultures and between different cultures. It is problematic for anyone to ever understand the intricate, often very sensitive and sacred aspects of alien societies or cultures. Unsympathetic actions from outsiders can easily result (and have done so in the past) in violent reactions from individuals and often from nations as a whole. This is, however, not an insurmountable obstacle. There are numerous instances of blacks, born into very poor families, belonging to archaic culture areas who are nevertheless educated by their parents to become highly successful people within modern societies. The parents neither know nor understand modern societies but have an intuitive understanding of the essential characteristics of man. They obviously do not try to force their children into a mould created by dogma. An

adult emanating from such a mould would only be successful within a society which operated according to the rules of that specific dogma.

Once the essential characteristics of man have been actualised in the life of an educand, he will be able to orientate himself within any group where the characteristics are accepted as fundamental structures upon which society rests.

(c) Functioning of a school

It is of great value if parents have knowledge of and understand their children as school children. This is often very difficult especially in rural black societies where many parents have never been to school and may tend to base their interpretation of the function of the school on traditional life and world views (Nel & Urbani, 1990 : 13 ; Luthuli, 1982).

This places additional responsibilities on teachers. Schools, even schools in the most remote rural areas, are centres representing modern scientific-technological society within the special cultural society which they serve. It is the task of the school to lead its pupils into modern society

without separating them from their families. Teachers must not only understand the families of their pupils but they must actively endeavour to bring the school to the families (figuratively speaking). They must help the parents to understand their children as school children.

(2) Pedagogic trust

The key to the understanding of trust is faith. One can only trust a person if one has complete faith in him. Faith always appears within a relationship. Faith is lasting, firm and consistent. It embodies the sensible, the valuable and the truth for the one who has faith. It is dynamic and a fulfilment of the demands emanating from what the person who has faith sees as "good order". Faith forms the foundation for trust. It ensures security, consistency and safety to the person who trusts (Stoker, 1967).

According to Nel & Urbani (1990) the education situation as situation of encounter in which dialogue (conversation) occurs between educator and educand, is concerned partly with the present but especially with the future, when the educand (non-adult) will progressively live like an adult as a mature, morally-independent being.

Whatever the educator and the educand accomplish during their pedagogic encounter, it is certain, that the events are aimed at a future about which the educand is still uncertain. He searches for certainty. His human form of existence is a venturing out to the future. As this is inevitable he has to rely on the support of the adult to do so. Since his future actually represents a greater existential venturing than in the present, he searches for or is in need of someone whom he can trust and in this way gain a foothold on life, today, tomorrow and in the days to follow. "Hy wil hom daarvan vergewis dat die lewe (met sy opvoeder) sinvol is, en dat sy deelname aan lewe en werklikheid nie sonder betekenis is nie. Hy hunker na veiligheid en vastigheid, en wanneer hy dit eers het, belewe hy gemoedsrus" (Oberholzer, 1968 : 187).

The educand experience confidence in the education situation not only when he realizes that the educator offers him assistance on his way towards adulthood, but especially when he fully accepts the educator as person in his extreme need, helplessness and weakness. The educator should accept the educand as person with human dignity, and should have special regard for this dignity. This implies that the educand has to be accepted not only as he is, but also as he plans to become " wil, moet en behoort te word" (wants to, must and

ought to become) (Landman & Gouws, 1969 : 5).

Confidence should also stem from the educator. His conduct and his convictions, his genuineness and his pedagogic love should provide the child with evidence of his faith in the non-adult. If need be he could say to the child: "I know that you will satisfy my requirements (of decency)"; "I know that you can and will become a responsible adult like I am."

The educator could even go further. In his conversation he could hint, with a view to encouraging dialogue. "Om in werklike liefdevolle dialogiese ontmoeting met the medemens te tree, beteken dus om op sy roep daar te wees, hom aan te hoor, maar ook om antwoord te gee" (Oberholzer, 1977 : 79).

The fact of being an educator implies the acceptance of the non-adults dependence and need as co-subject in the education situation. This acceptance implies regard for the form of existence of the child, and for his form of existence as an adult. The assumption is also implicit that the educator will respond to the entreaties and appeals of the child, placing himself, as it were, in the child's situation, and in this way effecting such close contact that he is able to listen to the child's conversation and, in this intimacy,

gain some idea of the child's needs and desires. With this knowledge the educator would be in a position to judge the child's capabilities and would therefore know what to expect of the child, since the child's interests and needs have now become the educator's by transference.

Reference was made to pedagogic (educative) love, or agape Oberholzer (1977) calls it. Agape (noun) and its verb agapan imply a direct volitional decision to love the other as you, as person ("... en die werkwoord agapan (dui) op 'n direkte wilsbeslissing om die ander as jy, as persoon lief te hê " (Oberholzer, 1977 : 105). And further: "Die agape-liefde kies en onderskei nie op grond van wat die hefhebbende in die ander vind ten einde dit in besit te neem nie, maar soek slegs die geliefde se belange" (Oberholzer, 1977 : 106). (Love-agape does not choose and distinguish on the basis of what the person who loves finds in the other with a view to possessing it but seeks only the loved one's benefit.) Agape is therefore a condition of possibility for genuine encounter, "want wie nie vertrouend waag om hom onvoorwaardelik aan die ander te gee nie, verwerklik nie sy persoonwees nie" (Oberholzer, 1977 : 107). (Since he who does not venture to give himself unconditionally to the other, does not actualize his humanity.) Agape aims toward

the supreme good of the dependent co-subject, even while reprimanding him with a view to protecting his dignity precisely because sympathy or compassion is felt when punishment is deemed essential. This reproof as punishment for the purpose of retaining dignity, does not stem from pride or "superiority"; the aim is to grant him the courage to risk the future with his educator, since the latter's role is that of a sympathetic promoter of interests and preserver of dignity in his being a conversation companion. On the other hand, agape wishes to lead the addressee as non-adult towards voluntarily surrendering to the love of his confidant as adult. "Daarom het die geliefde ook die reg om hulp en steun van die liefhebbende te vra" (Oberholzer, 1977 : 108). There are those who may regard agape (pedagogic love) as an enslaving factor for the educand, but Oberholzer draws attention to precisely the opposite, namely, that the "pedagogiese liefde... die kind dus nie (bind) aan die volwassene nie, maar beoog juis die kind se vrywording van die gesag van die volwassene sodat die kind hom kan bind aan sy opgawe om sodoende sy menswees as persoonwees tot vergestaltung te bring" (Oberholzer, 1977 : 113).

(3) Pedagogic authority

It is evident that more than a particular attitude towards the child is demanded of the educator. His work demands the

taking of a definite stand, not the mere playing of a role. According to Nel & Urbani (1990) the educator himself must obey the norms set by his task as human being and as educator. He accepts responsibility for the educand and occupies a position of authority: he decides for the educand while the latter is still incapable of bearing the responsibility of deciding for himself. To exercise authority is the privilege and duty of the educator; but his right to exercise authority is based on his own recognition of authority. If he regards the strict maintenance of norms as a burdensome task, he will not be able to encourage the child to acknowledge norms. If the educator does not achieve his task in a responsible manner proving that he knows what he is doing, he will not gain the trust of the educand and will therefore not have complied with the basic condition for the pedagogic relationship which constitutes the pedagogic situation.

2.3 DYSFUNCTION WITHIN THE PEDAGOGICAL RELATIONSHIP

As a person in the process of becoming or developing, the child is subject to constant change (Van Niekerk, 1984 : 4). He himself has an active part in bringing about this change by actualising his psychic life within an educational

setting. The child therefore at any given moments finds himself to be at a specific level of development, which can be qualified as being the pedagogically attained level. The immediate objective is always to have this level coincide with the child's pedagogically attainable level. This means that the child should be supported in such a way that he will give proof within the context of his daily life of increasing responsibility, identification with norms, freedom, etc., according to his own talents.

A child is constantly ascribing his personal meanings to these relationships with his parents and teachers and is emotionally vulnerable in this respect (Van Niekerk, 1982 : 8). The adult should, therefore, take special care in the course of his educative acts that the child will consciously know that he is able to learn and to achieve, and that his personal worth is genuinely recognised. If this is not accomplished, the educational relationship is dysfunctional and this invariably has a negative influence on the child's progress towards adulthood, i.e. his development.

2.3.1 Inadequate participation by adult and child

Van Niekerk (1984 : 9) expresses the opinion that educational distress occurs where the quality of the education offered

is intrinsically bad. The participation of both parties is insufficient in that the essential meaning of education is not fulfilled, because the child is not involved in a intimate relationship with an educator who focuses on adulthood.

The inability of parents to help the child when matters have deteriorated this far, and the inability of the child to request this assistance of his parents, according to Lubbers (1971 :24-47) are most often the result of poor bonding between the educators and educand. This state of affairs may readily give rise to educational distress.

Lubbers (1971) is of the opinion that the child is exposed to many dangers if he does not feel safe with his educators and if they cannot deliver him from a state of helplessness. This has an adverse effect on the child's development, especially because the meanings which he attaches to reality and also his behaviour become indecipherable to his educators. This obscures his own view of his future.

According to Van Niekerk (1984 : 9) a distressful educational situation gives rise to experiences fraught with unfavourable meanings for the child, e.g. feelings of extreme and uncalled anxiety, loneliness, insecurity, helplessness and uncertainty

The child's level of development in this situation does not coincide with his attainable level. Guidance towards the actualisation of his psychic life within the educational situation is then inadequate (Van Niekerk, 1984 : 10). A dysfunction in the dynamics of upbringing is therefore clearly brought about by both the child's inadequate actualising of his psychic life, and the educator's inadequate support of him.

Dysfunctional education thus implies that the participation of both the adult and child in the educational setting is inadequate.

2.3.2 Underachievement of developmental potential

Vliegenhart (1970), Van Niekerk (1984), Lubbers (1971), Ter Horst (1973), Janse van Rensburg (1991) all mention that a distressful educational situation acts as an obstacle for the child on his way to adulthood because of the retarding effect it has on the development of the child. Dysfunctional education therefore per se implies that the child will suffer an impediment with regard to his development.

Seen pedagogically, the child under-actualises his psychic life. This directly pertains to the modes of his exploring, emancipating, distanciating, objectivating and

differentiating, which are in the same event inadequately actualised in terms of the pedagogical norm (Van Niekerk, 1984 : 11). He is indeed in this way obstructed in his progress towards adulthood. The child consequently does not develop as he ought to be. Neither does he learn according to his learning abilities.

2.3.3 The accountability of the adult

Although both the adult and the child are to be held responsible for the success of the child's education, the adult is the one who should mainly be called to account for any dysfunction in the dynamics of the upbringing (Van Niekerk, 1984 : 11). When the adult, who is the more responsible person, does not take care that the conditions for adequate education are met, the child is usually affectively, intellectually and morally neglected. It is not suggested that this neglect is always intentional. It may happen that the adult's appeal to the child is not sufficiently clear and unambiguous, and is consequently misunderstood. This example does imply that the pedagogic relationship of understanding is not being adequately constituted. If any of the pedagogic relationships of trust,

differentiating, which are in the same event inadequately actualised in terms of the pedagogical norm (Van Niekerk, 1984 : 11). He is indeed in this way obstructed in his progress towards adulthood. The child consequently does not develop as he ought to be. Neither does he learn according to his learning abilities.

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understanding and authority is absent from the pedagogic situation, a dysfunction in the dynamics of the education situation will result . The streetchild thus finds himself in this situation of dysfunctional education.

Without sufficient participation of an adult in the dynamics of the education situation, the essential meaning of education is not fulfilled because the streetchild is not involved in an intimate relationship with an educator (parent) who focuses on the child's adulthood. When an educator and a child communicate inadequately all the acts of upbringing itself are necessarily performed inadequately (Van Niekerk, 1984 : 9). The pedagogically inadequate actualisation of the child's psychic life is the inevitable result.

2.3.4 Reasons for inadequate education

Ter Horst (1973) mentions the following categories that might contribute to confusion and perplexity in the child, in respect of his educational situatedness: anti-authoritative education, poverty, licence, poor housing, deprivation (whenever parents are absent), setting too high or too low a standard, hunger, inconsistency, indoctrination, lack of love, overtaxing, underestimation, disorderliness, authoritarian education, illness, permissiveness, exaggerated ambition and a disregard of challenges.

Sonnekus (1976 : 124-129) also refers to matters such as the physical care of the child (including his diet, health and hygiene); social well-being (also implying that the child should be properly housed, have enough friends, be allowed to take part in recreational activities and have adequate relationships with adults); affective neglect which could occur in various ways, e.g. by too much or too little petting or lack of togetherness; inconsistent educational attitudes of the parents which signify an incoherent and disjointed approach to the child, confusing him and causing feelings of insecurity; marital problems where tensions exist between the parents; and broken marriages, where the child may feel that he has been rejected or neglected by one or both parents.

2.3.5 Specific educational errors which causes distress

The following factors are specific educational errors which causes educational distress. They will be fully discussed in Chapter 3 which deals with the life-world of the streetchild.

(1) Lack of security

If a child is not offered a guarantee of security by his educators, he is exposed to danger and no longer exists in close bond with the adults with whom he should have been

allied by the shared goal of his own adulthood.

(2) Obscured future perspective

If the future is obscured in the child's view, there is little to look forward to or to expect and there are no plans or tasks, however small, waiting to be fulfilled.

(3) Affective or emotional neglect

A lack of mutual trust, understanding and sympathetic authoritative guidance always implies that the child will suffer neglect in respect of not only his affective, but also his intellectual and moral development. He will consequently explore the educational contents inadequately, so that the educational encounter is likewise inadequately pre-formed by his pre-cognitive (intuitive) reconnaissance.

(4) Rejection of the child

When an educator does not spontaneously accept, but in fact rejects a child, the latter immediately feels that he is not being accepted and is thought of as unwelcome. He then experiences insecurity and anxiety.

(5) Over-protectiveness

The over-protected child is not sufficiently exposed to activities that are a threat to his security. The over-

protected child therefore fails to discover what it means to also cope with feelings of reluctance and to exert himself.

(6) Unfavourable comparisons

Every time a child's efforts to prove or assert himself are negatively compared with those of another child by the educator, emphasis is actually laid on the fact that he is less than the other.

(7) The inadequate exercise of authority

When a child is confronted with too many commands and/or demands, when too much is expected of him he regards most of these restrictions to be devoid of meaning, the great number of impressions alone could give rise to uncertainty within him (Kotze, 1972 : 55).

(8) Disregarding the child as a unique person

Affective liability accompanies any unfavourable lived-experience, in the sense that the child comes to regard himself, his parents, teachers, the school, his friends and even his lessons with anxiety.

2.4 THE PSYCHIC LIFE OF A CHILD-IN-EDUCATION

It should be clear by now that Psychopedagogic categories and essences are so intertwined with Fundamental - and Didactical Pedagogic categories and essences that we can never separate them. The psychic life of a human being shows a categorial structure. The categories and essences of the psychic life of a human are anthropological categories. It is only when they are placed within the context of the pedagogic situation that they acquire psychopedagogic status.

The psychic life of a person is composed of three discernible but inseparable inter-related structures: feeling, cognition and action (orientation) (Nel & Urbani, 1990 : 21). Let us now have a look at these interrelated structures that compose the psychic life of a person.

2.4.1 Feeling

Heller (1979 : 7) maintains that to feel, means to be involved in something. Plessner (1941 : 147) formulated it as follows: " Feeling is essentially the relation of myself to something." Feeling is thus the inherent constructive factor in acting, thinking, perceiving, etc. and may be regarded as a fundamental characteristic of intentionality.

Feelings are characterised by :

(1) Drive feelings

In their pure form drive feelings are sensations. They are not directed at objects, events or persons outside a person. Examples include hunger, thirst, feeling ill, feeling fresh and the sex drive. Drive feelings hardly ever appear in their pure form eg. the sex drive becomes an affect when a desire develops for a specific person.

(2) Affects (Evaluative or accompanying feelings)

Affect refers both to a disposition and to a (psychic - spiritual) force to act. This disposition is not a passive one but one that aims at "affecting" reality in the sense of making things happen i.e. at changing situations. Affects form the basis of orientating (action). Thus the affects have their origin in concern in people because they inform a person of his relationship with objects, events, people and ideas which form part of his surrounding world. In this sense an affect always has an evaluative dimension. To understand the affect we must also understand both values and evaluative feelings.

(a) Values

Rokeach (1973 : 5) defines values as follows: " A value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state

of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse code of conduct or end-state of existence. A value system is an enduring organisation of beliefs concerning preferable modes of conduct or end-states of existence along a continuum of relative importance."

According to Dreyer (1980 : 104 - 119) a pupil or student usually carries the beliefs and value system of the parents into the school or any new environment outside the home. Oberholzer (1968 : 190) noted that each person's value system reflects his beliefs and these beliefs need not rest on proven facts. In this regard beliefs and value experiences which result from man's adherence thereto are of the utmost importance to each person.

In a learning environment, outside the home, the child is often faced with reality where cultural beliefs are replaced with brute facts. In this regard it is important to note that cognition, feeling, emotion, orientation and motivation are easily separated by abstraction, but not a single one of these can function independently of the other.

If we now turn our attention to affectivity, we follow briefly Garber's classification of the evaluative or

accompanying feelings (the affects) (Nel, Sonnekus & Garbers, 1965 :344-346) :

(b) The affects (Evaluative or accompanying feelings)

(i) Physical or sensory feelings

These feelings are closely related to sense - impressions and are con-committant with smell, taste and touch. Sensory feelings acquire broader existential meaning as a person becomes older.

(ii) Social feelings

These are feelings which give content to relationships between persons such as sympathy, love, compassion, egoism, jealousy and hate. Feelings are to a large extent rooted in cultural norms.

(iii) Intellectual feelings

Heller (1979 : 115) maintains; "...there is no knowledge without feeling, there is no action without feeling, there is no perception without feeling - but all our feelings as "feelings" either include the factor of cognition, goals and situations and only become relevant as feeling through interaction with these."

Intellectual feelings are thus feelings experienced when something is comprehended.

(iv) Aesthetic feelings

These are feelings experienced during creative action e.g. drawing, painting, acting, playing a musical instrument and dancing. Aesthetic appreciation of the arts and nature also falls under this group.

Aesthetic feelings are more susceptible to temporary influences than any of the other group of feelings.

(v) Ethical or moral feelings

These feelings are aroused when something is experienced as good or bad and include feelings of guilt, remorse and obligation. According to Nel (1988 : 38) even these feelings can be culturally determined.

(vi) Religious feelings

According to Van Wyk (1979 : 120 - 121) these feelings are most profound feelings affecting the core of human existence. These feelings accompany the relationship of man with God the sublime, with all-connectedness, with the meaningfulness or meaninglessness of existence. Examples are admiration, awe, humility, respect, trust, desolation, dependence, smallness, security and responsibility.

(3) Emotions

Thatcher (1971 : 285) sees emotion as one of the three fundamental properties of the mind, the other two being volition and intellect. He describes it further as ; " A moving of the mind or soul; a state of excited feeling of any kind, as pleasure, pain, grief , joy and astonishment." Garbers goes on to conclude that emotions are aroused because man experiences his world symbolically, his attention have meaning to him.

In line with the above Buitendijk (Nel, Sonnekus & Garbers, 1985 : 350) defines emotion to be seen as a reaction from an object, event or person which has symbolic meaning e.g. a snake frightens you because it symbolises death. This in turn implies that an emotional experience involves man in his totality, he is completely himself, experiences emotions in a unique way and is a victim of his emotions. Emotions do have biological consequences e.g. faster heart beat, secretion of adrenalin etc. but emotions have no biological basis whatever.

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Heller (1979) sees emotions as being partly feeling occurrences and partly feeling dispositions. Emotions that may be considered as feeling occurrences are e.g. being

moved, devotion, etc. whereas feeling dispositions are those emotions that are usually described by the term "desire" or "love" e.g. jealousy and hate. It must be added that there are a considerable number of emotions that cannot be clearly identified as either feeling occurrences or as feeling dispositions.

(4) Moods

A mood is a feeling disposition which lasts for a relatively long time and may be positive or negative. To a large extent it predisposes a person's involvement in situations. Moods may have causes such as illness or rejection or can appear without any apparent reason. Some persons can thus be more moody than others.

(5) Life feeling (Afrikaans = Gemoed. German = Lebensgefühl).

Every person has a basic affective orientation toward life which is more permanent in nature than moods. This "basic life-feeling" forms an integral part of a person's character. This basic life-feeling may originate from genetic factors to some degree (Urbani, 1982). The development of a basic life-feeling is rooted in the nature of the child's experiences, especially from birth to about 6 years of age. It is thus

the outcome of education or the lack of education. A negative basic life-feeling can be changed through orthopedagogic intervention (Van Niekerk, 1984 : 36 -49).

2.4.2 Cognition

According to Nel & Urbani (1990 : 40), the cognitive dimension can be divided into categories which are mostly referred to as intentionalities such as perceiving; memorising; imagining and thinking. We find , however, a precognitive dimension or foundation on which all intentionalities rest, namely sensing. Sensing as a foundation must be stable in order for the child to learn. It thus become important to have a closer look at sensing. However, it must be emphasised that feeling is more fundamental to experiencing than sensing. If the feelings are disturbed then sensing will also be disturbed. At the same time, other factors apart from feelings, may also disturb sensing.

(1) Sensing and perceiving

(a) Sensing

Sensing must not be confused with sensations. Strauss (1963) said in this regard that the phenomenon of sensing is much more complicated than the mere registration of sensory impressions on the brain. Strauss (1963) describes sensing

as the immediate communication between a subject and his world, as a mode of experiencing on the precognitive level. Sensing is thus concerned with now and here because a person senses what he experiences momentarily, "now and here", and grasps its meaning immediately. Each moment of sensing is therefore unique and can never be repeated. It is not knowing but a direct communication with the world and therefore more like grasping impressions, which is not the same as knowing. Knowing implies seizing the world whereas sensing refers to the establishment of a communion with the world, a communion which seizes us, holds us, confines and changes us.

Sensing is not a process inside a person but a mode of communication and is an experience of being unified with the world. In sensing I experience reality as it appears to me personally and to no one else (Nel & Urbani, 1990 : 42)
Sensing as grasping is the preliminary " knowing" which is a prerequisite for the subsequent knowing on the cognitive level.

(b) Perceiving

Perceiving is closely inter-related with sensing, moving, memorising and thinking and it would be wrong to analyse it independently. The following view of Piaget and Inhelder

(1969 : 49) on concept formation will serve to illustrate the inter-relatedness between, for instance, moving, perceiving and thinking: " Generally speaking it is impossible to maintain that concepts of intelligent thought are simply derived from the perceptions through abstraction and generalisation. In addition to perceptual data, concepts incorporate specific constructions of a more or less complex nature. Logico-mathematical concepts presuppose a set of operations that are abstracted not from the objects perceived but from the actions performed on these objects, which is by no means the same."

Perceiving as a mode of experiencing is available to the child from the moment of birth. Perceiving is, however, subject to change which shows two dimensions, namely physical growth and refinement gained through experiences. Perceiving cannot be equated to experiencing - it is but an essential characteristic, a dimension of experiencing.

The object of study of psychopedagogics is thus not perception, but perceiving as a mode of experiencing. Although perceiving is an anthropological category it is within the pedagogic situation that perceiving becomes a psychopedagogic category. This does not imply that the

essential characteristics of perceiving change within the pedagogic situation, because, perceiving remains the first, immediate communication with the world. It is the foundation on which more complex and complicated experiences are built.

Nel & Urbani (1990 : 54) contend that experience culminates in orientation. To be orientated means to understand. This means that even the most basic mode of experiencing, namely perceiving, should lead to a structuring into an orderly scheme or pattern which will enable the person to understand. Only then will perceiving have existential meaning.

Perceiving also shows a close relationship to affectivity. Solly (Kidd & Rivoire, 1964) maintains that the affective system and the perceptual system do not exist as different systems in the infant. In the course of the child becoming, affectivity and perceiving begin to function more and more independently. This implies that affectivity does not destroy the basic laws of perception. Affectivity does have an influence on what is perceived but does not alter the fundamental ways in which a person perceives. A well differentiated and refined affectivity will thus assist differentiated perceiving on the cognitive level. No person can ever be affectively uninvolved in what he perceives. The extent and nature of involvement is determined by the measure

of cognitive control over the affectivity.

(2) Motoric or human movement

Strictly speaking human movement is not a psychopedagogic category. Movement is, however, of such importance for the unfolding of the psychic life of a child that psychopedagogics must give more attention to it. Strauss (1963) states that sensing as such is bound to vital living movement eg. dance. Dance illustrates the unity of sensing and movement. Movement thus has a place in experiencing and therefore also in learning.

With reference to the sensori - motor stage of development (the first 18 months of a child's life), Piaget and Inhelder (1969) use the term sensori - motor intelligence. The sensori - motor intelligence succeeds, according to their view, in solving numerous problems of action (such as reaching distant or hidden objects) by constructing a complex system of action schemes and organising reality in terms of spatio-temporal and casual structures. They further maintain that during this period, a child constructs all the cognitive sub-structures that will serve as a point of departure for his later perceptive and intellectual development, as well as a certain number of elementary affective reactions that will partly

determine his subsequent affectivity. They specifically emphasise that intelligence proceeds from action as a whole, that it transfers objects and reality, and that knowledge, whose formation can be traced in the child, is essentially an active and operatory assimilation. The term 'action' as used by Piaget and Inhelder (1969) implies more than mere movement, but movement constitutes a very important dimension of 'action' (action implies orientation). Only when the child reaches the stage of formal operations does reflective thinking start to play a more important role in his life than physical action. (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969 : 47)

It is not only in the case of children that movement is important. Nel & Urbani (1990 : 49) contend that perceiving, acting and expressing are the three most important characteristics of a person's relations with everything that he is confronted with. According to Buitendijk (1966) movements are hardly ever learnt for the sake of movement itself. Human movement always has an existential meaning. Each movement is inter-related to the entire network of relationships which exist between a person and his world. Buitendijk (1966) notes that human movement is not the sum total of separate movements but a dynamic unity or gestalt which is in essence an expression of a relationship and which

transcends the partial connections of physical processes.

This implies that human movements are to a greater or lesser degree qualified by a psychic-spiritual dimension.

Views on human movement may be summarised under the following headings (Nel & Urbani, 1990 : 51 - 52) :

(a) Moving

During early childhood years moving is the most important way of exploring, thus also of learning.

(b) Automatisms

All human movement must be learnt and become automatisms. Only when a movement has become part of the precognitive dimension of experiencing will it support experiencing.

(c) Dynamic unity

Human movement must form a dynamic unity or Gestalt and not the sum total of separate movements. This Gestalt is in essence an expression of a person's total relationship within a situation. The nature of each human movement is determined by a goal which reflects the existential meaning of the present situation.

(d) Individual differences

The aptitude or talent for movement which reflects individual differences is determined by:

- the physical processes necessary to perform movement; and
- a psychic-spiritual dimension e.g. an ear for music or feeling for spatio-temporal relationships when performing delicate manual work.

(3) Memory

Since the basic assumption of psychopedagogics is that experiencing is an act, in the case of memory the question of whether we are dealing with an act of a person or something within a person becomes more problematic. Sonnekus & Ferreira (1979 : 126-129) use the term memorising which they classify as a cognitive mode of learning. Memory thus refers to one aspect of cognitive functioning. According to Piaget and Inhelder (1969 : 124) memory is a form of actualisation involving the conservation of the entire past or at least of everything in a subject's past that serves to inform his present action or understanding. The psychic life of a child is a unity of which memory is only an essential characteristic or a mode of actualising the psychic life. Nel & Urbani (1990 : 76) support this view and state that memory is closely interwoven not only with the cognitive modes of experiencing, but also with the precognitive ones

and with affectivity. Memory is often equated with learning. Even the learning of skills is regarded as a form of memorising. Memorising or remembering is not learning but it does fulfil an all important supporting role in learning. Memory is not learning and the learning of even the most abstract ideas is not memorising. Even the most abstract ideas must, however, be mastered to the level of automatisms and committed to memory for easy access when needed. Memory supports learning and conserves the outcomes of learning (Vrey, 1984 : 261-274).

The idea that knowledge and skills are organised in action structures (schemas) is extremely important within the learning situation (Van Parreren, 1962). Memory has been described as a mode of actualising the psychic life. This implies that memory is not only reproductive but also productive in nature.

Explore and emancipate do not disappear when a person remembers. More often than not a person remembers because he wants to understand his present situation in order to be able to act and to solve problems, in other words to reconstitute his situation. A child wants to understand the meaning of a specific situation for his emancipation and while

remembering to constitute his inner life-world.

Memory on the gnostic level is the most common form of memory actualisation (Nel & Urbani, 1990 :82). It is on the gnostic level that the close connectedness between memory and affectivity is best observed. Personal interests, beliefs, and wishes have a profound influence on what we perceive, and consequently on what we remember and what we forget.

Nel & Urbani (1990 : 83 - 85) clearly indicate the relation between memory and the other modes of experiencing. These relations can be summarised as follows:

- Perceiving and sensing.

A person perceives selectively. Memory is one important factor which determines what a person perceives. At the same time recognition of objects, persons and previous experiences indicates that memory also function on the precognitive level which indicates an connectedness between memory and sensing.

- Imagining.

Images are not always true imitations of reality. Imaging relies on memory in that during the learning situation memory is employed to establish the familiar aspects of

that which is to be learnt. Images can be created in efforts to establish sensible links between aspects which ostensibly need to be linked in order to reflect a sensible unit.

From the above brief explanation it should be clear that it is impossible to study memory in isolation from, for instance, sensing, perceiving, imagining, thinking, etc.

(4) Thinking

Thinking is an act of solving problems. There is, however, no general consensus on how a person goes about solving a problem (Vrey, 1979 : 24). The following definition by Wertheimer (1959 : 235) represents the views of Gestalt Psychology and is generally acceptable to psychopedagogics.

Thinking consists of envisaging, realising structural features and structural requirements; proceeding in accordance with, and determined by these requirements; thereby changing the situation in the direction of structural improvements, which involves:

- that gaps, trouble-regions disturbances superficialities, etc., be viewed and dealt with

structurally;

- that inner structural relations - fitting or not fitting - be sought among such disturbances and the given situation as a whole and among its various parts;
- that there be operations of structural grouping and segregation, of centring, etc.;
- realizing structural transposability, structural hierarchy and separating structural peripheral from fundamental features - a special case of grouping and;
- looking for structural rather than piece-meal truth.

(a) Thinking in progress

(i) Becoming aware of the problem

The essential characteristic which best serves to clarify the becoming aware of a problem are:

- Wonder is a subjective experience of the difference between what one understands and what one observes as reality; and
- wonder has two dimensions, namely gnostic and pathic. The gnostic dimension refers to the fact that one does not know enough about a thing that there is something strange about it. The pathic refers to

- the feeling that one is able to know and;
- is able to conquer the unknown.

In real life situations thinking thus originates in wonder.

(ii) Personal orientation with regard to the problem

During this stage the pupil determines his own position with regard to the problem situation. This involves different aspects:

a) The emancipatory feelings.

Does the child consider it worthwhile to spend the time and energy on solving the problem? Will solving the problem have any meaning for his emancipation? Any problem is regarded as a challenge. Their intellectual feelings are actualised to a high level. A child's affective disposition towards a subject or category of events will influence his decision on whether to give more attention thereto. Vygotsky (1962: 150) writes in this respect as follows: "Thought itself is engendered by motivation, by our desires and needs, our interests and emotions. Behind every thought there is an effective-volitional tendency, which holds the answer to the last "why" in the analysis of thinking". From a psychopedagogic point of view the demand is that a child must be actively involved otherwise he will not even start thinking about a problem.

b) Facts about the situation

A child with the necessary background knowledge will be able to relate the problem-setting proposition (situation) to his own cognitive structure and thus understand the nature of the problem confronting him. Once a child understands the nature of a problem he will also understand when the problem will be solved. His problem is then how to change the situation or problem-setting proposition to achieve his goal - the solution to the problem. Experiences in solving problems enhances a pupil's ability to understand the nature of problems. Research has shown that although the solution to many difficult problems appears suddenly, in a flash, it is usually preceded by thorough thinking which may proceed for hours or even months (Nel & Urbani, 1990 : 86).

(5) Imagining

It is necessary to distinguish between imaging and imagining to fully understand the meaning of imagining as a mode of experiencing within the learning situation. Imaging refer to the mental act of calling forth and holding on to an image of a person, a thing, an event, etc. Imagining refers to a sequence or a composition consisting of images, ideas, memories, etc. which eventually should form a composite whole, i.e. a story or painting.

Imagination is more than a sequence of images (e.g. a story) or more than an organization of images (e.g. a painting). Imagining is consequently more than imaging. Sonnekus (1974) describes imagining as an intentional act of constituting a world, but a world of unreality or, at the most, a world as "reality in distance".

Imagining is the act of constituting an imaginative world. Imaging is the act of calling forth and holding onto an image. The image is a unique phenomenon with its own unique characteristics. In constituting an imaginary world one employs perceiving, imaging, remembering and thinking. Some of the characteristics of the image are, however, also applicable to the imaginary world. Imagining plays a different role within the learning situation than imaging.

(a) A classification of modes of imagining

(i) Reproductive imagining

This encompasses mainly a recalling of past events or experiences, but it also encompasses a re-organisation of the past to fulfill present needs. (It is, in other words, more than remembering). This may occur when a child tries to flee from situations which are too problematic for him to solve.

(ii) Anticipatory imagining

When a person plans for the future anticipatory imagining plays an important role. Planning for the future basically means creating an imaginary future. The successful planner bases his plans on past experiences and present circumstances. There is, in other words, no basic difference between reproductive and anticipatory imagining. Reproductive imagining is an effort to escape from a problematic present. Anticipatory imagining is directed at intercepting possible problems with a view to having a repertoire of solutions ready.

(iii) Creative imagining

In creative imagining the creation of an imaginary work is the sole purpose of the imagining act. A few examples are: works of literature; handbooks; paintings; pieces of sculpture; designs in technology; architectural designs; engineering designs; models used in a lesson; etc. There are, however, no programmes or tricks available which a teacher can employ to help a child to actualise his imagining potential.

2.4.3 Orientating (action)

Experiencing culminates in orientation. Put in other way;

experiencing is an act of orientating oneself. To orientate oneself means to determine ones own position in relation to that with which one is confronted. One determines the nature of one's relationship with the situation as a Gestalt, but also with the constituent parts of the situation. Emancipate and explore are the two most fundamental forces underlying experiencing. Orientating also reflects a dynamic dimension. Orientating also implies to determine what opportunities are available for further exploring and emancipating. It implies a determination of present boundaries, in other words, of what we know, are in control of, and what we are uncertain about. The uncertainties are the fields for exploration. The uncertainties are there to conquer, to get control over in order to integrate them into one's own subjective life-world. Orientating also means to create a safe, personal world for oneself (Nel & Urbani, 1990 : 99).

There are qualitative differences between different orientations. An experience may "short circuit" from, say sensing-perceiving, or from imaging or memory direct to orientating. An authentic experience also involves thinking but this does not always happen. According to Joubert (1978?) a child must gain a thorough knowledge of his actualisable potentialities. Joubert (1978?) discusses six

essential characteristics of orientating. They are:

(1) Exploring

According to Joubert (1978?) exploring implies a study of those aspects of reality which are relatively unknown to the child. He explores those aspects of reality which reflect both known and unknown characteristics. From our discussion of sensing it is clear that as long as a child wonders at aspects of reality and anticipates possible developments or discoveries he will explore. As a child grows older his emancipating becomes socially influenced. Objectives of emancipation become more refined and the will to overcome his helplessness becomes a will to succeed. Exploring becomes more formal and organised and less subjective to wonder and anticipate.

(2) Discovering

This refers to the actual discovering of essential characteristics of reality. Not all exploring culminates in the discovery of essential characteristics.

(3) Evaluating

Once essential characteristics of a certain section of reality have been discovered a child must determine what

value these characteristics have for him as regards his total situatedness, but also as regards his immediate directedness.

(4) Understanding

This refers to an understanding of the inter-relationship between the different essential characteristics of reality and also between the essential characteristics and his own abilities and actualisable potentialities.

(5) Acceptance

This refers to the child's acceptance of the opportunities which the essential characteristics of reality offer for actualising his own potentialities.

(6) Actualising

Once a pupil understand the essential characteristics of a situation he must act to actualise his potentialities in accordance with the opportunities which he has discovered.

(7) Criteria for the evaluation of the quality of orientation

(a) Differentiate

Differentiate has been used to describe the unfolding of the

affectivity. The affectivity of the small child is global and diffuse. As a child grows older "and gets educated" his affectivity gradually becomes differentiated into identifiable feelings which have been classified as sensory-physical, social, intellectual, aesthetic, ethic or moral, and religious. The feelings form the foundations for the entire intentionality of the child. Differentiation is also affected in respect of sensing-perceiving, motoric, imaging and imagining, memory and thinking. Van Parreren (1962) maintains that memory gets organised into schemas which in turn also affect sensing-perceiving. This is a form of differentiation. All situations are as complex as life itself. Differentiation alone will not assist the child in finding his way through the maze of relationships, values, feelings, convictions, knowledge, etc. His orientation must be more refined.

(b) Refinement

Differentiate implies the identification of a class while refine means to understand the finer constituents of a situation and the inter- relations between the different constituents. It refers to the understanding of the essential characteristics of the class. Sonnekus (1974) uses the term distantiate and not refinement. Sonnekus (1977)

uses the term to mean that a person must "place a distance" between his subjective personal world and the situation (object, event, person). It can also be seen as a separation of subject from object. As long as a subject remains involved in a situation we can at the utmost talk of differentiation and refinement.

(c) Objectify

To objectify means to be able to see and evaluate an object, event, person, etc. as it is, irrespective of whether I am subjectively involved or not (Nel & Urbani, 1990 : 27). I see a thing as it appears to everyone, stripped of the personal meaning it may have for me. This does not mean that I am not involved. If I am not involved the object does not form a constituent part of my situation. My involvement is characterised by differentiation, refinement and objectification.

2.5 SYNTHESIS

In order to study the educational distress of streetchildren from a psychopedagogic perspective it was important to give a detailed exposition of the pedagogical situation, dysfunction of the pedagogic situation and the psychic life of the child in education.

Although both the adult and the child are to be held

responsible for the success of the child's education, the adult is the one who should mainly be called to account for any dysfunction in the dynamics of the upbringing (Van Niekerk, 1982 : 11). When the adult, who is the more responsible person, does not take care that the conditions or adequate education are met, the child is usually affectively, intellectually and morally neglected. It is not suggested that this neglect is always intentional. It may for instance happen that the adult's appeal to the child is not sufficiently clear and unambiguous, and is consequently misunderstood. This example does, however, imply that the pedagogic relationship of understanding is not being adequately constituted. If any of the pedagogic relationships of trust, understanding and authority is absent from the pedagogic situation, it will result in a dysfunction in the dynamics of the education situation. The streetchild thus finds himself in this situation of dysfunctional education. Without sufficient participation of an adult in the dynamics of the education situation, the essential meaning of education is not fulfilled because the streetchild is not involved in an intimate relationship with an educator (parent) who focuses on the child's adulthood. When an educator and a child communicate inadequately all the acts of upbringing itself are necessarily performed inadequately (Van

Niekerk 1982 : 9). The pedagogically inadequate actualisation of the child's psychic life is the inevitable result.

Emancipate and explore are two of the most fundamental forces underlying experiencing. The streetchild's experiencing of reality does not allow him to determine what opportunities are available for his emancipation. The exploring and emancipation that the streetchild experiences always has a negative connotation. This results in the psychic life of the streetchild being pedagogically inadequately actualised. This directly pertains to the modes of his exploring, emancipating, distancing, objectification and differentiating, which are in the same event inadequately actualised in terms of the pedagogical norm. He is indeed obstructed in his progress towards adulthood. The rate of his becoming is slowed down and his progress is much slower than it ought to be; there is a developmental lag between the level which the streetchild has in fact attained and that what he should have been on according to his potential. In short, there is a discrepancy between what the child is and what he ought to be as a person. His actions of ascribing significance to matters, of exerting himself, venturing forth, hoping, planning, fulfilling his future, valuing, gaining insight, attaining

the freedom to be responsible and of accepting norms, are all of an insufficient quality.

Differentiate has been used to describe the unfolding of the affectivity. The affectivity of the small child is global and diffuse. As a child grows older "and gets educated" his affectivity gradually becomes differentiated into identifiable feelings which have been classified as sensory-physical, social, intellectual, aesthetic, ethic or moral, and religious. The feelings form the foundations for the entire intentionality of the child. The reality of these feelings is of utmost importance for relevant research regarding streetchildren as these feelings will also form the foundations of the entire intentionality of the streetchild. Concurrently with a differentiation of the affects, differentiation is also inadequately actualised by the streetchild in respect of sensing-perceiving, motoric, imaging and imagining, memory and thinking i.e. the streetchild does not learn according to his learning abilities. The streetchild is hampered in his will to actualise his potentials. Without the need to learn and a differentiation of the affects the cognitive aspects of the streetchild's becoming is not actualised.

According to Van Niekerk (1982 : 12) the absence of specific ethical and moral factors in the educational setting could also hamper the child's education. The lack of educational dialogue between an adult and the streetchild is one of the major factors that short-circuit the dynamics of the educational situation. According to Janse van Rensburg (1991 : 74) the point where the subjective interpretations of the adult and the streetchild intersect is insufficient and results in the progression of the streetchild being replaced by retrogression. The self-evident norms are passed over in silence and thus actually disregarded.

Experience culminates in orientation or is an act of orientating oneself. The streetchild finds himself in a unsecured street environment in which he has to orientate himself. To orientate himself the streetchild will have to determine his own position in relation to that which he is confronted with. The streetchild determines the nature of his relationship with his situation as a Gestalt, but also with the constituent parts of the situation. On the streets the streetchild continuously orientates himself in relation to the street situation as a whole, to himself, to the social worker, to his peers, to things/ideas and to

God. These relations identify his educational distress and therefore these relations will be scrutinized in the following chapter.

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CHAPTER 3**THE LIFE - WORLD OF STREETCHILDREN****3.1 INTRODUCTION**

Furlong cited Durkheim (1985 : 75) who first advanced the proposition that deviance (eg. the Streetchild phenomenon) was not necessarily irrational but that it could equally be seen as a rational response to particular social circumstances within the life-world of the child. This view necessarily shifts the search for the causes of the streetchild phenomenon from the streetchild to the life-world itself of the streetchild. This implies that the deviancy that exist is due to the streetchild's response to what he perceives regarding relationships formed within his life-world. The way in which the child deals with relationships formed within his life-world differs from child to child. The importance of these relationships is highlighted by Vrey (1979 : 21) who noted that the child must form relationships with his world because he needs to orientate, survive and mature within this world. Buitendijk (1966) characterizes this ontic phenomenon by saying that the child "initiates" relationships. By forming relationships, the child thus constitutes the life-world that forms his psychological space and reality to which he is orientated. Van Niekerk (1984 : 7) noted that through learning the child constantly raises

the level upon which he communicates with life and gives meaning to his world. In learning the child will also constantly form new relationships and improve the quality of existing relationships. Landman & Roos (1973 : 143-147) stated that the child in a dysfunctional educational situation (eg. the streetchild) under-actualizes his psychic life.

The streetchild indeed finds himself within a dysfunctional educational situation. His actions of ascribing significance to matters, i.e. the formation of meaningful relationships are of insufficient quality. This gives rise to inadequate actions of hoping, planning, gaining insight into himself, of never attaining the freedom to be responsible and thus also of disregarding accepted norms and values. This view is supported by Maree (1990 : 4) who notes that the ascribing of significance of insufficient quality is clearly evident in the life-world of the streetchild: "...the streetchild shows clear signs of being unloved and left alone, of poor self-esteem, of poor interpersonal trust as well as signs of anxiety and depression."

Due to this insufficient ascribing of significance the streetchild on the street finds himself in a situation

wherein no learning in a pedagogical sense takes place. The level upon which he communicates with life and gives meaning to his world is inadequate and insufficient. Because of the inadequate nature of existing relationships the streetchild cannot improve the quality of existing relationships or form new meaningful relationships within his life-world on the street. Because of this inability to establish a meaningful life-world there is a discrepancy between what the streetchild is and what he ought to be as a person.

3.2 EXPERIENCE AND LIFE-WORLD

3.2.1 Experience

The fact that people experience things is self-evident because experiencing and being conscious for all practical purposes are the same thing (Urbani 1982 : 36). All consciousness, all psychic life can be traced back to two basic forms, namely feelings and thoughts. These concepts are ways of expressing a common basic form, i.e. experience of reality (Urbani, 1982 : 9). In studying the experience of the streetchild we are involved specifically in looking for the state of this child's affective world of experience, his cognitive world of experience which cannot be separated from the affective) and how he gives meaning to this experience. In other words we are concerned here with the relation

between his affective and cognitive experiences or the stability, order and control in his cognitive and affective experiences (Sonnekus, 1985 : 60).

Experiencing things is a way of giving meaning to the world around us and this can be effected at three different levels (affective, cognitive, normative). In describing experience in the life-world of the streetchild the following is meant: Experiencing things is a way of expressing oneself through which something essential about one's life-world becomes manifest.

In other words without experiencing, one's life world cannot be built up, cannot be comprehended, cannot be contemplated at all. It is through the child's numerous experiences of reality (world of experience) that his own unique life-world comes into being (Pretorius, 1972 : 11) . A study of the streetchild's world of experience implies learning about what he experiences and how he experiences his world and the meaning that he attaches to it.

While it is evident therefore that there is no more significant concept on the basis of which one can give complete expression to man's total involvement in the world

than experience, the following statement by Urbani (1982 : 34) is most applicable as far as an understanding of a streetchild's experience is concerned: "Who wants to become acquainted with man should listen to the language spoken by the things in his existence. Who wants to describe man should make an analysis of the landscape within which he demonstrates, explains and reveals himself".

Since man is essentially a being related to other beings it stands to reason that one can only understand his experience by studying him in his relationship with himself, others, the things around him and God.

It is important to bear in mind that all of man's experiences and therefore also those of the streetchild take place within relationships. A distinction should be made between the following:

- experience of the streetchild that takes place within his relationship to himself;
- experiences within his relationships with others;
- experiences within his relationships with things; and
- experiences within his relationship with God.

Experience culminates in orientation or is an act of

orientating oneself. The streetchild finds himself in an unsecured street environment in which he has to orientate himself. To orientate himself the streetchild will have to determine his own position in relation to that with which he is confronted with. The streetchild determines the nature of his relationship with his situation as a Gestalt, but also with the constituent parts of the situation. On the streets the streetchild continuously orientates himself in relation to the street situation as a whole, to himself, to the social worker, to his peers, to things/ideas and to God. It is therefore important to have a closer look at these relationships of the streetchild that are found within his life-world.

3.2.2 The life-world of the streetchild

The case histories of streetchildren frequently reveal incidents of physical, sexual and emotional abuse or neglect. (Maree, 1990 : 4). Their state of homelessness differs from one country to another, between groups in different areas and according to specific socio-economic and political structures. It would thus be wrong to explain the phenomenon of streetchildren in a simplistic way by ascribing it to isolated factors only such as poverty, a shortage of housing, overcrowding or drug abuse (Van Niekerk, 1990 : 6). In

support of this approach Hickson & Gaydon (1989 : 88) regard the following to be the major aetiological factors for children in South Africa to take to the street:

- an escape from the conventional process of socialisation under the influence of the family and the school;
- the effect of a notion of freedom that this way of life holds for many children who are having to determine their own destiny and life-style to an extent;
- the trend to individualism;
- the reliance on an alternative pattern of both socialising and basic providing;
- the fact that the available housing in most cases is inadequate;
- the traditional support system of the Black family as well as the Black education system is disintegrating; and
- the migrant labour system, violence, urban influx control legislation and the shortage of housing are aggravating the forces of family breakdown.

These factors are indicative of the streetchild's inability to form meaningful relationships.

In the South African "townships", apart from poverty, we also find a generation of young people who grow up in an atmosphere of anger, violence and the disruption of traditionally

stable community structures (Van Niekerk, 1990 : 6). Many of these children have to leave their homes as a result of anxiety and despair coupled with cruelty and brutality or absolute rejection by their parents. In this regard Richter and Swart (1988 : 3) noted the fact that many of these children were thrown out of their homes or were simply left behind by those who at that stage comprised the family. The streetchild's relations to his parents and the home as a secure environment cannot be adequately realized under these conditions.

According to Van Niekerk (1990 : 1) the streetchild has no real source of emotional security and the others with whom he associate only reinforce an unacceptable code of behaviour. For the streetchild the " law of the street " prevails. The streetchild shows almost no respect for values. He does not identify with the usual youth groupings; in effect, he presents a deeply-rooted suspicion towards all authoritative institutions which may resemble the home, the family, the school or other accepted social structures.

This fact is indicative of the inadequate relations of the streetchild in this regard. Hickson & Gaydon (1989 : 87) noted that the streetchild becomes part of the permanent

street scene, sheltered by night in cardboard boxes, dustbins, empty buildings, shop doorways, stormwater drains, deserted stairways, parks, under subways and in public toilets.

The inadequate relations of the streetchild regarding formal education and himself are clearly evident. According to Richter and Swart (1988 : 3) research shows that the level of educational training of the streetchild in the Republic of South Africa varies from none to nine years: 21% reveal impaired physical development; 53% are underfed; 31% have head injuries of some kind; 33% have neuropsychological deviations and most of them manifest a poor self-image. They are undisciplined, manipulative and easily turn to the use of cheap and readily available intoxicants. The most commonly abused substances are: typewriter fluid, paint thinners, cooking sprays, lighter fuels, benzine or petrol.

In an attempt to cope financially, physically and emotionally, the streetchild at first tries to do some form of socially accepted labour such as selling newspapers, polishing shoes, carrying shopping bags and washing motor cars in parking areas (Maree, 1990). The streetchild must, however, learn to cope in an essentially adult world in which

he experiences the dangers of violence, starvation and being arrested while concomitantly dealing with loneliness and displacement. Van Niekerk (1990 : 2) maintains that it usually does not take long before the streetchild resorts to various levels of begging, prostitution and other criminal activities under the influence of adults or streetgangs.

From these introductory paragraphs it is clearly evident that the streetchild cannot form a meaningful life-world because he fails to attribute adequate meaning. This in turn will influence the relationships he forms with himself, others, ideas, values and God. The quality of both meaning and involvement is determined by what the streetchild subjectively experiences, and since both are of inadequate quality, adequate self-actualisation cannot be realised. The streetchild's relationships will therefore also be an expression of his particular life-world, however inadequate his life-world may be. Let us then now have a closer look at these relationships of the streetchild.

3.3 THE STREETCHILD'S RELATION WITH HIMSELF

3.3.1 Physical

It would be fitting at this point to take a brief look at the meaning of corporeality in human existence in general (Urbani

1982) :

- human existence in the world takes place through the body;
- the body is at the same time man's means of admission to the world (also to other people and things) ;
- the body is the mediator between man and the world; and
- through our bodies we actively establish our own world.

Agnelli (1986 : 556) observed the following regarding street children: " Streetchildren, like all poor children, are often hungry and cold. Cleanliness and tidiness are no requirement for them. These children lead a life that is different from either that of the working or the middle class. They move around dirty and dressed in rags and tatters. They express their aggression in physical ways. They are esteemed if they fight well. They are loud and rough. They drink intoxicating beverages of whatever kind, sniff glue and inhale methylated spirits. They will experiment with various other types of drugs should they come across them."

The streetchild often inhales intoxicants recreationally as well as using them as a form of protection against fears of the dark and the discomfort of cold and unpleasant sleeping places. Children report "heavy dosing up" before going to

sleep (Richter and Swart, 1988 : 3). Unfortunately by "heavy dosing up" the streetchild is exposing himself to two major dangers. In the first place he becomes vulnerable to the exploitation of others; they are sometimes robbed, beaten or sexually molested in their drugged sleep. Secondly, the toxic qualities of the inhalants used by the streetchild have a slow but very destructive effect on the brain of the abuser.

According to Pieterse (1990) the make-shift structures streetchildren sleep in are usually overcrowded, afford minimal or no protection against the elements, and conditions are ideal for the spread of diseases, e.g. typhoid, measles, rheumatic fever, meningitis, tuberculosis or any of the other infectious diseases.

3.3.2 Psychic life

(1) Inadequate exploration

According to Joubert (1978?) exploring implies a study of those aspects of reality which are relatively unknown to the child. He explores those aspects of reality which reflect both known and unknown characteristics. From the discussion of sensing it is clear that as long as a child wonders at aspects of reality and anticipates possible developments or discoveries, he will explore. As a child

grows older his emancipating becomes socially influenced.

Objectives of emancipation become more refined and the will to overcome his helplessness becomes a will to succeed.

Exploring becomes more formal and organised and less subjective in wondering and anticipating.

Perquin (1961) has pointed out that the affectively neglected child (the streetchild) not only feels insecure (resulting in a reluctance to risk exploring his world), but also proves to be shallow, frigid or obtuse in his affect, or may on the other hand become a demanding and disgruntled person.

Those stances or attitudes which the streetchild assumes in exploring his world and which he fails to personally integrate, give rise to emotional lability; if the undigested experiences increase in number, he is eventually driven into an affective no man's land where he suffers from feelings of anxiety, insecurity, helplessness, uncertainty, dependence, loneliness and inferiority (Pretorius, 1972 : 51). Lersch (1970 : 331-357) also mentions feelings of pessimism, dissatisfaction, a lack of self-confidence and inferiority, all which are clearly evident in the life-world of the streetchild. According to Ter Horst (1973 : 79) the child

withdraws into his own world which to him has the resemblance of safety, yet which actually intensifies his anxiety. The streetchild uses cheap intoxicants to create his illusion of safety but in fact only intensifies his anxiety.

Meaning which is not emotionally, cognitively and normatively integrated by the child, leads to anxiety. Anxiety again results in an impotence which, according to Van Niekerk (1990) virtually paralyses the child. Maree (1990) also states that loneliness and insecurity are to be intimately associated with anxiety, the silent companion of every man's life. The anxious child has difficulty in shouldering the full responsibility for his decisions (Van Niekerk, 1990). Anxiety would thus make the streetchild feel helpless because he is unable to resist it .

When education takes an unfavourable course, like in the life of a streetchild, it gives rise to anxiety. This in turn acts as an impediment to the child in his development. His feeling of insecurity is often revealed as a reluctance to explore, thus resulting in the inadequate actualizing of his psychic life. The wheel then turns full circle, as his anxiety is necessarily increased by the very fact of his inadequate exploration of his world (Van Niekerk, 1982 : 22-

23). The opportunities for him to actualize his psychic life with reference to specific educational contents also diminish because he prefers to withdraw from that which appears to him to be strange or new.

Owing to inadequate assistance in his search for meaning a negative attitude toward life develops in the child, driving him to be always on the defensive (Lubbers, 1971 : 58).

According to Van Niekerk (1990 : 4) the streetchild is always on the defensive and disregards all forms of authority.

Muller-Eckhard (1966) explains that this defensive attitude may be a flight to the fore (aggression), into oneself (isolation) or into the past (regression). The child cannot take up any new position and only accepts that which is totally familiar to him. He feels that he is a captive, and impotent to change (Van Niekerk, 1976 : 127).

A child's reluctance to explore also gives proof of the fact that the volitional education, i.e. education directed at developing the child's will, has been neglected.

Unwillingness to actively participate in the task of becoming an adult is rarely evinced by an affectively stable child (Van Niekerk, 1976 : 128). Sonnekus (1973) states that both

reluctance of will and weakly-directed intentionality occur when the child's will is not adequately actualised. This reluctance of will and weakly-directed intentionality is one of the major problems facing the streetchild.

According to Pretorius (1972 : 50) experiences on a pathic level of feeling have the implication of pathic unrest. Such a child (the streetchild) is usually labile, confused and disorientated concerning the gnostic import of experiences. This inhibits the child's desires and initiative in a number of ways. Pretorius (1972 : 50-51) mentions the following examples (which have particular reference to the streetchild) :

- the child wishes to become someone in his own right but he is held in check and remains small (immature);
- he is forced to adopt an expectant attitude despite the fact that as a person he is endowed with the initiative to create relationships;
- he desires to be accepted, yet feels rejected;
- he would like to feel worthy, and feels inferior instead;
- he desires stability; seeks understanding, but regards himself as misunderstood;
- craves support to realise his full potential, but constant-

ly seems to be dispossessed of his potentialities; and
- wishes to submit to true authority, but experiences a total
absence of it.

(2) Inadequate emancipation

According to Vrey (1982) the person who the child is
constantly becoming, corresponds with his anticipated image
of self (that which he would like to become). If this image
seems dim or unattainable as in the case of the streetchild,
he will eventually accept that it is in actual fact
unreachable and will consequently believe himself to be
hopelessly "inferior".

"Emancipating" essentially means that the child is releasing
or actualising the potential he is endowed with as a person,
as it pertains to his various abilities (Van Niekerk, 1982 :
23) The streetchild who "under-estimates" his potential is
consequently limited to actualising only this supposedly
"inferior" potential. According to van Niekerk (1982) there
is proof of a weakened will in respect of his real
potential, especially in an emancipatory sense. This
obviously amounts to reluctance (unwillingness) to become
properly adult.

The absence of an educator/parent in the life-world of the streetchild gives rise to a situation where no purposeful support is given with regard to his emancipation. The fostering within him of the will to become what he ought to according to his potential, is also absent.

(3) Inadequate distantiation

According to Van Niekerk (1982) a child in a dysfunctional educational setting usually takes inadequate distance from himself and his situatedness. This fact has particular implications regarding the way in which the child will set about learning. In failing to take sufficient distance from himself, the streetchild is therefore less able to adopt the proper attitude for truly involving himself with the things of this world which are outside of himself. This inability to experience matters and ascribe significance to them in a sufficiently dissociated, controlled and well-ordered gnostic manner by means of his perceptions, thoughts, etc. brings about a further degree of pathic-affective lability. In effect he fails to control his emotional life sufficiently by means of his reason. The insecure child, of which the streetchild is a good example, finds it hard to risk proceeding from the mode of sensing to perceiving, and onward to thinking, imagining and memorising, as he is hampered by

anxiety and emotional unrest. A labile mode of sensing also frequently causes the child's attention to fluctuate when he tries to attend to something on a gnostic level (Sonnekus, 1973; Van Niekerk, 1978).

(4) Inadequate differentiation

In a dysfunctional educational setting a child is reluctant to fully actualise his potential and accordingly also reveals a reluctance to differentiate (Van Niekerk, 1982 : 24). When his cognitive education is neglected (e.g. by meagre responses to his questions regarding the surrounding world) he may initially still prove to be willing to differentiate according to his ability. The inadequate disclosure of real facts by the educator does not, however, grant the child a sufficient opportunity to really actualize and practise his intellectual potential, by way of differentiation, as the proper guidance and instruction are lacking.

Inadequate intellectual education implies that the street child fails to achieve the necessary opportunity to differentiate the potentialities he has been endowed with as a person and to "exercise" them in attaching real significance to the realities of living in practical situations . In this regard reports by Scharf, Powell and

Thomas (Hickson & Gaydon, 1989 : 88) suggested that most of the streetchildren in South Africa have little exposure to formal education, and consequently lack basic and numerical skills. According to Kramer (1986) about 90% of the streetchildren have been identified as learning disabled. Consequently, before becoming streetchildren, they were either frequently punished or failed at least one year of school because they were unable to keep up with the rest of the class.

Apart from the thousands of Black children of school going age who have no part of formal education, in certain areas 50% of the pupils are in need of remedial education (De Lange, 1981 : 139). It is therefore not surprising that more than half of the pupils who started their school careers in 1977 already left school before the end of standard 4 (De Lange, 1981). It is then hardly surprising that the streetchild becomes reluctant to differentiate at all.

(5) Inadequate objectification

When a child is over-protected or rejected, or when too much is consistently expected of him, he feels that he is not at total liberty to "let go" of himself, his fellow-man and material things in order to view himself, his parents, other

people and the realities of life objectively. He is consequently unable to discover the factual nature of matters (Van Niekerk, 1984 : 24).

If that which should be said, done and known is insufficiently modelled or instructed the child is not receiving adequate and real support toward eventually taking an objective stance. In the classroom or at home the educator must endeavour to always answer the child's questions concerning reality as adequately as possible. If the child's questions are ignored or answered unsatisfactorily, this child who is busy actualizing his personal potential, achieves only an uncertain or wavering grasp on the content, which he knows he does not fully know. Consequently his awareness of his ignorance and his quest for knowledge are both intensified. In this regard the streetchild's affect may then become increasingly labile, especially because he "knows" that he "does not know". It may also lead to a lack of organization and insufficient structuring in respect of his quest for knowledge, so that he fails to discover the essentials of life. Ironically, he tries to escape the danger by retreating into an experiential world which is already "unsafe"; and by safeguarding himself through passivity, thus further decreases his gnostic-cognitive mobility.

Action and activity (in the sense of wanting to explore, emancipate, etc. of one's own accord) consequently comes to a virtual halt, hence, the street-child's orientation is inadequate.

(6) Inadequate learning

We are reminded of the fact that the educative dialogue is always a point where the subjective interpretations of an adult and a child intersect, and where shortcircuits may occur (Vermeer, 1972 : 149-168). It is also clear that no child learns automatically. To be able to learn, a child must actively direct himself to the content emotionally and intellectually

The affective mode of learning is sensing, also qualified as an accompanying or concomitant mode of learning. It is the consistent preparation for and introduction to all cognitive modes of learning. It is the initial stage of becoming involved with the content, where the child actually becomes aware of it. When he subsequently opens up to the content in order to assimilate it into his own experiential world by means of his perceptions, thoughts, etc., he is paying attention to the content and learning it (Van Niekerk, 1982 : 25). The child's fund of experience reflects a

hierarchy of values and significances, which reflect the way in which things have been meaningfully experienced, e.g. stabile or labile in the affective sense, or cognitively organized or disorganized. Those experiences which he has not meaningfully integrated or digested (usually manifested in terms of anxiety, uncertainty, insecurity and ignorance) constantly force themselves to awareness. In his efforts to learn, he experiences difficulties in breaking through these subjective moments of sensing in order to focus on the material to be learned in an organized way. This is a prerequisite to remaining involved with or paying attention to the contents by way of perceiving, thinking and so forth (Van Niekerk, 1982 : 25).

It follows that the possibility always exists for affective lability to occur, resulting in a destabilization of the sensing mode of learning which initiates all learning and which should accompany the cognitive modes. The child in that instance also feels that he is unable to learn adequately. This in turn leads to an intensification of his feelings of anxiety, insecurity and ignorance.

Such a condition can be envisaged as a "wall" which has arisen between the child's learning potential and his effective learning, instead of the "bridge" which normally

exists when he feels secure in his lived-experience of love, acceptance, encouragement, warmth, and so forth, which enables him to fully realize his learning potential (Van Niekerk, 1978 : 63).

With reference to Scharf et.al (Hickson & Gaydon, 1989 : 88) stated that many of the streetchildren report that they ran away from home to escape school. They described having experienced humiliation, rejection and failure in the school setting which resulted in conflict situations at home. Consequently the school environment was perceived as hostile, and most of those who left, recall being beaten on numerous occasions. Affective destabilization thus essentially causes a corrosion of the streetchild's readiness to learn in the classroom, resulting in further lability, which in turn again hampers him in his sensing and attending. Under these circumstances he will be unable to learn according to his true potential.

3.4 THE STREETCHILD'S RELATION WITH OTHERS

3.4.1 Relations with parents

According to Vrey (1984) the parents have authority and, ideally, provide the secure basis from which the child initiates other relationships. His increasing involvement

with the world outside his home entails new perspective; parents are seen as people comparable to other adults. In a psychological sense, the child leaves the parent's home and takes up a new personal vantage point outside the family from which he sees both the world and the home in a new light. These assumptions of new vantage points can be seen as the child's fight for emancipation. It is indeed an effort and a fight, because leaving home implies the possibility that the door may shut behind him and not easily open again. This is seen in the anxiety and conflict experienced by many children, particularly those whose relations with their parents were not wholesome to start with.

According to Van Niekerk (1990) family disorganization is a major contributory factor behind the streetchildren syndrome. It seems as though the traditional role of the parent in the Black urban area in many ways has become contra-productive, due inter alia, to the fact that the values upheld by the family to the present, are opposed by the children (Van Niekerk, 1986 : 16). These parents cannot fulfil the basic educational needs of their children, and it becomes the task of the formal schooling system to help bring about the change. The absence of compulsory education for Black children means that the basic educational needs of some black

children may never be met.

Cemane (1990 : 9-11) identifies the following types of family disorganization as contributing to the streetchild phenomenon in the RSA:

- Sham families.

Outwardly these families manifest most of the characteristics of an organised and well-ordered family. However, a closer look shows a family that suffers from a lack of communication between family members; a family of inmates who are constantly involved in in-fighting. The emotional support in this family is minimal. Nobody cares whether the physical and emotional needs of children are satisfied. This situation induces children to leave their homes and head for the streets and shady city areas.

- Families subjected to stress.

A debilitating illness such as mental ill-health can influence the role functioning of the affected person within the family group.

- Families overtaken by misfortunes.

These may include incarceration in jail of one or both parents for long periods; being caught up in the midst of

the ravages of riots; political unrest or wars; and being affected by long periods of adverse climatic conditions which sometimes result in severe food shortages and starvation. During difficult times, families may (in their despair) neglect their children.

- Families in the throes of a family tragedy.

Here the focus is on the structural disruption of the nuclear family as a result of the death of one or both parents. In the case of divorce, the remaining parent may enter into a relationship with a new partner who may neglect or abuse children from the original marriage. As a result of this the child experiences emotional trauma and becomes isolated and alienated from the rest of the family. The child may eventually run away from home and end up roaming the streets begging, scavenging food outlets or even selling his body to survive.

(1) Importance of these relations

The importance of these relations depends on the presence or absence of love as its dominant feature. Mutual love is not an isolated phenomenon but something that eases the relationship. The effect of a stable love base is far-reaching. The child who can rely on parental love feels free to take risks,

to explore, find himself, try out his abilities, develop decision-making powers and openly compare alternatives - particularly with regard to the choice of a career. He feels free to make the inevitable mistakes without fearing that these will mean total rejection by his parents. Nor does he have the destructive guilt feelings suffered by children who are not really loved by their parents. Clear educational support from parents, in enforcing reasonable standards of behaviour, help the child's emancipation by promoting a positive self-concept (Maree, 1990 : Coopersmith, 1967).

As a person in the process of becoming or developing, the child is subject to constant change (Van Niekerk, 1982 : 4). He himself has an active part in bringing about this change by actualizing his psychic life within an educational setting. The child therefore at any given moment finds himself to be at a specific level of development, which can be qualified as being the pedagogically attained level. The immediate objective is always to have this level coincide with the child's pedagogically attainable level. This means that the child should be supported in such a way that he will give proof within the context of his daily life of increasing responsibility, identification with norms, freedom, etc., according to his own talents. The streetchild is not

receiving this support.

According to Sonnekus (1975) no child automatically becomes adult but both the purposeful involvement of the adult and the actualizing of his potential by the child are integrally implied in the event. As a person the child is engaged in a dialogue with the world surrounding him. He actively reaches out to his world because he wishes to give meaning to it in order to discover its meaningfulness, basically because he wishes to be somebody in his own right and wants to eventually become an adult himself.

The streetchild's experiencing of reality from a psychopedagogic perspective, does not allow him to determine what opportunities are available for emancipation. The exploring and emancipation that the streetchild experiences always have a negative connotation. This results in the psychic life of the streetchild being pedagogically inadequately actualized (Van Niekerk, 1982 : 6 - 8). This directly pertains to the modes of his exploring, emancipating, distantiating, objectification and differentiating, which are in the same event inadequately actualized in terms of the pedagogical norm. He is indeed obstructed in his progress towards adulthood.

A child is constantly ascribing his personal meanings to these relationships with his parents and teachers and is emotionally vulnerable in this respect (Van Niekerk, 1982 : 8). The adult should take special care therefore in the course of his educative acts that the child will consciously know that he is able to learn and to achieve, and that his personal worth is genuinely recognised. If this is not accomplished, the educational relationship is dysfunctional and this invariably has a negative influence on the child's progress towards adulthood, i.e. his development.

Sonnekus (1976 : 124-129) also refers to matters such as the physical care of the child (including his diet, health and hygiene); social well-being (also implying that the child should be properly housed, have enough friends, be allowed to take part in recreational activities and have adequate relationships with adults); affective neglect which could occur in various ways, e.g. by too much or too little petting or lack of togetherness; inconsistent educational attitudes of the parents which signify an incoherent and disjointed approach to the child, confusing him and causing feelings of insecurity; marital problems, where tensions exist between the parents; and broken marriages, where the child may feel that he has been rejected or neglected by one or both

parents. The neglect of the physical, social and affective aspects of the streetchild are therefore all contributing factors to his negative situatedness i.e. a dysfunction of the pedagogic situation.

(2) The parents as an aetiological factor regarding the streetchild

According to Van Niekerk (1990) there can be little doubt that parents or guardians of streetchildren do not really understand their children's physical, emotional and cognitive needs, and therefore also can not interpret their behaviour, nor how to discourage and to deal with improper acts.

Traditionally the Black mother relinquishes the care of her child to the grandmother or aunts, or other siblings. In the urban situation this tradition cannot be continued. In most cases the mother has to work, and she often has to leave her children unattended at home (Van Niekerk, 1990 : 6). The shift of the mother's workplace away from the house or the fields has had definite implications for child rearing.

Distanced from the traditional pattern of upbringing in the rural Black community, the great majority of parents have not

yet assimilated the overwhelming demands of a complex society (Van Niekerk, 1990 : 7).

Values also do not change overnight. It takes generations to change a society's social behaviour. In this respect parents play the most important, and often the only part. However, especially in Black townships, a general phenomenon prevalent is that many parents have in fact surrendered to their own children, who will not accept parental authority. The result is that these parents do not know how to exercise educational authority, and as a result there is diminished understanding and trust (Van Niekerk, 1990 : 7).

In many instances where parents do not take up their educational responsibilities towards their children, for example by indulging in alcohol themselves, neglecting to provide food and clothing for their children, cruelty, etc, the children willingly exchange this unsafe family situation for a street life, where their own maintenance and anticipated general well-being in the form of food, warmth, safety, companionship, enjoyment and intoxicants become the major priority. They concentrate on survival skills only to fulfil their immediate needs, and allow themselves no commitments by leading unstructured lives (Hickson & Gaydon,

1989 : 89).

Apart from the foregoing, many of these children have lost one or both of their parents through death, divorce or abandonment, often being left with no one to take care of them. Some of them were left with relatives who coped poorly and resorted to punitive methods from which the child ran away.

According to Hickson and Gaydon (1989 : 88) some of these children also reported instances of physical or sexual abuse by their parents or stepparents. The life style of street children is an example of the outcome of disharmonious educational dynamics. It represents inadequate personality development, which took place through the child's own initiative, but is mainly the result of educational misguidance by the parents and other adults.

When the child feels rejected and unwelcome, he develops a feeling of inferiority. Kellmer Pringle (1980 : 35) phrases it as follow: "Approval and acceptance by others are essential for the development of self-approval and self-acceptance. Whether a child will develop a constructive or destructive attitude, depends in the first place on his

parents' attitude to him."

Streetchildren are fully aware that their parents and other adults have neglected them. Furthermore those adults they meet on the street usually respond with pity, disapproval, embarrassment, or outright hostility and rejection (Hickson & Gaydon, 1989 : 91).

According to Hickson and Gaydon (1989 : 90), for these children the move to the streets represents a desire to take control of their lives themselves. They have become victims of intimidation in their primary educational milieu. When intimidated now, their frequent response is to attack and they show little respect for authority in a misguided attempt to improve their self-image. The inhalation of large doses of intoxicants, especially just before sleeping time, usually makes them sick, but they continue to use them because it gives them an escape from the painful and often frustrating reality of their feelings of hunger, loneliness and wanting to be accepted by the group. It is very clear that once the street children are on the street, they displace their old values and norms for new ones.

It seems as though the traditional role of the parent in the

Black urban area has in many ways become contra-productive, due inter alia, to the fact that the values upheld by the family to the present, are opposed by the children (Van Niekerk, 1986 : 16). Thus these parents cannot fulfil the basic educational needs of their children, and it becomes the task of the formal schooling system to help bring about the change.

(3) Errors in the parent-child relationship

Van Niekerk (1982 : 14-20) ascribes the dysfunction of the pedagogical situation to specific errors in relation to the child. These factors may be summarised under the following headings:

(a) Lack of security

Lubbers (1975 : 55) declares that when a person fails to meaningfully integrate that which is offered to him by life (also in the sense of a task or a command), yet on the other hand cannot make his peace with it either, that matter becomes an indeterminable burden which allows no escape. This burden makes itself felt in a generalised sense of unease and unhappiness, which is barely definable. If a child is not offered a guarantee of security by his educators, he is exposed to danger and no longer exists in close connection

with the adults with whom he should have been allied by the shared goal of his own adulthood.

(b) Obscured future perspective

Ter Horst (1973 : 97) remarks in this context that the educators for the time being represent past, present and future to the child. When the educators ignore or shirk their educational responsibility, there are no memories, stories, photo albums, other people or even objects to bind the child to his past. If the future is obscured in the child's view, there is little to look forward to or to expect and there are no plans or tasks, however small, waiting to be fulfilled.

(c) Affective or emotional neglect

The unfavourable course that education may run, always implies that the educational relationships are likewise being inadequately realised (Van Niekerk, 1982 : 15). A child may consequently experience little or no sense in relationships. This results in his being "unwilling" to risk total involvement with any educator. A lack of mutual trust, understanding and sympathetic authoritative guidance always implies that the child must suffer neglect in respect of not

only his affective, but also his intellectual and moral development. He will consequently explore the educational contents inadequately , so that the educational encounter is likewise inadequately preformed by his pre-cognitive (intuitive) reconnaissance. Destabilised trust and confidence then indeed lead to half-heartedness by suppressing the urge to explore.

When the educational encounter is lukewarm or is based on uncertainty, it cannot come to fruition. The child then experiences that he is not being accepted, that the adult is not sincerely making contact with him. He will consequently not be whole-hearted in his acceptance of authority and of norms represented by the adult.

When the educational course does not culminate in an encounter, the child is reluctant to trust the adult and to be trusted by him, and he refuses to behave according to adult authority. The child in other words is not receptive to education because he feels misunderstood, and he refuses to listen to an exposition or explanation of norms.

When the educator fails to grant the child the opportunity to experience trust and faith, he actually becomes a threat to

the child. He then inadequately pre-forms the child's actualisation of his psychic life in respect of his significant personal experience, his will, his knowledge and his behaviour. The child remains more immature than could be expected (Van Niekerk, 1982 : 122).

A child who lacks trust and confidence is labile or even impulsive in his emotional life. Whenever it is impossible for a child to trust and to have faith in his educators the relationship of understanding is also bound to fail because such educators do not really understand the child or what is happening to him. They especially have little insight into the full implications of his distress.

(d) Rejection of the child

According to Van Niekerk (1982) a child can generally do very little to ensure that he will be lovingly accepted from the outset. He might as easily be rejected, despite all the potential that he may have. When an educator does not spontaneously accept, but in fact rejects a child, the latter immediately feels that he is not being accepted and is thought of as unwelcome. He then experiences insecurity and anxiety. This intuitive knowledge (felt knowledge) eventually drives him to withdraw from the educational relationship,

thus inhibiting any true encounter.

(e) The inadequate exercise of authority

Problems furthermore arise in the child's educational situation when authority is constantly wielded in an unsympathetic, inconsistent, loveless or dictatorial manner, but also when no authority is exercised at all.

When a child is confronted with too many commands and/or demands, when too much is expected of him he regards most of these restrictions to be devoid of meaning, the great number of impressions alone could give rise to uncertainty within him (Kotze, 1972 : 55).

(f) Disregarding the child as a unique person

One should constantly bear in mind that the real meanings are those which the child may be ascribing to the adult's actions. Affective liability for example accompanies any unfavourable lived-experience, in the sense that the child comes to regard himself, his parents, teachers, the school, his friends and even his lessons with anxiety. Van Niekerk (1982 : 19) maintains that the way in which the child is greeted by a parent or his teacher; the way in which a question is asked about his activities; in which he is instructed or forbidden to do certain things; the tone in

which appreciation is expressed - indeed, every communicative interaction between the educator and the child derives its real significance from the child's experiential world in a unique way.

(4) Awareness of the family's nature

Pretorius (1979 : 56 - 58) sees the secure environment of the family milieu as providing the child with the following vital aspects which are essential in the child's efforts of becoming :

- the family milieu provides the child with a safe place from which he can explore his life-world;
- the family milieu supplies the child with answers to problems he may encounter during his explorations;
- the family milieu is a world where love is personally directed towards the child;
- the family milieu is the primary socialising agent where the child learns socially accepted behaviour;
- the family milieu is dynamic in that it adjusts according to, and accommodates changes and new influences from outside the family milieu;
- the family milieu is one of lasting personal relationships which enable the child to discover personal norms and values.

The problem that faces the streetchild is that his life-world is deprived of this vital component for his successful emancipation i.e. he must constitute a life-world in the absence of a family milieu.

3.4.2 Relations with peers

According to Vrey (1979 : 9) relations with peers become more and more important as the child grows older. His friends are both company and a sounding-board for his voice and opinions.

Some of these opinions cannot be aired in front of adults - his views on teachers, parents, discipline, personal problems at school and relations with the opposite sex. Such opinions must be clearly formulated before they can be aired. Various facets of a child's relations with his peers are important for self-actualisation.

In the case of the streetchild the peer group with whom he associates only reinforces an unacceptable code of behaviour.

(1) Friendship

Close friendship is the most important relationship a child can form with a peer. For the streetchild friendship averts the torments of loneliness that can be experienced even in a

group. Physical presence does not ensure real encounter or physiological and psychological closeness. Unless there is an emotional bond of intimacy, mutual concern and friendliness and a true knowledge of the other person, the child's loneliness is not relieved (Vrey, 1979 : 63).

According to Vrey (1979 : 64) the most meaningful friendships arise where the parties meet as equals, feel at home with one another and feel free to share the most intimate secrets, the most private thoughts and emotions. There is no need to pretend or to fear that confidences will be betrayed.

Parties to such a friendship can openly criticize one another without condemning. Close friendships are unforced. There is no room for formality or social amenities. Silence imposes no strain. Long, vivacious conversations can be followed by silence without any discomfort. In more formal relationships, such silences are embarrassing and intolerable.

According to Van Niekerk (1990 : 1) the streetchild has no real source of emotional security and the others with whom they associate only reinforce an unacceptable code of behaviour. For the streetchild the " law of the street "

prevails. The streetchild shows almost no respect for values. He does not identify with the usual youth groupings, in effect, he presents a deeply-rooted suspicion towards all authoritative institutions which may resemble the home, the family, the school and other accepted social structures.

(2) Heterosexual relations

A well-established sexual identity is needed before heterosexual relations can be formed (Vrey, 1979 :65). We can distinguish three overlapping phases in a child's psychosexual development. Sexual identity is the first. Starting with pink or blue baby-clothes, the child learns that he is a boy or she is a girl. The next phase is the acquisition of masculine or feminine skills - typical behaviour that becomes automatic, such as neatness and daintiness in girls, or playing with dolls, while boys enjoy rougher games. The third phase is sexlinked values, knowledge and attitudes, the latter being culturally determined to a considerable degree. Each of these developmental phases remains a distinct component of sexual identity, which acquires a new dimension during becoming. The boy-girl relationship is extremely important to the child's self-actualisation and self-reliance.

According to Maree (1990), Van Niekerk (1990), Richter and Swart (1988) the majority of streetchildren are boys. They live in isolation without any healthy relationships with the opposite sex of their own age. Their perception of the opposite sex is mainly the negative connotations they experience on the streets. The absence of these relations will eventually influence the self-actualisation and self-reliance of the streetchild with regard to these relations.

(3) Social acceptance

According to Maree (1990 :7) the poorly-accepted child, like the streetchild, is often moody, sad, anxious and insecure. Cause and effect are closely interwoven.

Due to the need to belong of the streetchild, the streetgang is seen as a means to fulfil this need (Van Niekerk 1990: 8). According to Vrey (1979) conformity within the peer group is either implicitly or explicitly enforced. This fact is also evident in the streetgang. To be absorbed into the group, the individual must conform. In his eagerness to conform, he may take part in activities he himself does not approve of, such as drinking or smoking. He will conform even if it entails a contravention of social or parental norms. For the streetchild in the absence of parents and thus also parental

norms this situation is aggravated. Competition is a universal cultural phenomenon (Vrey, 1979 :66). If achievement in some sphere is valued by the peer group, the high achiever will enjoy added esteem. The compulsive competer is usually a person with a poor self-concept. He feels constrained to prove his own value (to himself also) by excelling. Such competition is self-destructive, because such a person cannot really relax with his peers and enjoy himself. The streetchild's struggle is with survival on the streets and this factor implies that he will engage in almost any activity that will ensure his survival.

3.4.3 Relations with welfare workers

Helen Starke (1988) explains that as regards residential care of children, the Child Care Act (No. 74 of 1983) is intended to apply to children removed from parental care through the intervention of a social worker and placed in a residential facility chosen by the social worker or designated by the Director-General. Streetchildren are different from this category, as they are children who have "removed themselves from parental care" and have chosen the residential facility themselves, be it a shelter for streetchildren or a streetcorner. Often this presents many problems for social workers who attempt interventions

with these children in terms of The Child Care Act particularly at intake level when children themselves are still unsettled and unsure whether or not they can trust the social workers or staff at the places of safety. By places of safety is meant any temporal place suitable for the reception of a child into which the owner, occupier or person in charge thereof is willing to receive a child (The Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983). This results in a vicious cycle of abscondments from places of safety and running away from social workers' offices back to the street. Swart (1987) explains that because of the streetchildren's past bad experiences with officialdom, i.e. parents, social workers, teachers, police, etc. they tend to be very suspicious of persons when confronted with formal questioning and actually display rebellion to involuntary removal to places of safety no matter how good the motive is.

Police and social workers are the most distrusted group because their intervention often leads to arrest or detention at the places of safety and subsequent returning of the streetchild to the same unchanged home environment that caused him to find refuge in the street. Zingaro (1988) noted that : ".....streetchildren have often gone through the process of institutionalization and sometimes through a

series of foster homes, a lifestyle that has gone on for a long period of time without any successes and finally where everybody has decided that these are the failures, the system's failures, the therapy failures, the family failures and the police department failures."

3.4.4 Relations with the South African Police

According to Blignaut (1990 : 7) in 1988 the Durban City Police established a special unit to attend to the problem of streetchildren. Through intensive patrol duties and observation they identify streetchildren. Once identified, the streetchildren are taken to the local District Surgeon for a medical examination and are thereafter admitted to the Bayhead Place of Safety, where social workers take over responsibility for the children.

The South African Police are not directly involved in the identification and care for streetchildren, but render a supportive role. Streetchildren are therefore only arrested and detained in police cells when they have committed crimes which necessitate their detention and in circumstances where their parents or guardians cannot be traced.

A policeman may also in term of Section 12 (1) of the Child

Care Act, No. 74 of 1983 remove a child from any place to a place of safety without a warrant if the child is a child referred to in Section 14 (4) and the delay in obtaining the warrant will be prejudicial to the safety and welfare of the child (Blignaut 1990 :10). Section 38 of the Act provides a policeman with the authority to arrest without a warrant, any pupil who has absconded from any institution or place of safety in terms of this Act. Section 51 of the Act prohibits the unlawful removal of children from any institution or place of safety or the harbouring of a child such as this.

The only real problems posed by the practical implementation of section 14 (4) of this Act according to Blignaut (1990), are firstly, the lack of a definition of a "streetchild" whereby such child could be identified. Section 14(4) (viii) refers to circumstances in which the parent cannot control the child properly so as to ensure his/her proper behaviour, such as regular school attendance. Because school attendance by black pupils is not compulsory, this "guideline" or requirement for removal does not serve any purpose in respect of black streetchildren. Secondly, it is not practically possible to investigate the whereabouts of parents of every black child found wandering around aimlessly in the city or to remove a child such as this to a place of safety pending a

children's court inquiry.

According to Blignaut (1990 : 6) streetchildren sometimes do become involved in crime and this is where the police actually involve themselves. The actual level of crimes committed by streetchildren in the Durban area needs to be examined.

The following statistics for the period 1 January 1990 to 31 July 1990 were made available by the probation officer of the Natal Provincial Administration, with regard to black street-children (ages 8 to 16 years) convicted in the Durban Magistrate's Court (Blignaut, 1990 : 9):

	N = 156	Percentage
- theft from motor vehicles	- 15	9,6
- robbery	- 3	2
- burglary (business premises)	- 5	3,2
- use/possession of dagga	- 5	3,2
- begging	- 114	73
- theft	- 14	9
Total	156	100 %

According to Blignaut (1990) statistics furnished by the Durban City Police indicated that 111 children were admitted

to places of safety during the same period and 671 runaways were returned and readmitted to places of safety (some for the twentieth time).

3.5 THE STREETCHILD'S RELATION WITH OBJECTS AND IDEAS

In constituting his life-world, the child is increasingly concerned with ideas. As with objects, people or the attitudes of people towards himself, he becomes aware of the significance of ideas for him and their implications for his own identity (Vrey, 1984 : 177). The streetchild constitutes an inadequate life-world and this will eventually influence his relations to ideas. The absence of formal education, a secure home environment and other essential factors for his becoming inhibits the proper development of the child's cognitive powers. The life-world of the streetchild will thus be inadequate because it focus mainly on the essences of survival and the rejection of things and/or ideas that cannot be utilised for survival purposes.

3.5.1 Differentiation between thought and the external world

Elkind (1968) noted that abstract thought enables the child to conceptualise concepts of identity and destiny. Directing this thought to himself, he becomes aware of new dimensions in his own identity and in his ability to conceive logical

consequences. He can also think about his destiny and so form a conception of the ideal self. Abstract thought is developed through formal education. The lack of formal education in the life-world of the streetchild will thus hamper the adequate development of abstract thought. Van Niekerk (1990 : 9) noted that the streetchild tends to be rigid in his thinking and clings to his solutions. He tends to be reluctant to part with his own formulated hypotheses even if reality proves them wrong.

3.5.2 Environmental hazards

Few children stay alone on the street. As with street-children elsewhere, those in Durban have been found to live in small groups for companionship, protection and for physical and emotional support (Pieterse, 1990 : 2). These children huddle together in makeshift shelters, drains, shop doorways or with the "Pavement People" where they may sleep in the open, exposed to the elements. The structures are overcrowded, afford minimal or no protection against the elements, and conditions are ideal for the spread of diseases such as typhoid, measles, rheumatic fever, meningitis, tuberculosis or any of the other infectious diseases.

According to Pieterse (1990 : 4-12) a pure water supply is often not available and where stand pipes have been erected, these are often vandalised. Water-borne diseases, including typhoid and cholera are capable of reaching epidemic proportions under these primitive conditions.

Public facilities that are available in the various areas are inadequate and inappropriate for an informal overnight resident community and those that are provided are closed after normal working hours. This is mainly for security reasons as those that were left open were constantly being vandalised.

The inevitable result is the fouling and littering of the surrounds and unacceptable standards of environmental health both to the individuals concerned and the general public. In areas where chemical closets may be provided these are incorrectly used (newspaper, additional water, incorrect flushing; instructions which cannot be read) resulting in these being overloaded and ineffective. Where there is fouling of the area we get fly breeding. Similar problems exist with any attempted disposal of less innocuous wastes, such as from utensils, clothes, personal washing or refuse. These situations are ideal for fly breeding - flies thrive in

these insanitary conditions and introduce yet another link in the chain for the potential spread of disease. Flies are known to be responsible for the transmission of many diseases, including typhoid fever, diphtheria and dysentery (Pieterse, 1990 : 4-6).

The general insanitary conditions prevailing are also conducive to rodent attraction and breeding. Rats are associated with plague, amongst other diseases. It should be mentioned that in Central Africa and Madagascar, bubonic plague is endemic and in the Republic the disease flares up from time to time. Durban, as a major seaport must always guard against the introduction of the disease from the east, as well as inland areas.

Rats are always attracted to foodstuffs and often leave their excrement on food while feeding and this may be a cause of food poisoning. This is always relevant when one considers how and from where many of these children obtain their food, how they cook it and where they store it. Another vector to consider is the mosquito; the knowledge that the potential malaria vector exists locally, in the light of malaria problems being experienced in KwaZulu and Northern Natal -now extending southwards (even as far as Stanger) has severe

implications.

The lack of drainage in areas and the ponding of water in depressions or discarded receptacles such as tins or tyres, coupled with a humid, sub-tropical climate, creates the ideal environmental condition for prolific mosquito development and a potential malaria outbreak (cf. Pieterse, 1990).

3.5.3 Formal education

According to Van Niekerk (1982) the more strongly the situation at school is related to his fear of communicating, the more vehemently will the child reject the subject matter which is presented to him. His endeavour to escape by avoiding any measure of communication or involvement in schoolwork, serves only to increase his anxiety yet again. He is constantly aware of the fact that his peers do not avoid the situation which he is fleeing from. Besides, he constantly anticipates the fearful moment of inevitable reprehension. He would of course have liked to control his own situation as others do. And thus his feeling of impotence intensifies both his anxiety and his very low self-esteem.

Hickson & Gaydon (1989: 88) state that many of the

streetchildren report that they ran away from home to escape school. They described having experienced humiliation, rejection and failure in the school setting which resulted in conflict situations at home. Consequently the school environment was perceived as hostile, and most of those who left, recall being beaten on numerous occasions. Affective destabilisation thus essentially causes a corrosion of the streetchild's readiness to learn in the classroom, resulting in further lability, which in turn again hampers him in his sensing and attending.

Scharf, Powell & Thomas (Hickson & Gaydon, 1989 : 88) suggested that most of the streetchildren in South Africa have little exposure to formal education, and consequently lack basic and numerical skills. According to Kramer (1986) about 90% of the streetchildren have been identified as learning disabled in some way. Consequently, before becoming streetchildren, they were either frequently punished or failed at least one year of school because they were unable to keep up with the rest of the class.

3.5.4 Shelters

Privately-run shelters are being established in most large cities, but advertisements for them are already being

suspected of playing a role in encouraging children to take to the streets with the hope of finding a place in a shelter (Richter and Swart, 1989 : 3). People running shelters in major cities believe that adoption of a voluntary approach in dealing with the streetchild is most likely to have better results than use of coercion such as involuntary committal to the places of safety by either the social worker or police (Mbanjwa, 1990 : 7).

Zingaro (1988) expatiates that streetchildren have their own ways of adopting to street-life and unless a collaborative relationship towards change develops, not much can be done to change their life style. It is on this principle that admission to a shelter for a streetchild is made voluntary and even continued patronage of the shelter lies solely on whether he feels he is benefiting from the service or not. It is this attitude that results in positive identification with the shelter thus laying a much better foundation for successful rehabilitation.

According to Neetlingh (1990) shelters for streetchildren have also acknowledged education as an important component of the rehabilitation programme. Problems have also been realized in this regard viz:

- use of glue affects children's concentration levels;
- because of their emotional problems, streetchildren are often unsettled and unstable.

This very often makes them unresponsive to structured formalized education. Most shelters have therefore devised informal type of remedial education designated to meet the needs of streetchildren at this unstable stage. The work done in this regard by shelters will be fully discussed in Chapter 4. This kind of informal education positively helps to sensitize the child and prepares him for formal education when his life has shown some stability (Mbanjwa, 1990 : 9). Unfortunately shortages of suitably qualified personnel hamper the whole programme.

Most of the shelters aim at providing maximum physical, emotional, social and spiritual care for the children through the use of child care-workers, professional staff (eg. teachers) and volunteers.

Schools and skills training centres are in the process of being established by certain charity organizations with the aim of providing the children with legal and independent means for earning a living. This educational intervention or

assistance presently available for the streetchild is often haphazard, superficial and a duplication of both educational and welfare services which drains existing manpower and renders it inadequate. Various studies have proved that this duplication and almost total lack of co-ordination is expensive and inappropriate (De Lange, 1981; Janse van Rensburg, 1991; Schurink & Schurink, 1993).

3.5.5 Possessions

For the streetchild possessions have no real value unless they have to do with their personal actions of survival.

Obtaining money for food, cheap inhalants or intoxicants motivates most of their daily activities (Richter & Swart, 1988). Possessions of any real value are usually sold very quickly.

3.5.6 Health care

In considering the health hazards facing these streetchildren we need to look at "health" in the very broadest sense. The World Health Organization defines health as "a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being, and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity" (Pieterse, 1990).

Children who, through choice or circumstances, are destined

to live a life of vagrancy invariably come from the most disadvantaged families in a community, hence they enter their ways of life-style with an appreciable health deficit. They are likely to have been poorly immunised and undernourished, to have lived in an unhygienic environment and have been exposed to a variety of serious infectious diseases. Life on the streets merely aggravates these conditions.

Swart (1990) states that the Malundi (streetchildren in Hillbrow) do not readily seek professional help for their illnesses and injuries. They are afraid of authority figures such as the police, social workers and magistrates. They are therefore hesitant about approaching centres where they will have to provide personal details which will threaten their anonymity. This has been found to be true in Durban as well and it has been reported by personnel at Shelters in Johannesburg, Cape Town, Pretoria and Durban that the streetchild who attend these centres commonly need medical treatment for problems never attended to. These include eye, ear and dental problems, infections from being sodomised, badly healed limbs from earlier breaks in assault cases or hit and run accidents, scabies and infected cuts and dog bites (Pieterse, 1990 : 8).

Two health screening projects were embarked upon by Professor W.E.K. Loening (Pieterse, 1990) which highlighted the various medical conditions found in street children in Durban :

- 45 youngsters were seen by two senior medical students in December 1987 - January 1988. The predominant infections encountered in the study were of the respiratory tract and the skin. Tuberculosis was not suspected in any of the children. Although there was no clinical evidence of sexually transmitted disease (S.T.D.) 40% of the boys admitted to being sexually active.

- In the second study in September 1989 a further 18 youngsters were examined in more detail with a limited number of special investigations. In this group 50% had scabies (a skin infection) and 22% had evidence of ascariasis (worm infestation). Streetchildren generally accept the discomfort of periodic infestations of lice and scabies as part of the drawbacks of street life. One child had S.T.D. None tested positive for HIV (human immune deficiency virus -AIDS virus). Two of them however complained that they had been sexually

assaulted.

Large numbers of these children are sexually active from a very early age - they have many partners and they sexually abuse each other, as was found in the group of children from a Durban shelter which was later closed down (Pieterse, 1990).

Members of the community, both men and women, use these children for their sexual gratification and some as young as seven and eight years old are recruited for "kinky sex". This was found among the Durban streetchildren when investigated by Swart (1990). In times of extreme need the relatively high payment for such services can overcome even intense distaste for such activities (money; the "reds" and the "browns" are what count). Subsequently one of the boys in this group was found to be a typhoid carrier and the cause of two of his companions contracting the disease.

Furthermore there is a very high incidence of substance abuse - including alcohol, dagga, glue, benzine, thinners and petrol (Pieterse, 1990 : 11). Glue containing toluene seems to be the most widely used, habit-forming substance sought after by streetchildren, at least in Johannesburg and Durban.

This is often bought from local shoemakers. Shoemakers' glue lasts longer when mixed with certain soap powders. It is fairly cheap and can be conserved in small plastic bottles and other containers.

The effects of glue-fume inhalation ("smoking glue") are most commonly evidenced in respiratory problems, such as colds and pneumonia. Vision may be impaired with prolonged use of glue. Children "high" on glue have difficulty with concentration and experience rapid mood swings and strong feelings of aggression and paranoia, often resulting in intensive in-group fighting. Whereas the effect of these substances on the intellect and nervous system as a whole is destructive and one must accept that they also predispose to various infections (Pieterse, 1990 : 12). According to Pieterse (1990) certain inhalants (typing correcting thinning fluid and certain glues) contain a carbon element that has a destructive effect on the brain.

The poor nutritional state of many of the youngsters also compromises their defence mechanism. Swart (1990) reports on a study in Johannesburg in which 97 youngsters were tested. Most of them were found to be malnourished. From the study it would appear that their stunted growth originated at home

and was not corrected on the streets because they lacked a constant and healthy diet. This picture is confirmed by Professor W.K.E. Loening and by health workers in Durban (Pieterse, 1990).

According to Richter (1988) the phenomenon of children who are abandoned, unwanted, neglected or abused has been linked to socio-structural factors such as urbanisation and impoverishment, cause distortions in family and community life. The horrifying backgrounds of many of these children have been discussed earlier in this chapter. Many of them, therefore, require psychotherapeutic measures to assist them to overcome blocks to their adjustment which have been occasioned by the trauma and cruelty they have experienced. Professional help with learning disabilities and emotional problems are essential in most cases.

3.6 THE STREETCHILD'S RELATION WITH MORAL AND RELIGIOUS VALUES

According to Vrey (1979) one of the aims of education is to bring the child to a point where he supports the norms of his society from personal conviction. His culture contains moral, religious, social and other norms deriving from the corresponding values esteemed by the community. The totality

of these values is subsumed in the way of life maintained by that community. The child's relations with religious and moral values develop to a point where he will conform to such religious and moral norms of his own free will.

In this regard according to Van Niekerk (1990 : 1) the street child has no real source of emotional security and the peer group with whom they associate only reinforces an unacceptable code of behaviour. For the streetchild the " law of the street " prevails. The streetchild shows almost no respect for authority. He does not identify with the usual youth groupings. He presents a deeply-rooted suspicion towards all authoritative institutions which may resemble the home, the family, the school, the church and other accepted social structures.

3.6.1 Moral development

Vrey (1979) maintains that moral development contains a clear cognitive element. As the child becomes emancipated he becomes increasingly capable of conceptualizing and generalizing moral norms and understands moral concepts. He thus achieves morality based on principles.

Piaget (1969) describes a gradual transition from

heteronomous to autonomous moral judgement in the child's becoming. Heteronomous moral judgement is based on norms prescribed by others while autonomous moral judgement refers to a person's own convictions and judgements. The streetchild tends to be more subjected to heteronomous moral judgement due to the failure of constituting an adequate life-world. His actions of ascribing significance to matters, of exerting himself, venturing into life, hoping, planning, fulfilling his future, valuing, gaining insight into himself, attaining the freedom to be responsible and of accepting responsibility are all of an insufficient quality.

The streetchild is therefore less able to adopt the proper attitude for truly involving himself with the things of this world which are outside of himself. This inability to experience matters and ascribe significance to them in sufficiently dissociated, controlled and well-ordered gnostic manner by means of his perceptions, thoughts, etc. brings about a further degree of pathic-affective lability. He in effect fails to sufficiently control his emotional life by means of his reason. The insecure child finds it hard to risk proceeding from the mode of sensing to perceiving, and onward to thinking, imagining and memorising, as he is hampered by anxiety and emotional unrest. A labile mode of sensing also frequently causes the child's attention to

fluctuate when he tries to attend to something on a gnostic level (Sonnekus, 1973; Van Niekerk, 1984).

3.6.2 Religious development

Vrey (1979) sees a personal religion as a means of faith and hope to which a child can cling during the uncertainties and vicissitudes of his development. Two authentic requirements would be authentic knowledge and practical demonstration of religious norms.

The streetchild has no way of getting either authentic knowledge or practical demonstration while he is on the streets. The streetchild is thus without this means of hope and faith which can supply some security to his life. According to Mbanjwa (1990) religious values are discarded once the street child finds himself on the streets. As mentioned before the streetchild rejects all authority while on the streets, even that of God. Once the streetchild is removed from the streets to a place of care, this important aspect can receive some attention. Pastor de Nuysschen (1990), founder of "The Ark" in Durban, stated during an interview that Religious norms and values were found to be completely lacking amongst the streetchildren assisted at The Ark. He claims that the absence of this anchor in life is one

of the major reasons why the child gives up on life once they find themselves on the street. The loneliness, frustration, fear and anger of the streetchild can therefore manifest itself more easily in the life-world of the streetchild. The Christian knows that God will never allow a person to be tempted or exploited beyond his strength. The Christian knows this from the Bible (1 Cor. 10:13), from his personal faith and experiences. Without this personal faith, experience and knowledge the streetchild has no source of comfort or spiritual security.

3.7 SYNTHESIS

According to Vrey (1979 : 186) and Urbani (1982) a meaningful life-world is formed when the child, by attributing meaning, forms relationships with objects, people, ideas, values, the self and God. To attribute meaning to a relationship implies much more than mere understanding. The quality of both meaning and involvement is determined by what the child subjectively experiences, and both are components of self-actualization - which, because of the need for educational assistance, is guided actualisation. The child's relationships are therefore an expression of his life-world (Nel & Urbani, 1990).

The deviance of the streetchild is not necessarily irrational but could equally be seen as a rational response to particular social circumstances within the life-world of the child (Agnelli, 1986 :75). This view has a lot of merit regarding the search for causes of the streetchild phenomenon as it shifts the focus from the streetchild to the inadequate life-world of the streetchild itself. This implies that the deviancy that exists is due to the streetchild's response to what he perceives regarding inadequate relationships formed within his inadequate life-world.

It is evident from the discussions in this chapter that the streetchild cannot constitute a meaningful and adequate life-world. The life style of streetchildren is an example of the outcome of disharmonious educational dynamics i.e. educational distress. It represents inadequate personality development, which, although it took place through the child's own initiative, is mainly the result of educational misguiding by the parents and other adults. The child's initiative stems from the need of every human being to be somebody and to become somebody.

When the child feels himself unaccepted, rejected and unwelcome, he develops a feeling of inferiority. Kellmer

Pringle (1980 : 35) phrases it as follows: "Approval and acceptance by others are essential for the development of self-approval and self-acceptance. Whether a child will develop a constructive or destructive attitude, in the first place depends on his parents' attitude to him."

Streetchildren have become victims of intimidation in their primary educational milieu. When intimidated now, their response is frequently to attack and they show little respect for authority in a misguided attempt to improve their self-image. Because of this inability of the streetchild the relationships formed by the streetchild are inadequate for his becoming. The fact that the streetchild finds himself in a situation of dysfunctional education (educational distress), implies that his psychic life is under-actualised. According to Van Niekerk (1982 : 20-30) this under-actualisation of the psychic life of the child will eventually result in:

- inadequate exploration;
- inadequate emancipation;
- inadequate distantiation;
- inadequate differentiation;
- inadequate objectification; and,
- inadequate learning.

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CHAPTER 4

ACCOUNTABLE SUPPORT FOR THE STREETCHILD

4.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Van Schalkwyk (1988 : 132) every supporting service for a child accomplishes a specific task in the interests of education: ".....supporting services are essentially educationally qualified ". Janse van Rensburg (1991) calls supporting services the organized help provided so that the educational process can run smoothly. With specific regard to the pedagogic situation Van Schalkwyk (1988) noted that after the root of the problem and its causes have been determined, guidance must also be given to the parents as they are usually the main cause of the child's problem. A pedagogic supporting service will naturally also include:

- the removal of the child from his present situation;
- the placement of the child;
- after-care and therapy.

According to Van Niekerk (1990) a universal truth is the fact that a child must have an adequate upbringing, that is education. He cannot simply grow up. This immediately accentuates the fact that whatever causal factors or remedial strategies are to be considered, the point of departure can

only be that the child is dependent on education.

It would be untenable to try to explain the phenomenon of streetchildren in a simplistic way by referring to certain specific factors in isolation, such as poverty or drug abuse (Van Niekerk, 1990 : 5). The effect of each of these factors on the education or upbringing of a child should be interpreted and clearly indicated.

Accountable support for the streetchild must therefore be viewed from his dependence on education. The streetchild finds himself in a situation of educational distress.

Accountable support for the streetchild implies that the child must be given meaningful help so that the situation of dysfunctional education in which he is caught up can be rectified. This also implies that all presently available legislation that provides for the welfare of the streetchild and structures for accountable support for the streetchild must be investigated.

At present only a few social workers and voluntary organisations, such as " The Homestead" and the " Twilight Children's Organization" reach out to streetchildren to endeavour to rehabilitate the families and supervise those children who

return to their original homes (Van Niekerk, 1990 : 4). Where possible, attempts are also being made to arrange for alternative accommodation for some of these children by means of privately organized "shelters" in the major city centres (Mbanjwa, 1990 ; Van Niekerk, 1990). According to Van Niekerk (1990 : 4) schools and "vocational" training centres have also been established in an effort to assist these children in obtaining lawful and independent occupations.

Voluntary organizations are faced with the dilemma that their philanthropic motivations are not supported by statute. Absconding children are subsequently accommodated on humane grounds only (Urbani, 1990). They have the minimum of prescribed rules, which entail mostly the prohibition of smoking dagga and the inhalation of intoxicants. They are also required to respect other persons' bodies and belongings and they should not display uncontrolled behaviour. Children who do not abide by these rules have to leave the "school" (Van Niekerk, 1990 : 5).

The Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983 is a legal instrument sanctioning the services rendered to all children in the Republic of South Africa. According to Mbanjwa (1990 : 2) community involvement however has, increased particularly to

meeting the needs of the streetchild, and there has been a noticeable discrepancy between what the Act provides and what private initiative is offering towards the alleviation of the plight of the streetchild.

4.2 THE CHILD CARE ACT NO.74 OF 1983 AS AMENDED

This Act focuses on the inadequate parent rather than on the uncontrollable child. No provision is made in the Act to accommodate parents who, because of circumstances beyond their control such as violence, poverty, urbanisation, unrest and illiteracy, do not earn enough to provide for the needs of their family (Van Niekerk, 1990 : 6).

4.2.1 Certain definitions in this Act

Before looking at the abovementioned act it is necessary to clarify certain definitions from the Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983 as amended:

- Social worker: refers to any person registered as a social worker under the Social and Associated Workers Act.

- Authorised Officer: means any person authorized in writing by a Commissioner of Child Welfare, Social Worker or policeman to perform a service.

- Children's Court: a private hearing where a Commissioner of Child Welfare (who is always a magistrate), a social worker, a child and family concerned attend an inquiry held in camera.
- Children's Home: refers to any residence or home maintained for the reception, protection, care and bringing-up of more than six children apart from their parents but does not include any school of industries or reform school.
- Reform School: a school maintained for the reception, care, education and training of children sent thereto in terms of the Criminal Procedure Act of 1977, and sent thereto under the Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983 as amended.
- School of Industries: a school maintained for the reception, care, education and training of children sent or transferred thereto under the Child Care Act.
- Director-General: in relation to the Child Care Act means the head of the department of State, administered by the Minister to whom the administration of that provision has been assigned.
- Place of Care: any building or premises maintained or

used/whether for profit or otherwise, for the reception and temporal or partial care of more than six children apart from their parents, but does not include any boarding school, school hostel or any establishment which is maintained or used mainly for the tuition or training of children which is controlled by or which has been registered or approved by the State.

- Place of Safety: any temporal place suitable for the reception of a child into which the owner, occupier or person in charge thereof is willing to receive a child.

4.2.2 Provisions in the Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983 as amended

The following are the various ways in which the children are dealt with in terms of this Act:

(1) Opening of Children's Court Proceedings

There are four ways in which Children's Court proceedings may be opened viz:

- If it appears to any court in the course of any proceedings before that court that any child has no parent or guardian or that it is in the interest and welfare of any child that he be taken to a place of safety, that court may make such

an order (Section 11 (1)).

- If it appears to any Commissioner of Child Welfare on information given under oath by any person that there are reasonable grounds for believing that any child has no parent or guardian, or that it is in the interest of the safety and welfare of any child that he be taken to a place of safety, that Commissioner may issue a warrant authorizing any policeman or social worker or any other person to search for the child and take him to a place of safety (Section 11 (2)).

- Any policeman, social worker or authorized officer may remove a child to a place of safety without a warrant if such a person has reason to believe that the child is a child referred to in Section 14 (14), (to be explained later) and that the delay in obtaining a warrant will be prejudicial to the safety and welfare of that child (Section 12(1)).

- A child can be taken to a children's court by a social worker with a report requesting that children's court proceedings be opened in view of the fact that the child has no parent or guardian or is in the custody of a person

unable or unfit in terms of section 14(14) to have the custody of the child.

(2) Holding of Inquiries

Holding of inquiries is the second provision laid down in the Child Care Act No 74 of 1983 for dealing with children. At the children's court inquiry the court must determine whether a child can be described in terms of Section 14(4) referred to earlier. This would determine whether:

- the child has no parent or guardian ;
- the child has a parent or guardian who is unable or unfit to have the custody of the child in that he either ;
- is mentally ill to such a degree that he is unable to provide for the physical, mental or social well-being of the child ;
- has assaulted or ill-treated the child or allowed him to be assaulted or ill-treated ;
- has caused or conduced to the seduction, abduction or prostitution of the child or the commission by the child of immoral acts ;
- displays habits and behaviour which may seriously injure the physical, mental or social well-being of the child ;
- fails to maintain the child adequately ;

- neglects the child or allows him to be neglected ;
- cannot control the child properly, so as to ensure proper behaviour such as regular school attendance ;
- has no visible means of support.

As can be noted above, emphasis in Section 14 is more on the parent than on the child. This sometimes creates problems for social workers when dealing with streetchildren as the parents often cannot be traced in order to investigate their circumstances (Mbanjwa, 1990 : 6). Social workers therefore have to "presume" that the parents are unable or unfit to care for their child.

(3) Orders which can be made at the Inquiry

Upon holding of a Children's Court Inquiry the Child Care Act makes provision for one of the following orders to be made:

- that the child be returned to his parents under the supervision of the social worker and on condition that the child or his parent comply with certain requirements ;
- that the child be placed in the custody of foster parents under supervision of a social worker ;

- that the child be sent to a children's home designated by the Director-General ;
- that the child be sent to a school of industries designated by the Director-General (Section 15(1)).

(4) Residential care provided in terms of the child Care Act No 74. of 1983 as amended

(a) Place of Safety

As has been stated under the definitions, this is a place that provides temporal care of the children whilst the social workers are carrying out investigations in terms of the Child Care Act. The Child Care Act permits detention of the child for up to 14 days after which a social worker is expected to report at the Children's Court with her recommendations regarding the future placement of the child (Mbanjwa, 1990 : 7).

(b) Children's Home

Any residence or home maintained for the reception, protection, care and bringing-up of more than six children apart from their parents but does not include any school of industries or reform school. According to Mbanjwa (1990 : 7) children who for any reasons cannot be returned to their parents or cannot be placed with foster parents are very

often sent to a Children's Home which is a more permanent home than a Place of Safety. The Act provides for the keeping of a child at the Children's Home for up to 2 years.

(c) Reform School

Children that have been dealt with in terms of the Criminal Procedures Act are very often ordered to Reform School. This is a corrective institution which through both its professional and non-professional staff aims at providing a corrective rehabilitation programme to assist juveniles to normal standards of behaviour. Children stay for up to 2 years (Mbanjwa, 1990 : 7).

(d) Schools of Industries

According to Van Niekerk (1990 : 4) schools of industries are places that aims at training the youth in the marketable skills of industry. Formal education is also provided though the main emphasis is preparing the youth for eventual entry into the open labour market. Skills training is offered in such trades as brick-laying, carpentry, electrical and electrical engineering.

4.3 OVERVIEW OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN WELFARE SYSTEM

4.3.1 Legislation

In addition to the Republic of South Africa Constitution Act,

1983 as amended, which enables welfare to be organized on a race group basis, three Acts of Parliament provide the framework for the Republic's social welfare system

(McKendrick, 1987 : 24 - 28):

- The Social and Associated Workers Act 1978, as amended, which provides for control over the profession of social work and associated professions (such as child care workers, for example);

- the National Welfare Act 1978, which provides amongst other things for the registration of welfare organizations, the co-ordination and planning of welfare services at the local level, a South African Welfare Council to advise the Minister on welfare matters, and for regional welfare boards for the various race groups; and

- the Fund-raising Act 1978, as amended, which provides for control of the collection or receipt of voluntary contributions from the public.

Within the context of these three Acts, social welfare organizations are influenced by the provisions of other Acts which regulate the social welfare response to persons who are

disadvantaged or at risk. Principal among these Acts are:

- The Abuse of Dependence Producing Substances and Rehabilitation Centres Act, 1971 as amended;
- The Aged Persons Act, 1967 as amended ;
- The Blind Persons Act, 1968 as amended ;
- The Child Care Act, 1983 as amended ;
- The Criminal Procedure Act, 1977 as amended ;
- The Disability Grants Act, 1968 as amended ;
- The Mental Health Act, 1973 as amended ;
- The Social Pensions Act, 1973 as amended.

4.3.2 Structure

Bearing in mind that a number of uniraical welfare structures exist side by side, it is nevertheless possible to demarcate the respective roles of state and community across all of these parallel structures.

According to McKendrick (1987) the state's task is provision of:

- statutory personal social service programmes;
- overall planning of social welfare; and
- social security provision.

The private sector, comprising of community and church-sponsored welfare organizations, has primary responsibility for non-statutory personal social services.

"Personal social services", or "social services", refers to organized activities that are directly concerned with the conservation, protection and improvement of human resources (McKendrick, 1987 : 25). They involve direct services to people (individuals, families, small groups and larger community groups) to promote their social well-being, to prevent the occurrence of social problems and to reduce existing social problems.

The term "social security" is used (McKendrick, 1987 : 25) to imply programmes of protection, usually involving financial assistance, provided to people by the state in order to protect them against the contingencies of life (e.g. blindness, disability, old age, etc.).

According to McKendrick (1987) in South Africa proper state-sponsored personal social services are delivered through the regional and local offices of four state departments (the Departments of Health Services and Welfare of the Houses of Assembly, Delegates and Representatives, respectively, and

the Department of Education and Development Aid); while in the self-governing and independent South African national states, they are delivered through independent departments of health and welfare.

The personal social services given by state departments are concerned with the social welfare aspects of Acts of Parliament. Community and church-sponsored personal social services are delivered by 1600 local welfare organizations, registered as such in terms of the National Welfare Act, 1978. Almost without exception, local welfare organizations are affiliated to one of 18 nationally- or provincially-organized bodies (for example, the SA National Council for the Blind, or the Jewish Family and Community Council of the Transvaal). These national and provincial bodies co-ordinate and develop local services within their functional fields.

While overall control of social welfare planning is retained by the various state departments, four structures exist to facilitate co-ordination and co-operation between the state and the private sector on matters directly or indirectly related to welfare (McKendrick, 1987 : 26):

- Nationally- and provincially-organized bodies liaise

with the state on matters concerning the field(s) in which they function, while on matters of common interest they combine together into an ad hoc committee for dealings with the state.

- The National Welfare Act, 1978 as amended, provides for 24 regional welfare boards, representing states and community interests, which have statutory power to regulate, co-ordinate, promote and plan welfare activities within their regions. These boards are uniracial. At the national level, the multi-racial South African Welfare Council advises the government on social welfare needs and issues.

- For the purposes of co-ordinating social, physical, economic and constitutional development, the Department of Constitutional Development and Planning has created multi-racial Regional Development Advisory Committees in each of the eight development regions of South Africa. Each regional committee is represented on the National Development Advisory Committee, which advises the Cabinet on overall development needs and strategies.

- A national Population Development Programme, initiated

in 1984, has the aim of stimulating community development at the local level in order to accelerate improvement in the quality of life of all communities. Local community development committees are represented on sub-regional Development Associations, which in turn are represented on the regional development advisory committees described earlier. Within each region, state and community activities to promote the Population Development Programme are co-ordinated through an inter-departmental committee on which the private sector is represented (McKendrick & Dudas, 1987).

In addition to the four structures described above, other structures exist which may have influence on the co-ordination and/or development of welfare facilities. One of these is the network of state-established Joint Management committees which covers the whole country. The functioning of these committees is not open to direct public scrutiny. The committees are reported to be primarily concerned with security, and to this end co-ordinate the activities of all state departments, including security forces, at the local levels (McKendrick, 1987 : 29).

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Other programmes and structures with the potential to greatly influence welfare planning and co-ordination exist under the aegis of the "common affairs" Department of National Health and Population Development. One is a Co-ordinating Committee to promote the interests of disabled people at national and regional levels through the formulation of a national policy on the care of the disabled, and the devising of strategies to meet these people's needs. Another is the National Advisory Board on Rehabilitation Matters which, despite its broad title, is concerned with the abuse of dependence-producing substances. This Board is giving attention to the formulation of a national policy on the prevention and combating of alcohol and drug abuse.

4.3.3 Funding of social welfare

According to McKendrick (1987 : 27-28) the finance for welfare services in South Africa is predominantly provided by the state from tax revenue. Income tax from individuals provides the state with its largest single source of revenue: 10 billion Rands annually, compared with 9,5 billion Rands in tax collected from industry and 8 billion Rands generated from general sales tax.

Work-related social security provision involves funding from

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other sources in addition to the state. Unemployment insurance (which includes maternity and sickness benefits for workers) is jointly funded by contributions from employees, employers and the state, while work injury benefits ('workmen's compensation') are financed entirely by employers through insurance premiums which vary with risk.

There can be no doubt that the state is overwhelmingly the major source of finance for welfare services (McKendrick, 1987 : 27-28). Nevertheless, the private sector is not an insignificant source of funding for community welfare organizations. No recent figure exists of the actual total income of the Republic's 1 600 community and church-sponsored welfare organizations, but in 1976 the van Rooyen Commission estimated their income to be R130 million (Report of the Commission of Inquiry into the collection of Voluntary Contributions from the Public, 1976). McKendrick and Dudas (1987) have projected that this income, allowing for inflation, was in excess of R250 million in 1986.

4.4 WELFARE SERVICES PERTAINING TO THE STREETCHILD

According to Blignaut (1990 : 3) no legislation directly pertaining to the streetchild or support for the streetchild is at present available. This would imply that legally no

direct provision has been made to effect accountable support for the streetchild.

As mentioned before, at present only a few social workers and voluntary organizations, such as shelters for streetchildren reach out to these children to endeavour to rehabilitate the families and supervise those children who return to their original homes (Van Niekerk, 1990 : 4).

The Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983, as amended, is intended to apply to children removed from parental care through the intervention of a social worker and placed in a residential facility chosen by the social worker or designated by the Director-General (Starke, 1988). Streetchildren are slightly different from this category, as they are children who have "removed themselves" from parental care and have "chosen" the residential facility themselves, be it a shelter for streetchildren or a streetcorner. According to Starke (1988) this then often presents many problems for social workers who attempt interventions with these children in terms of the Child Care Act particularly at "intake level" when children themselves are still unsettled and unsure whether or not they can trust the social workers or staff at the place of safety. This results in a vicious cycle of abscondments from places

of safety and running away from social workers' offices back to the street.

4.4.1 State welfare services

(1) The role of the South African Police

The Minister of Law and Order of the RSA, Mr. A.J. Vlok (1990 : 2) noted the following regarding the phenomenon of the streetchild and the role of the SAP in this regard: "... unfortunately our current enforcement and correctional practices are so organized that we are not making an effective impact and thousands of children are emotionally and physically still being left in the cold, not even to mention the streetchildren. I believe that the solution to the problem of the streetchild is not to be found in policing at all. It is a social problem and the solution must come from society itself".

According to Blignaut (1990 : 7) the Durban City Police established a special unit in 1988 to attend to the problem of streetchildren. Through intensive patrol duties and observation they identify streetchildren. Once identified, the streetchild is taken to the local District Surgeon for a medical examination and is thereafter admitted to the Bayhead Place of Safety, where social workers take over

responsibility for the children. Facilities for the permanent accommodation of children in institutions are and always will be inadequate, not to mention that it does not in the long term offer a solution to the problem (Blignaut, 1990 : 7).

All "children in need of care" can be accommodated under the Child Care Act, as amended, whether they are streetchildren or not. In terms of Section 11 (2) of the Child Care Act, a commissioner of child welfare can in the interest of the safety and welfare of a child, issue a warrant authorising a policeman to remove a child to a place of safety.

Children who are taken into custody by the police usually have to appear in a Children's Court. After the proceedings, most are referred to a place of safety.

(Blignaut, 1990; Van Niekerk, 1990). A policeman may also in term of Section 12 (1) of the Child Care Act, remove a child from any place to a place of safety without a warrant if the child is a child referred to in Section 14 (4) and the delay in obtaining the warrant will be prejudicial to the safety and welfare of the child.

Section 38 of the Child Care Act provides a policeman with the authority to arrest without a warrant, any pupil who has

absconded from any institution or place of safety in terms of this Act.

Section 51 of the Child Care Act prohibits the unlawful removal of children from any institution or place of safety or the harbouring of a child such as this.

According to Blignaut (1990) the only real problems posed by the practical implementation of section 14 (4) of the Child Care Act, are firstly, the lack of a definition of a "streetchild" whereby such child could be identified.

Section 14(4) (viii) refers to circumstances in which the parent cannot control the child properly so as to ensure his/her proper behaviour, such as regular school attendance - because school attendance by black pupils is not compulsory, this "guideline" or requirement for removal does not serve any purpose in respect of black streetchildren. Secondly, it is not practically possible to investigate the whereabouts of every black child found wandering around aimlessly in the city or to remove a child such as this to a place of safety pending a Children's Court inquiry.

(2) Place of Safety

In Natal, for example, there are only three places of safety

viz. Bayhead in Durban, Umlazi Place of Safety and Pata Place of Safety in Pietermaritzburg (Mbanjwa, 1990 : 11).

Each place of safety aims at providing maximum physical, emotional, educational care of the children. The places of safety are manned by various trained care-workers who act as parents to the children. The professional staff comprises of the social worker, nursing sisters, sometimes a full-time or visiting psychologist (Mbanjwa, 1990; Van Niekerk, 1990). Admission of the child to the place of safety is through an order granted at the Children's Court and release or further movement of the child from the place of safety is also controlled in terms of the Child Care Act through the Children's Court.

According to Mbanjwa (1990) it sometimes happens for specific reasons that children stay at the place of safety for more than 14 days; this has necessitated provision of education for the children. Pata Place of Safety has a fully-fledged school run by the Department of Education and Training, to cater for the educational needs of the children. Prior to this, children attended outside schools in the nearby vicinity.

(3) Children's Home

The Child Care Act provides for the keeping of a child at the Children's Home for up to 2 years while social workers are expected to render reconstruction services to the child's home, trying to deal with whatever pathology that might have contributed to the child's plight (Mbanjwa, 1990 : 7).

Social workers are further expected to be able eventually to re-unite these children with their families (Child Care Act No 74 of 1983, as amended).

Being a more permanent residence, the Children's Home strives to provide intensive treatment for children; assistance includes assessing their emotional/behavioural problems thereby devising an appropriate rehabilitation programme. Education is also a very important component of this rehabilitation programme (Van Niekerk, 1990; Mbanjwa, 1990). Very often Children's Home will use available schools in the neighbourhood so as not to isolate the children from the larger community. In Natal alone, there are 8 Children's Homes.

(4) Reform Schools

Children stay for up to 2 years while social workers through

reconstruction services, aim at eliminating certain environmental factors that might have contributed to the juvenile's deviant behaviour. In Natal there are two Reform Schools situated at Eshowe (for boys) and Ngwelezane (for girls) (Mbanjwa, 1990 : 6).

(5) Schools of Industries

As mentioned before the school of industries is a place that aims at training the youth in the marketable skills of industry. Formal education is also provided though the main emphasis is preparing the youth for eventual entry into the open labour market. Skills training is offered in trades like brick-laying, carpentry, electrical engineering, etc. (Child Care Act No 74 of 1983, as amended). There is only one such school for Black children. It is situated in the Cape (Mbanjwa, 1990 : 5).

4.4.2 Volunteer welfare services

(1) Shelters

Private concern for the streetchildren has resulted in the community providing shelters for the streetchild (Mbanjwa, 1990 ; Van Niekerk, 1990). Richter (1990 : 6) noted that the hostile attitude of the public and security services towards the streetchild seems to be disappearing.

According to Van Niekerk (1990 : 4) schools and "vocational" training centres have also been established in an effort to assist these children in obtaining lawful and independent occupations. According to Van Niekerk (1990 : 8) , shelters aim at offering an "education, vocational preparedness and child-care project for streetchildren in South Africa".

According to Janse van Rensburg (1991) the activities of shelters for streetchildren fall into three clearly defined categories namely:

- an outreach programme which is designed to provide basic child-care for streetchildren still on the streets;
- an education programme that is aimed at supplying mainstream as well as remedial education in all the standard school subjects. The ultimate aim is to return as many streetchildren as possible to formal education;
- a "graduate" support programme which entails the active support of streetchildren who have been returned to formal education.

In an interview with Neethling (1990), principal of Street-Wise, he stated that during 1990 Street-Wise had already provided shelter for approximately 500 of these children, but unfortunately quite a substantial number (who could not be reached), became part of the permanent street scene. Other smaller and voluntary support organizations for the streetchild have found the financial burden of supplying such a service too restricting to function alone and have joined up with other shelters (Richter, 1990 : 6). It is thus understandable that the quality of the service provided is severely hampered by the lack of available funds and that this factor has caused quite a few shelters for streetchildren to close down.

The activities of Shelters comprise sheltering, education, child care and vocational preparation. The need for these shelters may easily be questioned by the general public as it can be reasoned that provision for the care of children is made under the Child Care Act. There are various important viewpoints which highlight the need for shelters, viz:

- In spite of the provisions in the Child Care Act, city streets still provide a home for many children.

- Swart (1986) explains that because of the street-children's past bad experiences with officialdom i.e. parents, social workers, teachers, police, etc. they tend to be very suspicious when confronted with formal questioning and actually display rebellion to involuntary removal to places of safety no matter how well intentioned the motive is. According to Mbanjwa (1990) police and social workers are considered by streetchildren as the worst group because their intervention often leads to arrest or detention at the place of safety and subsequent returning of the streetchild to the same unchanged home environment that originally caused him to find refuge in the street. Van Niekerk (1990) also maintains that the returning of a streetchild to an unstable or inadequate home environment serves no purpose for the streetchild; in fact, such an action could only worsen the situatedness of the child.

- Zingaro (1988 : 7) noted that "....streetchildren have often gone through the process of institutionalization and sometimes through a series of foster homes, a lifestyle that has gone on for a long period of time without any successes and finally where everybody has decided that these are the failures, the system's failures, the therapy

failures, the family failures and the police department failures."

According to Mbanjwa (1990 : 8) people running shelters in major cities believe that adoption of a voluntary approach in dealing with the streetchild is most likely to have better results than use of coercion e.g. involuntary committal to the place of safety by either the social worker or police. Zingaro (1988) points out that streetchildren have their own ways of adapting to streetlife and unless a collaborative relationship towards change develops, not much can be done to change their life style. This view is also supported by Van Niekerk (1990) and Janse van Rensburg (1991). It is on this principle that admission to a shelter for streetchildren is made voluntary and even continued patronage of the shelter lies solely on the basis of whether he feels he is benefiting from the service or not. It is this attitude that results in positive identification with the shelter thus laying a much better foundation for successful rehabilitation.

According to Neethling (1990) shelters for streetchildren have also acknowledged education as an important component of the rehabilitation programme. Problems have also been realized in this regard viz:

- abuse of glue affects the streetchild's concentration levels and ;
- because of their emotional problems, streetchildren are often unsettled and unstable.

This very often makes them unresponsive to structured formalized education. Many Shelters have therefore devised an informal type of remedial education designated to meet the needs of streetchildren at this unstable stage. This informal education helps to positively sensitize the child and prepares him for formal education when his life has shown some stability (Van Niekerk, 1990 ;Janse van Rensburg, 1991).

Like in the children's homes these shelters aim at providing maximum physical, emotional, social and spiritual care for the children through the use of "trained child care-workers", professional staff and volunteers (Van Niekerk, 1990 ; Janse van Rensburg, 1991). This educational intervention or assistance presently available for the streetchild is often haphazard, superficial and a duplication of both educational and welfare services which drains existing manpower and renders it inadequate (cf. Van Niekerk, 1990; Urbani, 1988). Various studies have proved that this duplication and almost total lack of co-ordination is expensive and inappropriate

(cf. De Lange, 1981; Urbani, 1988; Janse van Rensburg, 1991).

Privately-run shelters are being established in most large cities, but advertisements for them are already being suspected of playing a role in encouraging children to take to the streets with the hope of finding a place in a shelter (Richter & Swart, 1989 : 3). This situation is aggravated by the violence in Black townships (Maree, 1990 : 4).

(2) Church welfare services

The church welfare services do not provide any direct support for the streetchild. One of the main reasons for this is the fact that churches which mainly cater for Black people are not yet structured to provide support. In an interview with Nel (1990) it was found that the churches which cater for the white population groups do indeed have specific welfare services but none as yet for streetchildren. According to Nel (1990) the church is mainly concerned with its own members. Due to the fact that the streetchildren phenomenon is almost totally a problem amongst Black children, the need for accountable support for white streetchildren has not arisen. Churches do become involved indirectly if approached by volunteer welfare organizations. This involvement usually take the form of cash donations or donations in kind (eg.

services, clothing, blankets, food, etc.). These donations are usually made only when approached and not on a permanent basis.

According to Luthuli (1982) there are approximately 1 000 different denominations of religion which cater for the Black society in Kwa Zulu. As far as it could be established, none of these church groups have a welfare support programme which caters for the Black streetchild.

According to the Annual Report of the Nederduitse Gereformeerde Kerk (1989), both the Nederduitse Gereformeerde Sendingkerk as well as the Nederduitse Gereformeerde Kerk van Afrika have no welfare programmes or support structures for the streetchild. Both of these churches cater mainly for Black members of the Dutch Reformed Church.

4.5 DE LANGE REPORT

An investigation regarding education for the pedagogically neglected child is contained in the De Lange Report (1981 : 3) which investigated education for children with special educational needs. Although not specifically mentioned, the streetchild is without any doubt a pedagogically neglected child. The De Lange Report (1981) made certain

recommendations regarding a support structure for the pedagogically neglected child. Because these recommendations could also prove to be invaluable as means of support for the streetchild as well as an effective means to deal with the educational distress of the streetchild they need to be considered.

4.5.1 Recommendations of the De Lange Report (1981)
regarding the pedagogically neglected child.

According to the De Lange Report (1981) ways and means should be sought to place Children's Homes, Children's Act Schools and Places of Safety under the same control, preferably under that of a department that is best equipped to see to the needs of these children. Other recommendations include the following:

- Children with no behaviour deviations who reside in children's homes should not be placed in Children's Act schools.

- Attention should be given to the size, construction and geographic placement of Children's Act schools and children's homes, but more specifically to smaller hostels and contact with other schools and society in general.

- Provision of services on the basis of a multidisciplinary team should enjoy top priority.
- An in-depth evaluation should be made of how the total situation of the juvenile delinquent is dealt with, with special reference to the quality of the present re-educative programme.
- Long-term follow-up studies of pupils who have been discharged from Children's Act schools should be undertaken with a view to possible future adjustments of the present educational situation.
- Attention should be paid to the critical shortage of child psychiatrists and their training.
- A co-operative Educational Service Centre (CESC) which incorporates a section for Evaluation and Guidance (SEG) should be established in every defined educational region (or service area).

4.5.2 The functioning of the section for Evaluation and Guidance (SEG)

(1) Nature of the SEG

According to the De Lange Report (1981) the task of the SEG includes comprehensive diagnosis, designing remedial

educational programmes and guidance. The SEG does not provide continuous remedial and other assistance, therapy, special education, etc. This is provided within the various educational institutions where guidance, re-diagnosis, follow-up treatment and in-service training can be done by the staff of the SEG.

Comprehensive evaluation includes an evaluation, diagnosis, guidance and designing programmes by a team comprising educationists, social workers, psychologists, medical doctors and paramedics. The SEG therefore provides preventive as well as diagnostic and guidance services in that evaluation, diagnosis and guidance are provided for children (from birth onwards) as well as for parents (e.g. a genetic advisory service is also included).

To create greater clarity and rationalization in respect of these team members, the Working Committee: Education for children with special educational needs, as a result of its findings, held in-depths discussions about the personnel who should be involved in school clinics and co-operative evaluation and guidance centres and laid down guidelines for

the functions and training of the following team members:

- educational psychologist
- educationist (orthodidactics)
- school social worker.

An educational psychologist is someone who has been registered in terms of Act. No. 56 of 1974. Ideally, he has five consecutive years of training in psychology, has served an internship of 18 months at an approved institution and is capable of using diagnostic tests and making corrections in terms of diagnoses that have already been made.

The educationist (orthodidactics) has qualifications as laid down by an appropriate professional council. His functions include the interpretation of scholastic data of a diagnostic nature (or psychological reports), the development of didactical programmes, didactical evaluation, consultation with the teacher and remedial teacher in particular and the implementation of educational and remedial programmes.

The school social worker is registered according to Act No. 110 of 1978 and is responsible for family guidance, the socialization of the child and for dealing with problems that may arise in the child's transition from mainstream to

special education or vice versa.

The above is merely a brief and preliminary exposition of some of the main functions of the functionaries mentioned. In the light of this the following categories of professional personnel are proposed (Urbani, 1981) for a fully developed SEG :

On a full time basis;

- The head as team leader/co-ordinator ;
- Doctor ;
- Educationist (orthodidactics) ;
- School guidance teacher/Counselling psychologist ;
- Educational psychologist ;
- School social worker ; and
- Nurse.

Medical specialists, paramedics and legal advisors will also be included on a part-time and consultative basis. It is important that professional personnel who are involved in the SEG on a full-time basis should also play a part in the in-service training of staff at the SEG as well as related personnel.

In the light of the above the following recommendations were

made:

RECOMMENDATION 16: The training of educationists (orthodidactics), who are responsible for designing remedial programmes for children with learning problems with a view to the remedial or class teachers at schools implementing those is an urgent matter.

RECOMMENDATION 18: Within the context of the SEG the task of the school social worker should include family guidance, socialization of the child and dealings with problems that may arise in the transition from mainstream education to special education or vice versa.

(2) Registration with a statutory teachers' council

It is imperative that the existing professional personnel involved in the tasks of evaluation and diagnosis of and providing assistance and guidance for impaired and handicapped children and who have undergone predominantly educational training, should be subject to the discipline and registration requirements of a professional council. The committee does not wish to express an opinion on what the fields of jurisdiction of the three professional councils for psychologists, social workers and teachers in particular

should be, for it feels that these professional bodies should judge for themselves. The above-mentioned categories should be able to register with a statutory teachers' council.

(3) The relation between the SEG and School Clinics

School clinics which are under the same control as the schools in a specific region serve as an intermediate body between the SEG and schools. Personnel attached to school clinics consist of the same categories of team members working at the SEG. Comprehensive evaluation, diagnosis and guidance as well as assistance, therapy, remedial treatment, compensatory education and parental guidance can be provided at school clinics. School clinics form an integral part of an education authority's provision of education in a particular area or region. The staff at school clinics and teaching staff at schools work together as a team. Personnel of the SEG can also assist with the in-service training of personnel at school clinics.

An infrastructure for the education of and the rendering of assistance to children with special educational needs should be built up simultaneously within schools and school clinics. Initially the staff at the school clinics will have to serve more schools and provide in-service training for teachers.

It is only in cases where the personnel at school clinics cannot deal with specific problem situations satisfactorily that the assistance of the SEG will be sought.

4.6 SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK

4.6.1 Introduction

In considering school social work as means of an accountable support system for the streetchild, the following important factors must be borne in mind:

- the majority of streetchildren identified in the RSA are at present Black boys (Maree 1990; Van Niekerk 1990);
- compulsory education for Blacks does not yet exist in the RSA;
- psychological services (School Clinics) within Black education departments are virtually non-existent.

These three factors would thus imply that at present a school social work programme within Black schools as means of rendering an accountable support system for Black streetchildren would actually be powerless. The main reason for this is the fact that education for Blacks is not yet compulsory and would therefore make the identification of Black streetchildren almost impossible.

However, school social work can render a crucial contribution

as a support system for streetchildren where there is compulsory education.

4.6.1 The scope of school social work

According to Le Roux (1987 : 211) the behaviour of the child that is deprived of the secure environment of the school will manifest itself in aggressiveness, anti-social behaviour and the development of a phobia regarding the school and education. If a school social worker could assist the teacher in identifying, diagnosing the problem, working with the problem and even referring the problem for specialised attention, preventive action could be taken timeously within the school context. Social work training is geared towards assisting the client (e.g. a child displaying deviant behaviour) to achieve his maximum potential within any given circumstance.

Due to the fact that formal educational structures concentrate their efforts mainly on teaching or the transfer of knowledge, very little time and opportunity remain for the teacher to give special attention to pupils in need of care (De Lange, 1981 : 58). In the same manner principals of schools are usually overloaded with administrative responsibilities and have neither the time nor opportunity

for supplying guidance to families where problems exist.

According to Van Wyk (1989 : 88) the "Subject Advisor: Guidance" is not professionally qualified to handle welfare related problems in schools or compile reports regarding them. This task could be fulfilled by a school social worker within the school. As highlighted by the De Lange Report on the Provision of Education in the RSA (1981) the school social worker is registered according to Act No. 110 of 1978 and will be responsible for family guidance, the socialization of the child and for dealing with problems that may arise in the child's transition from mainstream to special education or vice versa. The school social worker will have statutory support as well as the training to perform these functions within the school environment.

At present no teacher, guidance teacher nor principal has any statutory power, the required training or experience to perform these functions adequately.

4.7 SYNTHESIS

At present only a few social workers and voluntary organizations (shelters) reach out to these children to endeavour to rehabilitate the families and supervise those

children who have been returned to their original homes. Where possible attempts are also made to arrange for alternative accommodation for some of these children by means of privately organised "shelters" in the major centres.

Schools and "vocational" training centres have also been established in an effort to assist these children in obtaining lawful and independent occupations. Voluntary organizations are faced with the dilemma that their philanthropic motivations are not supported by statute. They subsequently accommodate absconded children on humane grounds. The question of accountable support structures available to the streetchild at present can be summarized as follows:

- no statutory provision exists at the moment that pertains directly to the streetchild;
- The Children's Act No. 74 of 1983 focuses on the inadequate parent rather than on the uncontrollable child. No provision is made in the Act to accommodate parents who, because of circumstances beyond their control (poverty, urbanisation, unrest, illiteracy, etc) do not earn enough to provide for the needs of their family;

- voluntary organizations are mainly involved in providing some support such as shelters for streetchildren. Shelters are involved in educational, vocational preparedness and child-care projects for streetchildren in South Africa. Most of the shelters that came into existence for providing some measure of support are existing illegally under present statutory provisions; lack the services of suitable qualified personnel; are often haphazardly organised; cannot cope effectively with the present situation and are a duplication of certain services in the provision of support;

- church involvement is restricted to a minimum by their responsibility of addressing other social problems amongst members within their own community. A small amount of indirect support is made by churches in the form of channelling funds as well as donations in kind (eg. clothing, food, use of church facilities etc.) towards voluntary organizations like local shelters;

- educational support structures in the form of school welfare services could prove to be very supportive. However, at present the effective functioning of such a service within the Black community will be extremely

hampered by the fact that Black Education is not yet compulsory within the RSA;

- if compulsory education did exist the needs of the pedagogically neglected child could be addressed by the school social worker. It would therefore be imperative that suitable persons be recruited, trained and schools be provided with the services of a trained school social worker. It was recommended by Le Roux (1987 : 402-407) that a four year degree course (SSW (Ed.) Degree) be instituted to train school social workers. This degree must include four years of social work training as well as courses in Pedagogics, Psychology, Sociology and Guidance. (This degree would allow entrance to both a M.A. degree in Social Work or a B.Ed. degree. The aim is to enable a suitably qualified school social worker at a school to be promoted to a senior position within the structure of a school and/or education department.) The main tasks of the school social worker would be to identify the pedagogically neglected child (e.g. the streetchild), be responsible for family guidance, the socialization of the child and for dealing with problems that may arise in the child's transition from mainstream to special education or vice versa. The school social worker could play a vital role

with regard to curbing the streetchild phenomenon:

- In the first place the school social worker will be suitable qualified to identify and work with the streetchild and his parents.

- Secondly the school social worker will also have the statutory power to effect the channelling of the streetchild to a clinic or special school. At the same time the school social worker will have the required knowledge and statutory backing to assist , and work with, the SAP, welfare organizations and voluntary support organisations like shelters for streetchildren.

- Thirdly, the school social worker will be an absolute necessity whenever a rehabilitated streetchild is returned from a special school back to mainstream education.

Regarding the accountable support for the streetchild it can thus be concluded that a number of voluntary organizations (mainly shelters) are involved in attempts to render some kind of support. The fact remains that the streetchild is a "child" that should be assisted by parents and the school in

his process of becoming. This crucial factor is at present often overlooked by these organizations that render support. These support structures direct their attention to activities that often exclude the school and the family context which are vital factors in the child's becoming. The actualization of the child's full potential therefore becomes more remote.

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**CHAPTER 5
THE TRANSITIONAL SCHOOL AS FUTURE MODEL FOR
ACCOUNTABLE SUPPORT TO STREETCHILDREN**

5.1 INTRODUCTION

From the previous chapters it is evident that the educational intervention or assistance presently available for the streetchild is often unsuccessful. This fact was emphasized by Schurink & Schurink (1993 : 19) who noted that most volunteer programmes in South Africa are struggling to render accountable support programmes. He identify the most serious problem facing South African streetchild programmes as being a lack of co-ordination, both between the different volunteer programmes and between volunteer programmes and the state.

Because most streetchildren choose on a voluntary basis whether or not to admit themselves to a shelter, the streetchild is also free to leave the shelter at any time in order to return to the streets. As mentioned before some streetchildren have been returned to the same shelter as many as fourteen times. Added to this state of affairs is the fact that the Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983 as amended does not provide for the establishment of shelters for street-children and these shelters are therefore seen as illegal and deprived of direct governmental support and protection.

Due to various factors such as financial constraints,

quite a number of shelters have been forced to halt its operations (Janse van Rensburg, 1991 : 94). Only a few shelters have survived but they are also experiencing a reasonable large turnover in staff. It can therefore be said that caring for streetchildren in shelters in South Africa has not been fully established as a career. According to Schurink & Schurink (1993 : 21) child care programmes in other countries have been established much more successfully mainly due to the fact that most have government support.

It is therefore imperative that some accountable support system which is supported, funded and to certain extent, controlled by the State should be instituted for the streetchild. By this it is implied that the State should see to it that streetchildren are given a second chance in their becoming. In order to ensure that this second chance will be offering the streetchild the best possible opportunity for addressing the educational distress he encounters on the street the support must be instituted according to pedagogical norms. This in turn implies the appointment and remuneration of suitably qualified staff. It is of major importance that these places should be protected and funded by the State.

In the search for a model of accountable support to streetchildren which will be supported and protected by law it becomes necessary to investigate briefly the following points of departure:

- what provisions have been made by the Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983 as amended to provide for the needs of the streetchild child regarding his educational distress;
- how these provisions can be adapted or enhanced in order to provide accountable support to streetchildren; and
- what kind of institution, programme and staff will be required to institute these provisions successfully.

5.2 THE CHILD CARE ACT NO. 74 OF 1984 AS AMENDED

The State provides for children in need of care via the Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983 as amended. If we recap quickly how the Child Care Act defines a child in need of care we find that the streetchild can also be classified as a child in need of care.

5.2.1 The Child in need of care

Article 1 of the Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983 as amended defines a child in need of care has been mentioned in Chapter 1 (page 12).

This exposition (chapter 1 page 12) is also applicable to the streetchild as this Act indirectly spell out the causes of pedagogical neglect as experienced by the child as :

- the emotional abuse and/or deprivation of the child in his earlier years;
- a broken home;
- overprotection, spoiling of the child or rejection and insecurity of the child;
- discord;
- the bad example of parents or unsatisfactory relations within the family circle;
- the absence of authority; and
- a poor future orientation.

The dilemma facing most streetchildren however, is that they must have themselves declared in need of care by a court of law before the State will take responsibility for their educational distress.

A closer look at one of the support systems provided by the State that is presently available for the pedagogically neglected child (streetchild) is necessary.

5.2.2 Industrial schools

From the preceding pages it becomes quite clear that the pedagogically neglected child (streetchild) belongs to a group of children whose formative education has gone so far wrong that a kind of educational crisis has arisen because of educational deficits of a specific nature, such as a lack of effective authoritative guidance, unsatisfactory emotional relationships, little or no normative foundations, insufficient assistance and support, little or no identification with a parent, insecurity, fear, etc.

The pedagogically neglected child is usually catered for in schools which in the RSA are known as Act schools. The Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983 as amended provides for the establishment, inter alia, of industrial schools for the formative and formal education of children in need of care. Education is aimed at the development of a healthy body (where the neglect is due to malnutrition, physical neglect, etc.) so as to attain health, intellectual growth and development, emotional stability, social adaptability and balance, a healthy outlook on life, good behaviour, the solving of domestic problems and the improvement of relations with members of the family.

The education of the pedagogically neglected children at the industrial school therefore demands total responsibility for their care and upbringing, as they have been temporarily withdrawn entirely from their biological family. Thus the child has to be cared for physically; provision has to be made for his becoming; he has to be provided with pocket money and any other matters usually undertaken by the family have to be attended to (Urbani, 1993 : 2).

However, not all children in need of care are committed to industrial schools. Many of them are committed to homes for children or to the care of foster-parents and receive formal education at ordinary schools. In practice a minimum age of twelve years is necessary for admission to industrial schools.

According to Van Niekerk (1990 : 4) schools of industries are places that aim at training the youth in the marketable skills of industry. Formal education is also provided though the main emphasis is on preparing the youth for eventual entry into the open labour market. Skills training is offered in trades such as brick-laying, carpentry and electrical engineering.

There are unfortunately very few industrial schools within

the RSA and children attending these schools have been viewed negatively by the general public. This negative connotation has caused the industrial school to be viewed as "a place of punishment" for juvenile delinquents. At the same time many failures have been recorded with regard to the educational work done in industrial schools and must be accounted for by the fact that education is viewed merely as a process of behavioural shaping, or the conditioning of behavioural patterns which must be definable and measurable (HSRC, 1975 : 24-61).

However, the main emphasis of the industrial school on preparing the youth for eventual entry into the open labour market remains a very valid and workable idea for rendering accountable support. The industrial school concept, combined with the services rendered by clinic schools (refer to 4.5.2 : 204-209), therefore forms a sound basis for the development of a future model for accountable support. It is interesting to note that quite a few educational principles of the industrial school concept are evident in the attempts made by shelters to address the educational distress of streetchildren. The structure as envisaged by shelters is that the educational programmes for the streetchild in need of special care should only serve as a bridge back to

mainstream education.

As the proposed model for future support is seen to be of a transitional nature, the model proposed will be referred to as the transitional school.

5.3 THE TRANSITIONAL NATURE OF SUPPORT REQUIRED

The Oxford Student's Dictionary of Current English (Hornby : 1987) explains transition as "changing or change from one condition or set of circumstances to another". The support rendered by the transitional school therefore is envisaged to be the changing of the streetchild's set of circumstances i.e. the insecure environment of pedagogical neglect on the street to a set of a secure environment of pedagogical becoming.

Most the streetchildren have had very little or no formal schooling. Many of the streetchildren have run away from formal schooling due to their experiences of failure. The streetchild is a pedagogically neglected child in need of special care. Due to this neglect, both at home and at school, the streetchild has built up a considerable backlog regarding the formation of an adequate life-world. This gives rise to the fact that the streetchild, once identified, cannot be returned to a ordinary school. The streetchild is

in need of special care which will enable him to erase his backlog with regard to formal education and at the same time enable him to constitute a meaningful life-world.

The streetchild needs to be placed in a transitional school where, via re-education, therapy and remedial teaching the following needs can be addressed (Urbani, 1993):

- improving of self-image ;
- improving of attention span;
- improvement of linguistic handicaps;
- improving conceptual skills.

To combat the pathic unrest that the streetchild experiences is get the child into the secure environment of the family milieu. This implies that the nature of the support required is that the streetchild should be returned to the secure environment of the family milieu. This family milieu will preferably be the child's own parents or family. If this cannot be done the child must be returned to a secure environment of accountable support which aims to create the same environment for becoming as found inside the family milieu i.e. the transitional school.

According to the HSRC investigation (1975) into support for

the pedagogically neglected child the staff attached to industrial schools are more familiar with the term remedial education. The two terms, remedial education and orthodidactical assistance, however, are not synonymous. Remedial education can be integrated with orthodidactical assistance if necessary. Fundamentally orthodidactical assistance is education assistance and in this sense all formal education at industrial schools is of an orthodidactical nature. The HRSC investigation (1975 : 60-72) found that a major shortcoming was that a large number of teachers have no knowledge of Orthodidactics.

From preceding discussions it is clear that the nature of all formal education at the transitional school will require an orthodidactical approach. This implies that the teachers attached to transitional schools will require a sound knowledge of Orthodidactics.

5.4 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE TRANSITIONAL SCHOOL

5.4.1 Introduction

An investigation by the HSRC (1975) clearly showed that the primary task of the industrial school with regard to the pedagogically neglected child in need of care, is one of re-

education. These children primarily need affective security, moulding of a stabilised affective life and lasting religious values.

The investigation also found that behavioural deviations are closely related to learning problems (casual or as symptoms). The fact remains, however, that if the behavioural deviation is the cause of the learning problems, the assistance to be rendered is re-education and not remediation. If the behavioural deviation is merely a symptom of the learning problem, the assistance to the child entails much more than mere remediation. Many learning defects cannot be rectified by remedial education. Assistance to these children entails aspects such as assistance in the understanding of the individual potentialities and in the designing of an individual future. Fundamentally it therefore is a task of re-education. Put briefly, in the classroom context the pedagogically neglected children should be regarded as "ordinary" children. They have to be prepared to take their place among "ordinary" people as fully fledged citizens. By nature of their historicity they will need more individual attention and the learning matter will have to be applied more deliberately as an educational aid.

5.4.2 School and hostels

The transitional schools for the pedagogically neglected child in need of special care should only serve as a bridge back to mainstream education, technical and industrial training. Ample provision should be made for educational psychologists, remedial teachers, occupational therapists and school social workers, apart from the necessary teaching and hostel staff (Urbani, 1993).

Once transitional schools for the pedagogically neglected child in need of special care have been established, the streetchild should be placed in these schools. The identification and resulting canalising of the streetchild to a special school can only be done by suitably qualified personnel who also have statutory power to effect these actions (refer to 4.6 :209).

For the transitional school and hostels to provide in the aspects which are essential in the child's efforts of becoming it must firstly aim at;

- providing the child with a safe place from which he can explore his life-world;
- supplying the child with answers to problems he may encounter during his explorations;

- providing a world where love is personally directed towards the child;
- being the primary socializing agent where the child learns socially accepted behaviour;
- being dynamic in that it adjust according to, and accommodate changes and new influences from outside;
- providing lasting personal relationships which enable the child to discover personal norms and values.

Secondly the transitional school will be a place that aims at providing the following (Urbani, 1993 : 3-7):

- Formal education; and
- Vocational training in the marketable skills of industry (skills training trades).

Thirdly at the transitional school remedial education and orthodidactical assistance, therapy, medical and paramedical services, as well as after-care services must be available.

5.4.3 Essential characteristics of the pedagogic relationship at the transitional school

Nobody can educate a child if a genuine pedagogical relationship is not established between him and the child. The pedagogical relationship is a unique relationship which reveals an individual structure, of which the fundamental

characteristics are the following:

(1) Trust

To gain a child's trust does not imply that he should be allowed "to live his own life". His trust in his educator on the one hand increases if constant demands are made of him on the strength of norms which the educator consistently embodies in his own life, and on the other hand, if the educator shows respect for the dignity of the child as a person and fellow-child of God. At the transitional school the trust between each child in need of care and his educators will gradually increase, particularly as the educators gain a deeper understanding of the child as a person and as the child's emotional security becomes stable through his increasing trust in his educators as persons of authority.

(2) Understanding

Understanding implies much more than merely taking cognizance of test results expressed in figures. Understanding is a relationship which increase in intensity as the educator encounters (and observes) the child in various situations. Historicity data are important, particularly as far as they elucidate the way in which the relationship and aim structures are

actualized (if at all) in the primary educational situation(s) of the child before he is admitted to the transitional school. Understanding also entails comprehension of the potentialities of the child in need of care which, owing to pedagogical neglect, have not been actualized.

(3) Authority

Within the educational relationship the educator assumes authority over the child who submits to the authority of the educator. The educator, however, derives his authority from norms and in the pursuit of his authority he draws the child's attention to the fact of their joint submission to the authority of the norm.

At the transitional school affection for and trust in the educator are fundamental to the child's acceptance of the authority of his educator. Affection for the child in need of care and respect for the norm forces the educator to accept pedagogical authority. Understanding of the child in need of care as a potentiality, enables the educator to exercise authority. The pedagogical relationship is therefore an indivisible relationship of unity, which reveals the essential characteristics of

trust, understanding and authority.

When staff attached to a transitional school attempt to establish a pedagogical relationship with a child and wish to increase the intensity and extent of such a relationship, all three fundamental characteristics should be embodied in equal measure in the relationship from the very beginning. Overemphasis of one characteristic leads to a distorted relationship which cannot be qualified as pedagogical (Urbani, 1993).

5.4.4. The course of the educational process with particular references to the situation at the transitional school

(1) **Introduction**

A particular course may be clearly indicated within the pedagogical situation. In the first instance the educator and child are time-spatially in each other's presence, as also are the teacher and child in the industrial school. Depending on the fact whether the pedagogical relationship structures have already been actualised, educational influencing will take place even in the initial situation of association. When it becomes evident that the educator has to intervene in the life of a child, it is necessary to arrive at an encounter with the child, since it is only within the encounter that

certainty may be obtained regarding the norm to be used in this intervention in the child's life. Only when certainty has been obtained regarding the norm under discussion, the teacher as educator can decide whether to accept responsibility for intervention with the child, or whether to refer the child to the headmaster or somebody else. The certainty regarding the norm is concomitant with an affirmation of the sincerity of the relationship of understanding. Only when the educator (teacher) has decided to accept responsibility for intervention with the child, may he intervene in an attempt to change the child's life may approve of the child's actions in order to stabilize that which is worthy of approval in the child's life. After the intervention the relationship returns to association between educator and child. Later on the child temporarily leaves the presence of the educator; he therefore leaves the educational situation.

If the relationship structures have been effectively actualized, the child will no longer regard himself as free from education, but now more than before, he will try to embody in his life the norms which were introduced

to him in the pedagogical situation. He will also yearn for a re-encounter with his educator, firstly to find confirmation for his ability to act independently responsibly and secondly, as a result of that, to experience an intensification of the relationship between him and his educator. According to Landman & Roos (1973) the following structures in the course of the pedagogical situation may be indicated: pedagogical association; pedagogical encounter; assuming responsibility for intervention, pedagogical mediation (intervention or agreement); return to pedagogical association and periodical abandonment of the pedagogical situation.

(a) Pedagogical association

Pedagogical association should be viewed as an indispensable part of the pedagogical situation, since generally educative affecting occurs during the association. In transitional schools where a small number of adults will be responsible for the re-education of a large number of children, pedagogical association should be viewed as an important dimension of the total educational process. During this association accepted forms or styles of living, such as the way of standing, sitting, walking, laughing, smiling, greeting and talking

are introduced to the child.

The "educational value" of the "educational excursions" which should be regularly arranged at transitional schools, is situated particularly in the opportunity which they offer for creating pedagogical situations for association. There is an opportunity to create pedagogical situations for association within various cultural contexts, for example during church services, film shows, as well as by way of visits to concerts, sports meetings and resorts for recreation.

(b) Pedagogical encounter

Encounter does not imply a confrontation between teacher and child as a result of the child's objectionable behaviour. Such clashes or crisis situations may occur very often at transitional schools and will probably never be eliminated, but as such they make no contribution to the education of a child. However, after such a crisis situation the child is in need of a pedagogical encounter. Only within the encounter relationship may the child experience his human dignity as a normated matter. A prerequisite for an encounter is acceptance. The educator has to accept the child as a child - in the

case of the situation in the transitional school it is a child who experiences an overwhelming need for immediate educational assistance. In addition, the child has to accept the educator as a trusted authority to whom he may, and wants to reveal his distress. The educator has to respond to the (educational) call of distress of the child by introducing to him the norms which direct his own life, whereas the child responds to this appeal by showing that the encounter is valuable to him, that uncertainties have been eliminated and that the norms introduced to him, offer him fixed landmarks in his attempts towards shaping his own life.

The actualization of an encounter relationship between the pupil and a member of staff with whom he has had a confrontation, is not always possible or desirable. Often the necessary trust is lacking. The child should be offered the opportunity to turn to an educator whom he trusts. However, if all members of a staff at an transitional school do not have knowledge of Orthopedagogics, such an encounter may create tension among the staff.

Opportunities to actualize pedagogical encounters are not

only created by crisis situations. Such opportunities consistently occur, particularly since the pedagogically neglected child in need of care sometimes intensely experiences his need for educational assistance.

(c) Periodical abandonment of the pedagogical situation

No child always remains in the presence of his educator(s); he has to leave their presence periodically. The question now is whether the course of the educational process is disrupted by the periodical abandonment of the educational situation. Investigations have confirmed that this is not the case. During the periodical abandonment the child remains a child-in-education and he realises this himself. The sense of the periodical abandonment of the pedagogical situation lies in the fact that the child is given the opportunity to embody independently in his life, the norms introduced to him within the pedagogical situation. He is therefore practising his increasing independence from his educator. The situations in which the child is periodically abandoned should also be planned, since they constitute an unavoidable part of the total educational process. The educator should know which possibilities each situation offers for development, but he should also know

what dangers the situation entails for the personality development of the child.

It is important, particularly in the case of the transitional school child, that the situations in which the child is permitted to act independently, will be planned. Some children may sometimes act in such a way that the prejudice of the public towards all transitional school children takes on such dimensions, that it may later become inadvisable to allow any of the children out in public while they are still attached to a specific school.

Situations in hostel dormitories may entail many dangers for the personality development of the children. Here one thinks, for example, of seduction into homosexual practices, or even the fact that older children may force the younger to deeds which are inconsistent with all acceptable norms. It is therefore essential that the staff in control of these hostels, should be capable persons with a knowledge of Orthopedagogics.

5.4.5 Presentation, processing and measurement

Presentation, processing and measurement do not differ

radically from those at ordinary schools. The teacher often experiences more problems than the one at an ordinary school to retain attention, especially as a result of unexpected (impulsive) affective over-excitement. However, the class groups are relatively small and if the teacher aims at actualizing the essentials of the pedagogical relationship, the above-mentioned problem is normally overcome. Some industrial schools are of the opinion that children should be able to progress faster through the various standards.

5.4.6 Issuing of Certificates

From Standard 6 up to and including Standard 10, certificates are issued by the Department of National Education. No certificates for scholastic progress are issued for standards lower than Standard 6. When the principal gives a testimonial to such a child, he may also mention to which level of education the child has progressed.

5.5 SPECIFIC STAFF REQUIREMENTS OF THE TRANSITIONAL SCHOOL

5.5.1 Introduction

When a pedagogically neglected, confused child, activated in his loneliness by his conscience, wrestles with feelings of unworthiness, inability to understand his own potentialities and passions and impotence with regard to satisfactory

canalization of his own moral dynamics, he needs the assistance of an understanding, trusted, convinced and dedicated educator to arrange his affects by introducing him to religious principles of life and norms as religious convictions. If this assistance is not present, the child may at best collect moral knowledge, but since these religious convictions, founded in love, are lacking, he will remain unreliable, especially since the power of the conscience is wanting and his actions are determined by momentary considerations, usually directed towards appeasing his passions. On the strength of his moral knowledge, the more intelligent child may for months contrive things in such a way that he may be accepted by the staff as "exemplary". It is this child particularly who eventually bitterly disappoints the dedicated educator, an occurrence which normally seriously disrupts the orthopedagogical climate at the school (Urbani, 1993).

In many cases the individual assistance which the child receives in the classroom context, can also be qualified as school guidance. However, in the classroom context the teacher can not wander away from the prescribed contents of the syllabuses and the assistance to each individual child should always be directed at problems which arise from the

encounter between child and subject matter. Assistance should not only be rendered with the direct mastering of the subject matter, but it should also elucidate with regard to the mastery of the subject matter as a way to the future. In brief, the curricula and syllabi cannot be changed at will to provide for the needs of each individual child, but each child should be educated to respond to the demands made by society (also with regard to the mastering of subject matter) according to his inherent potentialities. The fact that people are unequal (not unequivocal), necessitates differentiation in respect of the subject matter (HSRC, 1975). Ill-breeding or pedagogical neglect, however, does not form a constituent of human inequality. Eventually, when they have become mature, society will make the same demands of pedagogically neglected children as of all other people.

• It should therefore be accepted that the "unusualness" of the education for pedagogically neglected children is essentially constituted by the actualization of affective and normative aspects. Curricula and syllabi for children at a transitional school should therefore be the same as those for children at ordinary schools.

In the case of pedagogically neglected children the classification of children with a view to differentiated

education constitutes a much more complex problem than at ordinary schools (HRSC, 1975 : 77). The available exploration media (tests) integrated in the schools for classification of the child with a view to differentiated education, assess mainly the present level of development.

On account of a lack of accountable educational assistance since birth, the development of the psychological life of these children has progressed unsatisfactorily. The possibility is always present that many of these children will reach a level of achievement similar to that of less gifted children, whereas the former were born with potentialities which do not develop as desired.

No pedagogically founded investigation into the re-education of pedagogically neglected children at secondary school level, specifically directed at the moulding of their psychological life, could be traced.

5.5.2 The nature of the training of teachers for pedagogically neglected children in need of care

According to the HRSC investigation (1975 : 68) into support for the pedagogically neglected child it was found that the Department of National Education demands a teacher's diploma as minimum qualification for a appointment as a teacher at an

industrial school. This investigation reaffirms that the activities of a teacher at a transitional school will be normally of an orthopedagogic nature. It is essential therefore that the training of a teacher for pedagogically neglected children in need of care will also include courses in fundamental Psycho and Orthopedagogics.

5.5.2 School Guidance to pedagogically neglected children in need of care

At present there are posts for teacher-psychologists at the industrial schools and reformatories (HSRC, 1975 : 80-94). The minimum qualification required for appointment for a man, is an honours degree in psychology plus a teacher's diploma and for a woman a baccalaureus degree with psychology as one major plus a teacher's diploma. Problems experienced are that the teacher-psychologist is sometimes burdened with too much administrative work and that communication problems arise between the teacher-psychologist and the rest of the staff. School guidance should be an essential service rendered by the teacher-psychologist.

Conclusions with regard to the metastability of potentialities (for example intelligence) remain mainly of a speculative nature (HSRC, 1975). There is much doubt therefore as to what the "tests measure". About what the

tests do not "measure" there is complete uncertainty. This is a basic problem which makes it imperative for each school guidance officer and teacher to accept as basic principle that each child at a transitional school possibly has greater potentialities than may be revealed merely by means of exploration media. Classification of these pupils should therefore remain fluid in the sense, that if necessary, a child could be shifted between groups without too much disruption. Based on this presupposition, data concerning the following may be used appropriately with a view to classification of children at transitional schools:

- * school progress to explore the pupil's scholastic background;
- * achievement as measured by standardised scholastic tests;
- * biographical data to explore the state of the pupil's education;
- * medical report;
- * aptitude test results;
- * personality structure investigation; and
- * intellectual ability.

On the strength of information obtained from a pedodiagnostic

investigation during which the above-mentioned data are obtained, the children may be classified with a view to differentiated education.

Because of the vital role of the school guidance officer at a transitional school, it is important to have a closer look at what is required in terms of the needs of a transitional school. Urbani (1993) identified the following requirements:

5.5.3 The training of the School Guidance Officer

On the basis of the aim of the school guidance service and the task of the school guidance officer which arises from it, the school guidance officer must undergo specialized training in order to be able to render a guidance service within the transitional school context. The aspects mentioned below will have to be considered on the basis of the differentiated task of the school guidance officer at a transitional school:

(1) The School Guidance Officer must be trained as a pedagogue

The following aspects are implicit in the training of school guidance officers as pedagogues:

The training programme must aim at the same moulding of the school guidance officer as the broad training programme does

in the case of education students. The motivation for this statement lies in the objective of the school guidance service which is the same as that of differentiated education.

The training programme must be such that the qualified school guidance officer will approach the young person as a personality with recognition of his individuality.

The particular content of the training programme must enable the school guidance officer to assist and support the young person in such a way that the latter will not be purely regarded and treated as only a natural being, with a certain physical and psychical composition to which he must be subjected and abandoned. The training must mould the school guidance officer in such a way that as a pedagogue, he will realize that there is more to the young person than his mere physical and psychical composition because he can choose and decide what he is going to do with his particular physical and psychical composition.

To train the school guidance officer as a pedagogue, the training programme must strive after vocational maturity as a component of adulthood, which in itself is the aim of

education.

The training programme must be such that the task of the school guidance officer will be pedagogically accountable in the sense that he will not make decisions for the young person, and that his task will be far more profound than the mere provision of information.

The school guidance officer must thus be schooled in such a way that he will be able to supply the young person with knowledge in the first instance and thereafter help and support the latter in determining his own niche in the light of the knowledge acquired i.e. in orientating himself.

(2) The School Guidance Officer must be trained as a specialist in order to be capable of specialised activities

The following aspects are implicit in the training of the school guidance officer to render him capable of specialised activities:

- * On the strength of his training, the school guidance officer must be able to supply information; in other words, he must possess information, know where to obtain it, be able to systematize it and know how to put it across.

- * On the strength of his training the school guidance officer must be able to act in an advisory capacity; in other words, he must be capable of interpreting information for individuals.

- * On the strength of his training the school guidance officer must be able to act in a pedo-diagnostic capacity which implies that he will not work from a psycho-analytical viewpoint, but will arrive at a personal profile on the basis of knowledge of the means of measuring child (pedo) diagnostication.

- * On the strength of his training the school guidance officer must be able to act in a pedo-therapeutic capacity, in other words he must try, by means of his knowledge of educationally orientated therapeutic methods and techniques, to lead the young person to surmount his problems on his own.

- * On the strength of his training the school guidance officer must be able to act preventatively; in other words he must be able, on the strength of his knowledge, to locate young people's problems at an early stage

before they become entrenched and manifest themselves in serious symptoms. He must also be capable of determining when a pupil experiencing problems should be referred to a clinic.

- 3) The School Guidance Officer must be trained to accomplish a state of orientation in the young person by implementing his specialized knowledge

The following aspects are implicit in a training programme which will enable the school guidance officer to bring about a state of orientation in the young person:

- * The training programme must be such that the school guidance officer will be able to make the young person aware of his particular aptitude, interest, skill, intellectual potential as well as his limitations among other things.

- * The training programme must also be such that the school guidance officer will be able to explain the demands and requirements which life will pose to the young person, after which the young person must be helped to determine his standpoint on the basis of his own abilities and the demands of life.

- * The training programme must be such that the school guidance officer will possess knowledge which will enable him to make the young person realise that he must make certain choices, the basis on which he must make those choices and that he must be prepared to act according to those choices.

(4) The School Guidance Officer must be trained to accomplish a state of orientation in the young person in respect of educational matters

By a training programme which will enable the school guidance officer to bring about a state of orientation in the young person as regards educational matters, it is meant that the training programme should be such that:

- * the school guidance officer will possess particular knowledge of courses which are offered in a system of differentiated education;
- * the school guidance officer will have a grounding in rational psychology so that he will be able to solve learning and study problems;
- * the school guidance officer will be able to recommend preventative action to the subject teacher with regard to problems experienced in subjects by pupils; and

- * the school guidance officer will be able to determine and remedy the underlying causes of didactic (learning) problems as they appear in the classroom (orthodidactics).

5.5.4 Services of medical and paramedical staff

Medical services as in the case of industrial schools and clinic schools should be provided by the district surgeon and when necessary children should be taken to specialists, dentists or oculists. The HRSC investigation (1975) into the medical and paramedical services of industrial schools found this system to be satisfactory and needed no reorganization.

5.6 THE HOSTEL ATTACHED TO A TRANSITIONAL SCHOOL

The hostel is the heart of a transitional school. This statement corresponds with the view of the HRSC investigation (1975) regarding the industrial school. As long as the educational climate in the hostel remains favourable, the orthopedagogical climate at the school as a whole remains favourable. As soon as the educational climate in the hostel becomes disturbed, all the activities at the school become disrupted to some extent. In no other field of the transitional school's activities will such intense educational encounters develop as in the hostel. When a

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child, in moments of self-imagined isolation, is overwhelmed by the hopelessness of his own problematical situation, and in his distress he is then met by a strong, trusted, understanding educator, the most sound foundations of that on which the educational act is borne, viz. faith, hope and trust, are aroused in him.

To a very large degree, the hostel will be the "home" of the child in the transitional school. There he will spend the biggest part of the day, he will be with "his people" (as far as such a situation can be created) and there especially, he will have the time and opportunity to struggle with himself as a child of God and therefore as bearer of dignity (thus as norm). Attention has already been drawn to the fact that affective moulding (primarily the task of the parent) as educational activity is accomplished in terms of especially two distinguishable but not to be separated dimensions, viz. the affective and the normative. The normative may also be viewed as instilling a philosophy of life and Stoker (1967) points out that philosophical conviction is primarily borne by feeling and not so much by reason. From what has been said so far about the pedagogical situation, it is undeniably evident that the formal situation in the classroom seldom offers enough opportunity for a sincere encounter with the

child and to persevere with this encounter long enough to make possible a radical intervention in the being of the child as a person on the way to moral independence possible. The child's most deep-rooted religious convictions, his certainties or uncertainties (that which stabilize or disrupt his peace of mind) are matters which may only be discussed within an intimate, familiar trusting (implying that secrets will be kept), personal relationship, with the aim of establishing certainty and stability for the child in his philosophical convictions.

To regard such encounters as (demarcated) forms of pedotherapy which belong exclusively, or mainly, to the task and field of the school guidance officer, implies recognising a point of view which ignores the demands made by reality.

A situation in which education or re-education is restricted to one person or one section of the transitional school, is inconceivable. Attention has also been drawn to the fact that the actualization of the pedagogical relationship with its fundamental characteristics, viz. understanding, trust and authority, is a condition for the actualization of the pedagogical encounter. The school guidance officer cannot fully comprehend every child in the school. He has not

sufficient opportunity of associating with the children for that, and he misses the spontaneous utterances of the child in the actual life-situations, by means of which the child reveals himself to his educators.

In the hostel, situations consistently occur which offer staff the opportunity to shape the emotional life and especially the conscience of the individual children. If the children do not receive the necessary educational assistance in the hostel, all activities at the school may be disrupted.

It is therefore necessary that capable people who have a knowledge of Orthopedagogics should be placed in charge of hostels.

A "motherly" woman intuitively acts correctly in her intervention with her child. According to the HSRC investigation (1975) regarding the child in need of care, the sincere band of love which characterizes the mother-child relationship, is not always established in the relationship staff-child in a children's hostel at the industrial school. Staff attached to a hostel therefore need criteria for assessing their intervention with the children. The only suitable criteria are those particularized from a scientific analysis

of the educational situation itself. The task of a hostel at the transitional school will be also completely an educational one. It appears necessary therefore that the educational authorities should obtain some form of control over the educational work done in hostels at a transitional school.

5.7 AFTER-CARE OF CHILDREN WHO HAVE ATTENDED A TRANSITIONAL SCHOOL

From a pedagogical point of view, the practice among social workers to return children to the care of their parents where possible should be welcomed. Many cases are known, however, where the return of a child to his mother later appeared to be catastrophic to the personality development of the child. Probably such cases may never be completely eliminated, but they do stress the urgency that social workers should also take pedagogical criteria into consideration when they have to decide on the suitability of a mother as educator of her children. When a child is removed from his mother, it is not primarily the physical separation between mother and child that is involved, but the disruption of the quality, especially of the educational relationships which have existed (or not existed) between mother and child.

The Children's Act stipulates that children at an industrial

school may be "released" with permission into the care of a particular person under the supervision of a social worker or social welfare officer. When a child is "released", it means that the school has come to the conclusion that its share in the child's education has been completed - successfully or less successfully. Further mediation in the case of such a young person is mostly not of a pedagogical nature and is therefore managed by social workers. Every six months the social workers submit a report to the school on the young person, until he/she has been exempted from the arrangements made by the court (HSRC, 1975). Some young persons maintain communication with the school in the form of correspondence with some members of staff.

A problem which has been perceived, is that although a child from an industrial school has sometimes reached his limit in respect of the level of training which he has received, he is not mature enough to be sent into society without further pedagogical assistance (HSRC, 1975).

When a child is placed in the care of his parents, it implies that he will receive the necessary assistance upon entry into the vocational world. Further official mediation in his case is mainly after-care and can be done by a social worker.

Many transitional school children will have no parental home in which they can be placed. The persons and bodies mentioned at the beginning of this discourse (other than the own parents), in whose care children may be placed, may not always be willing to accept responsibility for a transitional school child. Such a child will then have no refuge and until such time that suitable accommodation has been found for him, he cannot be placed in an occupation.

Industrial schools are sometimes forced to place a child in the care of a person, although there is uncertainty about his suitability to act as guardian for that child (HRSC, 1975). The social worker periodically visits the child and is not always fully informed of the child's activities within and outside his field of work and his residence. Sometimes a school receives a favourable report on a child and within the same week the school is requested to revoke the child's placement, since he has seriously misbehaved (HSRC, 1975).

The assistance required by a young person in need of care upon his entry to vocational and wider social life, is therefore not merely after-care in all cases. Often the milieu from which he has to tackle his social task still has to be firmly grounded in the pedagogical situation.

Assistance in respect of the child's orientation regarding values and experienced norms and principles as embodied in the community or in the job situation, is the issue here. Many children in need of care may have spent the largest part of their lives in children's homes and transitional schools. These children will therefore find it difficult to perceive the demands of propriety in society though they were so obvious in the school situation. During this period of orientation these young persons need the disciplinary authority of an educator who specifically comprehends the needs of the young person in need of care upon acceptance of his social task. What is needed therefore, is a hostel where a familiar (pedagogically founded) milieu may be created for these children, from whence they may challenge the labour and social situations. The activities within such a hostel are of such a nature that they cannot be integrated in a transitional school, but they are still so much of a pedagogical nature that they do not belong with a social worker. Again the idea of transition as "changing or change from one condition or set of circumstances to another" comes into play. As an extension of the activities of the transitional school the principle should be accepted to erect such hostels in more industrial centres where job opportunities are available for these children, and to place

them under the control of staff with long and effective experience of work at transitional schools. A social worker should be available to assist the head of such a hostel, especially with a view to continued assistance (after-care) after the young person has left the hostel and has to accept full responsibility for his own life. Staff attached to transitional schools will be able to accomplish their task in such a set-up with the assurance that their years of intervention with pedagogically neglected children will not be destroyed in a few weeks' time, since a child will then be able to receive assistance and guidance when he enters a social and job situation strange to him. A further aim of such a hostel is that children who have completed their school training, but have not succeeded in obtaining employment, are enabled to look for work while they have somewhere to live and somebody available to advise them with regard to the fields in which they should look for work.

SYNTHESIS

Schurink & Schurink (1993) are of the opinion that the present programmes available to streetchildren are useful and necessary but they serve only as ambulances at the bottom of the cliff. Educational programmes for streetchildren are attempts to correct the situation as quickly as possible. This

may result in addressing only the symptoms of the educational distress of the streetchild and not the educational distress itself.

The transitional school as future model for accountable support to streetchildren may be viewed by some as an expensive duplication of the existing industrial school or clinic school concept. However, viewed in the light of the opinions of Sonnekus (1985) concerning the moulding of the psychological life of a child, the structural analysis of the pedagogical situation (Landman & Roos, 1973) and Stoker's (1967) insights concerning the moulding of an individual view of life in the case of every person, the only deduction to be made is that the relationship between educator and child must be characterized by certainty and stability; genuineness and truth; dignity, understanding and authority. According to the aforementioned authors, the actualization of the foregoing is essential, so that trust can be created in the child also to respond to the love of the educator in the sense that love love is not only awakened in him for the educator, but also for the norms by which the educator arranges his own life. To accomplish this with regard to the streetchild the educator at the transitional school must therefore be trained as a pedagogue and require a sound knowledge of Orthodidactics. On

the strength of what has been said above, it must be concluded that the many failures recorded with regard to the educational work done in industrial schools and shelters for streetchildren, must be accounted for by the fact that education is viewed merely as processes of behavioural shaping, or the conditioning of behavioural patterns which must be definable and measurable.

Ainsworth (1968) was aware of the problem that education is viewed merely as processes of behavioural shaping, or the conditioning of behavioural patterns which must be definable and measurable. She writes: "Those who inculcate environmental deprivation tend to be hardbitten scientists who feel uneasy about what they hold to be a mystic aura in the words motherly and motherly care. They want to be sure that no one believes that there is anything magic over and above her behaviour and the stimulation it gives a baby. They would prefer to dissect the baby's environment, including the mother, to clear-cut measurable variables and to dispense with the mystique."

After this discussion of a model for future support to address the educational distress of the streetchild it becomes important to have a closer look at the investigation

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of the role of child care workers within shelters which presently renders support to streetchildren.

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CHAPTER 6

PLANNING OF THE RESEARCH

6.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Smit (1983 : 10-22) it is imperative that a valid literature study precedes empirical research. In the preceding chapters a literature study was made regarding the following topics: educational distress, the life-world of the streetchild and support structures presently available for rendering support to the streetchild. From the literature study it is clearly evident that the State does not render any particular support to the streetchild. Privately established shelters are the only support presently available to address the educational distress of the streetchild. The degree to which these privately established shelters respond to the educational distress of the streetchild warrants investigation.

This chapter describes the methodological procedures adopted in constructing instruments, administering them and data for research. Data is required to test hypotheses or answer questions regarding the role and scope of the various shelters, the role and scope of shelter managers as well as that of the child care workers within a voluntary organization which renders support to streetchildren. Data is

typically collected through questionnaires, interviews and observation. One main aim of research is to discover principles that have universal application. To study a whole population in order to arrive at generalizations is often impossible or impracticable. The process of sampling therefore, makes it possible to draw valid generalizations for a population on the basis of careful observation and analysis of variables within a relatively small proportion of the population. A sample is a small proportion of a population selected for observation and analysis. A population is any group of individuals that have one or more characteristics in common that are of interest to the researcher. In this study it comprises shelter managers and child care workers concerned with streetchildren.

According to Nisbet & Entwistle (1970) the larger the sample the greater the validity of the findings, but size without representativeness is not enough. The first step towards representativeness is achieved by random sampling.

Random sampling is the method of drawing a sample so that each member of the population has an equal chance of being selected. From data collected from a random sample, it is possible to make reliable inferences about the population

from which the sample was drawn. One cannot deny the fact that even if the sample is drawn randomly, it is never a completely accurate reflection of the population from which it was drawn, since not every member of the population participates. However, researchers often have no choice but to work within this limitation. Further factors like finance, time facilities and amount of assistance for collecting and analyzing the data are also critical in deciding the sample size of a study. While questions of a demographic nature were included in the questionnaire in order to determine some of the characteristics of the group being analysis, the major emphasis of the investigation lies in studying the perceptions of the respondents towards the educational distress of the streetchild. As the research involves the measurement of attitudes it is considered useful to note some of the problems inherent in such a study. Many definitions of the concept "attitude" are based on the *observable, outward manifestation of the attitude*, rather than what it is intrinsically. However, if one's attitude to a particular situation determines how one behaves or what one says in the situation, then to obtain some clue to the attitude held by the individual it is valuable to study his patterns of behaviour and the statements he makes.

Nisbet (1979) suggests two possible methods of studying attitudes. The first system relies on the investigator observing individuals and inferring attitudes from their behaviour. Not only is this method cumbersome and time-consuming but it also relies heavily on the assumed objectivity of the investigator. Investigators however, can do no more than make a subjective assessment of the attitudes of the individual by extracting that data which might be considered relevant, from the range of information available. What often results is that the investigator pays attention only to those circumstances which correspond to the expected pattern, ignoring all those situations which do not fit the norm. The alternative method advanced by Nisbet (1979) is that the study of the expressed opinions of the respondent is of vital importance. Attempts should be made to reduce the possibility of the respondents formulating what they consider to be "suitable" answers in an effort either to oblige the investigator or to show themselves in a favourable light. To reduce the tension between the investigator and the respondents it was decided, in the present investigation, to include with the questionnaire a covering letter which explained why the research was considered to be of value and emphasized that the respondents' replies would remain anonymous. In addition the covering letter was an important

means of indicating to the respondents that the investigation was being carried out with the permission of the authorities.

The existence of constraints e.g. violence, time and opportunity meant that it was not possible to research all shelters for streetchildren within South Africa. As attitudes, aspirations and opportunities may be significantly influenced by differing cultural considerations, it was decided to limit the research to a study of shelters and their staff in and around the Johannesburg/Pretoria area, the Durban/Pietermaritzburg area, East London/Port Elizabeth area, Cape Town and Bloemfontein. Furthermore, since the organizational constraints on educationalists in public schools might well differ from those educational services found within shelters, in order to sustain a manageable homogeneity of the group to be studied, only educational services rendered by shelters themselves were considered for inclusion in the investigation.

6.2 PREPARATION FOR AND DESIGN OF THE RESEARCH

The researcher obtained all the help he could in planning and constructing the questionnaires. The writer studied other questionnaires, and submitted his items for criticism to other members of his faculty, especially those who had had

experience in questionnaire construction.

In designing the questionnaires researcher used separate cards for each item. As the instrument was being developed, items could be refined, revised, or replaced by better items without recopying the entire instrument.

This procedure also provided flexibility in arranging items in the most appropriate psychological order before the instrument was put into its final form.

Researcher tried out the questionnaire on a few friends and acquaintances. By doing this personally, the writer found that a number of the items were ambiguous. What may seem perfectly clear to the writer may be confusing to a person who does not have the frame of reference that the writer has gained from living with and thinking about an idea over a long period. It was also a good idea to "pilot test" the instrument with a small group of persons similar to those who would be used in the study.

These dry runs proved to be well worth the time and effort. They revealed defects that could be corrected before the final form was printed and submitted to the respondents.

6.2.1 Permission

Questionnaires were designed and presented to the Head Offices of voluntary organizations which control and manage shelters for streetchildren in the areas mentioned.

Permission was obtained to have these questionnaires completed by child care workers and shelter managers.

6.2.2 Selection of Respondents

The questionnaires were completed by the following :

- managers of shelters regarding the structure, scope, composition, financing(funding) of the shelter and organization as well as support structures offered by the shelter to streetchildren;
- full-time, part-time and volunteer child-care workers attached to shelters regarding their support, relations and responsibility towards streetchildren within the shelter.

Black and Champion (1976: 281) state that whenever the investigator possesses some knowledge concerning the population under study, for example, the age or sex distribution of the population, he may wish to use (like researcher did) a proportionate stratified random sampling

plan. Such a plan is useful for obtaining a sample that will have specified characteristics in "exact" proportion to the way in which those same characteristics are distributed in the population.

The confidentiality of the information required was made clear to the respondents to the questionnaires in a letter attached to the questionnaire.

6.3 QUESTIONNAIRE

Plug, Meyer, Louw & Gouws (91 : 391) define the term questionnaire as a series of questions designed to cover a single topic or related topics to be answered by a respondent. Questionnaires can be employed to measure interests, attitudes, opinions and personality traits, as well as the gathering of biographical data.

The description of a questionnaire by Mahlangu (1987 : 79) embraces the reasons why questionnaires were selected for the empirical survey in this study: " By providing access to what is in somebody's mind, this approach makes it possible to measure what this person knows, likes and dislikes and what he thinks ".

Within the operational phase of the research process the

measuring instrument is all-important. Cohen & Manion (1980) have shown empirically that the measuring instrument has the greatest influence on the reliability of data. According to these authors the characteristics of measurement are best controlled by the careful construction of the instrument. A questionnaire is used when factual information is desired. Insufficient appreciation is given to the fact that a questionnaire should be constructed according to certain principles .

A well designed questionnaire is the culmination of a long process of planning the research objective, formulating the problem, generating a hypothesis, etc. A poorly designed questionnaire can invalidate any research results, notwithstanding the merits of the sample, the field workers and the statistical techniques. In their criticism of questionnaire studies Black & Champion (1976) object to poor design, rather than to questionnaires, as such. A well-designed questionnaire, they say, can boost the reliability and validity of the data to acceptable tolerances.

In the construction of the questionnaires the researcher was guided by the following characteristics:

6.3.1 Characteristics of the questionnaire

- * It deals with a significant topic, one the respondent will recognize as important enough to warrant spending his or her time on. The significance of the research was clearly and carefully stated on the questionnaire by means of a letter that accompanied it.
- * It seeks only that information which cannot be obtained from other sources.
- * It is as short as possible, and only long enough to get the essential data. Long questionnaires frequently find their way into the wastepaper basket.
- * It is attractive in appearance, neatly arranged, and clearly duplicated or printed.
- * Directions for a good questionnaire are clear and complete. Important terms are defined. Each question deals with a single idea and is worded as simply and clearly as possible. The categories provide an opportunity for easy, accurate, and unambiguous responses.
- * The questions are objective, with no leading suggestions

as to the responses desired. Leading questions are just as inappropriate on a questionnaire as they are in a court of law.

- * Questions are presented in good psychological order, proceeding from general to more specific responses. This order helps respondents to organize their own thinking so that their answers are logical and objective. It may be as well to present questions that create a favourable attitude before proceeding to those that may be a bit delicate or intimate. If possible, annoying or embarrassing questions are avoided.

- * It is easy to tabulate and interpret. It is advisable to preconstruct a tabulation sheet, anticipating how the data will be tabulated and interpreted, before the final form of the questionnaire is decided upon.

This working backward from a visualization of the field analysis of data is an important step for avoiding ambiguity in questionnaire form. If computer tabulation is to be used, it is important to designate code numbers for all possible responses to permit easy transference to a computer programme

Two basic question formats are used in the research, namely the open question (also called the free response or unstructured question) and the closed question (also called the structured question), with various combinations of these formats. The researcher used a few unstructured questions to obtain information such as the religious denomination of the child care worker, aims and objectives of the shelter and additional comments to be made by respondents.

(1) Unstructured questions (open questions)

In an open question the respondent is encouraged to formulate and express his response freely, since this form of question does not contain any fixed response categories. Such questions are typically used to obtain reasons for particular opinions or attitudes adopted by a respondent.

(a) Advantages

- * Open questions are sometimes more appropriate than closed questions since they impose no restrictions on the respondent's response. The researcher can thus determine exactly how the respondent has interpreted the question.

- * The open question is appropriate where the researcher's knowledge of the subject is limited, or where he is

uncertain of the kind of answer that a particular question will elicit.

- * Open questions are appropriate where a wide range of opinions are anticipated.
- * Open questions are appropriate for pilot work, particularly with a view to the compilation of answer categories for structured questions for the main study.
- * Open questions are also appropriate when feelers are being put out to determine what information the respondent is prepared to divulge, before more detailed specific questions are constructed.
- * Open questions have the further advantage that they can help to determine the more deep-rooted motives, expectations or feelings of a respondent.
- * Open questions are also more appropriate than closed questions for measuring reprehensible or sensitive behaviour. More reliable information on such matters is obtained through open questions.

(b) Disadvantages

- * The use of open questions is time-consuming, uneconomical and limits the number of questions that can be asked before respondent fatigue sets in. Interviewers need to write down responses to open questions verbatim, so that the interview is interrupted by uncomfortable silences required for the writing process.

- * The success of the response to an open question depends on the competence of the interviewer. It is one thing to hear the respondent correctly, but another to write down the response accurately. Although hearing and writing take place almost simultaneously, valuable information can be lost because the interviewer needs to sift the information (due to the length of the responses). The sifting process is a subjective activity which can adversely affect the validity of the response.

- * Open questions can be misleading, since they can create the erroneous impression that the researcher is acquiring profound information about the complex motives and feelings of respondents. An in-depth interview or probing questions are better able to expose underlying complex personality data.

- * Open questions do not necessarily produce more specific responses. Indeed, they sometimes lead to such a wide variety of responses (some of which are vague) that the responses lose their statistical and analytical significance. Should such responses be grouped they could contaminate the data.

- * Open questions are often easy to ask, difficult to answer and more difficult still to analyse. In most cases no meaningful system of classification can be selected in advance, because the researcher cannot anticipate the different types of responses.

(2) Structured questions (closed questions)

By a structured question format is meant a question that contains specific, mutually exclusive categories of responses, from which the respondent selects the one category that best suits his response.

(a) Advantages

- * Structured questions are easy to administer, since they are coded beforehand. Data processing and analysis are also facilitated by prior encoding.

- * They are more economical and less time-consuming to administer.

(b) Disadvantages

- * Structured questions can lead to a loss of rapport and to frustration when respondents feel that the response options do not accommodate their personal opinions. They are thus forced to make artificial choices which they would not make in reality.
- * Structured questions are often less subtle than open questions.

The respondent can thus easily discern the intention behind the question, which enables him to form subjective opinions regarding the purpose of the investigation. This can affect further responses, thus introducing bias into the data.

Opinions vary on the use of structured and unstructured questions. Nisbet (1979 : 32-58) found little empirical evidence that responses to structured and unstructured questions differ. According to Black & Champion (1976) both question formats restrict the respondent. These authors found that the confusion about the relative suitability of

the formats could be ascribed to the fact that the categories of the structured question are not always properly deduced from the responses to the unstructured questions. They conclude that a properly developed structured question is preferable to an open one.

Some authors choose the so-called "structured-open" form as a happy medium (Nisbet and Entwistle, 1970) to be used in many instances. A question is compiled according to structured response options, but there is also an open option namely "Other (specify)". Should the respondent consider his opinion to lie outside the structured options provided, he may select the "other" category. Only responses in this category will then need to be classified and encoded later.

Researcher decided to employ mainly structured questions combined with a small percentage of structured-open and unstructured questions.

6.3.2 Construction and content

(1) Questionnaire A : Head of Shelter

Questionnaire A was designed to obtain from managers of shelters data regarding the structure, scope, composition, financing(funding) of the shelter/organisation as well as

support structures offered by the shelter to streetchildren.

Instructions appeared on the second page regarding the completion of the questionnaire. At the start of each section instructions were given as to how the questions should be responded to.

Section 1 required general information regarding the child care organization/shelter such as size, number of streetchildren it accommodates, co-operation with welfare and State structures and the nature of support offered.

Section 2 required information regarding the nature of financial assistance and/or support the shelter receives.

Section 3 required information regarding the staffing needs of the shelter, how staff is recruited and the various functions of staff members

Section 4 required specific information regarding the occupational milieu of the shelter manager. It covered topics such as discipline, support programmes, facilities and specific problems experienced regarding the care provided for streetchildren.

The last question was unstructured in order to allow shelter managers to supply additional information (if any).

(2) Questionnaire B : Child Care Worker

Instructions appeared on the second page regarding the completion of the questionnaire. At the start of each section instructions were given as to how the questions should be responded to.

Section 1 consisted out of 16 questions which required personal data regarding the child care worker.

Section 2 dealt with the occupational milieu of the child care worker and investigated the child care worker's relationship with the head of the shelter as well as the way the child care worker viewed his task at the shelter.

Section 3 investigated the child care worker's relationships towards others such as streetchildren, things and ideas such as pocket money and values and the relationship towards God or religious ideas.

The last question was unstructured in order to allow child

care workers to supply additional information (if any).

The child care worker experiences his occupational milieu via his relationships with:

- himself;
- others;
- things/ideas;
- God/ religious ideas.

Section 2 and 3 consisted out of eighty (80) questions that determined how the child care worker experienced these relationships and are grouped as follows;

* The child care worker's relationship with himself:

(2.2.1 to 2.2.6; 2.3.1 to 2.3.4; 2.3.6; 2.3.8; 2.3.10;
3.33; 3.34)

* The child care worker's relationship with others:

Head of shelter (2.1.1 to 2.1.10)

Streetchildren

(2.2.7 to 2.2.10; 2.3.9; 2.3.11 to 2.3.12; 3.1 to 3.5;
3.8; 3.12 to 3.17; 3.21; 3.22; 3.28 to 3.30; 3.35; 3.36;
3.40; 3.42)

Streetchildren's parents

(3.23 to 3.27; 3.31; 3.37)

* The child care worker's relationship with things/ideas such as:

discipline (2.2.11; 2.2.12; 3.9; 3.38)

child care (2.3.5; 2.3.7; 3.10; 3.11; 3.18; 3,41)

pocket money (3.19; 3.20)

guidance (3.39)

intoxicants (3.45)

* The child care worker's relationship with God/religious ideas:

(3.6; 3.7; 3.32; 3.43; 3.44)

6.3.2 Advantages of the questionnaire

Questionnaires have certain advantages that make them popular attitude evaluation tools. The researcher of this study administered most of the questionnaires personally. This action eliminated null-responses by respondents. Mail questionnaires were send to places where the researcher of this study could not enter due to violence etc. The researcher of this study found the following advantages of the use of questionnaires:

- * They permitted anonymity. If it is arranged that the responses are given anonymously, the chances of receiving responses that genuinely represent a person's beliefs or feelings will be increased;
- * They provided greater uniformity across measurement situations than did the interviews. A diversity of data obtained from questionnaires can be compared with each other.
- * In general, the data they provided could be more easily analyzed and interpreted than the data received from oral responses.
- * They could be mailed as well as administered directly to a group of people, although it may be found it necessitates hard work to get a good return rate with mail questionnaires.
- * With the aid of a questionnaire a wide field of a topic could be covered in a relatively short time period and at low cost.
- * Information of a sensitive nature could only be obtained

via the questionnaire. This makes an empirical survey possible in many spheres of education that in turn makes data available which would otherwise be lost.

- * Because of the fact that a large group of respondents responded to the questionnaire the validity of data obtained was increased.

- * The application, checking and interpretation of questionnaires did not require an excessive amount of training.

- * Greater objectivity was possible due to the fact that:
 - questionnaires were answered according to specified and uniform instructions ;
 - responses to the questionnaires could be analyzed and interpreted in a uniform manner by the use of a computer programme ;
 - the norms of the interpretation of results were based on scientifically selected samples of the population ;
 - the opinions that were being measured are clearly defined and structured and the rationale on which the questionnaire was based was given.

The use of questionnaires in this empirical survey made it possible for a wide variety of information to be obtained in a reasonably short period of time. This information would have been very difficult to obtain any other way especially the opinions of shelter managers as well as that of child care workers. Uniformity could also be obtained due to the fact that the instructions were clearly formulated and structured and the results checked with the use of an computer programme.

6.3.4 Disadvantages of the questionnaire

Researcher experienced the following disadvantages:

- * Questionnaires did not provide the flexibility of interviews. In an interview, an idea or comment can be explored. This makes it possible to gauge how people are interpreting a question. If the questions asked are interpreted differently from one respondent to another, the validity of the information obtained is jeopardized. The researcher has a better chance of spotting this kind of problem and correcting it in an interview situation.

- * Another disadvantage of questionnaires was that some people were better able to express their views orally than

in writing.

- * It often happens that some of the questionnaires that are sent out are returned incomplete. This may cause the validity to be effected.
- * The questionnaire may be completed by respondents in a careless fashion and the researcher may doubt the sincerity of the responses given by the respondents if he himself was not physically present when the survey was conducted. This may cause the validity and reliability to be effected.
- * A lot of people have developed a resistance to responding to questionnaires (especially those active in spheres where a lot of questionnaires are received) because they feel that questionnaires encroach upon their time. This may result in questionnaires being incompletely filled in or not being returned to the researcher at all.
- * The questionnaire may have included matters which are too sensitive to some respondents or which did not really concern or interest them and their responses were therefore less objective.

- * Persons with a limited intellectual ability or from a deprived socio-economic standing did not really like to respond to questionnaires. When they did get involved their inability to think profoundly often resulted in a superficial approach to the questionnaire which in turn affected the validity of the questionnaire.
- * Questionnaires may have been too long and respondents may have felt rushed for answers.
- * The researcher had no control over who completes the questionnaire if he was not physically present when the sample-group completed the questionnaire.
- * It was possible that choices relevant to a particular item on a questionnaire did not always provide the respondent with a response to which he was willing to commit himself.
- * Different respondents might have attached different meanings to words and expressions making interpretation problematic.

6.4 REQUIREMENTS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire designers rarely deal consciously with the degree of validity or reliability of their instrument. Perhaps this is one reason why so many questionnaires are lacking in these qualities. It must be recognized, however, that questionnaires have a very limited purpose. They are often one-time data-gathering devices with a very short life, administered to a limited population. There are ways, however, to improve both the validity and reliability of questionnaires.

Basic to the validity of a questionnaire is asking the right questions, phrased in the least ambiguous way. In other words, did the items sample a significant aspect of the purpose of the investigation? The meaning of all terms were clearly defined so that they should have the same meaning to all respondents. Researchers need all the help they can get; suggestions from colleagues and experts in the field of inquiry may reveal ambiguities that can be removed or items that do not contribute to a questionnaire's purpose.

The panel of experts may rate the instrument in terms of how effectively it samples significant aspects of its purpose, providing estimates of content validity.

It is possible to estimate the predictive validity of some types of questionnaires by follow-up observations of respondent behaviour at the present time or at some time in the future. In some situations, overt behaviour can be observed without invading the privacy of respondents.

Reliability of questionnaires may be inferred by a second administration of the instrument, comparing the responses with those of the first.

Research shows that a number of myths about postal questionnaires are not borne out by evidence. Response levels to postal surveys are not invariably less than those obtained by interview procedures. Frequently they equal, and in some cases, surpass those achieved in interviews. A number of factors, as identified by Hoinville & Jowell (Cohen & Manion, 1980 : 111-112) were considered in securing a good response rate to the administered and postal questionnaire used in this survey. These were:

- * The appearance of the questionnaire was easy and neat, with plenty of space for questions and answers.
- * There was clarity of wording and simplicity of design,

with clear instructions to guide the respondents.

- * The arrangement of the questionnaire maximized co-operation.
- * Instructions to assist the respondent were clearly indicated.
- * Selected responses had to be encircled so that the questionnaire was filled with ease.
- * Sub-numbering of questions was used for grouping together questions.
- * Instructions were repeated as often as necessary to ensure that the respondent knew exactly what was required.
- * Varying types of questions were used to retain interest.
- * Clear unambiguous wording was used
- * Finally a brief note appeared at the end to thank the respondent for his participation.

6.4.1 Reliability of the questionnaire

According to Smit (1983 : 25) psychological measurement is primarily a quantitative measurement of behaviour but also permits, like questionnaires, qualitative judgement. He points out that this judgement must be based on validated information in order to be of any practical value with regard to behavioural description. The validity of the research instrument therefore refers to the degree to which variable factors have an influence on the measurement of the research instrument. It refers to the degree of consistency and/or accuracy with which the research instrument measure (De Wet, Monteith, Venter & Stein, 1981 : 131). A research instrument with a high degree of validity will restrict the influence of variables to a minimum and vice versa.

Plug et al.(1991 : 42) defines the validity of a research instrument as " a quality that makes the same result possible if the measurement is repeated in an identical manner". Smit (1983 : 29-35) refers to this as content-reliability, review-reliability and equivalent-form-reliability.

Reliability refers to consistency, but consistency does not guarantee truthfulness. An instrument's being reliable does not mean that it is a good measure of what it seems to

measure. The reliability of the question is no proof that the answers given reflect the respondent's true feelings. A reliable measure is not necessarily valid. A demonstration of reliability is necessary but not conclusive evidence that an instrument is valid. Reliability refers to the extent to which measurement results are free of unpredictable kinds of error. Sources of error that affect reliability include:

- * Fluctuations in the mood or alertness of respondents because of illness, fatigue, recent good or bad experiences, or other temporary differences among members of the group being measured.
- * Variations in the conditions of administration from one testing to the next. These range from various distractions, such as unusual outside noise, to inconsistencies in the administration of the instrument, such as oversights in giving directions.
- * Differences in scoring or interpretation of results, chance differences in what an observer notices, and error in computing scores.
- * Random effects by respondents who guess or check off

attitude alternatives without trying to understand them.

Test-retest reliability is the oldest and most intuitively obvious method for demonstrating instrument consistency. It involves readministration of the questionnaire. Alternate-form reliability attacks the problem of memory effects upon the second administration by having the researcher write two essentially equivalent forms of the same instrument. Split-half reliability yields a measure of test consistency within a single administration. It allows the developer to obtain the two necessary scores from the same group of people by taking two halves of the items comprising an instrument and treating them as two administrations.

6.4.2 Validity of the questionnaire

The validity of the questionnaire as a research tool relates to its appropriateness for measuring what a questionnaire is intended to measure (Mahlangu, 1987 : 83). Smit (1983 : 46) points out that the validity of the questionnaire cannot be assumed, it must be established.

Validity indicates how worthwhile a measure is likely to be, in a given situation. Validity should show whether the instrument is giving you the true story, or at least

something approximating the truth. A valid instrument is one that has demonstrated that it detects some "real" ability, attitude or prevailing situation that the test user can identify and characterize. If the ability or attitude is itself stable, and if a respondent's answers to the items are not affected by other unpredictable factors, then each administration of the instrument should yield essentially the same results.

The validity of an instrument reflects the sureness with which one can draw conclusions. Validity is the extent to which one can rule out interpretations of the instrument's results other than the one the researcher wishes to make. Establishing an instrument's validity requires that the researcher anticipate the potential arguments that sceptics might use to dismiss the researcher's results. Respondents have an idea of which answers are socially desirable. Not wishing to appear deviant, they hide their true feelings and bend their answers to conform to a model of how they ought to answer. Where this happens, the instrument is of course not measuring true perceptions, rather; it is detecting people's ideas about what is socially acceptable. Such an instrument is invalid and useless.

Validity is concerned with an instrument's appropriateness for accomplishing the researcher's purposes. With regard to validity one can distinguish mainly between content validity, construct validity and criteria related validity. Construct validity refers to how well the instrument measures what it claims to. Demonstrating construct validity demands clear definition of construct, then presentation of logical arguments, credible opinions, and evidence from correlational or criterion-group studies, all aimed at ruling out alternative explanations of the instrument's results. Content validity refers to how well the items give appropriate emphasis to the various components of the construct. Concurrent validity is calculated when the researcher uses the results of one measure to predict the results of an alternative contemporaneous measure. Predictive validity justifies a questionnaire's usefulness for making decisions about people. The credibility of the researcher's evaluation depends on the use of valid instruments. Since there is no one established method for determining validity, the researcher is required to do his best in constructing, administering, and interpreting the instrument to anticipate skepticism about the results.

6.5 PILOT STUDY

The pilot study, sometimes referred to as pilot testing, is a preliminary or "trial run" investigation that precedes the carrying out of any investigation or project (Moser & Kalton 1971 : 398). The basic purpose of a pilot study is to determine how the design of the subsequent study can be improved and to identify flaws in the instruments, e.g. questionnaires or textual materials, to be used. The number of the participants in the pilot study or group is normally smaller than the number scheduled to take part in the subsequent study.

Plug et al. (1991 : 49-66) give the following purposes of a pilot study which were applied:

- * It permitted a preliminary testing of the hypothesis, that leads to testing more precise hypotheses in the main study.

- * It provided the researcher of this study with ideas, approaches and clues not foreseen prior to the pilot study.

- * It permitted a thorough check of the planned

statistical and analytical procedures thus allowing an appraisal of their adequacy in treating the data.

- * It greatly reduced the number of treatment errors because unforeseen problems revealed in the pilot study resulted in redesigning the main study.
- * It saved the researcher major expenditures of time and money on aspects of the research which would have been unnecessary.
- * It was possible to get feedback from research and other persons involved that led to important improvements in the main study.
- * In the pilot study, the researcher tried out a number of alternative measures and then selected those that produced the best results for the main study.

Nisbet & Entwistle (1970:39) assert the pilot run is done with a sample which is similar to the group from which the sample will be selected. The researcher of this study decided to conduct a pilot study with a group of child care workers

to test questions for inter alia, vagueness and ambiguity, to ascertain whether questions were correctly structured or not, and to identify questions of a sensitive nature. Space was provided at the end of the pilot questionnaire for the respondents to make the required comments.

A shelter controlled by the Community and Family Centre for Durban was used for the Pilot study. This shelter is located near the borders of the KwaMashu Township at Sea Cow Lake and is representative of the shelters under the control of Community Centres and similar to those controlled by the Twilight Children organization.

The questionnaires were completed by the following :

- the manager of the shelter regarding the structure, scope, composition, financing(funding) of the shelter and organization as well as support structures offered by the shelter to streetchildren;
- full-time, part-time and volunteer child-care workers attached to the shelters regarding their support and responsibility towards streetchildren within the shelter.

In this way the researcher of this study tried to conduct as thorough a pre-test as possible of the questionnaires before using them in his study.

Moser & Kalton (1971:48) refer to the pilot survey as "the dress rehearsal". They also see pre-testing and pilot surveys as "standard practice with professional survey bodies and are widely used in research surveys". Through the use of pre-testing and pilot study, the researcher was satisfied that the questions asked were largely meaningful, because clear responses were received from the respondents. Therefore, pre-testing and pilot study provided guidance in the present study on the suitability of questions and valuable supporting evidence.

6.6 ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Behr (1973 : 150) says of the questionnaire: "If properly administered, it nevertheless continues to be the best available instrument for obtaining information from widely spread sources". In the administration of the questionnaire every attempt has been made to reduce non-response. These actions, some of which have been alluded to previously, were as follows:

- * The questionnaire was set out in a format to enhance easy reading and completion.

- * The questionnaire was made as interesting as possible and

included many closed questions to reduce the time needed by the respondent to complete the questionnaire.

- * An introductory letter was included, explaining the reasons for the survey.
- * The questionnaire was administered personally at most of the shelters in the areas previously mentioned.
- * In certain areas where violence was rampant the questionnaires were mailed to shelters. Stamped addressed envelopes were included.
- * A reminder letter was sent out to shelters who had not responded.

6.7 THE PROCESSING OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The analysis of the questionnaire data involved coding the 16 questionnaires completed from shelter managers as well as the 51 questionnaires completed by hand by child care workers rendering support at these shelters. The coded data was subsequently transferred onto a computer spreadsheet using the Quattro Pro 4.0 computer programme. Thereafter, the data was submitted to the University of Natal where the data was

subjected to computerized statistical (SAS) analysis in order to test statistically the relationship between specific variables.

Statistical differences were determined by means of the CHI-squared test of significance. In this regard, contingency questions not requiring a response in the second part of the question were given a value of 0.

The value was disregarded as a category during statistical analysis so as to prevent the inflation of the CHI-squared value. The Yates-corrected CHI-squared test was applied in 2x2 contingency tables where necessary, whilst in larger tables, the CHI-squared value was computed without correction, even though the expected frequency in any cell was less than desired.

6.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE INVESTIGATION

Due to the sensitive nature of some of the information required in the questionnaire it is possible that some respondents were not completely honest and open in their response. Some respondents could therefore have given a response according to what they think was required.

The possibility also exists that some respondents could have

felt loyalty towards shelters/organizations that employed them and therefore were biased in their responses.

A major problem was the fact that the questionnaire to child care workers was presented in English and not in the mother tongue of respondents. The researcher of this study found that many of the child care workers had a poor command of English and the researcher's poor command of some Black languages when explaining may have resulted in some of the questions not fully being understood.

6.9 SUMMARY

In this chapter the planning and design of the empirical research is discussed and the questionnaire employed as research instrument described. The results of the questionnaires will be analyzed and set out in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 7

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CHAPTER 7

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE RESEARCH DATA

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter will be to discuss the data collected from the following:

- questionnaires from sixteen respondents who were at the time employed as shelter managers at shelters for streetchildren.
- questionnaires of fifty-one respondents who were at the time employed as child care workers at shelters for streetchildren.

Interpretation of the data as well as apparant patterns and trends that they reflect will be given. An explanation and description will be provided as to the methods employed in the categorization of the responses and the analysis of data. This will be followed by an examination of the responses to the individual questions on the questionnaires.

To recap briefly, the data for this study was gathered using both quantitative (the questionnaires) and qualitative (the interview) research procedures. The data obtained from these research procedures was analysed as follows:

The analysis of the questionnaire data involved coding the questionnaires received and subsequently transferring the

coded data onto a computer spreadsheet. Thereafter, the data was subjected to computerised statistical analysis in order to test statistically the relationship between the specific variables outlined in Section 7.2.

Statistical differences were determined by means of the CHI-squared test of significance. In this regard, contingency questions not requiring a response in the second part of the question were given a value of 0.

The value was disregarded as a category during statistical analysis so as to prevent the inflation of the CHI-squared value. The Yates-corrected CHI-squared test was applied in 2x2 contingency tables where necessary, whilst in larger tables, the CHI-squared value was computed without correction, even though the expected frequency in any cell was less than desired.

When using a CHI-squared test, statistical significance is determined by a specific alpha level. There are only three alpha levels in common usage in educational research, namely, the 0,10, 0,05 and 0,01 levels. The 0,10 level is restricted to very exploratory studies which have a high degree of uncertainty surrounding their theory and methods, while the 0,01 level is used in more sophisticated studies where little uncertainty prevails. The vast majority of studies fall in

between and these use the 0,05 level.

Lutz (1983 : 272-273) states that using the 0,05 level of significance means that we only reject the null-hypothesis when we get sample results whose sampling error probabilities are as low as or lower than 0,05. Otherwise we fail to reject the null-hypothesis. This gives the null-hypothesis a real opportunity to be kept, even though we may not have much faith in it. If we are successful in rejecting it anyway, we can have considerable confidence in that decision.

7.2 INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Lutz (1983 : 47) argues that "an independent variable is a variable that is thought to influence or predict another variable, but no outside or previous influence on itself is being investigated. A dependent variable is a variable that is thought to be influenced or predicted by another variable.

From an analysis of the independent variables that may have an influence on the responses of child care workers a few were selected that were considered as relevant and important. For the purpose of this study, the independent variables used are gender; years of previous experience as child care worker and years of experience as child care worker at present place

of employment (shelter).

The dependent variables used were selected from a wide range of questions within both the questionnaire and interview-research procedures. Only the questions which were considered to be reflective of some form of relationship the child care worker has with himself; others; objects and ideas and religious ideas (values) were selected.

The dependent variables selected are outlined in table 109 to Table 111 . (For the correct sequence and numbering of these questions as they appear in the questionnaire schedule, refer to the questionnaire schedule, Appendix D).

7.3 THE HYPOTHESES

Goode and Hatt (1952:57) believe that hypotheses are a necessary prerequisite before any educational research can begin. They argue that "as difficult as the process may be, it is necessary for the researcher to see the fundamental need of a hypothesis to guide sound research. Without it, research is unfocused, a random empirical wandering. The hypothesis is the necessary link between theory and investigation which leads to the discovery of additions of knowledge".

A hypothesis is the most specific statement of a problem and can be defined as preliminary statements or declarations about what the prospective researcher thinks the results of the research will be (De Wet et al., 1981:75). The hypothesis is therefore a preliminary statement about the expected relationship between two or more variables in a research problem.

Smit (1983) and Behr (1983 : 4-5) identified the following characteristics regarding a hypothesis:

- * A hypothesis predicts the relationship between variables and can be tested empirically.
- * A hypothesis is proof that researchers have come to grips with their problem and that they can pinpoint and control the main variables that it contains.
- * A hypothesis directs the investigation in that it provides an indication of the procedures to be followed and the nature of the data to be collected. Because the hypothesis directs the investigation, it can be reformulated several times prior to the start of the empirical study, but not after the researcher has started

collecting data.

- * The hypothesis provides a basis for interpreting the results and drawing conclusions.
- * Researchers do not try to prove a hypothesis but collect data to enable them ultimately to accept or refute it.

The research hypothesis as formulated in Chapter 1 (1.4):

" Child care workers at shelters for streetchildren are not equipped to render accountable support regarding the educational distress of the streetchild ",

will for the purpose of this study be formulated as the null-hypothesis as follows:

- * Child care workers at shelters for streetchildren are equipped to render accountable support regarding the educational distress of the streetchild.

The responses of child care workers have been grouped together according to relation dimensions in order that the child care workers' relationships with himself, others, objects or ideas and towards religious ideas (God) are

clearly indicated. To investigate the possible relation between these variables it became necessary to formulate specific working hypotheses.

From the abovementioned research hypothesis the following working hypotheses are derived and stated as null-hypotheses:

- * Hypothesis 1 : Child care workers clearly apprehend the importance of their task in the rendering of accountable support to the child in educational distress.

- * Hypothesis 2 : Child care workers clearly apprehend the importance of being substitute parents in the rendering of accountable support to the child in educational distress.

- * Hypothesis 3 : Child care workers clearly apprehend the importance of creating a family milieu in the rendering of accountable support to the child in educational distress.

- * Hypothesis 4 : Child care workers clearly apprehend the importance of religious ideas/values in the rendering of accountable support to the child in educational distress.

In the analysis of the questionnaire data the descriptive statistics regarding Questionnaire A will be discussed first. Questionnaire A is designed for the purpose of supplying clear, appropriate and specific descriptive statistics regarding the scope, nature and function of each shelter for streetchildren included in this research.

7.4 ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH DATA : QUESTIONNAIRE A :

DISCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

7.4.1 Number of children for which care centre is registered

Table 1

Frequency distribution according to number of children for which care centre is registered:

	Number of children	Frequency	Percent
1.	0 - 10	0	0
2.	11 - 20	2	12,5
3.	21 - 30	5	31,1
4.	31 - 40	4	25,0
5.	41 - 50	2	12,5
6.	51 - 60	1	6,3
7.	61 - 70	0	0
8.	71 - 80	1	6,3
9.	81 - 90	1	6,3
	Total	16	100

Privately run shelters have been established in most large cities, but advertisements for them are already being suspected of playing a role in encouraging children to take to the streets with the hope of finding a place in a shelter (Richter and Swart, 1988 : 3). The majority of the shelters (31,3 %) are registered to accommodate between 21 to 30 streetchildren. This is mainly due to the scarcity of funding, resources and facilities.

7.4.2 Minimum age on entry : Boys

The majority of shelters (50%) experience the minimum age of boys on entry to the shelter to be between 6 - 10 years.

One shelter which mainly accommodates older boys did not take any boy younger than 16 years.

Table 2

Frequency distribution according to minimum age on entry:
Boys

	Minimum age	Frequency	Percent
1.	No Boys	1	6,3
2.	0 - 5	5	31,1
3.	6 - 10	8	50,0
4.	11 - 15	1	6,3
5.	16 - 20	1	6,3
	Total	16	100

7.4.3 Minimum age on entry : Girls

Table 3

Frequency distribution according to minimum age on entry:
Girls

	Minimum age	Frequency	Percent
1.	No Girls	13	81,2
2.	0 - 5	0	0,0
3.	6 - 10	2	12,5
4.	11 - 15	1	6,3
5.	16 - 20	0	0,0
	Total	16	100

According to Richter & Swart (1988 : 3) most South African streetchildren, as elsewhere in the world, are boys. This is evident from table 3 as the majority of shelters (87,5 %) accommodate only boys.

7.4.4 Maximum age on entry : Boys

Table 4 indicates that the majority of shelters (50%) provide for boys in the age group 16 - 20 to be accommodated for the first time in the shelter. This provision indicates that even boys in their late teens are living on the streets. According to Blignaut (1990) these older boys tend to become involved in crime if no accountable intervention in their life-world takes place. Antisocial actions of the streetchild

manifests itself in acts of theft, drug peddling, psychoactive drug abuse, prostitution and other crimes.

Table 4

Frequency distribution according to maximum age on entry:
Boys

	Maximum age	Frequency	Percent
1.	No Boys	1	6,3
2.	0 - 5	0	0,0
3.	6 - 10	1	6,3
4.	11 - 15	6	37,4
5.	16 - 20	8	50,0
	Total	16	100

7.4.5 Maximum age on entry : Girls

Table 5

Frequency distribution according to maximum age on entry:
Girls

	Maximum age	Frequency	Percent
1.	No Girls	13	81,3
2.	0 - 5	0	0,0
3.	6 - 10	0	0,0
4.	11 - 15	3	18,7
5.	16 - 20	0	0,0
	Total	16	100

One of the shelters which mainly accommodates girls allows pregnant girls to be accommodated in the shelter. After the baby is born both mother and baby are accommodated by the shelter. Although the shelter mainly accommodates girls, girls with babies, or small boys are also accommodated.

7.4.6 Actual number of children in care centre

Table 6

Frequency distribution according to actual number of children in care centre

	Number of children	Frequency	Percent
1.	0 - 10	0	0,0
2.	11 - 20	0	0,0
3.	21 - 30	2	12,5
4.	31 - 40	5	31,2
5.	41 - 50	5	31,2
6.	51 - 60	2	12,5
7.	61 - 70	0	0
8.	71 - 80	1	6,3
9.	81 - 90	1	6,3
10.	91 - 100	0	0
	Total	16	100

From the information in table 6 it is clear that most shelters (56,3%) actually accommodate more children than the

number they are registered for (see table 1). This puts an extra strain on the facilities and resources available.

7.4.7 Number of boys or girls in care centre

From tables 7 & 8 it is evident that most shelters which accommodate boys (75%) accommodate more than 30 boys while only 6,3% of shelters which accommodate girls have more than 30 girls in the shelter.

Table 7

Frequency distribution according to number of boys in care centre

	Number of boys	Frequency	Percent
1.	None	1	6,3
2	1 - 10	0	0
3.	11 - 20	0	0
4.	21 - 30	2	12,5
5.	31 - 40	6	37,5
6.	41 - 50	4	25,0
7.	51 - 60	1	6,2
8.	61 - 70	0	0
9.	71 - 80	1	6,3
10.	81 - 90	1	6,2
	Total	16	100

Table 8

Frequency distribution according to number of girls in care centre

	Number of girls	Frequency	Percent
1.	None	13	81,3
2	1 - 10	0	0
3.	11 - 20	0	0
4.	21 - 30	2	12,5
5.	31 - 40	1	6,3
	Total	16	100

7.4.8 Accommodation facilities for boys and girls

Table 9

Frequency distribution according to accommodation facilities for boys only

	Accommodation : Boys	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	13	81,3
2.	No	3	18,7
	Total	16	100

Tables 9 & 10 indicate that a small percentage of shelters (12,5%) have the facilities to accommodate both boys and girls.

Table 10

Frequency distribution according to accommodation facilities for boys and girls

	Accommodation : boys and girls	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	2	12,5
2.	No	14	87,5
	Total	16	100

7.4.9 Accommodation facilities for boys and girls according to different age groups

According to tables 11 & 12 no provision is made in the shelters to accommodate girls according to age groups. Some shelters for boys do accommodate them according to age groups. Schurink & Schurink (1993) found that the needs of younger boys differ considerably from that of older boys.

Table 11

Frequency distribution according to accommodation facilities for boys: different age groups

	Accommodation : boys : age groups	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	8	50,0
2.	No	8	50,0
	Total	16	100

Table 12

Frequency distribution according to accommodation facilities for girls: different age groups

	Accommodation: girls: age groups	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	0	0,0
2.	No	16	100
	Total	16	100

7.4.10 Accommodation facilities for full-time child care workers

Table 13

Frequency distribution according to accommodation facilities for full-time child care workers

	Accommodation: full-time workers	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	16	100
2.	No	0	0
	Total	16	100

All the shelters in the sample provide accommodation for full-time child care workers.

7.4.11 Accommodation facilities for part-time/volunteer child care workers

The majority of shelters in the sample (68,7%) do not provide accommodation facilities for part-time/volunteer child care

workers.

Table 14

Frequency distribution according to accommodation facilities for part-time/volunteer child care workers

	Accommodation: part-time workers	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	5	31,3
2.	No	11	68,7
	Total	16	100

7.4.12 Overcrowding of the child care facility

Table 15

Frequency distribution according to the care centre facility being overcrowded with street children

	Overcrowded	Frequency	Percent
1.	Always	4	25,0
2.	Often	9	56,3
3.	Never	3	18,7
	Total	16	100

81,3% of the shelters in the sample are often overcrowded.

This factor does not only put a strain on the resources and facilities but also implies that the number of streetchildren in shelters fluctuates which makes proper organization and planning very difficult.

7.4.13 Type of organization that shelter belong to**Table 16**

Frequency distribution according to the organization being a government sponsored organization

	Government sponsored	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	2	12,5
2.	No	14	87,5
	Total	16	100

Table 17

Frequency distribution according to the organization being a registered charity organization

	Registered charity organization	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	8	50,0
2.	No	8	50,0
	Total	16	100

Table 18

Frequency distribution according to the organization being a subsidiary of a religious organization

	Religious Organization	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	3	18,8
2.	No	13	81,2
	Total	16	100

Table 19

Frequency distribution according to the organization being a private organization

	Private organization	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	8	50,0
2.	No	8	50,0
	Total	16	100

According to tables 16 - 19 only two shelters in the sample (18,8%) enjoy a degree of State support. The majority of shelters (81,2) depend on support from the general public and organizations other than the State (see also table 38).

7.4.14 Majority of children in shelters being runaways, abused or addicted children

Table 20

Frequency distribution according to the majority of streetchildren in the care centre being runaway children

	Runaways	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	12	75,0
2.	No	4	25,0
	Total	16	100

According to the information supplied in tables 20 - 23 it would appear that most of the children in the shelters are runaways (75 %). In this regard Richter (1990) noted that

streetchildren in South Africa consist out of "throwaways" (33,3%), "castaways" (33,3%) and the rest (33,4%) fit between these two categories. "Throwaways" are children who have been discarded by their parents/families. "Castaways" are the children who found the situation at home unbearable and left.

Table 21

Frequency distribution according to the majority of streetchildren in the care centre being sexually abused children

	Sexually abused	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	4	25,0
2.	No	12	75,0
	Total	16	100

Table 22

Frequency distribution according to the majority of streetchildren in the care centre being physically abused children

	Physically abused	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	10	62,5
2.	No	6	37,5
	Total	16	100

The personal histories of the children are replete with incidents of physical, sexual and emotional abuse and neglect by their families (Maree, 1990 : 2). Sexual abuse (25%) was

found to be a contributing factor according to the shelters which accommodate girls. Physical abuse (62,5%) seems to be a major contributing factor in general. Research shows that 21% reveal impaired physical development; 53% are underfed; 31% have head injuries of some kind; 33% have neuropsychological deviations (Richter and Swart 1988 : 3) .

Table 23

Frequency distribution according to the majority of streetchildren in the care centre being children addicted to drugs

	Addicted	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	10	62,5
2.	No	6	37,5
	Total	16	100

Once on the street the majority of streetchildren (62,5%) use drugs such as inhalants and intoxicants on a regular basis. The most commonly abused substances are glue, benzine or petrol, typewriter fluid, paint thinners and cooking spray (Janse van Rensburg, 1991).

7.4.15 Number of years in operation

The majority of shelters (68,8%) in this sample have been rendering support to streetchildren for less than six years.

Table 24

Frequency distribution according to the number of years the organization has been operating as a support unit for streetchildren ?

	Number of years	Frequency	Percent
1.	Less than 1 year	0	0,0
2.	1 - 2 years	2	12,5
3.	3 - 5 years	9	56,3
4.	6 - 10 years	3	18,7
5.	More than 10 years	2	12,5
	Total	16	100

7.4.16 Number of streetchildren cared for daily at shelters

Table 25

Frequency distribution according to the number of streetchildren cared for daily

	Number of children	Frequency	Percent
1.	1 - 20	0	0
2.	21 - 30	2	12,6
3.	31 - 40	5	31,2
4.	41 - 50	5	31,2
5.	More than 50	4	25,0
	Total	16	100

The majority of the shelters (56,3%) in this sample care for more than 40 streetchildren a day (see table 5).

7.4.17 Number of branches of the child care organization**Table 26**

Frequency distribution according to the number of branches rendering support services to streetchildren

Number of branches		Frequency	Percent
1.	0	11	68,4
2.	1	2	12,5
3.	2	1	6,2
4.	3	1	6,2
5.	More than 3	1	6,2
Total		16	100

According to table 26 the majority of shelters (68,4%) in the sample have no branches.

7.4.18 Supply of basic physical needs**Table 27**

Frequency distribution according to the assistance to streetchildren regarding basic physical needs

Basic physical needs		Frequency	Percent
1.	Meals only	0	0
2.	Meals and clothing only	0	0
3.	Meals and shelter only	0	0
4.	Meals, clothing and shelter	16	100
Total		16	100

Regarding the provision of basic needs all shelters (100%) in

the sample provide the basic needs of food, clothing and shelter.

7.4.19 Assistance to streetchildren : medical and educational

Table 28

Frequency distribution according to the assistance to streetchildren regarding medical services

	Medical Services	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	16	100
2.	No	0	0
	Total	16	100

Table 29

Frequency distribution according to the assistance to streetchildren regarding formal education programmes

	Formal Education	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	14	87,5
2.	No	2	12,5
	Total	16	100

Table 30

Frequency distribution according to the assistance to streetchildren regarding non-formal education programmes

	Non-formal education	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	13	81,3
2.	No	3	18,7
	Total	16	100

Table 31

Frequency distribution according to the assistance to streetchildren regarding guidance and counselling

	Guidance and counselling	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	16	100
2.	No	0	0
	Total	16	100

Tables 28 - 31 indicate that all shelters in the sample (100%) have medical, guidance and counselling services available to the streetchild. The majority of shelters offer formal educational programmes (87,5%) and non-formal educational programmes (81,3%). This kind of informal and formal education positively helps to sensitize the child and prepares him for formal education when his life has shown some stability (Mbanjwa, 1990 : 9). Unfortunately shortages of suitably qualified personnel hamper the whole programme (Maree, 1990).

The fact remains, however, that if the behavioural deviation is the cause of the learning problems the assistance to be rendered is re-education and not remediation (HSRC, 1975). If the behavioural deviation is merely a symptom of the learning problem, the assistance to the child entails much more than mere remediation. Many learning defects cannot be rectified

by remedial education. Assistance to the child in educational distress entails aspects such as assistance in the understanding of the individual potentialities and in the designing of an individual future. Fundamentally it therefore remains a task of re-education in a secure environment.

7.4.20 Co-operation of government institutions

Table 32

Frequency distribution according to co-operation between the organization and the Department of Welfare

	Co-operation: Welfare	Frequency	Percent
1.	Full co-operation	7	43,7
2.	Poor co-operation	1	6,3
3.	No co-operation	8	50,0
	Total	16	100

Table 33

Frequency distribution according to co-operation between the organization and the South African Police

	Co-operation: SAP	Frequency	Percent
1.	Full co-operation	5	31,2
2.	Poor co-operation	8	50,0
3.	No co-operation	3	18,8
	Total	16	100

According to tables 32 & 33 the majority of shelters

indicate poor co-operation between themselves and the Department of Welfare (56,6%) as well as the S.A.P.(68,8%). In this regard Swart (1987) explains that because of the streetchildren's past bad experiences with officialdom, i.e. parents, social workers, teachers, police, etc. they tend to be very suspicious of persons when confronted with formal questioning and actually display rebellion to involuntary removal to places of safety no matter how good the motive is.

Streetchildren are children who have "removed themselves from parental care" and have chosen the residential facility themselves, be it a shelter for streetchildren or a streetcorner. This then often presents many problems for social workers who attempt interventions with these children in terms of The Child Care Act (Mbanjwa, 1990).

7.4.21 Registered W.O. number

Table 34

Frequency distribution according to the organization obtaining a Registered W.O. Number for fund raising purposes.

	Registered W.O. number	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	10	62,5
2.	No	6	37,5
	Total	16	100

The majority of shelters (62,5%) indicated that they have obtained a W.O. number in order to attempt raising funds themselves. The "Homestead" in Cape Town serves as an excellent example of a shelter which organizes projects and special occasions whereby funds are raised for the shelter (see also table 42).

7.4.22 Financial assistance

Table 35

Frequency distribution according to the organization receiving financial assistance from the Government or Government institutions

	Financial assistance	Frequency	Percent
1.	Fully assisted	2	12,4
2.	Poorly assisted	7	43,8
3.	No assistance	7	43,8
	Total	16	100

Table 36

Frequency distribution according to the organization receiving assistance other than financial from the Government or government institutions

	Assistance	Frequency	Percent
1.	Fully assisted	2	12,4
2.	Poorly assisted	13	81,3
3.	No assistance	1	6,3
	Total	16	100

The majority of shelters in the sample indicate that they are poorly assisted regarding financial assistance (87,5%) from the Government (table 35) as well as regarding assistance which concerns resources and facilities (87,6%).

According to Janse van Rensburg (1991), Mbanjwa (1990), the Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983 as amended does not provide for the establishment of shelters for streetchildren and therefore these shelters are seen as illegal and are deprived of direct Governmental support and protection.

Table 37

Frequency distribution according to the organization receiving support or assistance from local government

	Frequency	Percent
1. Yes	7	43,8
2. No	9	56,2
Total	16	100

Local governments such as municipalities appear to render more support to shelters within their boundaries although the majority of shelters in the sample (56.2%) indicated that they receive no support or assistance.

From table 38 it is evident that the majority of shelters (68,8%) rely on public donations as their main source of

revenue.

Table 38

Frequency distribution according to the organization's main source of income

	Source of income	Frequency	Percent
1.	Government Subsidy	2	12,5
2.	Business Sector	3	18,8
3.	Public Donations	11	68,8
4.	Religious Organizations	0	0
5.	Other charity Organizations	0	0
6.	Political Organizations	0	0
	Total	16	100

Table 39

Frequency distribution according to the financial contributions made to other branches of the organization

	Contributions	Frequency	Percent
1.	Regularly	3	18,7
2.	Never	13	81,3
	Total	16	100

The majority of shelters (81,3%) indicated that they never contribute financially to other branches of the organization.

A large percentage of the shelters (43,7%) find that they

cannot attain aims and objectives regarding support programmes offered due to a shortfall in finances. This fact implies that a large percentage of the educational services at shelters are not being rendered adequately. This fact was emphasized by Schurink & Schurink (1993 : 19) who noted that most volunteer programmes in South Africa are struggling to render accountable support programmes. He identify the most serious problem facing South African streetchild programmes as being a lack of co-ordination, both between the different volunteer programmes and between volunteer programmes and the state.

Table 40

Frequency distribution according to the the attainment of aims\objectives regarding support programmes to streetchildren due to financial assistance received

Attainment of aims		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	9	56,3
2.	No	7	43,7
	Total	16	100

Maree(1990) supported this notion as he noted that shortages of funds and suitably qualified personnel hamper the educational programmes at shelters.

The majority of shelters (87,5%) do submit audited statements to donors regarding donations made to the shelter (table 41).

This would imply that donations received are carefully spent. Despite this careful spending of money serious shortfalls do exist (table 40).

Table 41

Frequency distribution according to the submitting of audited statements to donors regarding their donations

Audited statements		Frequency	Percent
1.	Always	8	50,0
2.	Regularly	6	37,5
3.	Never	2	12,5
	Total	16	100

Table 42

Frequency distribution according to fund-raising projects (e.g. sponsored competitions) by the organization as a source of income ?

Fund-raising		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	10	62,5
2.	No	6	37,5
	Total	16	100

(See also table 34).

7.4.23 Staffing at shelters : full-time, part-time and volunteer child care workers

Tables 43 - 45 indicate that the majority (57,2%) of the shelters in this sample employ less than six volunteers. The

majority employ more than five part-time workers (56,3%) and full-time workers (87,4%). The majority of shelters (87,4%) employ between 6 - 10 full-time workers.

Table 43

Frequency distribution according to the number of staff members at the organization who are volunteers

	Volunteers	Frequency	Percent
1.	None	5	31,2
2.	0 - 5	4	25,0
3.	6 - 10	6	37,5
4.	11 - 15	0	0
5.	More than 15	1	6,3
	Total	16	100

Table 44

Frequency distribution according to the number of staff members at the organization who are part-time employed

	Part-time employed	Frequency	Percent
1.	None	0	0
2.	0 - 5	7	43,7
3.	6 - 10	7	43,7
4.	11 - 15	0	0
5.	More than 15	2	12,6
	Total	16	100

According to Beukes and Gannon (1993 : 77) a reasonably

large turnover of staff is found at shelters. In this regard they noted: "...when a dentist's drill is blunt, he buys a new one. But the child care worker's tool is himself or herself - and when child care workers get 'blunt', they are heading for 'burn-out'". Child care workers need to be realistic rather than idealistic.

7.4.24 Remuneration of staff at shelters : full-time, part-time and volunteer child care workers

Table 45

Frequency distribution according to the number of staff members at the organization who are full-time employed

	Full-time employed	Frequency	Percent
1.	None	0	0
2.	0 - 5	1	6,3
3.	6 - 10	14	87,4
4.	11 - 15	1	6,3
5.	More than 15	0	0
	Total	16	100

Table 46

Frequency distribution according to the number of volunteer workers receiving a salary or not

	Volunteers salary	Frequency	Percent
1.	Receiving a salary	13	81,3
2.	Not receiving a salary	3	18,7
	Total	16	100

with 31,2% of the shelters employing no volunteers at all (see table 43).

7.4.25 Duties of volunteer child care workers

Table 47

Frequency distribution according to the section of the organization where volunteers are performing duties

	Administrative	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	3	18,7
2.	No	13	81,3
	Total	16	100

Table 48

Frequency distribution according to the section of the organization where volunteers are performing duties

	Fund collection	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	7	43,7
2.	No	9	56,3
	Total	16	100

Table 49

Frequency distribution according to the section of the organization where volunteers are performing duties

	Day-care	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	7	43,7
2.	No	9	56,3
	Total	16	100

Table 50

Frequency distribution according to the section of the organization where volunteers are performing duties

	All aspects	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	2	12,5
2.	No	14	87,5
	Total	16	100

According to tables 47 - 50 shelters seem mainly to involve volunteers in fund-collecting activities (43,7%) and day-care activities (43,7%). Volunteer workers at the majority of shelters (87,5%) are not involved in all aspects of the shelter's support programmes.

7.4.26 Availability of written guidance for volunteer care workers regarding their duties

Table 51

Frequency distribution according to whether volunteers receive the following regarding the care of streetchildren :

	Frequency	Percent
1. Training	3	18,8
2. Training and job description	7	43,7
4. Training, job description and a guide\handbook	4	25,0
5. None of the above	2	12,5
Total	16	100

It would appear that the majority of shelters (43,7%) supply volunteers with training and a job description. Only 25% supply their volunteers with a guide or handbook as well.

7.4.27 Duty load of volunteer care workers per month

Table 52

Frequency distribution according to the number of days per month volunteers assist on average in the care of streetchildren

	Days per month	Frequency	Percent
1.	1 - 5	11	68,6
2.	5 - 10	1	6,3
3.	10 - 15	1	6,3
4.	15 - 20	2	12,5
5.	20 - 30	1	6,3
	Total	16	100

Table 52 indicate that volunteers spent a maximum of five days a month at the majority of shelters (68,6%).

7.4.28 Qualifications required for volunteer care workers at shelters

The majority of shelters in this sample (50%) do not require specific academic qualifications. Some managers felt that personal attributes such as "love for children" were more important than academic qualifications or training.

Table 53

Frequency distribution according to the qualifications required by the organization for volunteer workers who render support to streetchildren

	Qualifications required	Frequency	Percent
1.	None	8	50,0
2.	Std, 8 - 10	6	37,5
3.	Diploma in child care	2	12,5
4.	Degree in social work	0	0
	Total	16	100

5.4.29 Qualifications required for full-time care workers at shelters

Table 54

Frequency distribution according to the qualifications required by the organization for full-time child care workers who render support to streetchildren

	Qualifications required	Frequency	Percent
1.	None	2	12,5
2.	Std. 8 - 10	8	50,0
3.	Diploma in child care	6	37,5
4.	Degree in social work	0	0
	Total	16	100

According to table 54 the majority of shelters (62,5%) do not require more training in child care than std. 10. If this is

compared with what the HSRC noted (1975) regarding the caring for the pedagogically neglected child (streetchild) in an accountable manner it becomes clear that the child care worker requires special training such as training in Orthodidactics. According to the HSRC investigation (1975) into support for the pedagogically neglected child the staff attached to industrial schools is more familiar with the term remedial education. The two terms (remedial education and orthodidactical assistance), however, are not synonymous. Remedial education can be integrated with orthodidactical assistance if necessary. Fundamentally orthodidactical assistance is education assistance and in this sense all formal education at industrial schools is of an orthodidactical nature. The HSRC investigation (1975) found that a major shortcoming was that a large number of teachers have no knowledge of Orthodidactics.

7.4.30 Child care workers working in teams

According to tables 55 - 58 the majority of shelters (87,5%) indicated that they do work in teams when rendering support and the teams of the majority of shelters include suitably qualified personnel for rendering medical services (75%), formal education programmes (75%) and guidance and counselling programmes (100%).

Table 55

Frequency distribution according to workers who render assistance to streetchildren working in teams

	Work in teams	Frequency	Percent
1.	Always	14	87,5
2.	Sometimes	2	12,5
3.	Never	0	0
	Total	16	100

Table 56

Frequency distribution according to the whether a team include suitably qualified personnel who render medical services

	Medical services	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	12	75,0
2.	No	4	25,0
	Total	16	100

Table 57

Frequency distribution according to the whether a team include suitably qualified personnel who render formal educational programmes

	Formal education	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	12	75,0
2.	No	4	25,0
	Total	16	100

Table 58

Frequency distribution according to the whether a team includes suitably qualified personnel who render guidance and counselling programmes

Guidance & counselling		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	16	100
2.	No	0	0
	Total	16	100

7.4.31 Professional services available at shelters

Table 59

Frequency distribution according to the availability of professionally qualified persons at care centres to render medical services

Medical services		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	7	43,8
2.	No	9	56,2
	Total	16	100

Table 60

Frequency distribution according to the availability of professionally qualified persons at care centres to render formal educational programmes

Formal education		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	9	56,2
2.	No	7	43,8
	Total	16	100

Table 61

Frequency distribution according to the availability of professionally qualified persons available at care centres to render guidance and counselling

Guidance & counselling		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	15	93,7
2.	No	1	6,3
	Total	16	100

Tables 59 - 61 indicate that regarding professionally qualified persons at shelters the picture differs from that of suitably qualified personnel as indicated in tables 55 - 58. The majority of shelters (56,2%) lack the services of professionally qualified staff. 43,8 % of the shelters lack the services of professionally qualified staff to render formal educational programmes. 93,7% of the shelters indicated that they have professionally qualified staff to render guidance and counselling.

7.4.32 Age group of most streetchildren at shelters

According to Richter (1988 : 5-7) there are approximately 9 000 streetchildren in South Africa " who have abandoned (or have been abandoned by) their families, schools and immediate communities, before they are 16 years of age, and drifted into a nomadic street life ".

The majority of shelters (50%) indicated that most children in their care fall into the age group 14 to 17. 93,7 % of children in the shelters fall between the ages 11 and 17.

Table 62

Frequency distribution according to the age group most streetchildren in the care of the organization fall

	Age group	Frequency	Percent
1.	5 - 8 years	0	0
2.	8 - 11 years	0	0
3.	11 - 14	7	43,7
4.	14 - 17	8	50,0
5.	17 and older	1	6,3
	Total	16	100

7.4.33 Manner in which streetchildren arrived at shelters

Table 63

Frequency distribution according to the number of streetchildren picked up from the streets

	Picked up	Frequency	Percent
1.	None	14	87,5
2.	0 - 5	2	12,5
3.	6 - 10	0	0
4.	11 - 15	0	0
5.	More than 15	0	0
	Total	16	100

Tables 63 - 67 indicate that at all of the shelters streetchildren arrived voluntarily to be admitted to the shelter. A significant percentage of shelters (25%) indicated that streetchildren were referred to the shelter by a social worker, welfare agencies and the S.A.P. A small percentage of shelters (12,5%) indicated that streetchildren were picked up from the streets.

Table 64

Frequency distribution according to the number of streetchildren in the care centre who arrived voluntarily at the shelter

	Voluntarily	Frequency	Percent
1.	None	0	0
2.	0 - 5	0	0
3.	6 - 10	3	18,8
4.	11 - 15	7	43,8
5.	More than 15	6	37,4
	Total	16	100

According to Mbanjwa (1990) police and social workers are considered by streetchildren as the worst group because their intervention often leads to arrest or detention at the place of safety and subsequent returning of the streetchild to the same unchanged home environment that originally caused him to find refuge in the street.

Table 65

Frequency distribution according to the number of streetchildren in the care centre who were referred by a social worker to the shelter

	Referred by social worker	Frequency	Percent
1.	None	12	75,0
2.	0 - 5	3	18,8
3.	6 - 10	0	0
4.	11 - 15	1	6,2
5.	More than 15	0	0
	Total	16	100

Table 66

Frequency distribution according to the number of streetchildren in the care centre who were referred by welfare agencies to the shelter

	Referred by welfare agencies	Frequency	Percent
1.	None	12	75,0
2.	0 - 5	3	18,7
3.	6 - 10	0	0
4.	11 - 15	1	6,3
5.	More than 15	0	0
	Total	16	100

Table 67

Frequency distribution according to the number of streetchildren in the care centre who were referred by the S.A.P. to the shelter

	Referred by S.A.P.	Frequency	Percent
1.	None	12	75,0
2.	0 - 5	4	25,0
3.	6 - 10	0	0
4.	11 - 15	0	0
5.	More than 15	0	0
	Total	16	100

Van Niekerk (1990) also maintains that the returning of a streetchild to an unstable or inadequate home environment serves no purpose for the streetchild; in fact, such an action could only worsen the situatedness of the child.

7.4.34 Rules at the care centre

Table 68

Frequency distribution according to whether most streetchildren in the care centre see the rules of the care centre as something which are forced upon them

	Rules forced on them	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	0	0
2.	No	16	100
	Total	16	100

Table 69

Frequency distribution according to whether most streetchildren in the care centre see the rules of the care centre as unnecessarily strict

Rules too strict		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	1	6,3
2.	No	15	93,7
	Total	16	100

Table 70

Frequency distribution according to whether most streetchildren in the care centre see the rules of the care centre as acceptable

Rules acceptable		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	15	93,7
2.	No	1	6,3
	Total	16	100

Table 71

Frequency distribution according to whether most streetchildren in the care centre see the rules of the care centre as acceptable because they are afraid of being punished

Rules acceptable due to fear		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	0	0
2.	No	16	100
	Total	16	100

According to tables 68 - 71 all of the shelters (100%) indicate that the streetchildren in their care do not experience the rules in the shelter to be forced on them nor do they simply accept them because they fear punishment. A small percentage of shelters (6,3%) found that the streetchildren in their care perceive the rules of the shelter as unnecessarily strict and not acceptable.

For the streetchild the " law of the street " prevails. The streetchild shows almost no respect for values. He does not identify with the usual youth groupings; in effect, he presents a deeply-rooted suspicion towards all authoritative institutions which may resemble the home, the family, the school or other accepted social structures (Maree, 1990)

7.4.35 Behaviour of streetchildren at shelters

According to Schurink & Schurink (1993) streetchildren perceive themselves to be in total control of their lives. This they display by exhibiting a certain degree of aggressiveness. According to Van Niekerk (1990 : 1) the streetchild has no real source of emotional security and the others with whom he associates only reinforce an unacceptable code of behaviour.

Table 72

Frequency distribution according to whether streetchildren in the care centre are boastful

	Boastful	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	7	43,7
2.	No	9	56,3
	Total	16	100

Table 72 indicate that 43,7 % of the shelters found children in their care to be boastful.

Table 73

Frequency distribution according to whether streetchildren in the care centre are spontaneous

	Spontaneous	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	13	81,2
2.	No	3	18,8
	Total	16	100

Table 74

Frequency distribution according to whether streetchildren in the care centre are quiet

	Quiet	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	5	31,3
2.	No	11	68,7
	Total	16	100

Table 75

Frequency distribution according to whether streetchildren in the care centre are withdrawn

	Withdrawn	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	10	62,5
2.	No	6	37,5
	Total	16	100

Maree (1990 : 4) noted that the ascribing of significance of insufficient quality is clearly evident in the life-world of the streetchild: "...the streetchild shows clear signs of being unloved and left alone, of poor self-esteem, of poor interpersonal trust as well as signs of anxiety and depression." This fact is endorsed by shelters (62,5%) in table 75.

Table 76

Frequency distribution according to whether streetchildren in the care centre exhibit temper tantrums

	Temper tantrums	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	14	87,5
2.	No	2	12,5
	Total	16	100

According to table 76 the majority of shelters (87,5%) indicated that streetchildren in the care centre exhibit

temper tantrums. Agnelli (1986 : 556) observed the following regarding street children in this regard: " Streetchildren express their aggression in physical ways. They are esteemed if they fight well. They are loud and rough." Lersch (1970 : 331-357) also mentions feelings of pessimism, dissatisfaction, a lack of self- confidence and inferiority, all which are clearly evident in the life-world of the streetchild.

According to Ter Horst (1973 : 79) the child withdraws into his own world which to him has the resemblance of safety, yet which actually intensifies his anxiety. The streetchild uses cheap intoxicants to create his illusion of safety but in fact only intensifies his anxiety.

Table 77

Frequency distribution according to whether cases of drug abuse happen frequently in the care centre

Drug abuse		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	4	25,0
2.	No	12	75,0
	Total	16	100

Anelli (1986 : 556) observed that streetchildren drink intoxicating beverages of whatever kind, sniff glue and

inhale methylated spirits. They will experiment with various other types of drugs should they come across them.

Interesting to note that table 78 indicates that 43,8 % of the shelters experiences frequent glue sniffing compared with only 25 % drug abuse indicated in table 77.

Table 78

Frequency distribution according to whether cases of glue sniffing happen frequently in the care centre

Glue sniffing		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	7	43,8
2.	No	9	56,2
	Total	16	100

Shelters reported a relatively small percentage of sexual molestation (table 79). In contrast with this the majority of shelters (87,5%) reported that cases of bullying happens frequently in the care centre (table 80).

Table 79

Frequency distribution according to whether cases of sexual molestation happen frequently in the care centre

Sexual molestation		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	3	18,8
2.	No	13	81,2
	Total	16	100

Table 80

Frequency distribution according to whether cases of bullying happen frequently in the care centre

Bullying		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	14	87,5
2.	No	2	12,5
	Total	16	100

Table 81

Frequency distribution according to whether cases of intimidation happen frequently in the care centre

Intimidation		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	5	31,3
2.	No	11	68,8
	Total	16	100

A few shelters (31,3%) indicated that intimidation of younger children by older children does take place but in contrast to table 80 which experiences frequent bullying.

Table 82

Frequency distribution according to whether streetchildren in the care centre exhibit bedwetting

Bedwetting		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	5	31,2
2.	No	11	68,8
	Total	16	100

Table 83

Frequency distribution according to whether streetchildren in the care centre exhibit stuttering

Stuttering		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	2	12,5
2.	No	14	87,5
Total		16	100

Table 84

Frequency distribution according to whether streetchildren in the care centre exhibit thumbsucking

Thumbsucking		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	5	31,3
2.	No	11	68,8
Total		16	100

The majority of shelters indicated that they don't experience children in the care centre exhibiting bedwetting (68,8%), stuttering (87,5%) or thumbsucking (68,8%).

7.4.36 Television

Most shelters (68,8%) allow the children to choose the television programmes they want to watch. All shelters were equipped with at least one television set.

Table 85

Frequency distribution according to whether the manager decides which programmes the children may watch on television

	TV Programmes	Frequency	Percent
1.	No television	0	0
2.	Fully	1	6,3
3.	Partially	4	25,0
4.	Children choose	11	68,8
	Total	16	100

7.4.37 Study and study facilities at shelters

Table 86

Frequency distribution according to whether streetchildren in the care centre who attend formal education have fixed study times

	Fixed study times	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	14	87,5
2.	No	2	12,5
	Total	16	100

87,5% of the shelters indicated that they have fixed study times for children who attend formal education programmes. The majority (87,5%) also indicated that the children are supervised during the study periods.

Table 87

Frequency distribution according to whether streetchildren in the care centre who attend formal education study under supervision

Study supervision		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	14	87,5
2.	No	2	12,5
	Total	16	100

The majority of shelters (65,3%) indicated that they do not have adequate study facilities (table 88).

Table 88

Frequency distribution according to whether streetchildren in the care centre who attend formal education have adequate study facilities

Study facilities		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	7	43,7
2.	No	9	65,3
	Total	16	100

7.4.38 Formal education at shelters

Schurink & Schurink (1993) are of the opinion that the programmes for streetchildren are useful and necessary but they serve only as ambulances at the bottom of the cliff. Educational programmes for streetchildren are attempts to correct the situation as quickly as possible. This may result

in addressing only the symptoms of the educational distress of the streetchild and not the educational distress itself.

Table 89

Frequency distribution according to whether streetchildren in the care centre receive formal education

Formal education		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	14	87,5
2.	No	2	12,5
Total		16	100

7.4.39 Punishment

Table 90

Frequency distribution according to whether a streetchild in the care centre may state his case when he is punished

State his case		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	16	100
2.	No	0	0
Total		16	100

Table 91

Frequency distribution according to whether the manager in the care centre explains to the child why he is being punished

Explain punishment		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	16	100
2.	No	0	0
Total		16	100

All shelters (100%) allow the offender to state his/her case and explain to the offender why he/she is being punished.

Table 92

Frequency distribution according to whether the child is punished immediately after an offence has been committed

Immediate punishment		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	15	93,7
2.	No	1	6,3
	Total	16	100

Table 93

Frequency distribution according to whether the manager in the care centre alone decides on the punishment to be given

Manager's decision		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	2	12,5
2.	No	14	87,5
	Total	16	100

Table 94

Frequency distribution according to whether the offence and the punishment are recorded for future reference

Recorded for reference		Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	12	75,0
2.	No	4	25,0
	Total	16	100

Most shelters (93,7%) punish the offender immediately after an offence has been committed (table 92). Punishment is not decided upon by the manager alone (85,5%) and the offence and punishment (table 94) is recorded for future reference by most of the shelters (87,5%).

7.5 ANALYSIS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE DATA : QUESTIONNAIRE B BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION OF RESPONDENTS

This questionnaire was answered by 51 respondents who are all child care workers at shelters for streetchildren. Responses to questionnaire B will be dealt with in the following manner:

- firstly, the biographical information of the 51 respondents will be discussed;
- secondly, biographical statistics regarding the independent variables as mentioned in 7.2 will be analyzed in 7.5.13;
- thirdly, inferential statistics and descriptive statistics will test statistically the relationship between the specific variables according to a relationship dimension.

7.5.1 Marital status of child care workers

70,6% of the respondents are not married of whom 53% were never married.

Table 95

Frequency distribution according to marital status of child care workers

	Marital status	Frequency	Percent
1.	Married	15	29,4
2.	Divorced	9	17,6
3.	Never married	27	53,0
	Total	51	100

7.5.2 Age group of child care workers

Table 96

Frequency distribution according to the age group of child care workers

	Age group	Frequency	Percent
1.	0 - 20	0	0
2.	21 - 25	9	17,6
3.	26 - 30	20	39,2
4.	31 - 35	9	17,6
5.	36 - 40	4	7,8
6.	41 - 45	7	13,7
7.	46 - 50	0	0
8.	51 - 55	2	3,9
9.	56 and older	0	0
	Total	51	100

The majority of child care workers in this sample (39,2%)

fall in the age group 26 to 30 years.

7.5.3 Home language of child care workers

A major problem was the fact that the questionnaire to child care workers was presented in English and not in the mother tongue of all respondents. The researcher of this study found that many of the child care workers had a poor command of English and the researcher's poor command of some Black languages when explaining may have resulted in some of the questions not being fully understood. According to table 97 the majority of child care workers' (68,8%) mother tongue was not English. Important to note in this regard is that the majority of streetchildren are Black and also have a limited command of English. 45,1 % of the respondents have a Black language as home language.

Table 97

Frequency distribution according to the home language of child care workers

	Home language	Frequency	Percent
1.	Afrikaans	7	13,7
2.	English	21	41,2
3.	Zulu	16	31,4
4.	Xhosa	5	9,8
5.	North Sotho	2	3,9
	Total	51	100

7.5.4 Academic qualifications of child care workers

The data reflected in table 98 confirm the requirements regarding academic qualifications for child care workers as discussed in table 53. The majority of child care workers in this sample (82,4%) have no higher qualification than standard 10. This would imply that the majority of child care workers have no Diploma in Child Care or any other post-matric qualification that may equip them better to address the educational distress of the streetchild in their care.

Table 98

Frequency distribution according to the academic qualifications of child care workers

	Academic Qualif.	Frequency	Percent
1.	Less than Std 8	8	15,7
2.	Std 8 - 10	34	66,6
3.	Std 10 + 1 year	3	5,9
4.	Std 10 + 2 years	3	5,9
5.	Std 10 + 3 years	3	5,9
6.	Std 10 + 4 years	0	0
7.	Std 10 + 5 years	0	0
	Total	51	100

Viewed in the light of the opinions of Sonnekus (1985) concerning the moulding of the psychological life of a

child), the structural analysis of the pedagogical situation (Landman & Roos, 1973) and Stoker's (1967) insights concerning the moulding of an individual view of life in the case of every person, with regard to the streetchild, the child care worker at the shelter needs to be suitably qualified/trained as a child care worker who will also have a sound knowledge of Orthodidactics.

7.5.5 Number of own children of child care workers

twenty five (49%) of the child care workers indicated that they have no children of their own.

Table 99

Frequency distribution according to own children of child care workers

	Own children	Frequency	Percent
1.	None	25	49,0
2.	1 child	13	25,5
3.	2 children	7	13,7
4.	3 children	4	7,8
5.	4 children	2	3,9
6.	5 children	0	0
	Total	51	100

7.5.6 Employment as full-time or volunteer child care worker**Table 100**

Frequency distribution according to employment as full-time or volunteer child care worker

	Employed as	Frequency	Percent
1.	Full-time	32	62,7
2.	Volunteer	19	37,3
	Total	51	100

The majority of child care workers in this sample (62,7%) are employed full-time.

7.5.7 Job description received when appointed**Table 101**

Frequency distribution according to receiving a job description concerning duties when appointed

	Job description	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	42	82,4
2.	No	9	17,6
	Total	51	100

Job descriptions concerning duties to be performed were given to the majority of child care workers (82,4%) when appointed.

7.5.8 A guide or handbook received when appointed**Table 102**

Frequency distribution according to receiving a guide or handbook when appointed

	Guide or handbook	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	6	11,8
2.	No	45	88,2
	Total	51	100

Beukes & Gannon (1993) compiled a handbook which forms part of the Introductory Workshop to the Basic Qualification in Child Care (BQCC). This publication is also prescribed preparation for UNISA's Certificate in Child and Youth Care. As is evident from table 102, this book or other similar publications were not handed to child care workers (88,2%) when assuming duty.

7.5.9 Support and guidance received**Table 103**

Frequency distribution according to whom in the organization gave the most support and guidance regarding duties

	Support/guidance	Frequency	Percent
1.	Head of Shelter	35	68,6
2.	Social worker	8	15,7
3.	Co-care workers	8	15,7
	Total	51	100

Most child care workers (68,6%) indicated that the head of the shelter provided them with the guidance and support regarding child care duties.

7.5.10 Knowledge about the availability of a diploma course in Child Care

Table 104

Frequency distribution according to knowledge about the availability of a diploma course in Child Care

	Diploma course	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	44	86,3
2.	No	7	13,7
	Total	51	100

According to table 104 the majority of child care workers (86,3%) are aware of a Diploma qualification in child care.

7.5.11 Knowledge about the availability of other diploma courses in Child Care

Table 105

Frequency distribution according to knowledge about the availability of other diploma courses in Child Care

	Other diploma course	Frequency	Percent
1.	Yes	5	9,8
2.	No	46	90,2
	Total	51	100

Most of the child care workers in this sample (90,2%) were

not aware of more than one diploma course in child care work. Most were only aware of one course, either BQCC (see 7.5.8) or the Certificate in Child and Youth Care.

7.5.12 In-service courses in Child Care

Table 106

Frequency distribution according to being sent by the organization to in-service courses in Child Care

	In-service	Frequency	Percent
1.	Regularly	23	45,1
2.	Seldom	20	39,2
3.	Never	8	15,7
	Total	51	100

Most shelters in this sample appears to be sending child care workers (45,1%) regularly to in-service courses in Child Care.

Table 107

Frequency distribution according to the organization organizing own in-service courses

	In-service	Frequency	Percent
1.	Regularly	15	29,4
2.	Seldom	13	25,5
3.	Never	23	45,1
	Total	51	100

Twenty three (45,1%) of the child care workers indicated that their organization does not organize its own in-service courses. Meetings are held where problem areas are discussed. According to Mbanjwa (1990) in-service courses are often arranged by welfare agencies and other interest groups such as universities. Lack of finances, facilities and the work load at shelters appear to be the major contributing factors responsible for the lack of in-service courses conducted by organizations at their own shelters.

In this regard Beukes and Gannon (1993) noted that in-service courses within an organization still remain one of the most effective and economical ways to equip staff with the necessary skills and knowledge they may require in fulfilling their task.

7.5.13 Religious denomination of child care worker

The majority of child care workers (91,2%) belong to a church or religious denomination. This is highly significant to the child care worker because the believer knows that he will never be tempted or exploited more than he can stand up to. The believer knows this from the Bible (1 Cor. 10:13), from his personal faith and experiences. With this personal faith, experience and knowledge the child care worker can be a source of comfort or spiritual security to the streetchild.

Table 108

Frequency distribution according to the religious denomination or church of child care worker

	Rel. denomination	Frequency	Percent
1.	None	5	9,8
2.	Anglican	16	41,2
3.	Roman Catholic	8	15,7
4.	Dutch Reformed	6	11,8
5.	Lutheran	4	7,8
6.	Ark Ministry	6	11,8
7.	Zionist	1	2,0
8.	Methodist	3	5,9
9.	Seventh Day Adv.	1	2,0
10.	12 Apostels	1	2,0
	Total	51	100

7.6 INFERENCE STATISTICS

7.6.1 Biographical information according to the independent variables

The three independent variables, namely, gender, previous child care experience and child care experience at present shelter, will each be correlated with the dependent variables outlined according to relationship dimensions.

(1) Frequency distribution according to gender of respondents

The perceptions of child care workers according to gender is determined in this study in order to determine its influence as independent variable.

The purpose of this study required the perceptions of both male and female child care workers. An attempt was therefore made to involve a statistically accountable group from each gender group in order to identify the child care workers' perception of the educational distress of the streetchild.

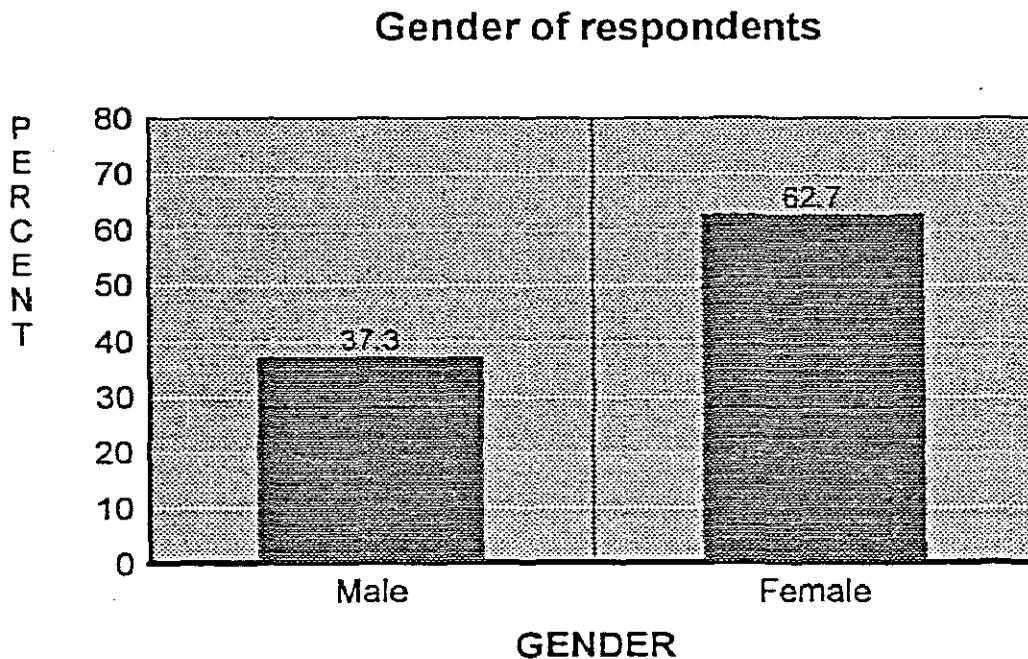
Table 109

Frequency distribution according to gender

	Gender	Frequency	Percent
1.	Male	19	37,3
2.	Female	32	62,7
	Total	51	100

This table indicate that 62,7 % of the respondents are female and 37,3% are males. The frequency distribution according to gender (19 : 32) compares favourably with the national ratio between male and female as it exists in other professions such as teaching i.e. 34 : 64 (Urbani, 1990). Bias according to gender as independent variable is therefore, to a reasonable degree, eliminated.

Graph 1 Gender of respondents



(2) Frequency distribution according to previous experience of respondents regarding child care work

The perceptions of child care workers according to their years of previous experience in child care is determined in this study in order to establish its influence as independent variable.

Table 110 indicates that the majority of child care workers (66,7%) have no previous experience of child care work.

It is also interesting to note that the number of respondents

decreases as the number of years of previous experience increases.

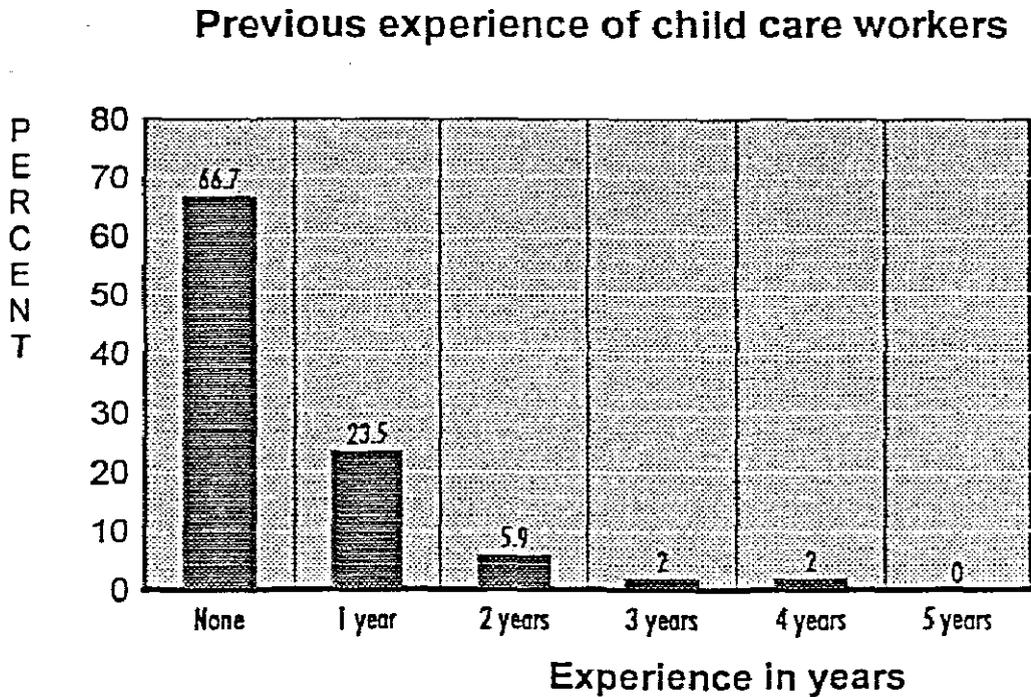
Table 110

Frequency distribution according to the number of years of previous experience in child care work

	Previous experience	Frequency	Percent
1.	None	34	66,7
2.	1 year	12	23,5
3.	2 years	3	5,9
4.	3 years	1	2,0
5.	4 years	1	2,0
6.	5 years	0	0
	Total	51	100

According to Schurink & Schurink (1993 : 19) most programmes in South Africa for streetchildren started about 1982. They also noted that most programmes in South Africa are still struggling with many obstacles such as a lack of trained staff and the large staff turnover due to the considerable pressure on staff regarding their work load. It may be due to all these factors mentioned that the majority of child care workers lack previous experience.

Graph 2 Previous experience of child care workers



(3) Frequency distribution according to number of years experience of respondents' at present shelter

The perceptions of child care workers according to their years of experience in child care where they are presently employed is determined in this study in order to establish its influence as independent variable.

The same trend as found in table 110 is evident in table 111. The majority of child care workers in this sample (70,6%)

have one year or less than one year's of experience as child care worker at their present shelter of employment.

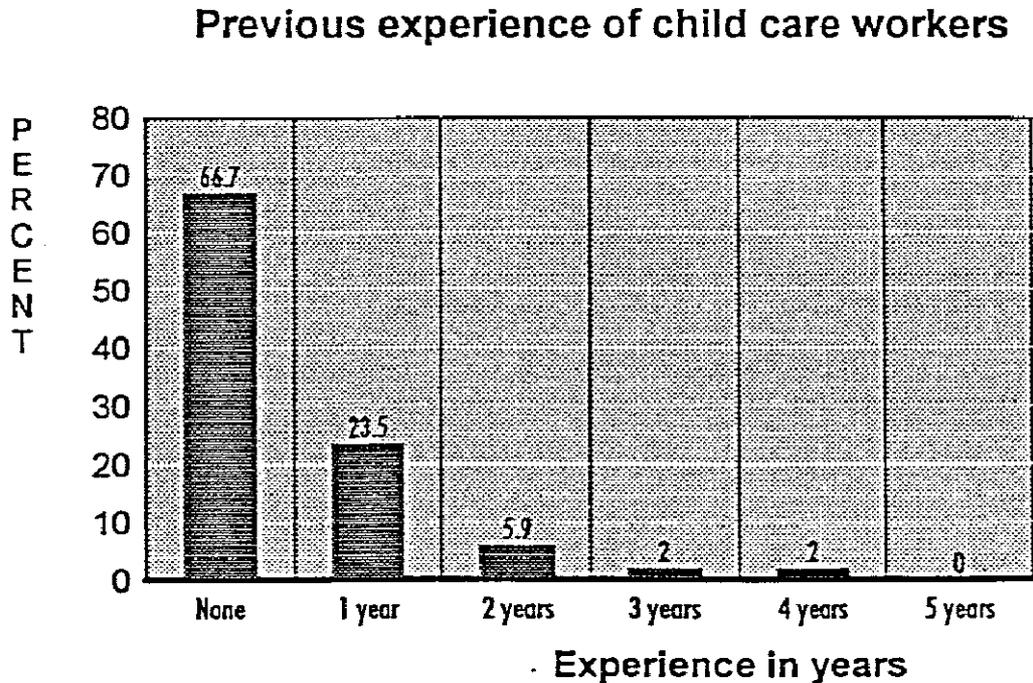
Table 111

Frequency distribution according to years experience as child care worker at present shelter

	Present experience	Frequency	Percent
1.	None	18	35,3
2.	1 year	18	35,3
3.	2 years	5	9,8
4.	3 years	3	5,9
5.	4 years	2	3,9
6.	5 years	5	9,8
	Total	51	100

Due to various factors such as financial constraints, quite a number of shelters have been forced to halt their operations (Janse van Rensburg, 1991). Only a few shelters have survived but they are also experiencing a reasonably large turnover in staff. It can therefore be said that caring for streetchildren in shelters in South Africa has not been fully established as a career. According to Schurink & Schurink (1993) child care programmes in other countries have been establish much more successfully mainly due to the fact that most have government support.

Graph 3 Years of experience of child care workers at present shelter of employment



7.6.2 Responses of child care workers according to relationship dimensions

As previously explained, the relationships of child care workers are grouped according to different dimensions. The relation between the dependent and independent variable is determined by making use of the Chi-squared statistic.

The interpretation of data is facilitated by the use of the Chi-squared statistic. The Chi-squared statistic (χ^2) is a test of significance which compares observed frequencies with expected frequencies (Zeller & Carmines, 1970 : 197). It is a

measure of the discrepancy between observed and expected frequencies (Nesbit & Entwistle, 1970 : 76). Observed frequencies are obtained empirically while expected frequencies are generated on the basis of some hypothesis or theoretical speculation (Zito, 1975 : 191).

In this study, the χ^2 statistic is used to test for significant differences between proportions. Critical values for χ^2 are taken at the 0,05 and 0,001 levels. Symbols used are:

- ✦ $p < 0,001$ (to denote high significance); and
- * $p > 0,05$ (to denote no significance).

The procedure followed was to calculate the Chi-squared and p-values in order to determine the significance between the dependent and independent variable which in turn determine whether the null-hypothesis is rejected or accepted. These values have been grouped in order to investigate the different aspects of relationship dimensions.

(1) The child care worker's relation with himself

Table 112

Frequency distribution according to child care worker's relationship with himself

I view my task as child care worker as:	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
Being too demanding	2 3,92	8 15,69	12 23,53	22 43,14	2 3,92	51 100
Being a challenge	0 0	0 0	13 25,49	20 39,22	18 35,29	51 100
Being meaningful	0 0	0 0	5 9,80	21 41,18	25 49,02	51 100
Very important	0 0	1 1,96	12 23,53	15 29,41	23 45,10	51 100
Being very complex	2 3,92	5 9,80	15 29,41	23 45,10	6 11,76	51 100
My personal responsibility	2 3,92	1 1,96	6 11,76	31 60,78	11 21,57	51 100

As child care worker :	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
I know when my work is performed satisfactorily	0 0	0 0	10 19,61	12 23,53	29 56,86	51 100
I know when my work is not performed satisfactorily	1 1,96	7 13,73	14 27,45	18 35,29	11 21,57	51 100
I can see the result of my efforts	1 1,96	1 1,96	16 31,37	23 45,10	10 19,61	51 100
I am personally involved in my work	0 0	0 0	0 0	21 41,18	30 58,82	51 100
Many people are affected by the degree of efficiency I maintain	0 0	1 1,96	22 43,14	14 27,45	14 27,45	51 100

At the shelter:	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
I am overwhelmed by the complexity of my task	4 7,84	16 31,37	18 35,29	13 25,49	0 0	51 100
I feel the children take advantage of me	8 15,69	13 25,49	25 49,02	1 1,96	4 7,84	51 100
Do you sometimes feel that you do not understand a child at the care centre ?	0 0	13 25,49	27 52,94	9 17,65	2 3,92	51 100
When you threaten a child at the care centre do you carry out your threats ?	7 13,73	10 19,61	5 9,80	26 50,98	3 5,88	51 100

The majority of child care workers in this sample view their task as child care worker as follows:

- being usually too demanding (43,14%);
- being usually a challenge (39,22%);
- being always meaningful (49,02%);
- being always very important (45,10%);
- being usually very complex (45,10%); and
- being usually their own responsibility (60,78%)

The majority of child care workers also indicated that as child care workers they:

- always know when their work is done satisfactorily (56,86%);
- usually know when their work is done unsatisfactorily (35,29%);
- can usually see the results of their efforts (45,10%);

- are always personally involved in their work (58,82%); and
- many people are often affected by the degree of efficiency they maintain (43,14 %).

The majority of child care workers responded that at the shelter:

- they are often overwhelmed by the complexity of their task (35,29%);
- they often feel that the children take advantage of them (49,02%);
- they often feel that they do not understand the children at the care centre (52,94%); and
- they usually carry out their threats when they threaten a child at the care centre (50,98%).

Table 113

Chi-squared and P-values of the relationship dimensions with self

I view my task as child care worker as:	Gender $x^2 = (4)$ p	Previous experience $x^2 = (8)$ p	Experience at present C.C. $x^2 = (8)$ p
Being too demanding	2,582 0,630	6,309 0,177	19,428 * 0,013
Being a challenge	4,509 0,105	13,051 ** 0,001	12,364 * 0,015
Being meaningful	10,880 * 0,004	0,396 0,820	8,189 0,085

I view my task as child care worker as:	Gender $\chi^2 = (4)$ p	Previous experience $\chi^2 = (8)$ p	Experience at present C.C. $\chi^2 = (8)$ p
Very important	8,246 * 0,041	10,489 * 0,015	15,279 * 0,018
Being very complex	11,410 * 0,022	7,470 0,113	11,102 0,196
My personal responsibility	17,028 * 0,002	7,746 0,101	11,084 0,197

As child care worker:	Gender $\chi^2 = (4)$ p	Previous experience $\chi^2 = (8)$ p	Experience at present C.C. $\chi^2 = (8)$ p
I know when my work is performed satisfactorily	1,495 0,473	0,068 0,967	5,009 0,286
I know when my work is not performed satisfactorily	3,194 0,526	3,200 0,525	20,012 * 0,010
I can see the result of my efforts	5,383 0,250	9,385 0,052	14,419 0,071
I am personally involved in my work	0,011 0,917	3,420 0,064	8,537 * 0,014
Many people are affected by the degree of efficiency I maintain	4,055 0,256	5,473 0,140	14,330 * 0,026
I am overwhelmed by the complexity of my task	5,955 0,114	5,091 0,165	7,655 0,264

At the shelter:	Gender x = (4) p	Previous experience x = (8) p	Experience at present C.C. x = (8) p
I feel the children take advantage of me	20,621 ** 0,000	16,553 * 0,002	28,535 ** 0,000
Do you sometimes feel that you do not understand a child at the care centre ?	6,121 0,106	6,542 0,088	10,778 0,095
When you threaten a child at the care centre do you carry out your threats ?	12,513 * 0,014	13,929 * 0,008	8,941 0,347

* = p < 0,05 (to denote significance);

** = p < 0,001 (to denote high degree of significance); and

p > 0,05 (to denote no significance).

(a) The effect of the relationship between gender and the child care worker's relationship with himself

Hypothesis 1 : Child care workers clearly apprehend the importance of their task in the rendering of accountable support to the child in educational distress.

A cross tabulation of the different variables and the gender of respondents (as independent variable) was undertaken with regard to hypothesis 1. The Chi-squared test was applied to determine which of the variables are

statistically significant (table 113).

One of the variables was analyzed in order to determine the relation between the gender of the respondent and his relationship with himself.

Statement: As child care worker I view my task as very important.

Table 114 illustrates the effect of the relation between the gender of the child care worker and how he views the importance of his task.

Table 114

Frequency distribution according to the gender the child care worker and how he views the importance of his task.

Gender	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
Male	0	1	1	7	10	19
%	0	1,96	1,96	13,73	19,61	37,25
Female	0	0	11	8	13	32
%	0	0	21,75	15,69	25,49	62,75
Total	0	1	12	15	23	51
%	0	1,96	23,53	29,41	45,10	100

According to table 114 one (1,95%) of the male respondents indicated that he seldom views his task as very important and one (1,96%) that he often views his task as very important. Seven (13,73%) usually viewed their task as very important and

ten (19,61%) indicated that they always view their task as very important. The majority of the male respondents always viewed their task as very important (19,61%).

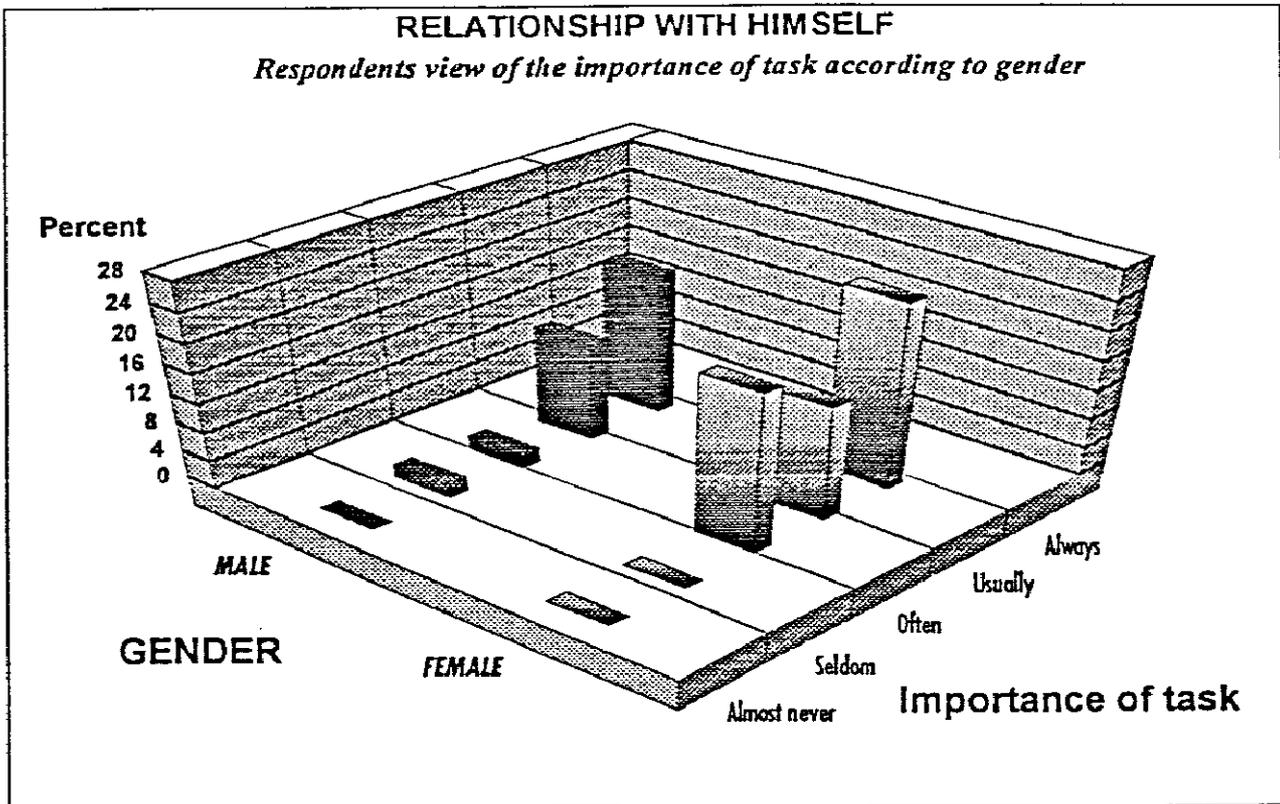
In contrast nineteen (37,44%) of the female respondents did not always view their task as very important. Thirteen of the female respondents (25,49%) indicated that they always view their task as very important while eight (15,69%) viewed their task usually as very important. Eleven (25,49) indicated that they often view their task as very important.

It would appear that the majority of male respondents always view their task as very important because they view their task as the means to support their families. Traditionally the male is viewed by society as being the "breadwinner" of the family (Cemane, 1984). The male is traditionally not viewed by society as caring for children. He may therefore view his task as a career opportunity and always very important.

Child care comes more naturally to females as they usually become mothers themselves and society views the female as being responsible for child care. A "motherly" woman intuitively acts correctly in her intervention with her child. According to the HSRC investigation (1975) regarding

the child in need of care, the sincere band of love which characterizes the mother-child relationship, is of utmost importance in a place where children are being cared for. Female child care workers may perceive the importance of their task as being the children in need of care and not the task itself.

Graph 4 Respondents view of the importance of their task according to gender



The Chi-squared test was applied to determine if the relation between gender and the relationship of the child care worker with himself is statistically significant. The P-value was found to be 0,041. Due to the fact that the P-value was less than 0,05 and therefore significant, the null-hypothesis as formulated as hypothesis 1 (page 394) is therefore rejected.

- (b) The effect of the relationship between previous experience in child care of the child care worker and his relationship with himself

Hypothesis 1 : Child care workers clearly apprehend the importance of their task in the rendering of accountable support to the child in educational distress.

Statement: As child care worker I view my task as very important.

Table 115 illustrates the effect of the relation between the previous experience of the child care worker in child care and how he views the importance of his task.

Table 110 on page 385 indicated that the majority of child care workers (66,7%) have no previous experience of child care work. Interesting to note that the number of

respondents decreases as the number of years of previous experience increases.

Table 115

Frequency distribution according to the number of years of previous experience in child care of the child care worker and how he views the importance of his task.

Previous experience	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
Less than 1 year	0	0	10	13	11	34
%	0	0	19,61	25,49	21,57	66,67
1 year and more	0	1	2	2	12	17
%	0	1,96	3,92	3,92	23,53	33,33
Total	0	1	12	15	23	51
%	0	1,96	23,53	29,41	45,10	100

Graph 5 Respondents view of the importance of their task according to previous experience in child care

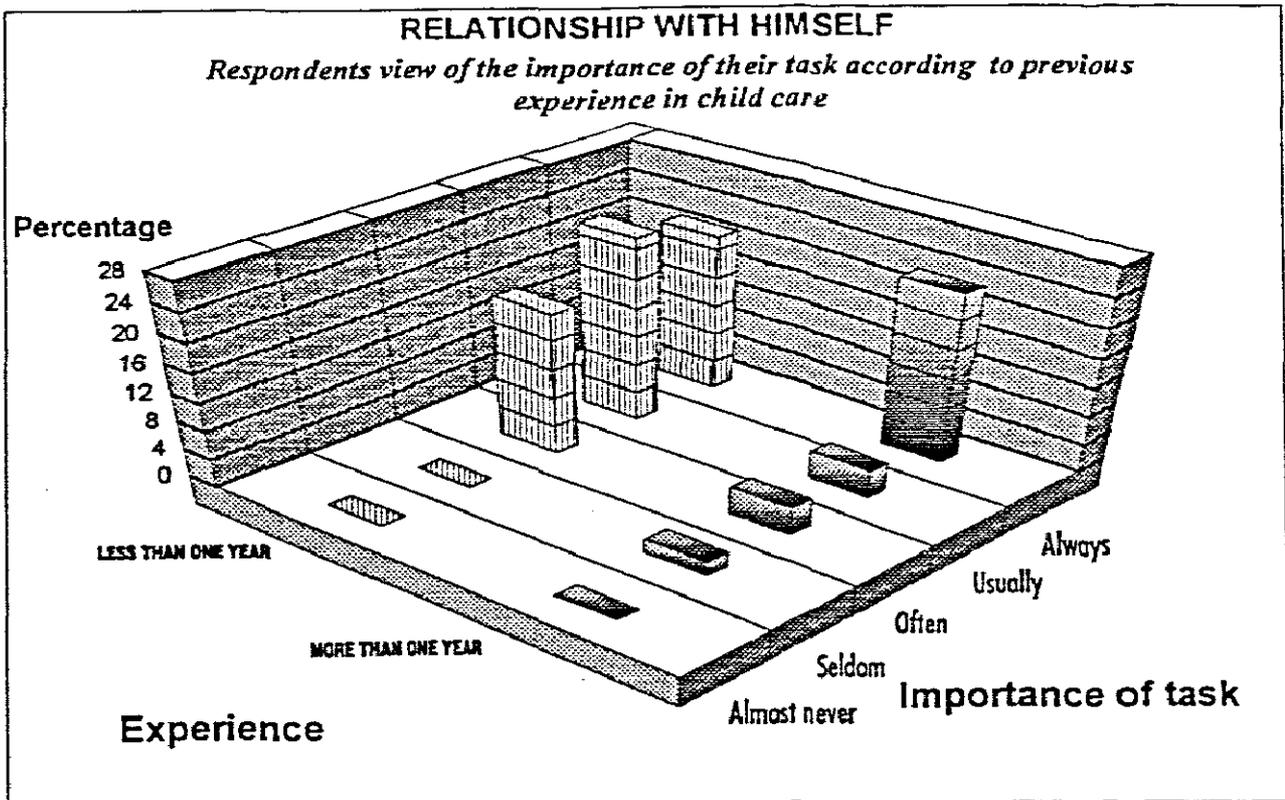


Table 115 (page 399) correlates with table 110 in that the majority of child care workers lack previous experience. It is also evident from table 115 that almost all the child care workers who have previous experience in child care work (23,53 %) always view their task as very important. This may be because the child care workers with previous experience perceive their task as a possible career opportunity because they have been involved in it for some time. Of those respondents with previous experience only one (1,96%) seldom views his task as very important. Two respondents (3,92%) often view their task as very important and two (3,92%) usually view their task as very important.

Child care workers with less than one year's experience indicated mostly (35,49%) that they usually view their task as very important. Ten respondents (19,61%) indicated that they often view their task as very important and eleven (21,35%) that they always view their task as very important.

The Chi-squared test was applied to determine if the relation between previous experience of child care work and the relationship of the child care worker with himself

is statistically significant. The P-value was found to be 0,041. Due to the fact that the P-value was less than 0,05 and therefore significant, the null-hypothesis as formulated as hypothesis 1 (page 398) is therefore rejected.

- (c) The effect of the relationship between number of years experience at present shelter of employment of the child care worker and his relationship with himself

Hypothesis 1 : Child care workers clearly apprehend the importance of their task in the rendering of accountable support to the child in educational distress.

Statement: As child care worker I view my task as very important.

Table 116 illustrates the effect of the relation between the previous experience of the child care worker in child care and how he views the importance of his task.

The majority of child care workers in this sample presently employed at shelters (70,58%) have one year or less than one year's experience. Only fifteen (29,41%) have two years or more years experience at their present shelter of employment. It would thus seem that most child care workers

have rather limited experience.

The indication that child care programmes for streetchildren are subjected to a reasonably large turnover as suggested by Schurink & Schurink (1993) seems to be valid. They suggested that the staff turnover is due to the considerable pressure on staff regarding their work load.

Table 116

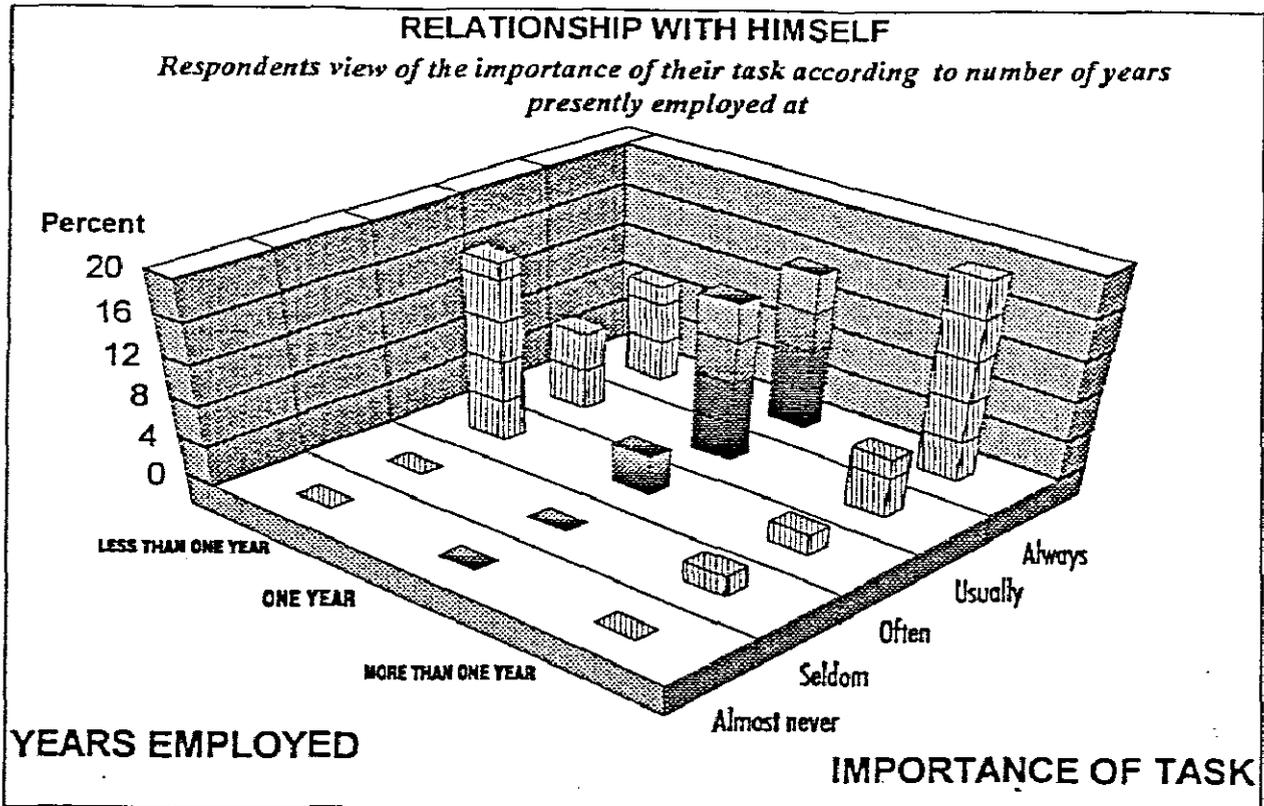
Frequency distribution according to the number of years experience at the present shelter of employment of the child care worker and how he views the importance of his task.

Previous experience	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
Less than 1 year %	0 0	0 0	9 17,65	4 7,84	5 9,80	18 35,29
1 year %	0 0	0 0	2 3,92	8 15,69	8 15,69	18 35,29
2 years and more %	0 0	1 1,96	1 1,96	3 5,88	10 19,61	15 29,41
Total %	0 0	1 1,96	12 23,53	15 29,41	23 45,10	51 100

According to table 116 nine child care workers with less than one year's experience often view their task as important while only five (9,80%) always view their task as important. Four (7,84%) usually view their task as important.

The same trend mentioned in table 115 is also evident in table 116 i.e. the child care workers with more experience tend to always view their task as important. Eight respondents (15,69%) with one year's experience and ten (19,61%) with more than two years' experience always view their task as important.

Graph 6 Respondents' view of the importance of their task according to number of years presently employed at shelters



The Chi-squared test was applied to determine if the relationship between the number of years of present employment of child care work and the relationship of the child care worker with himself is statistically significant. The P-value was found to be 0,018. Due to the fact that the P-value was less than 0,05 and therefore significant, the null-hypothesis as formulated as hypothesis 1 (page 401) is therefore rejected.

(2) The child care worker's relation with others

Table 117

Frequency distribution according to child care worker's relationship with others

The director (head) of the shelter :	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
Exhibits a positive attitude	0 0	0 0	6 11,76	36 70,59	9 17,65	51 100
Ensures that staff know what must be done	0 0	2 3,92	11 21,57	27 52,94	11 21,77	51 100
Assists me in solving problems I encounter in my work	0 0	4 7,84	7 13,73	31 60,78	9 17,65	51 100
Assists me in identifying possible problems I may encounter	0 0	0 0	20 39,22	25 49,02	6 11,76	51 100
Assists me with problems before they get out of hand	0 0	5 9,80	9 17,65	30 58,82	7 13,73	51 100

The director (head) of the shelter :	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
Assists staff to develop abilities	0 0	2 3,92	18 35,29	22 43,14	9 17,65	51 100
Shows concern for me as a person	0 0	0 0	17 33,33	23 45,10	11 21,75	51 100
Is very proficient in his task	0 0	1 1,96	7 13,73	34 66,67	9 17,65	51 100
Is trusted by his staff	0 0	1 1,96	11 21,57	25 49,02	14 27,45	51 100
Commands the respect of both staff and children	0 0	0 0	8 15,69	24 47,06	19 37,25	51 100

I view my task as child care worker as:	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
Mainly the physical care of children	2 3,92	2 3,92	17 33,33	22 43,14	8 15,69	51 100
Emotional support to children	0 0	0 0	7 13,73	22 43,14	22 43,14	51 100
Being a substitute for the child's biological parents	0 0	0 0	12 23,53	26 50,98	13 25,49	51 100

As child care worker :	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
I find it difficult to handle so many children	7 17,73	11 21,57	21 41,18	12 23,53	0 0	51 100
I set a good example that the children can follow	3 5,88	0 0	0 0	29 56,86	19 37,25	51 100

At the shelter:	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
I try to be a friend to each child	0 0	3 5,88	36 70,59	9 17,65	3 5,88	51 100
Do you find that most children are ungrateful ?	0 0	3 5,88	36 70,59	9 17,65	3 5,88	51 100
Do you find that the streetchild feels inferior to other children?	0 0	7 13,73	29 65,86	14 27,45	1 1,96	51 100
Do the children make negative remarks about themselves, for example "I am bad"?	8 15,69	17 33,33	17 33,33	9 17,65	0 0	51 100
Are the children willing to co-operate ?	0 0	7 13,73	13 25,49	30 58,82	1 1,96	51 100
Is there a need for you to encourage children to finish a job started?	2 3,92	0 0	14 27,45	21 41,18	14 27,45	51 100
Do you sometimes change a decision after you have discussed the matter with the children?	16 31,37	18 35,29	12 23,53	3 5,88	2 3,92	51 100
Do you say good night to each child personally ?	4 7,84	13 25,49	14 27,45	10 19,61	10 19,61	51 100
Are you available if a child needs you after lights are out?	0 0	1 1,96	9 17,65	15 29,41	26 50,98	51 100

At the shelter:	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
Do you find the children's behaviour such that you must constantly reprimand them?	0 0	2 3,92	39 76,47	2 3,92	8 15,69	51 100
Is it possible for a child to be completely alone if he so wishes?	9 17,65	16 31,37	12 23,53	10 19,61	4 7,84	51 100
Do you think that the children in the care centre feel that they are "watched" too much?	3 5,88	19 37,25	8 15,69	16 31,37	5 9,80	51 100
Do you sit with a child at the care centre in a private place and talk to him about things in which he is interested?	0 0	9 17,65	17 33,33	17 33,33	8 15,69	51 100
Do you allow a child to go to town unsupervised ?	8 15,69	7 13,73	1 1,96	28 54,90	7 13,73	51 100
May older children go out on Saturday evening, without supervision ?	10 19,61	5 9,80	3 5,88	20 39,22	13 25,49	51 100
Do you initiate discussions about the child's parents ?	0 0	3 5,88	10 19,61	24 47,06	14 27,45	51 100
Do you find that children blame themselves for the fact that they are on the street?	11 21,57	32 62,75	6 11,76	2 3,92	0 0	51 100

At the shelter:	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
Do you find that children blame their parents for the fact that they are on the street?	1 1,96	0 0	16 31,37	21 41,18	13 25,49	51 100
Do you attempt to make contact with parents of streetchildren ?	0 0	3 5,88	1 1,96	20 39,22	27 52,94	51 100
Does your organisation attempt to make contact with parents of streetchildren ?	0 0	3 5,88	4 7,84	15 29,41	29 56,86	51 100
Do you find that children experience problems in forming lasting friendships ?	7 13,73	4 7,84	17 33,33	19 37,25	4 7,84	51 100
Do you find that a child will "test" you to see how you will react ?	0 0	2 3,92	10 19,61	25 49,02	14 27,45	51 100
Does it often happen that a child complains of a headache or stomachache without him being really sick?	1 1,96	8 15,69	26 50,98	4 7,84	12 23,53	51 100
Do you think the child finds it painful to discuss his own parents ?	2 3,92	3 5,88	23 45,10	23 45,10	0 0	51 100
Do the children accuse you of not being understanding?	5 9,80	14 27,45	29 56,86	3 5,88	0 0	51 100

At the shelter:	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
Do you think that children at the care centre must be brought up like other children ?	0 0	0 0	10 19,61	18 35,29	23 45,10	51 100
Do you think the children are better off at the care centre than with their own parents ?	3 5,88	4 7,84	23 45,10	13 25,49	8 15,69	51 100
Do you distinguish between age groups when you render support ?	0 0	7 13,73	7 13,73	19 37,25	18 35,29	51 100
Do you find that the children seek attention abnormally ?	1 1,96	9 17,65	16 31,37	17 33,33	8 15,69	51 100

According to table 117 the majority of child care workers indicated that the **director (head) of the shelter usually:**

- exhibits a positive attitude (70,59%);
- ensures that staff know what must be done (52,94%);
- assists them solving problems they encounter in their work (60,78%);
- assists them in identifying possible problems they may encounter (49,02%);
- assists them with problems before they get out of hand (58,82%);

- assists staff to develop abilities (43,14%);
- shows concern for them as persons (45,10%);
- is very proficient in his task (66,67%);
- is trusted by his staff (49,02%); and
- commands the respect of both staff and children (47,06%),

The majority of child care workers indicated that they **view their task as:-** usually mainly the physical care of streetchildren (43,14%);

- always emotional support to children (43,14%);
- usually being a substitute for the child's biological parents (50,98%);

The majority of child care workers indicated that as **child care workers at the shelter:**

- they often find it difficult to handle so many children (41,18%);
- they usually set an good example that the children can follow (56,86%);
- they often try to be a friend to each child (70,59%);
- they often find that most of the children at the care centre are ungrateful (70,59%);
- they often find that the streetchild at the care centre feels inferior to other children (65,86%);

- the children at the care centre are usually willing to co-operate (58,82%);
- there is usually a need for them to encourage children to finish a job started (41,18%);
- they do seldom change a decision after they have discussed the matter with the children (35,29%);
- they often say good night to each child personally (27,45%);
- they are usually available if a child needs them after lights are out (50,98%);
- they often find the children's behaviour such that they must constantly reprimand them (76,47%);
- it is seldom possible for a child to be completely alone if he so wishes (31,37%);
- they seldom do think that the children in the care centre feel that they are "watched" too much (37,25%);
- they usually do allow a child to go to town unsupervised (54,90%);

The majority of child care workers indicated that
at the shelter:

- usually, the older children at the care centre may go out on a Saturday evening without supervision ((39,22%);
- they usually initiate discussions about the

- streetchild's parents (47,06%);
- they seldom find that children at the care centre blame themselves for the fact that they are on the street (62,75%);
 - they do usually find that children at the care centre blame their parents for the fact that they are on the street (41,18%);
 - they do always attempt to make contact with parents of streetchildren (52,94%);
 - the organization always attempt to make contact with parents of streetchildren (56,86%);
 - they usually find that the children at the care centre experience problems in forming lasting friendships (37,25%);
 - they usually find that a child at the care centre will "test" them to see how they will react (49,02%);
 - it often does happen that a child at the care centre complains of a headache or stomachache without him being really sick (50,98%);
 - the children at the care centre do accuse them often of not being understanding (65,86%);
 - they always think that children at the care centre must be brought up like other children (45,10%);
 - they often think the children are better off at

- the care centre than with their own parents (45,10%);
- they usually distinguish between age groups when they render support to streetchildren (34,25%);
 - they usually do find that children at the care centre seek attention abnormally (33,33%).

33,33% of the child care workers at shelters indicated that the children seldom make negative remarks about themselves, for example "I am bad" (33,33%) while the same percentage (33,33%) found this to be happening often.

33,33% of the child care workers at shelters indicated that they usually sit with a child at the care centre in a private place and talk to him about things in which he is interested, while 33,33% indicated that they often do it.

45,10% of the child care workers at shelters indicated that they think that usually the child finds it painful to discuss his own parents while the same percentage indicated that the child often finds it painful.

Table 118

Chi-squared and P-values of the relationship dimensions with others

The director (head) of the shelter :	Gender $x^2 = (4)$ p	Previous experience $x^2 = (8)$ p	Experience at present C.C. $x^2 = (8)$ p
Exhibits a positive attitude	2,948 0,229	3,753 0,153	11,536 * 0,021

The director (head) of the shelter :	Gender $\chi^2 = (4)$ p	Previous experience $\chi^2 = (8)$ p	Experience at present C.C. $\chi^2 = (8)$ p
Ensures that staff know what must be done	3,862 0,277	9,921 * 0,019	8,803 0,185
Assists me in solving problems I encounter in my work	9,229 * 0,026	4,241 0,237	8,532 0,202
Assists me in identifying possible problems I may encounter	10,561 * 0,005	13,720 ** 0,001	23,347 ** 0,000
Assists me with problems before they get out of hand	8,109 * 0,044	17,199 ** 0,001	9,930 * 0,002
Assists staff to develop abilities	0,439 0,932	6,062 0,109	6,748 0,345
Shows concern for me as a person	23,264 ** 0,000	2,123 0,346	21,473 ** 0,000
Is very proficient in his task	12,143 * 0,007	2,989 0,393	12,800 * 0,046
Is trusted by his staff	2,770 0,428	2,441 0,486	7,020 0,319
Commands the respect of both staff and children	5,900 0,052	1,834 0,400	10,970 0,027

I view my task as child care worker as:	Gender	Previous experience	Experience at present C.C.
Mainly the physical care of children	10,100 * 0,039	13,997 * 0,007	18,606 * 0,017

I view my task as child care worker as:	Gender	Previous experience	Experience at present C.C.
Emotional support to children	8,011 * 0,018	18,558 ** 0,000	12,668 * 0,013
Being a substitute for the child's biological parents	6,632 * 0,036	15,058 ** 0,001	22,893 ** 0,000

As child care worker:	Gender $x^2 = (4)$ p	Previous experience $x^2 = (8)$ p	Experience at present C.C. $x^2 = (8)$ p
I find it difficult to handle so many children	3,126 0,373	12,674 * 0,005	16,638 * 0,011
I set an good example that the children can follow	6,954 * 0,031	9,491 * 0,009	5,795 0,125
I try to be a friend to each child	1,441 0,696	12,320 * 0,006	21,627 ** 0,001
Do you find that most of the children are ungrateful?	8,168 * 0,043	13,273 * 0,004	14,888 * 0,021
Do you find that the streetchild feels inferior to other children?	5,930 0,115	4,743 0,192	7,229 0,300
Do the children make negative remarks about themselves, for example " I am bad"?	6,271 0,099	0,211 0,976	5,267 0,510
Are the children willing to co-operate ?	8,352 * 0,039	1,071 0,784	4,663 0,588

As child care worker:	Gender x = (4) p	Previous experience x = (8) p	Experience at present C.C. x = (8) p
Is there a need for you to encourage children to finish a job started?	4,712 0,194	4,560 0,207	3,287 0,772
Do you sometimes change a decision after you have discussed the matter with the children?	6,110 0,191	9,266 0,055	16,915 * 0,031
Do you say good night to each child personally?	8,059 0,089	1,385 0,847	12,392 0,135

At the shelter:	Gender x = (4) p	Previous experience x = (8) p	Experience at present C.C. x = (8) p
Are you available if a child needs you after lights are out?	11,116 * 0,011	5,385 0,147	12,687 * 0,048
Do you find the children's behaviour such that you must constantly reprimand them?	2,567 0,463	2,917 0,405	9,042 0,171
Is it possible for a child to be completely alone if he so wishes?	7,288 0,121	4,615 0,329	18,386 * 0,019
Do you think that the children in the care centre feel that they are "watched" too much?	7,067 0,132	17,247 * 0,002	19,851 * 0,011

At the shelter:	Gender $\chi^2 = (4)$ p	Previous experience $\chi^2 = (8)$ p	Experience at present C.C. $\chi^2 = (8)$ p
Do you sit with a child at the care centre in a private place and talk to him about things in which he is interested?	3,929 0,269	3,498 0,321	10,615 0,101
Do you allow a child to go to town unsupervised ?	9,641 * 0,047	11,093 * 0,026	13,906 0,084
May the older children go out on a Saturday evening, without supervision ?	5,917 0,205	9,071 0,059	24,652 * 0,002
Do you initiate discussions about the child's parents ?	7,481 0,058	3,354 0,340	10,503 0,105

At the shelter:	Gender $\chi^2 = (4)$ p	Previous experience $\chi^2 = (8)$ p	Experience at present C.C. $\chi^2 = (8)$ p
Do you find that children blame themselves for the fact that they are on the street?	5,183 0,159	22,742 ** 0,000	11,639 0,071
Do you find that children blame their parents for the fact that they are on the street?	8,407 * 0,038	10,502 * 0,015	24,332 ** 0,000
Do you attempt to make contact with parents of streetchildren ?	4,954 0,175	5,335 0,149	26,617 ** 0,000

At the shelter:	Gender $\chi^2 = (4)$ p	Previous experience $\chi^2 = (8)$ p	Experience at present C.C. $\chi^2 = (8)$ p
Does your organization attempt to make contact with parents of streetchildren ?	3,628 0,305	7,707 0,052	29,687 ** 0,000
Do you find that the children experience problems in forming lasting friendships ?	18,351 ** 0,001	31,454 ** 0,000	22,772 ** 0,000
Do you find that a child will "test" you to see how you will react ?	3,023 0,388	7,958 * 0,047	15,037 * 0,020
Does it often happen that a child complains of a headache or stomachache without him being really sick?	5,313 0,257	7,005 0,136	18,067 * 0,021
Do you think the child finds it painful to discuss his own parents ?	7,591 0,055	6,937 0,074	12,350 0,055
Do the children accuse you of not being understanding ?	1,767 0,619	12,493 * 0,006	8,163 0,226
Do you think that children at the care centre must be brought up like other children ?	2,355 0,308	4,006 0,135	20,048 ** 0,000
Do you think the children are better off at the care centre than with their own parents ?	10,097 * 0,039	11,264 * 0,024	13,657 0,091

At the shelter:	Gender $\chi^2 = (4)$ p	Previous experience $\chi^2 = (8)$ p	Experience at present C.C. $\chi^2 = (8)$ p
Do you distinguish between age groups when you render support ?	9,360 * 0,025	10,854 * 0,013	15,421 * 0,017
Do you find that the children seek attention abnormally ?	10,217 * 0,037	10,792 * 0,029	27,528 ** 0,001

* = p < 0,05 (to denote significance);

** = p < 0,001 (to denote high degree of significance); and

p > 0,05 (to denote no significance).

(a) The effect of the relationship between gender and the child care worker's relationship with others

Hypothesis 2 : Child care workers clearly apprehend the importance of being substitute parents in the rendering of accountable support to the child in educational distress.

A cross tabulation of the different variables and the gender of respondents (as independent variable) was undertaken with regard to hypothesis 2. The Chi-squared test was applied to determine which of the variables are statistically significant (table 118).

One of the variables was analyzed in order to determine the relation between the gender of the respondent and his relationship with others.

Statement: As child care worker I view my task as being a substitute parent for the child's biological parents.

Table 119 illustrates the effect of the relation between the gender of the child care worker and how he views his task as substitute parent for the child's biological parents.

Table 119

Frequency distribution according to the gender of the child care worker and how he views his task as substitute parent for the child's biological parents

Gender	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
Male	0	0	1	12	6	19
%	0	0	1,96	23,53	11,76	37,25
Female	0	0	11	14	7	32
%	0	0	21,57	27,45	13,73	62,75
Total	0	0	12	26	13	51
%	0	0	23,53	50,98	25,49	100

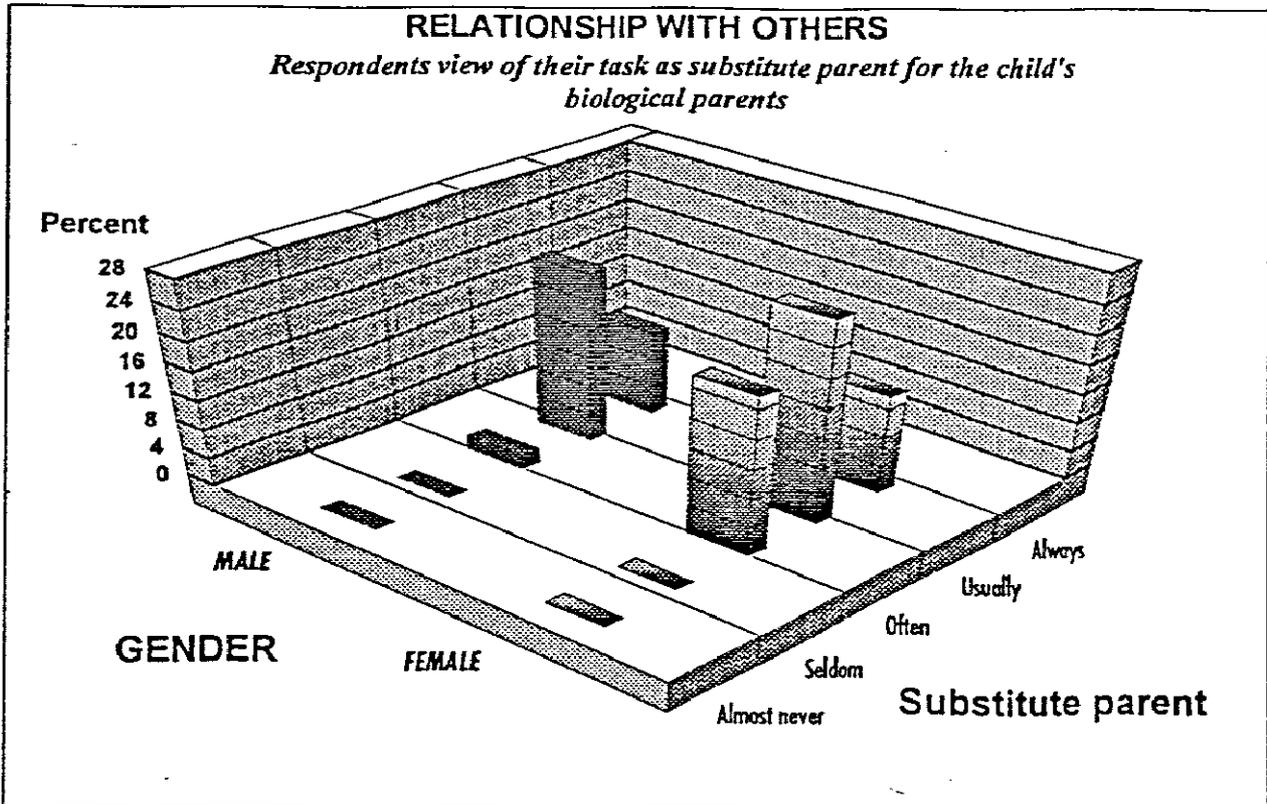
The majority (twelve) of male respondents (23,53 %)

and the majority (fourteen) of female respondents (27,45 %) indicated that they usually view their task as being a substitute parent for the streetchild's biological parents. However, eleven female respondents (21,57 %) in contrast to only one male respondent (1,96 %) often view their task as being a substitute parent for the streetchild's biological parents. Six males (11,76%) and seven female (13,73) respondents always view their task as being a substitute parent for the streetchild's biological parents.

According to Vrey (1984) the quality of the relationship between parents and their child is determined by the love and guidance they provide. When a child has an educational problem this relationship between parent and child will be a determining factor whether the need of the child is accountably and adequately addressed. The child's relations with his parents, with it's polarizing effect, forms a vital anchorage point for his relations to others, objects and ideas, himself and religion.

Vrey (1984) mentions that a mother intuitively understands her child while a father often lacks this intuitive knowledge.

Graph 7 Respondents view of their task as substitute parent for the child's biological parents according to the gender of the child care worker



Black female child care workers may experience problems regarding authority. Cemane (1990) noted that Black society still experiences problems in accepting a female in an authority position where males (older boys) are concerned. This position traditionally belongs to the male. The black female child care worker, who is very aware of the traditional views held by Black society, may therefore experience more

rejection from the older boys in the care centre. This may have a negative influence on how she perceives her task as substitute parent.

The Chi-squared test was applied to determine if the relation between gender of child care worker and the relationship of the child care worker with others is statistically significant. The P-value was found to be 0,036. Due to the fact that the P-value was less than 0.05 and therefore significant, the null-hypothesis as formulated as hypothesis 2 (page 419) is therefore rejected.

- (b) The effect of the relationship between previous experience in child care of the child care worker and his relationship with others

Hypothesis 2 : Child care workers clearly apprehend the importance of being substitute parents in the rendering of accountable support to the child in educational distress.

Statement: As child care worker I view my task as being a substitute parent for the child's biological parents.

Table 120 illustrates the effect of the relation between

the previous experience of the child care worker in child care and how he views his task as substitute parent to the child's biological parents.

Table 120

Frequency distribution according to the number of years of previous experience in child care of the child care worker and how he views his task as being a substitute parent for the child's biological parents

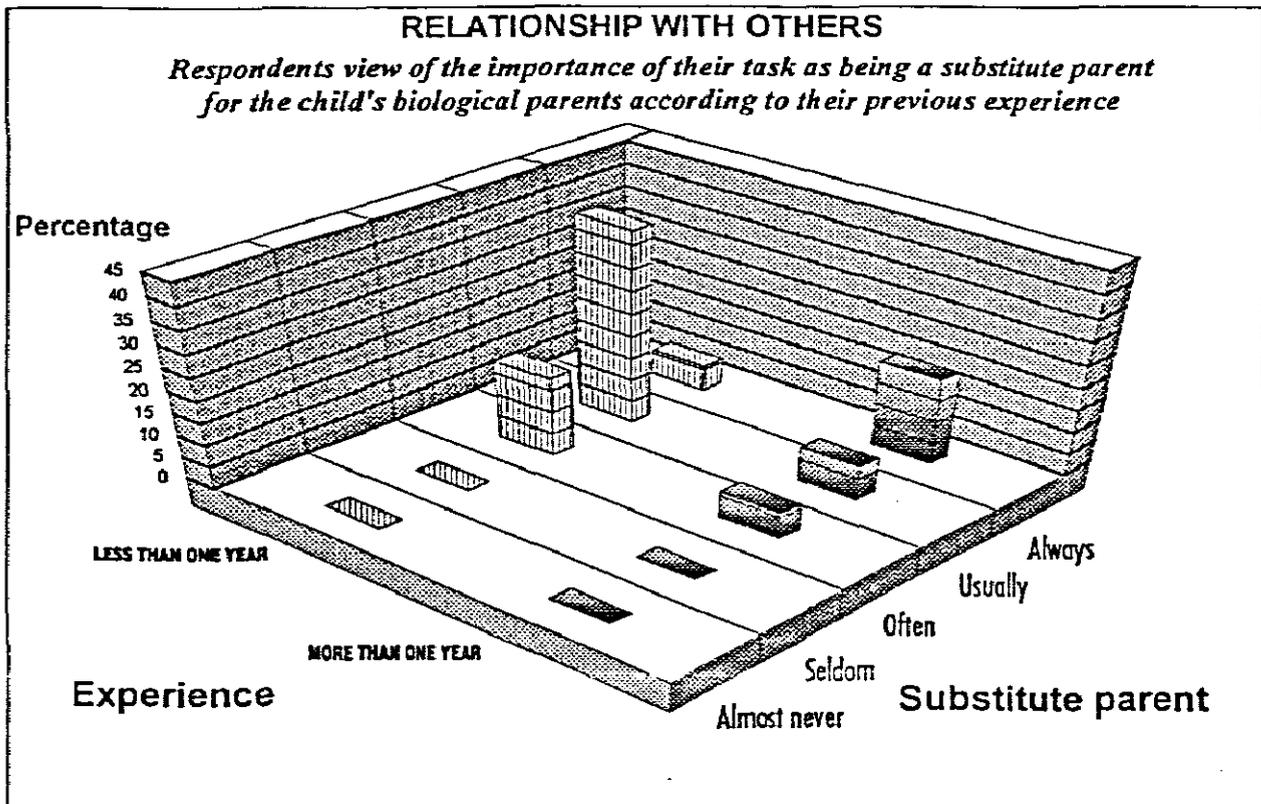
Previous experience	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
Less than 1 year %	0 0	0 0	9 17,65	22 43,14	3 5,88	34 66,67
1 year and more %	0 0	0 0	3 5,88	4 7,84	10 19,61	17 33,33
Total %	0 0	0 0	12 23,53	26 50,98	13 25,49	51 100

Table 120 indicates that the majority (twenty-two) of child care workers who have less than one year's previous experience of child care work usually view their task as being a substitute parent for the streetchild's biological parents. The majority (ten) of the respondents with one year or more experience indicated that they always view their task as being a substitute parent for the streetchild's biological parents.

A lack of experience may be the reason why the majority of child care workers with less than one year's previous

experience of child care work do not always perceive their task as being a substitute parent for the streetchild's biological parents.

Graph 8 Respondents' view of their task as being a substitute parent for the child's biological parents according to their previous experience in child care



The child care workers with more experience may have (through in-service and professional guidance) a better understanding of their task as substitute

parent for the streetchild's biological parents.

The Chi-squared test was applied to determine if the relation between previous experience of child care work and the relationship of the child care worker with others is statistically significant. The P-value was found to be 0,001. Due to the fact that the P-value was equal to 0,001 and therefore highly significant, the null-hypothesis as formulated as hypothesis 2 (page 423) is therefore rejected.

- (c) The effect of the relationship between number of years experience at present shelter of employment of the child care worker and his relationship with others

Hypothesis 2 : Child care workers clearly apprehend the importance of being substitute parents in the rendering of accountable support to the child in educational distress.

Statement: As child care worker I view my task as being a substitute parent for the child's biological parents.

Table 121 illustrates the effect of the relation between the number of years experience of the child care worker at present shelter employed and how he views his task as substitute

parent for the child's biological parents. The relation between experience and perceiving a task, as referred to under table 120 is very evident in table 121.

Table 121

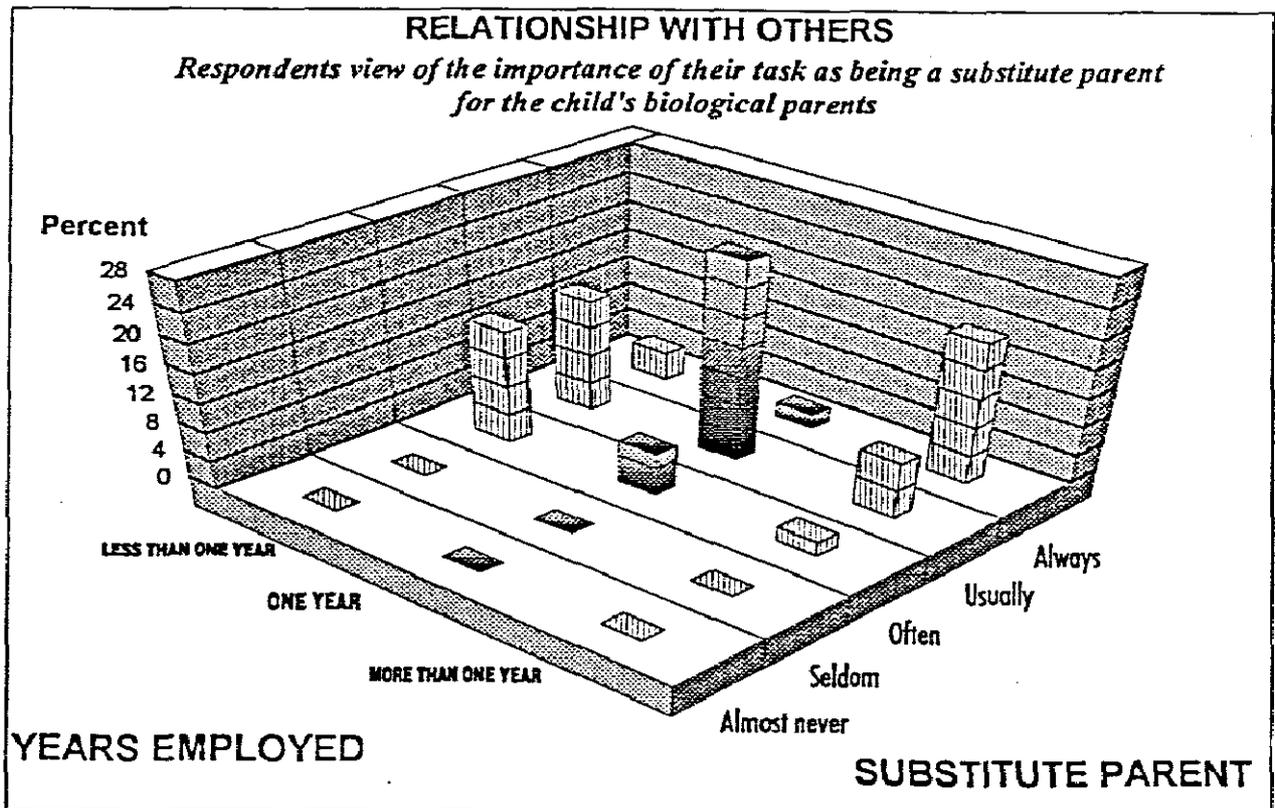
Frequency distribution according to the number of years experience at the present shelter of employment of the child care worker and how he views his task as being a substitute parent for the child's biological parents

Previous experience	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
Less than 1 year %	0 0	0 0	8 15,69	8 15,69	2 3,92	18 35,29
1 year %	0 0	0 0	3 5,88	14 27,45	1 1,96	18 35,29
2 years and more %	0 0	0 0	1 1,96	4 7,84	10 19,61	15 29,41
Total %	0 0	0 0	12 23,53	26 50,98	13 25,10	51 100

Child care workers with two years and more experience at the present shelter of employment appear to perceive their task as being a substitute parent for the streetchild's biological parents more clearly. The majority (ten) indicated that they always perceive substitute parenthood as their task at the shelter. Only one (1,96%) of this group of fifteen respondents indicated that he perceived this task often.

In contrast to this the majority of child care workers (sixteen) with less than one year's experience at the present shelter of employment do not view substitute parenthood to the streetchild as being always their task.

Graph 9 Respondents' view of their task as being a substitute parent for the child's biological parents according to to number of years presently employed at shelters



It is therefore clearly evident that the child care workers with little experience at the present shelter of employment view substitute parenthood as task quite differently from the child care workers with more experience.

The Chi-squared test was applied to determine if the relation between the number of years of present employment of child care worker at the shelter and the relationship of the child care worker with others is statistically significant. The P-value was found to be 0,000. Due to the fact that the P-value was less than 0,001 and therefore highly significant, the null-hypothesis as formulated as hypothesis 2 (page 426) is therefore rejected.

(3) The child care worker's relation with objects and ideas

Table 122

Frequency distribution according to the child care worker's relationship with objects and ideas

I view my task as child care worker as:	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
The creation of a family milieu	0 0	0 0	6 11,76	24 47,06	21 41,18	51 100
Maintaining authority	2 3,92	5 9,80	3 5,88	26 50,98	15 29,41	51 100
Mainly the implementation of rules	3 5,88	7 13,73	18 35,29	14 27,45	9 17,65	51 100

As child care worker :	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
I find that my task contains too many diverse duties	2 3,92	9 17,65	16 31,37	22 43,14	2 3,92	51 100

As child care worker :	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
It took me a long time to obtain the skills required for my task	2 3,92	9 17,65	19 37,25	21 41,18	0 0	51 100

At the shelter:	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
Do you punish a child in front of other children so that he can serve as an example ?	11 21,57	26 50,98	8 15,69	3 5,88	3 5,88	51 100
Do the children disregard values you taught them ?	6 11,76	13 25,49	29 56,86	2 3,92	1 1,96	51 100
Do you take your meals with the children at the care centre ?	3 5,88	1 1,96	13 25,49	22 43,14	12 23,53	51 100
Do you find that the children uncertain of the future?	0 0	4 7,84	7 13,73	30 58,82	10 19,61	51 100
Do the children at the care centre get pocket money?	7 13,73	5 9,80	3 5,88	4 7,84	32 62,75	51 100
May they spend pocket money as they wish ?	0 0	0 0	0 0	5 9,80	46 90,20	51 100
Do you find that there are problems at the care centre which you cannot handle ?	9 17,65	16 31,37	13 25,49	13 25,49	0 0	51 100

At the shelter:	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
Would you welcome guidance on a permanent basis in the handling of the children at the care centre ?	1 1,96	3 5,88	3 5,88	25 49,02	19 37,25	51 100
Do you find that children hide their real feelings ?	0 0	8 15,69	15 29,41	22 43,14	6 11,76	51 100
Do you find that the children are addicted to intoxicating substances ?	3 5,88	3 5,88	30 58,82	5 9,80	10 19,61	51 100

The majority of child care workers in this sample indicated that they view their task as child care workers as :

- usually the creation of a family milieu (47,06%);
- usually maintaining authority (50,98%);
- often, mainly the implementation of rules (35,29%)

The majority of child care workers in this sample indicated that as child care workers they :

- usually find that their task contains too many diverse duties (43,14%);
- it usually took them a long time to obtain the skills required for their task (41,18%);

The majority of child care workers in this sample indicated that at the shelters :

- they seldom punish a child in front of other children so that he can serve as an example (50,98%);
- the children often disregard values they have taught them (56,86%);
- they usually take their meals with the children at the care centre (43,14%)
- they usually do find that the children at the care centre are uncertain of the future (58,82%);
- the children at the care centre always get pocket money (62,75%);
- the children may always spend pocket money as they wish (90,20%);
- they seldom find that there are problems at the care centre which they cannot handle (31,37%);
- they would usually welcome guidance on a permanent basis in the handling of the children at the care centre (49,02%);
- they usually do find that children at the care centre hide their real feelings (43,14 %);
- they do find that children at the care centre are addicted to intoxicating substances (58,82%).

Table 123

Chi-squared and P-values of the relationship dimensions with objects and ideas

I view my task as child care worker as:	Gender $\chi^2 = (4)$ p	Previous experience $\chi^2 = (8)$ p	Experience at present C.C. $\chi^2 = (8)$ p
The creation of a family milieu	2,876 0,237	4,813 0,090	5,780 0,216
Maintaining authority	3,977 0,409	8,728 0,068	9,967 0,267
Mainly the implementation of rules	5,507 0,239	10,027 * 0,040	7,971 * 0,021

As child care worker:	Gender	Previous experience	Experience at present C.C.
I find that my task contains too many diverse duties	8,113 0,088	11,335 * 0,023	18,488 * 0,018
It took me a long time to obtain the skills required for my task	13,660 0,003	13,959 0,003	6,150 0,407

At the shelter:	Gender	Previous experience	Experience at present C.C.
Do you punish a child in front of other children so that he can serve as an example ?	8,803 0,066	11,126 * 0,025	23,305 * 0,003
Do the children disregard values you taught them ?	6,124 0,190	7,229 0,124	10,086 0,259

At the shelter:	Gender	Previous experience	Experience at present C.C.
Do you take your meals with the children ?	5,288 0,259	9,940 * 0,041	17,969 * 0,021
Do you find that the children are uncertain of the future?	13,626 * 0,003	7,109 0,069	8,664 0,193
Do the children at the care centre get pocket money?	19,295 * 0,001	10,515 * 0,033	19,455 * 0,013
May they spend pocket money as they wish ?	4,979 * 0,026	0,480 0,488	3,939 0,140
Do you find that there are problems at the care centre which you cannot handle ?	1,378 0,711	8,197 * 0,030	31,353 ** 0,000
Would you welcome guidance on a permanent basis in the handling of the children at the care centre ?	4,873 0,301	12,679 * 0,013	24,544 * 0,002
Do you find that children hide their real feelings ?	3,119 0,347	7,744 0,052	12,620 * 0,049
Do you find that the children are addicted to intoxicating substances ?	4,747 0,314	9,572 * 0,048	28,912 ** 0,000

* = $p < 0,05$ (to denote significance);

** = $p < 0,001$ (to denote high degree of significance); and

$p > 0,05$ (to denote no significance).

- (a) The effect of the relationship between gender and the child care worker's relationship with objects and ideas

Hypothesis 3: Child care workers clearly apprehend the importance of creating a family milieu in the rendering of accountable support to the child in educational distress.

A cross tabulation of the different variables and the gender of respondents (as independent variable) was undertaken with regard to hypothesis 3. The Chi-squared test was applied to determine which of the variables are statistically significant (table 123).

One of the variables was analyzed in order to determine the relation between the gender of the respondent and his relationship with objects and ideas.

Statement: Do the children at the care centre get pocket money ?

Table 124 illustrates the effect of the relation between the gender of the child care worker and whether children at the care centre receive pocket money.

Table 124

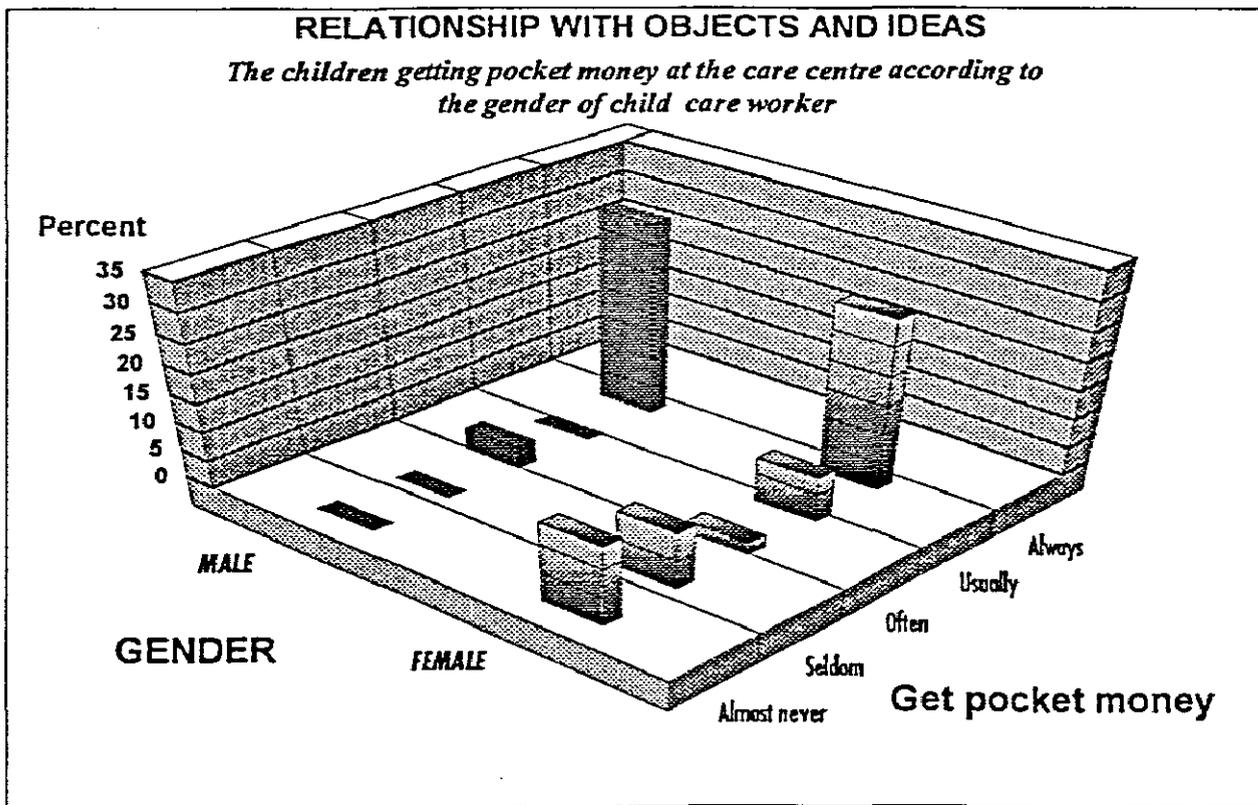
Frequency distribution according to the gender of the child care worker and whether children at the care centre receive pocket money

Gender	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
Male	0	0	2	0	17	19
%	0	0	3,92	0	33,33	37,25
Female	7	5	1	4	15	32
%	13,73	9,80	1,96	7,84	29,41	62,75
Total	7	5	3	4	32	51
%	13,73	9,80	5,88	7,84	62,75	100

As discussed in chapter 1 and chapter 5, Pretorius (1979 : 56-58) sees the secure environment of the family milieu as providing the child with the vital aspects which are essential in the child's efforts of becoming. The concept of the family milieu should be what shelters should aim at creating. Essential to the the family milieu is that the family milieu is the primary socialising agent where the child learns socially accepted behaviour. The child is guided to make his own choices in order to be able to accept responsibility for the choices he makes. One way of teaching the child this responsibility is via pocket money. At the same time the family milieu (shelter) should provide the child with a safe place from which he can explore his life-world and this

implies that the child is allowed to make wrong choices as well (Vrey, 1984).

Graph 10 The children at the care centre getting pocket money according to the gender of child care workers



The majority of male respondents (33,33%) as well as the majority of female respondents (29,41%) indicated that the children at the care centre always receive pocket money. It is , however, interesting to note that a fair percentage of

female respondents (13,73%) indicated that pocket money is almost never given to children in the care centre. No male respondents indicated the same trend. It would appear that quite a few female respondents (13,73%) perceive pocket money as not a vital component of child care work. A possible reason for this is that the "motherly instinct" of the female child care worker warns her that this money may be spent on harmful items such as glue and she wants to protect the child against such actions. Table 122 on page 429 indicates that the abuse of intoxicants within the care centre does often take place.

The Chi-squared test was applied to determine if the relation between the gender of child care work workers and the relationship of the child care worker with objects and ideas is statistically significant. The P-value was found to be 0,001. Due to the fact that the P-value was equal to 0,001 and therefore highly significant, the null-hypothesis as formulated as hypothesis 3 (page 435) is therefore rejected.

- (b) The effect of the relationship between previous experience in child care of the child care worker and his relationship with objects and ideas

Hypothesis 3 : Child care workers clearly apprehend the importance of creating a family milieu in the

rendering of accountable support to the child in educational distress.

Statement: Do the children at the care centre get pocket money ?

Table 125 illustrates the effect of the relation between the previous experience of the child care worker in child care and whether children at the care centre receive pocket money.

Table 125

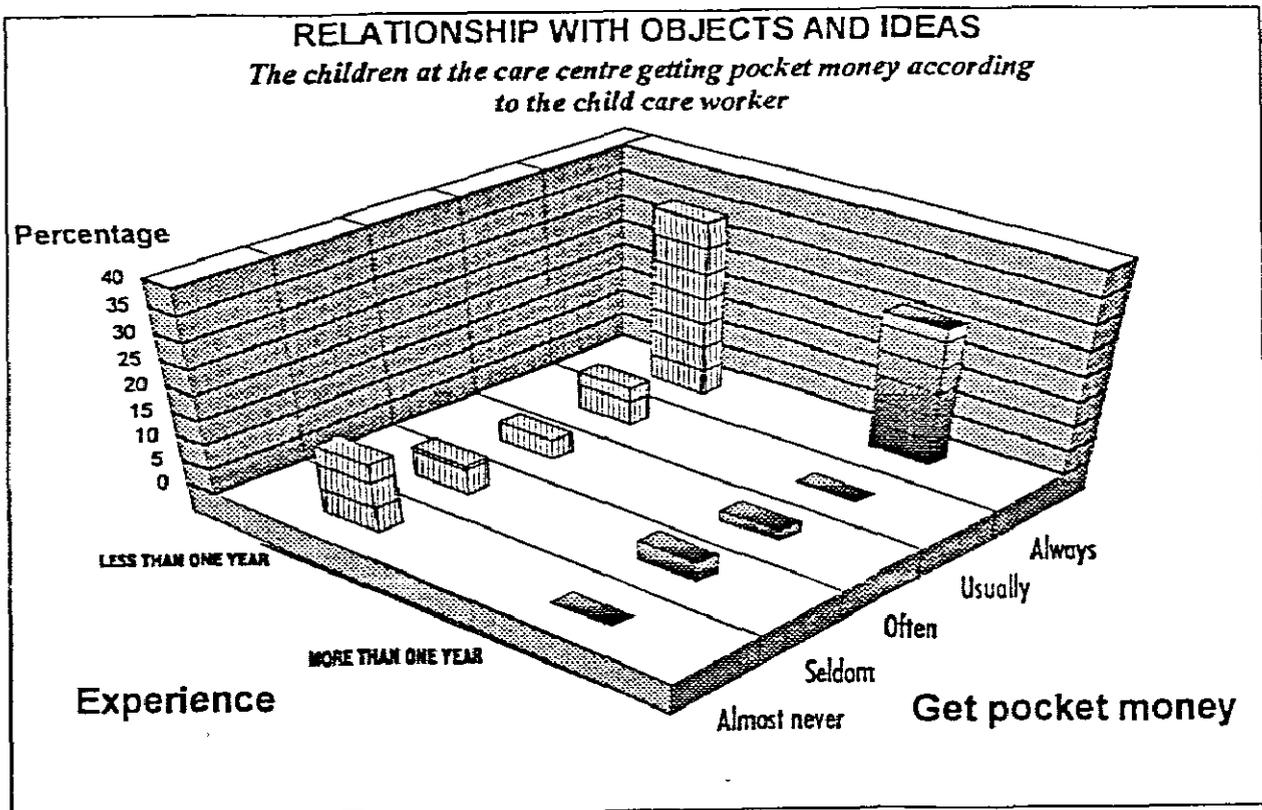
Frequency distribution according to the number of years of previous experience in child care of the child care worker and whether children at the care centre receive pocket money

Previous experience	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
Less than 1 year %	7 13,73	3 5,88	2 3,92	4 7,84	18 35,29	34 66,67
1 year and more %	0 0	2 3,92	1 1,96	0 0	14 27,45	17 33,33
Total %	7 13,73	5 9,80	3 5,88	4 7,84	32 27,45	51 100

Seven (13,73%) of the child care workers with less than one year's experience responded by indicating

that children at the care centre almost never receive pocket money. Three (5,88%) from the same experience group indicated that pocket money is seldom given. Seventeen (33,33%) indicated that pocket money is always given.

Graph 11 The children at the care centre getting pocket money according to the child care workers and their previous experience in child care



The majority (27,45%) of the more experienced child care workers indicated that the children at the care centre always receive pocket money. In contrast to those with less experience, none of the more experienced care workers indicated that pocket money is almost never given to children in the care centre. It would appear that the child care workers with more experience have a better understanding of the nature of the family milieu mainly due to their experience.

The Chi-squared test was applied to determine if the relation between previous experience of child care work and the relationship of the child care worker with objects and ideas are statistically significant. The P-value was found to be 0,033. Due to the fact that the P-value was less than 0,05 and therefore significant, the null-hypothesis as formulated as hypohthesis 3 (page 421) is therefore rejected.

- (c) The effect of the relationship between number of years experience at present shelter of employment of the child care worker and his relationship with objects and ideas

Hypothesis 3 : Child care workers clearly apprehend the importance of creating a family milieu in the rendering of accountable support to the child in educational distress.

Statement: Do children at the care centre get pocket money.

Table 126 illustrates the effect of the relation between the number of years experience of the child care worker at present shelter employed and whether the children at the care centre get pocket money.

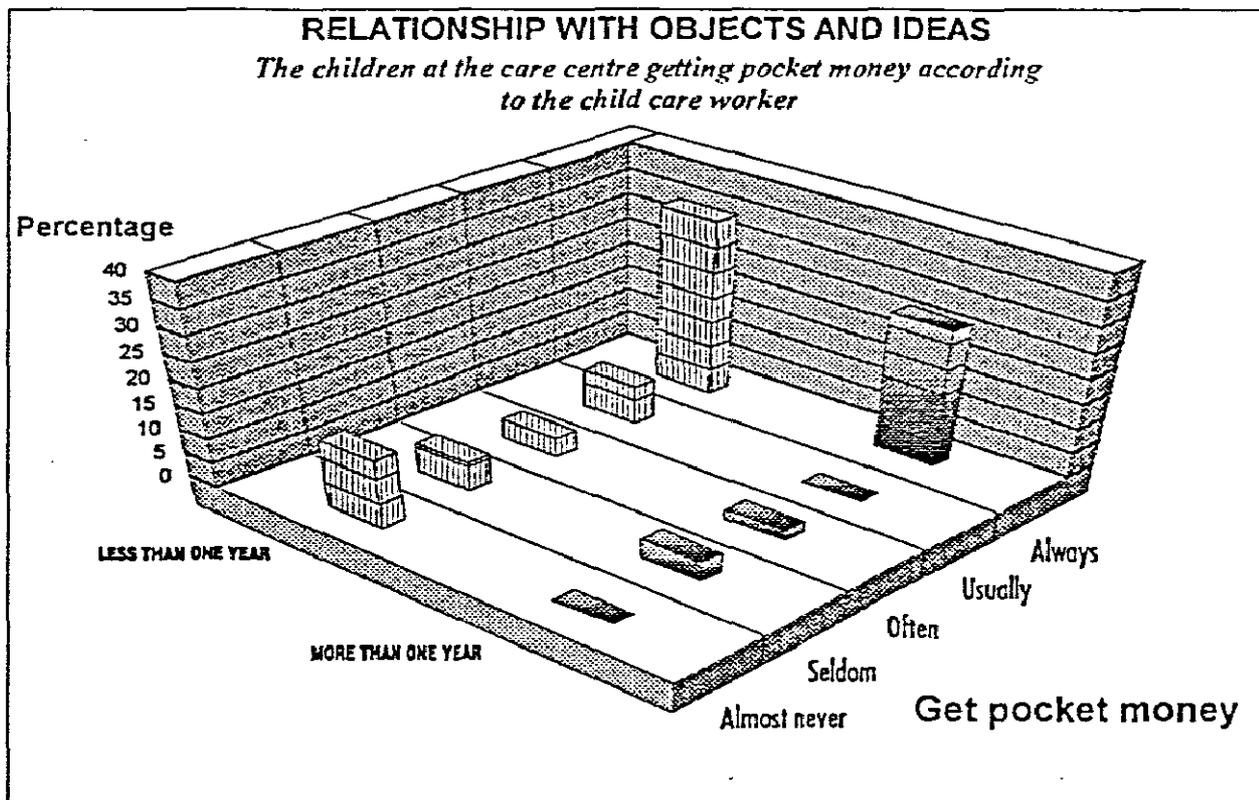
Table 126

Frequency distribution according to the number of years experience at the present shelter of employment of the child care worker and whether the children at the care centre get pocket money

Previous experience	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
Less than 1 year %	5 9,80	1 1,96	0 0	3 5,88	9 17.65	18 35,29
1 year %	0 0	3 5,88	3 5,88	1 1,96	11 21,57	18 35,29
2 years and more %	2 3,92	1 1,96	0 0	0 0	12 23,53	15 29,41
Total %	7 13,73	5 9,80	3 5,88	4 7,84	32 62,75	51 100

This table reflect the same trend as found in table 125. Responses from the more experienced are more clustered at the " children always get pocket money" response.

Graph 12 Children getting pocket money at the care centre according to the child care worker and the number of years presently employed at shelters



Twelve (23,53%) out of a possible total of fifteen (29,41%) respondents from the most experienced group indicated a " children always get pocket money" response. Eleven (21,57%) respondents out of a possible eighteen (35,29%) respondents with one year experience indicated a " children always get pocket money" response. Only nine (17,65%) out of a possible total of eighteen (35,29%) respondents

with less than one year experience indicated a " children always get pocket money" response. It would therefore appear that the importance of pocket money as an element of the family milieu is more fully understood and insisted upon by the more experienced child care worker.

At the same time it must be remembered that a large percentage of the shelters (43,7%) find that they cannot attain aims and objectives regarding support programmes offered due to a shortfall in finances (table 40, page 344). This fact implies that a large percentage of the educational services at shelters are not being rendered adequately.

The Chi-squared test was applied to determine if the relation between the number of years of present employment of child care worker at the shelter and the relationship of the child care worker with objects and ideas are statistically significant. The P-value was found to be 0,013. Due to the fact that the P-value was less than 0,05 and therefore significant, the null-hypothesis as formulated as hypothesis 3 (page 441) is therefore rejected.

(3) The child care worker's relation with religious ideas**Table 127**

Frequency distribution according to the child care worker's relations with religious ideas

At the shelter:	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
Do you ensure that the children say their prayers before they go to sleep ?	8 15,69	16 31,37	15 29,41	4 7,84	8 15,69	51 100
When a child does something wrong, do you correct him by referring to the Bible ?	8 15,69	15 29,41	14 27,45	4 7,84	10 19,61	51 100
Is family worship held at the care centre ?	0 0	11 21,57	17 33,33	13 25,49	10 19,61	51 100
Do you find that many children in the care centre tell lies easily ?	0 0	0 0	12 23,53	23 45,10	16 31,37	51 100
Do you find that children at the care centre take things that do not belong to them?	0 0	4 7,84	24 47,06	10 19,61	13 25,49	51 100

The majority of child care workers at shelters indicated that;

- they seldom ensure that the children at the care centre say their prayers before they go to sleep (31,37%);
- when a child does something wrong, they seldom

- correct him by referring to the Bible (29,41%);
- family worship is often held at the care centre (33,33%);
 - they usually find that many children in the care centre tell lies easily (45,10%);
 - they often find that children in the care centre take things that do not belong to them (47,06%).

Table 128

Chi-squared and P-values of the relationship dimensions with religious ideas

At the shelter:	Gender $x^2 = (4)$ p	Previous experience $x^2 = (8)$ p	Experience at present C.C. $x^2 = (8)$ p
Do you ensure that the children say their prayers before they go to sleep ?	5,084 0,279	4,946 0,239	7,167 0,519
When a child does something wrong, do you correct him by referring to the Bible ?	15,535 * 0,004	19,601 ** 0,001	26,898 ** 0,001
Is family worship held at the care centre ?	5,689 0,128	3,903 0,272	13,724 * 0,033
Do you find that many children in the care centre tell lies easily ?	8,890 * 0,012	1,941 0,379	12,653 * 0,013

At the shelter:	Gender $\chi^2 = (4)$ p	Previous experience $\chi^2 = (8)$ p	Experience at present C.C. $\chi^2 = (8)$ p
Do you find that children at the care centre take things that do not belong to them?	2,791 0,425	4,058 0,255	22,045 ** 0,001

* = p < 0,05 (to denote significance);

** = p < 0,001 (to denote high degree of significance); and

p > 0,05 (to denote no significance).

(a) The effect of the relationship between gender and the child care worker's relationship with religious ideas

Hypothesis 4 : Child care workers clearly apprehend the importance of Religious values in the rendering of accountable support to the child in educational distress.

A cross tabulation of the different variables and the gender of respondents (as independent variable) was undertaken with regard to hypothesis 4. The Chi-squared test was applied to determine which of the variables are statistically significant (table 128).

One of the variables was analyzed in order to determine the relation between the gender of the respondent and his relationship with Religious values.

Statement: When a child does something wrong, do you correct him by referring to the Bible ?

Table 129 illustrates the effect of the relation between the gender of the child care worker and whether a child, when doing something wrong, is corrected by referring the child to the Bible.

Table 129

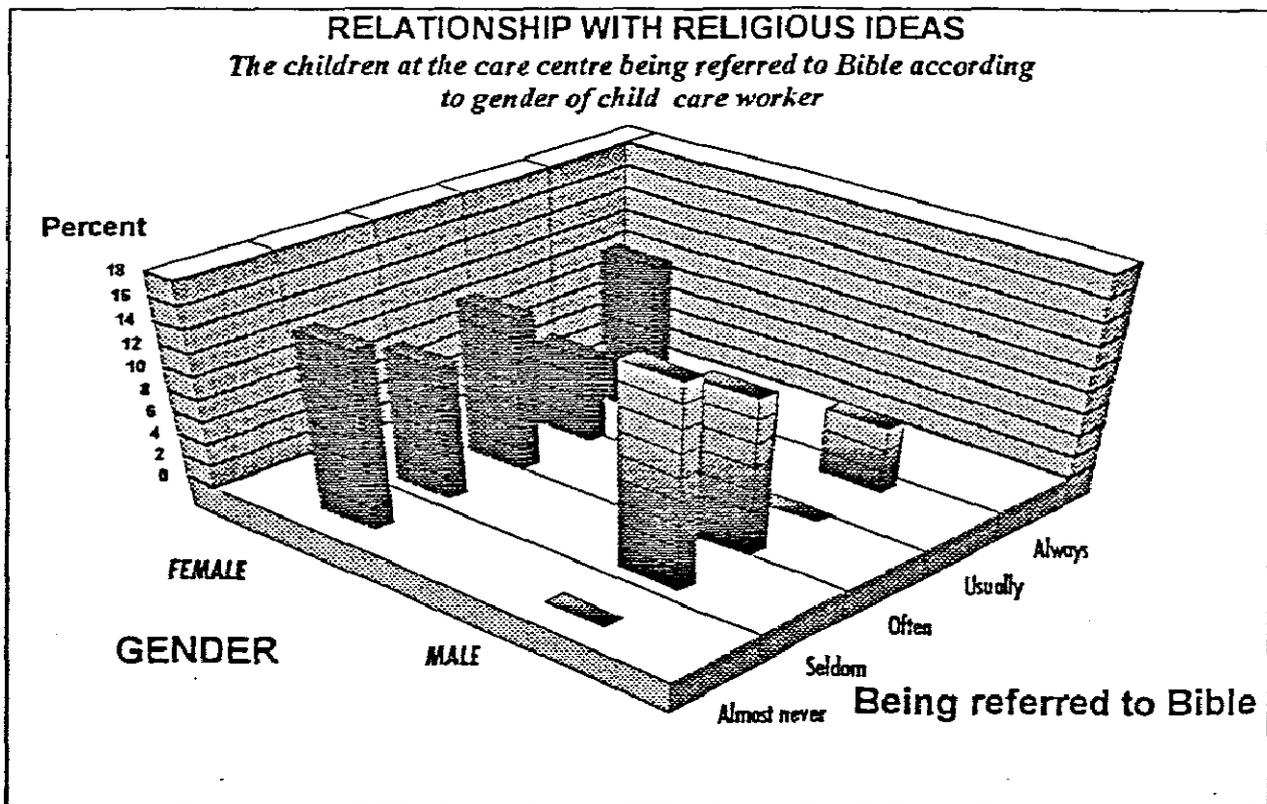
Frequency distribution according to the gender of the child care worker and whether a child, when doing something wrong, is corrected by referring the child to the Bible.

Gender	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
Male	0	9	7	0	3	19
%	0	17,65	13,73	0	5,88	37,25
Female	8	6	7	4	7	32
%	15,69	11,76	13,73	7,94	13,73	62,75
Total	8	15	14	4	10	51
%	15,69	29,41	27,45	7,84	19,61	100

Nine male respondents (17,65%) indicated that they seldom refer a child to the Bible when he has done something wrong. Seven (17,73%) indicated that they often refer a child to the Bible and three (5,88%) that they always do. In contrast to

this seven female respondents (13,73%) indicated that they always do and four (7,94%) that they usually do. Eight female respondents (15,69%) indicated that they almost never refer the child to the Bible and six (11,76%) that they seldom do.

Graph 13 The child at the care centre, who has done something wrong, being refered to Bible according to the gender of child care workers



Eleven female respondents (34,38%) out of thirty two (100%) mostly (always/usually) refer the child to the Bible

whereas only three male respondents (15,79%) out of nineteen (100%) do the same. According to Cemane (1984) the male is viewed by society as the head of the family, the person who must decide on just solutions for problems within the family. Due to this role ascribed to them by society, males may tend therefore to attempt solving or correcting problems themselves and not refer to the Bible for that purpose.

The Chi-squared test was applied to determine if the relation between the gender of child care work workers and the relationship of the child care worker with religious ideas is statistically significant. The P-value was found to be 0,004. Due to the fact that the P-value was less than 0,05 and therefore significant, the null-hypothesis as formulated as hypothesis 4 (page 447) is therefore rejected.

- (b) The effect of the relationship between previous experience in child care of the child care worker and his relationship with religious ideas

Hypothesis 4 : Child care workers clearly apprehend the importance of Religious values in the rendering of accountable support to the child in educational distress.

Statement: When a child does something wrong, do you
correct him by referring to the Bible ?

Table 130 illustrates the effect of the relation between the previous experience of the child care worker in child care and whether a child, when doing something wrong, is corrected by referring the child to the Bible.

Table 130

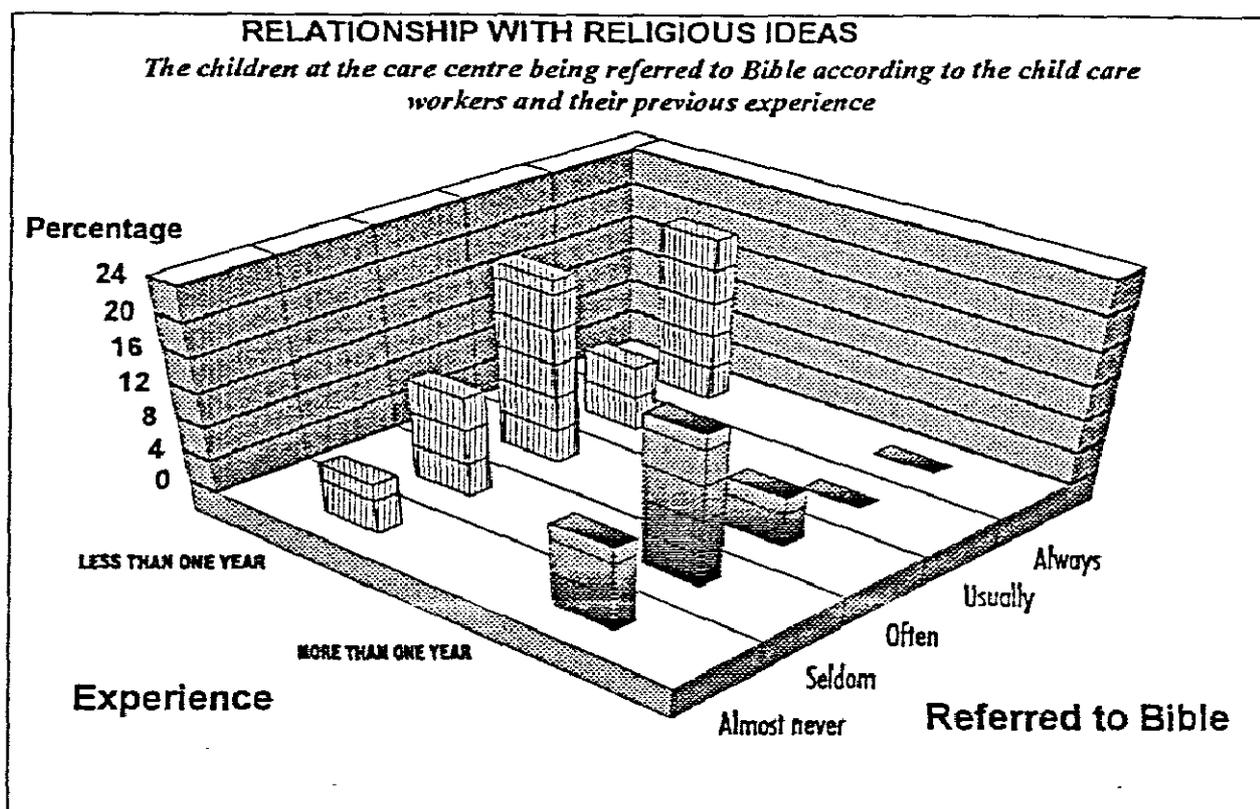
Frequency distribution according to the number of years of previous experience in child care of the child care worker and whether a child, when doing something wrong, is corrected by referring the child to the Bible.

Previous experience	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
Less than 1 year %	3 5,88	6 11,76	11 21,57	4 7,84	10 19,61	34 66,67
1 year and more %	5 9,80	9 17,65	3 5,88	0 0	0 0	17 33,33
Total %	8 15,69	15 29,41	14 27,45	4 7,84	10 19,61	51 100

According to table 130 the majority (29,41%) of child care workers with one year and more experience indicated that they tend (almost never \seldom) not to refer the child who has done something wrong to the Bible. The majority of child care workers with less than one year's experience (49,02%)

indicated that they tend (often\ usually\always) to refer the child who has done something wrong to the Bible.

Graph 14 The child at the care centre, who has done something wrong, being referred to Bible according to child care workers and their previous experience in child care



Vrey (1979) sees a personal religion as a means of faith and hope to which a child can cling during the uncertainties and

vicissitudes of his development. Two authentic requirements would be authentic knowledge and practical demonstration of religious norms. The example set by the child care worker in this regard and his personal convictions about the strength that can be derived from religious values are crucial in his transmitting of religious values.

The child care worker with more experience has more confidence in his or her own solutions and ideas on discipline due to previous experience obtained in matters that require disciplinary action. The more experienced child care worker may therefore refrain from referring to the Bible.

The Chi-squared test was applied to determine if the relation between previous experience of child care work and the relationship of the child care worker with objects and ideas are statistically significant. The P-value was found to be 0,001. Due to the fact that the P-value was equal to 0,001 and therefore highly significant, the null-hypothesis as formulated as hypothesis 4 (page 450) is therefore rejected.

- (c) The effect of the relationship between number of years experience at present shelter of employment of the child care worker and his relationship with religious ideas

Hypothesis 4 : Child care workers clearly apprehend the importance of religious values in the rendering of accountable support to the child in educational distress.

Statement: When a child does something wrong, do you correct him by referring to the Bible ?

Table 131 illustrates the effect of the relation between the number of years experience of the child care worker at present shelter of employment and whether a child, when doing something wrong, is corrected by referring the child to the Bible.

The same trend as was evident in table 130 can be found in table 131. As the child care worker's experience increases his action of referring the child who has done something wrong to the Bible decreases. There is therefore a discrepancy in the actions of those child care workers with less than one year's experience and those with one year and more experience. A contributing factor to this discrepancy (apart from those mentioned in the discussion of table 130) is that children at different stages of becoming will identify with norms and values differently.

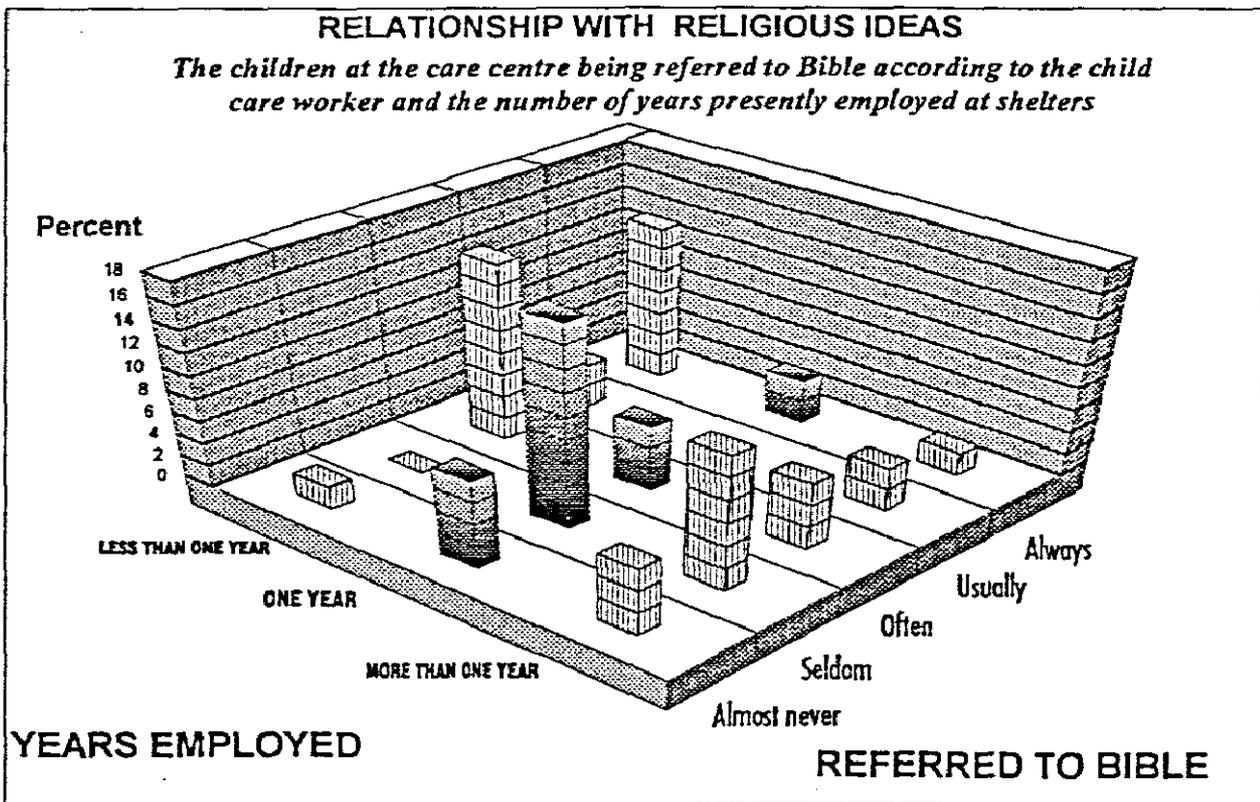
In this regard Vrey (1984) noted that the child's relations with religious and moral values develop to a point where he will conform to such religious and moral norms of his own free will. The unexperienced child care worker may not have acquired this insight yet and therefore treat children of different age groups in the same manner.

Table 131

Frequency distribution according to the number of years experience at the present shelter of employment of the child care worker and whether a child, when doing something wrong, is corrected by referring the child to the Bible.

Previous experience	Almost never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	Total
Less than 1 year %	1 1,96	0 0	8 15,69	2 3,92	7 13,73	18 35,29
1 year %	4 7,84	9 17,65	3 5,88	0 0	2 3,92	18 35,29
2 years and more %	3 5,88	6 11,76	3 5,88	2 3,92	1 1,96	15 29,41
Total %	8 15,69	15 29,41	14 27,45	4 7,84	10 19,61	51 100

Graph 15 The child at the care centre, who has done something wrong, being referred to Bible according to the child care worker and the number of years presently employed at shelters



The Chi-squared test was applied to determine if the relation between the number of years of present employment of child care worker at the shelter and the relationship of the child care worker with objects and ideas are statistically significant. The P-value was found

to be 0,001. Due to the fact that the P-value was equal to 0,001 and therefore highly significant, the null-hypothesis as formulated as hypothesis 4 (page 454) is therefore rejected.

7.7 SUMMARY

In this chapter the biographical information gathered in questionnaire A and B was interpreted by means of frequency tables. The independent variables were discussed (7.5.13) and the responses of child care workers analyzed according to relationship dimensions (7.5.14). The frequency distribution of the responses of the child care workers on the four relationship dimensions were given in tables 112, 117, 122 and 127. The Chi-squared and P-values of the responses of the child care workers on the four relationship dimensions were given in tables 113, 118, 123 and 128.

The four working hypotheses as stated under 7.3 have all been rejected. The research hypothesis as stated in chapter 1 as null-hypothesis (1.4) is therefore also rejected.

In the next chapter a summary will be given of the main findings regarding the literature study and the empirical research. This will be followed by conclusions made as well as a few recommendations.

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**CHAPTER 8
SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

8.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter some of the most important findings from previous chapters will be discussed. This will be followed by recommendations and a final remark.

8.1 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

8.1.1 Emanating from the literature study

(1) The child in educational distress

One of the aims of this study is to describe the educational distress that exists within the life-world of the street child from a psychopedagogical perspective by means of available relevant research literature. From the relevant literature the following findings can be summarized.

Although both the adult and the child are to be held responsible for the success of the child's education, the adult is the one who should mainly be called to account for any dysfunction in the dynamics of the upbringing. When the adult, who is the more responsible person, does not take care that the conditions for adequate education are met, the child is usually affectively, intellectually and morally neglected. It is not suggested that this neglect is always intentional. It may for instance happen that the adult's appeal to the

child is not sufficiently clear and unambiguous, and is consequently misunderstands This example implies that the pedagogic relationship of understanding is not being adequately constituted. If any of the pedagogic relationships of trust, understanding and authority are absent from the pedagogic situation, it will result in a dysfunction in the dynamics of the education situation. The streetchild thus finds himself in this situation of dysfunctional education. Without sufficient participation of an adult in the dynamics of the education situation, the essential meaning of education is not fulfilled because the streetchild is not involved in an intimate relationship with an educator (parent) who focuses on the child's adulthood. When an educator and a child communicate inadequately all the acts of upbringing itself are necessarily performed inadequately. The pedagogically inadequate actualization of the child's psychic life is the inevitable result.

Emancipating and exploring are two of the most fundamental forces underlying experiencing. The streetchild's experiencing of reality does not allow him to determine what opportunities are available for his emancipation. The exploring and emancipation that the streetchild experiences always have a negative connotation. This directly pertains to

the modes of his exploring, emancipating, distantiating, objectification and differentiating, which are in the same event inadequately actualized in terms of the pedagogical norm. He is indeed obstructed in his progress towards adulthood. The rate of his becoming is slowed down and his progress is much slower than it ought to be; there is a developmental lag between the level which the streetchild has in fact attained and that which he should have been on according to his potential. In short, there is a discrepancy between what the child is and what he ought to be as a person. His actions of ascribing significance to matters, of exerting himself, venturing forth, hoping, planning, fulfilling his future, valuing, gaining insight, attaining the freedom to be responsible and of accepting norms, are all of an insufficient quality.

Differentiation has been used to describe the unfolding of the affectivity. Concurrently with a differentiation of the affects, differentiation is also inadequately actualized by the streetchild in respect of sensing-perceiving, motoric, imaging and imagining, memory and thinking i.e. the streetchild does not learn according to his learning abilities. The streetchild is also hampered in his will to actualize his potentials. Without the need to learn and a

differentiation of the affects, the cognitive aspect of the streetchild's becoming is not actualized.

The absence of specific ethical and moral factors in the educational setting could also hamper the child's education.

The lack of educational dialogue between an adult and the streetchild is one of the major factors that short-circuit the dynamics of the educational situation. The point where the subjective interpretation of the adult and the streetchild intersect is insufficient and results in the progression of the streetchild being replaced by retrogression. The self-evident norms are passed over in silence and thus actually disregarded.

From a psychopedagogical perspective the streetchild finds himself in a educational relationship which is dysfunctional. Dysfunctional education implies that the streetchild's psychic life is under-actualized. This under-actualization of the psychic life of the child will eventually result in :

- inadequate exploration;
- inadequate emancipation;
- inadequate distantiation;

- inadequate differentiation;
- inadequate objectification;
- inadequate learning.

(2) Relevant research regarding the life-world of the streetchild

A meaningful life-world is formed when the child, by attributing meaning, forms relationships with objects, people, ideas, values, himself and God. To attribute meaning to a relationship implies much more than mere understanding. The quality of both meaning and involvement is determined by what the child subjectively experiences, and both are components of self-actualization, which, because of the need for educational assistance, is guided actualization. The child's relationships are therefore an expression of his life-world.

The life style of streetchildren is an example of the outcome of disharmonious educational dynamics. It represents inadequate personality development, which, although it has taken place through the child's own initiative, is mainly the result of educational misguiding by the parents and other adults. The child's initiative stems from the need of every human being to be somebody and to become somebody.

When the child feels himself unaccepted, rejected and

unwelcome, he develops a feeling of inferiority. Whether a child will develop a constructive or destructive attitude, in the first place depends on his parents' attitude to him." The fact that the streetchild finds himself in a situation of dysfunctional education, implies that his psychic life is under-actualized.

Streetchildren are fully aware that their parents and other adults have neglected them. Furthermore those adults they meet on the street usually respond with pity, disapproval, embarrassment, or outright hostility and rejection. For these children the move to the streets represents a desire to take control of their lives themselves. They have become victims of intimidation in their primary educational milieu. When intimidated now, their response is frequently to attack and they show little respect for authority in a misguided attempt to improve their self-image. Because of this inability of the streetchild to improve his self-image the relationships formed by the streetchild are inadequate for his emancipation. He finds himself in a situation of helplessness and this helplessness is reflected in his relation to reality which offers opportunities for emancipation which he is afraid to utilise.

(3) Available support for the streetchild

At present only a few social workers and voluntary organizations, such as Shelters like the Twilight Children's Organization reach out to these children to endeavour to rehabilitate the families and supervise those children who have returned to their original homes. Where possible, attempts are also made to arrange for alternative accommodation for some of these children by means of privately organized "shelters" in the major centres.

Schools and "vocational" training centres have also been established in an effort to assist these children in obtaining lawful and independent occupations. Voluntary organizations are faced with a dilemma that their philanthropic motivations are not supported by statute. They subsequently accommodate absconded children on humane grounds. The question of accountable support structures available to the streetchild at present can be summarized as follows:

- no statutory provision exists at the moment that pertains directly to the streetchild;

- The Children's Act No. 74 of 1983 focuses on the

inadequate parent rather than on the uncontrollable child. No provision is made in the Act to accommodate parents who, because of the circumstances beyond their control (poverty, urbanization, unrest, illiteracy, etc) do not earn enough to provide for the needs of their family;

- voluntary organizations are mainly involved in providing some support eg. Shelters. Shelters aim at educational, vocational preparedness and child-care projects for streetchildren in South Africa. Most of the shelters that have come into existence for providing some measure of support exist illegally under present statutory provisions, lack the services of suitably qualified personnel, are often haphazardly organised, cannot cope effectively with the present situation and are a duplication of certain services in the provision of support;

- church involvement is restricted to a minimum by its responsibility of addressing other social problems amongst members within its own community. A small percentage of indirect support is made by churches in the form of channelling funds as well as donations in kind (e.g. clothing, food, use of church facilities, etc.) towards

voluntary organizations ;

- educational support structures in the form of school social work services could prove to be very supportive, but, at present the effective functioning of such a service within the black community will be extremely hampered by the fact that Black Education is not yet compulsory within the RSA;

- where compulsory education does exist the needs of the pedagogically neglected child could be addressed by the school social worker. It will therefore be imperative that suitable persons be recruited and trained so that all schools be provided with a school social worker. The school social worker will be of immense value due to his situatedness within a school environment. The school social worker at the same time will have the required training to link up with those at present involved in offering support for the streetchild. The school social worker will be able to channel the streetchild to where the best support can be offered. The main tasks of the school social worker will be to identify the pedagogically neglected child (e.g. the streetchild), be responsible for family guidance, the socialization of the child and for dealing with problems

that may arise in the child's transition from mainstream to special education or vice versa.

With regard to the available support for the streetchild it can be concluded that a number of organizations such as Shelters are involved in attempts to render some kind of support. The fact remains that the streetchild is a "child" that should be assisted by parents and the school in his process of becoming. This crucial factor is at present often overlooked by these organizations that render support. These support structures direct their attentions to activities that often exclude the school and the family context which are vital factors in the child's becoming. The actualization of the child's full potential therefore becomes more remote.

(4) The transitional school : a model for accountable support

It is imperative that some accountable support system which is supported, funded and to certain extent, controlled by the State should be instituted for the streetchild. By this it is implied that the State should see to it that streetchildren are given a second chance in their becoming. In order to ensure that this second chance will be offering the streetchild the best possible opportunity for addressing his educational distress he encounters on the street the

support must be instituted according to pedagogical norms. This in turn implies the appointment and remuneration of suitable qualified staff. It is of major importance that these places should be protected and funded by the State.

At the transitional school the relationship between educator and child must be characterized by certainty and stability; genuineness and truth; dignity; understanding and authority. This relationship will result in trust being created in the case of the child who will respond to the love of the educator in the sense, that love is awakened in him not only for the educator, but also for the norms by which the educator arranges his own life. To accomplish this with regard to the streetchild the educator at the transitional school must therefore be trained as a pedagogue and require a sound knowledge of Orthodidactics. It must be concluded that the many failures recorded with regard to the educational work done in shelters for streetchildren, must be accounted for by the fact that education is viewed merely as processes of behavioural shaping, or the conditioning of behavioural patterns which must be definable and measurable. The shelters for streetchildren with their lack of funds, facilities, adequate suitably qualified personnel and protection from the State find it very difficult to cope.

The future of pedagogically neglected children like streetchildren is much too important to entrust to institutions who cannot satisfy the requirements for the child to actualize his potentials. The transitional school as future model for accountable support to streetchildren is therefore envisaged.

8.2.2 Emanating from the descriptive section of the empirical research

(1) Questionnaire A : Shelters

The fact that sixteen shelters that were included in this research accommodate a total of approximately 760 streetchildren (table 6 : 325) out of an estimated 9 000 streetchildren within South Africa is evidence that the need for accountable support does exist. The fact that the majority of shelters (81,2%) accommodate only boys (table 3 : 323) substantiates previous research which claims that the majority of streetchildren are boys.

The majority of the shelters (31,3 %) are registered to accommodate between 21 to 30 streetchildren (table 1 : 321) but most shelters accommodate many more streetchildren (table 6 : : 328). This fact indicates not only the need for more support but also the problem of overcrowding (table 15 : 330) which leads to disorganization and ineffectiveness

regarding the programmes and facilities offered. The ineffectiveness is evident in the fact that 43,7% (table 40 : 344) of the shelters indicated that they cannot attain aims and objectives regarding support programmes offered. This fact implies that a large percentage of the educational and other services at shelters are not being rendered adequately.

The fact that the majority of shelters (50%) experience the minimum age of boys on entry to the shelter to be between 6 - 10 years (table 2 : 322) and the maximum age on entry to be between 16 - 20 years (table 4 : 324) indicates that children are of various age groups. These children are not accommodated according to different age groups in the majority of shelters (tables 11 & 12 : 328). This factor may explain why the "law of the street" manifests itself in the shelters by means of glue sniffing (table 78 : 365), bullying (table 80 : 366), sexual molestation (table 79 : 365) and intimidation (table 81 : 366). Also contributing to the antisocial behaviour found within shelters is that the majority of shelters (50%) provide for boys in the age group 16 - 20 to be accommodated for the first time in the shelter (table 4 : 324). This indicates that even boys in their late teens are living on the streets. These older

boys tend to become involved in crime or antisocial actions if no accountable intervention in their life-world takes place.

The indication that the majority of streetchildren are runaways (tables 20-23 : 332-334) is supported by the fact that at all of the shelters the majority of streetchildren arrived voluntarily to be admitted to the shelter (tables 64 -67 : 357-359). A significant percentage of shelters (25%) indicated that streetchildren were referred to the shelter by a social worker, welfare agencies and the S.A.P. This may be due to the fact that cases of sexual abuse (25%) and physical abuse (62,5%) were indicated by shelters as the manner in which children came to be under their care (tables 20-23 : 332-334). The abuse suffered by streetchildren correlates with previous research which found that 21% of streetchildren who arrived at shelters revealed impaired physical development; 53% are underfed; 31% have head injuries of some kind and 33% have neuropsychological deviations.

The fact that 43,7 % (table 72 : 362) of the shelters found children in their care to be boastful and (87,5%) exhibit temper tantrums (table 76 : 363) confirms the literature

that streetchildren express their aggression in physical ways. They are esteemed if they fight well and are loud and rough.

The literature study found that the streetchild shows clear signs of being unloved and left alone, of poor self-esteem, of poor interpersonal trust as well as signs of anxiety and depression. This fact is endorsed by shelters (62,5%) in table 75.

The majority of shelters (68,8%) indicated that they have been rendering support to streetchildren for less than six years. This confirms previous research that voluntary support programmes for streetchildren in the RSA started during 1982 and that many volunteer programmes were forced to close down due to financial and legal restraints. The majority of shelters (68,4%) indicated that they have no branches (table 26 : 336).

Although tables 28 - 31 on pages 336-338 indicated that all shelters in the sample (100%) have medical, guidance and counselling services available to the streetchild, provide the basic needs of food clothing and shelter and offer formal educational programmes (87,5%) and non-formal educational programmes (81,3%), tables 59 - 61 on pages 354-

355 highlight the fact that shelters lack the services of professionally qualified persons at shelters. The majority of shelters (56,3%) lack the services of professionally qualified medical staff. 43,8 % of the shelters lack the services of professionally qualified staff to render formal educational programmes.

Despite the fact that 87,5% of the shelters indicated that they have fixed study times for children who attend formal education programmes the majority of shelters (65,3%) indicated that they do not have adequate study facilities (table 88 : 369). This shortage of facilities may be due to overcrowding of available facilities and lack of finance.

All of the shelters (100%) indicate that the streetchildren in their care do not experience the rules in the shelter to be forced on them nor do they simply accept them because they fear punishment (tables 68-71 : 359-360). This may be due to the fact that the streetchild is at the shelter on a voluntary basis. If the streetchild experiences the rules to be unacceptable he may withdraw himself from the shelter.

All shelters (100%) allow the offender to state his/her case

and explain to the offender why he/she is being punished. Most shelters (93,7%) punish the offender immediately after an offence has been committed (table 92 : 371). Punishment is not decided upon by the manager alone (85,5%) and the offence and punishment (table 94 : 371) are recorded for future reference by most of the shelters (87,5%).

All the shelters in the sample provide accommodation for full-time child care workers but the majority of shelters (68,7%) do not provide accommodation facilities for part-time/volunteer child care workers. This may be due to the fact that volunteers only spent a maximum of five days a month at shelters (table 52 : 350). The majority (57,2%) of the shelters in this sample employ less than six volunteers, more than five part-time workers (56,3%) and between 6 - 10 full-time workers (87,4%).

Most shelters (81,3%) indicate that they pay volunteer workers at the shelter a salary. This fact may be the reason why the majority of shelters employ less than six volunteers. with 31,2% of the shelters employing no volunteers at all (table 43 : 346).

The fact that shelters mainly involved volunteers in fund-

by the State (table 35 : 341) as well as regarding assistance (87,6%) which concerns resources and facilities. Local governments such as municipalities appear to render more support to shelters within their boundaries although the majority of shelters in the sample (56.2%) indicated that they receive no support or assistance. This may be due to the fact that shelters are not places established by law for streetchildren and therefore not recognised by the State and local authorities. The majority of shelters (68,8%) rely on public donations as their main source of revenue (table 38 : 343).

The majority of shelters (87,5%) do submit audited statements to donors regarding donations made to the shelter (table 41). This would imply that donations received are carefully spend. Despite this carefully spending of money serious shortfalls do exist (table 40 : 344).

(2) Questionnaire B : Child care workers

The fact that twenty-five (49%) of the child care workers indicated that they have no children of their own may be due to the fact that 70,6% of the respondents are not married and of those 53% have never been married (table 95 :372).

The majority of child care workers in this sample (39,2%)

fall in the age group 26 to 30 years. This may explain why the majority of child care workers (66,7%) have no previous experience of child care work (table 110 : 385).

It was found that the mother tongue of the majority of child care workers (68,8%) was not English and this fact may explain why many of the child care workers had a poor command of English (table 97 : 374). Important in this regard is that the majority of streetchildren are Black and also have a limited command of English. 45,1 % of the respondents have a Black language as home language.

It was found that the majority of child care workers in this sample (82,4%) have no higher qualification than standard 10 (table 98 : 375). This would imply that the majority of child care workers have no Diploma in Child Care or any other post-matric qualification that may equip them better to address the educational distress of the streetchild in their care.

The fact that most child care workers (68,6%) indicated that the head of the shelter provided them with guidance and support regarding child care duties may be the reason why most of the child care workers in this sample (90,2%) were not aware of more than one diploma course in child care

work. Most child care workers (86,3%) were only aware of one course, either BQCC (see 7.5.8) or the Certificate in Child and Youth Care (table 104 : 379).

That the majority of child care workers in this sample (67,7%) are employed full-time appears to be why job descriptions concerning duties to be performed were given to the majority of child care workers (82,4%) when appointed.

Most shelters in this sample appear to be sending child care workers (45,1%) regularly to in-service courses in Child Care. The fact that twenty-three (45,1%) of the child care workers indicated that their organization does not organize its own in-service courses may be due to a lack of finances, facilities and the work load at shelters.

That the majority of child care workers (91,2%) belong to a church or religious denomination is highly significant to child care work being done because it implies the direct and indirect transmittal of religious values (table 108 : 382).

8.2.3 Emanating from the inferential section of the empirical research

The fact that 62,7 % of the respondents are female and 37,3% are males compares favourably with the national ratio between

male and female as it exists in other professions such as teaching.

That the number of respondents decreases as the number of years of previous experience increases is reflected by the majority of child care workers in this sample (70,6%) who have one year or less than one year's of experience as child care worker in employment at their present shelter (table 111 : 387) .

The fact that the majority of child care workers (66,7%) have no previous experience of child care work (table 110 : 369) may be due to the fact that the majority of child care workers in this sample (39,2%) fall in the age group 26 to 30 years. Another contributing factor may be the fact that previous research confirms that voluntary support programmes for streetchildren in the RSA only started during 1982 and that many volunteer programmes were forced to close down due to financial and legal restraints.

The fact that the majority of the male respondents (19,61%) always viewed their task as very important (table 114 : 395). and in contrast the majority (37,44%) of the female respondents did not always view their task as very important

may be explained that males tend to view child care as a career while female child care workers may perceive the importance of their task as being the children in need of care and not the task itself.

It was found that the same trend mentioned in table 115 is also evident in table 116 i.e. the child care workers with more experience tend to view their task as always important while those with less than one year's experience do not view their task as always important.

It was found that the majority (twelve) of male respondents (23,53 %) and the majority (fourteen) female respondents (27,45 %) indicated that they usually view their task as being a substitute parent for the streetchild's biological parents (table 119 : 420). Eleven female respondents (21,57 %) in contrast to only one male respondent (1,96 %) often view their task as being a substitute parent for the streetchild's biological parents. A possible reason for this contrast is that the Black female child care worker, who is very aware of the traditional views held by Black society, may therefore experience more rejection from the older boys in the care centre and this may have a negative influence on how she perceives her task as substitute parent.

It was found that the majority (twenty-two) of child care workers who have less than one year's previous experience of child care work usually view their task as being a substitute parent for the streetchild's biological parents while the majority (ten) of the respondents with one year or more experience indicated that they always view their task as being a substitute parent for the streetchild's biological parents (table 120 : 424). A lack of experience may be the reason why the majority of child care workers with less than one year's previous experience of child care work do not always perceive their task as being a substitute parent for the streetchild's biological parents.

The same trend was found in the fact that child care workers with two years and more experience at the present shelter of employment appear to perceive their task as being a substitute parent for the streetchild's biological parents more clearly than those with less experience. It is therefore quite evident that the child care workers with little experience at the present shelter of employment view substitute parenthood as their task differently from the child care workers with more experience (table 121 : 427).

The majority of male respondents (33,33%) as well as the

majority of female respondents (29,41%) indicated that the children at the care centre always receive pocket money. It is , however, interesting to note that a fair percentage of female respondents (13,73%) indicated that pocket money is almost never given to children in the care centre. No male respondents indicated the same trend. It would appear that quite a few female respondents (13,73%) do not perceive pocket money to be a vital component of child care work. A possible reason for this is that the "motherly instinct" of the female child care worker warns her that this money may be spent on harmful items such as glue and she wants to protect the child against such actions. Table 122 on page 429 indicates that the abuse of intoxicants within the care centre does often take place.

It was found that the majority (27,45%) of the more experienced child care workers indicated that the children at the care centre always receive pocket money. In contrast to those with less experience none of the more experienced care workers indicated that pocket money is almost never given to children in the care centre (table 125 : 439). It would appear that the child care workers with more experience have a better understanding of the nature of the family milieu mainly due to their experience.

The fact that responses from the more experienced child care workers are more clustered at the " children always get pocket money" response and only nine (17,65%) out of a possible total of eighteen (35,29%) respondents with less than one year experience indicated a " children always get pocket money" response would possibly indicate that the importance of pocket money as an element of the family milieu is more fully understood and insisted upon by the more experienced child care worker (table 126 : 442).

It was found that nine male respondents (17,65%) indicated that they seldom refer a child to the Bible when he has done something wrong. Seven (17,73%) indicated that they often refer a child to the Bible and three (5,88%) that they always do. In contrast to this seven female respondents (13,73%) indicated that they always do and four (7,94%) that they usually do. Eight female respondents (15,69%) indicated that they almost never refer the child to the Bible and six (11,76%) that they seldom do. Eleven female respondents (34,38%) out of thirty-two (100%) mostly (always/usually) refer the child to the Bible whereas only three male respondents (15,79%) out of nineteen (100%) do the same. It would appear that due to the role ascribed to them by society, males may tend to attempt to solve or correct

problems themselves and not refer to the Bible for that purpose.

It was found that the majority (27,45%) of child care workers with one year and more experience indicated that they (almost never \seldom) tend not to refer the child who has done something wrong to the Bible. The majority of child care workers with less than one year's experience (49,02%) indicated that they (often\usually\always) tend to refer the child who has done something wrong to the Bible.

The same trend as was evident in table 130 was found in table 131. As the child care worker's experience increases his action of referring the child who has done something wrong to the Bible decreases. There is therefore a discrepancy in the actions of those child care workers with less than one year's experience and those with one year and more experience. A contributing factor to this discrepancy is that children at different stages of becoming will identify with norms and values differently. The unexperineded child care worker may not have acquired this insight yet and therefore treat children of different age groups in the same manner.

The four working hypotheses as stated under 7.3 have all been rejected. The research hypothesis as stated in

Chapter 1 as null-hypothesis (1.4) also was rejected.

8.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

8.3.1 Compulsory education for all children

(a) Rationale

At present the education system for Black children does not provide for compulsory education. Support structures that exist within the present educational system for Black children are rendered powerless because most of these children who are in need of support are not attending school.

The identification of streetchildren by Black educational authorities is hampered by the lack of compulsory education because black children are free to roam the streets at any time during the day. It has therefore become very difficult to differentiate between " children of the street" and "children on the street".

Although Black educational authorities stated in the past that the instituting of compulsory education for all Black children cannot be accommodated within their financial budget, some measure of compulsory education in the future South Africa is vital for coping effectively with the educational distress of the streetchild.

(b) Recommendation

The recommendation is :

- that education be made compulsory for all children from the age of 6 years to a minimum age of 13 years.

8.3.2 Establishment of transitional schools

(a) Rationale

Most of the streetchildren have had very little or no formal schooling. Many of the streetchildren have run away from formal schooling due to their experiences of failure. The streetchild is a pedagogically neglected child in need of special care. Due to this neglect, both at home and at school, the streetchild has built up a considerable backlog regarding the formation of an adequate life-world. This gives rise to the fact that the streetchild, once identified, cannot be returned to an ordinary school. The streetchild is in need of special care which will enable him to erase his backlog with regard to formal education and at the same time enable him to constitute a meaningful life-world.

The streetchild needs to be placed in a transitional school where, via re-education, therapy and remedial teaching the following needs can be addressed:

- improvement of self-image ;

- improving attention span;
- improvement of linguistic handicaps;
- improving conceptual skills.

At present a number of education facilities in the main centres are empty because of the decline in the number of white schoolgoers. At the same time a large number of suitably qualified teachers have been retrenched due to the same reason. These presently empty facilities and pool of unemployed teachers could provide the manpower and resources required to institute the transitional school system as soon as possible.

(b) Recommendation

The recommendations are:

- that transitional schools with hostel facilities must be established for the child in need of special care to provide re-education, remedial teaching and therapy;
- these schools should be designed and established in accordance with the model of the clinic schools of the present Transvaal Education Department as well as the concept of the industrial school. The structure as envisaged by shelters should also be incorporated;

- transitional schools for the pedagogically neglected child in need of special care should serve only as a bridge back to mainstream education, technical or industrial training;
- ample provision should be made for educational psychologists, remedial teachers, occupational therapists and school social workers, apart from the necessary teaching and hostel staff;
- transitional schools should be established in the main centres where the streetchild phenomenon is rampant;
- the availability of presently empty school buildings in main centres as venues for such schools should be investigated ;
- the large number of presently unemployed teachers should be investigated as a possible supply of manpower to such schools.

8.3.3 Appointment of school social workers

(1) Rationale

Once transitional schools for the pedagogically neglected child in need of special care have been established, the

streetchild should be placed in these schools. The identification and resulting channeling of the streetchild to a transitional school can only be done by suitably qualified personnel who also have statutory power to effect these actions. No teacher or principal at a present regular educational institution is suitably qualified or has statutory power to institute such actions. There is a dire need for such a person within the school environment.

It was recommended by Le Roux (1987 : 402-407) that a four year degree course (SSW (Ed.) Degree) be instituted to train school social workers. This degree must include four years of social work training as well as courses in Pedagogics, Psychology, Sociology and Guidance. This degree will allow entrance to both a M.A. degree in Social Work or a B.Ed. degree. The aim is to enable a suitably qualified school social worker at a school to be promoted to a senior position within the structure of a school and/or education department.

The school social worker could play a vital role with regard to curbing the streetchild phenomenon. In the first place the school social worker would be suitably qualified to identify and work with the streetchild and his parents. Secondly the

school social worker would also have the statutory power to effect the channeling of the streetchild to a clinic or special school. At the same time the school social worker would have the required knowledge and statutory backing to assist , and work with, the SAP, welfare organizations and voluntary support organizations like shelters, etc. Thirdly, the school social worker would be an absolute necessity whenever a rehabilitated streetchild is returned from a special school back to mainstream education.

(2) Recommendation

The recommendations are:

- that school social workers should be trained and made available to all schools i.e. the school social worker should form part of the staff structure of every school;
- the training of school social workers should qualify them as teachers as well as social workers within the school environment i.e. registration with both the Teachers Council as well as the Council for Social Work ;
- the following four-year degree course (SSW (Ed.))for the training of school social workers at universities within the RSA is recommended:

SSW (Ed.) Degree

First Year

Social Work 1

Pedagogics 1

Psychology 1

Sociology 1

Second Year

Social Work 11

Pedagogics 11

Sociology 11 or Psychology 11

Method of Guidance

Third Year

Social Work 111

Pedagogics 111

Fourth Year

Social Work IV

- the school social worker should be able to be promoted within the educational structure of an education department to any position for which he may qualify.

8.3.4 Remedial teaching training programmes for all teachers

(1) Rationale

At present the teacher training programmes at Black Colleges of Education do not include or provide for any training regarding remedial teaching. It is therefore doubtful whether the Black teacher is equipped to concentrate on the mental health of his pupils. It is of the utmost importance that teachers should be trained in basic orthopedagogical guidelines. This should enable them to identify, evaluate and diagnose elementary educational problems and also to give basic assistance. It should be expected from every teacher to be capable of handling continuous evaluation and reporting as a normal part of his classroom activities. All teachers should be capable of executing the early identification of high risk pupils by recognising, inter alia, impeding environmental factors which could be harmful to the child's development. Teachers will then be in a position to :

- neutralise negative effects on the child's learning strategies and possible deviant behaviour;
- execute learning readiness programmes; and
- inform parents about their own educational strategies and identify shortcomings in this regard.

(2) Recommendation

The recommendations are:

- that a remedial teaching programme based on orthopedagogical guidelines be included in the teacher training programmes at all Colleges of Education; and

- through in-service training, by means of large scale compulsory workshops, seminars and conferences an efficient system of identification, evaluation, diagnosis and assistance by teachers be promoted and assured.

8.3.5 Parent guidance and involvement programmes at schools

(1) Rationale

Because a large number of urban parents of the Black child are unable to read, they are forced to develop their own child rearing strategies and omit to develop certain elementary codes of conduct in their children regarding that which society expects from them. Illiterate parents have to keep up with a rapidly changing society and technology in South Africa which makes it extremely difficult for the parent to give guidance and assistance to the child. Many Black children come from homes where a more traditional culture is dominant whereas the child is more exposed to a modern culture within the school. This factor seems to be a

source of conflict in many families if the child tends to favour the more modern culture.

In line with this is the traditional belief that large families are an indication of wealth and therefore the idea of family planning is rejected or even politicized by certain traditionalists. Poverty, unemployment and a lack of proper facilities causes havoc regarding parent-child relations in large families. On the other side of the coin, the emergence of single parent families in the Black community usually implies the absence of proper parental guidance in these families.

It is obvious therefore that there is an urgent need for some form of education, training and guidance for parents themselves. In this respect the school could and should play a more prominent role, especially in the provision of training programmes for parents wherein the educative role of the parents and the teaching part by teachers could be synchronised and be more interrelated. At the same time family planning and guidance should also receive serious consideration.

(2) Recommendation

The recommendations are:

- that training programmes for parents are instituted at schools wherein the educative role of the parents and the teaching part by teachers could be synchronised and be more interrelated ;
- family planning and guidance clinics are held on a regular basis at schools in order to tie in with the whole training and assistance programme for parents.

8.3.6 Co-ordination of support and welfare services

(1) Rationale

At present voluntary organizations are mainly involved in providing some support for the streetchild, e.g. shelters. Most of the shelters that came into existence for providing some measure of support exist illegally under present statutory provisions. They lack the services of suitably qualified personnel, are often haphazardly organized, cannot cope effectively with the present situation and are a duplication of certain services in the provision of support.

A programme was announced by the present Minister of Health (Venter, 1990 : 21) which could be very effective in curbing

the above mentioned problem. This programme was initiated by the Government during 1990 and is directed towards supporting and promoting actions taken by voluntary organizations within society regarding social problems within society. This programme was given top priority by the RSA Government and placed under the guidance of the South African Welfare Council's Committee for Marital and Family life.

(2) Recommendation

The recommendation is:

- that all support and welfare services pertaining to the streetchild be co-ordinated and planned by the National Family Programme for the RSA under the guidance of the South African Welfare Council's Committee for Marital and Family life.

8.3.7 Routine testing of streetchildren for AIDS

(1) Rationale

The streetchild uses intoxicants in order to cope with his life-world. These intoxicants may vary from cheap inhalants to more expensive drugs which are injected intravenously. The streetchild runs the risk of being exposed to HIV (Human Immunodeficiency Virus) through infected needles. It is well documented that the streetchild is often sexually abused.

Streetchildren often sell their bodies in an effort to obtain money from anybody who is willing to pay. Streetchildren are therefore highly exposed to sexually transmitted diseases such as AIDS.

It is imperative that some means is designed to protect the streetchild and curb the spreading of killer diseases like Aids amongst them.

(2) Recommendation

The recommendations are:

- that serious consideration be given by MASA (Medical Association of South Africa) and the South African Medical and Dental Council to change the present status of AIDS as a non-notifiable disease;
- all streetchildren identified within town or city limits be routinely tested for the Human Immunodeficiency Virus by relevant Municipal Health Departments.

8.3.8 Further research

(1) Rationale

The streetchild phenomenon in South Africa at present pertains mainly to the Black society. As a result of

cultural differences and the rapid changes in society there may be certain differences in the problems surrounding the educational distress of the pedagogically neglected child of the White, Indian and Coloured population groups. In addition, each of these population groups may have distinctive needs with regard inter alia to the care, re-education, therapy and remedial education of the streetchild. Research findings covering all the population groups will considerably facilitate responsible planning of accountable support for all South Africans.

(2) Recommendation

The recommendation is :

- that an in depth research study concerning accountable support to address the educational distress of the streetchild be conducted.

8.3 FINAL REMARK

It is trusted that this study will be of value particularly to the various Educational Departments, Health Departments and volunteer organizations with regard to meeting the needs of these children and their parents. It is also hoped that the study will contribute towards brightening the perspective futures of streetchildren in educational distress.

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APPENDIX A

Letter to Child Welfare ; requesting
information about shelters in local
area

8 Dorrington Rd
WINKLESPRUIT
4126
30 June 1993

Attention : Mrs S. Wessels

Child Welfare
Child Life House
Electric Rd.
WYNBERG.8000

Dear Shirley

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT SHELTERS FOR STREETCHILDREN

1. I refer to our telephonic conversation.
2. Attached please find two sets of questionnaires as arranged. Attached also find letters to shelter managers and child care workers regarding the research.
3. Questionnaire A is to be completed by shelter Managers or the Head of the Organization which renders support to streetchildren. Questionnaire B is to be completed by Child Care Workers at shelters or organisations which renders support to streetchildren.
4. I request permission from the shelters under your jurisdiction to administer the questionnaires at each shelter personally.
5. I would appreciate it very much if you could forward the relevant details to me as soon as possible.
6. Thank you very much for your tremendous effort to assist me in my research. It is highly appreciated.

Sincerely


Appel van Rensburg

(Tel: (031) 962781)

[517]

APPENDIX B

Letter to shelter manager; requesting
permission to conduct research at
shelter

Dorringtonweg 8
WINKLESPRUIT
4126
3 Julie 1993.

Pastoor Mafungu
Heidedal Jeugsending
Posbus 21168
HEIDEDAL.9300

NAVORSING : STEUN VIR STRAATKINDERS

1. Ek verwys na on telefoniese gesprek rakende navorsing by shelters. Aangeheg vind asseblief vraelyste rakende steun vir straatkinders .
2. Vraelys A word deur die hoof van die ondersteuningsaksie (organization) voltooi word en vraelys B deur die kinderversorger (child care worker) wat by die program werksaam/betrokke is.
3. Ek vra om verskoning dat die vraelyste slegs in Engels beskikbaar is.
4. Ek sal dit hoog op prys stel as u ruimte kan maak vir my om u te besoek by die ondersteuningsaksie. Laat my asseblief so spoedig moontlik weet wanneer dit vir u sal pas.
5. Laat my ook toe om u by voorbaat van harte te bedank vir u bereidwilligheid en moeite om my in die navorsing behulpsaam te wees. Dit word hoog op prys gestel.
5. Voorspoed en sterkte word u toegewens vir die belangrike en noodsaaklike diens wat u in die veeleisende tye verrig.

Vrede vir u



Appel van Rensburg

(Tel: (031) 962781)

[518]

APPENDIX C

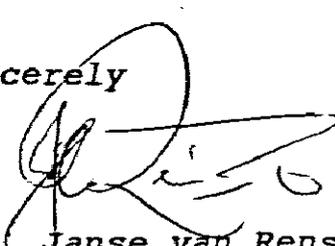
Letter to shelter manager regarding
completion of questionnaire A

Dear Head of Shelter (Organisation)

RESEARCH : SUPPORT FOR STREETCHILDREN

1. The fact that you have accepted responsibility to be a Head of an Shelter (Organisation) for streetchildren is indicative of both your interest and concern regarding the plight of streetchildren. It also indicates your willingness to render a vital service in the interest of these children. By answering this questionnaire you will render a unique contribution towards making information available regarding:
 - the special educational task (responsibility) of the Head of Shelter (Organisation) at the Shelter;
 - the available services that exist at the shelter to cope with the special educational needs of the streetchild; and
 - the problems you encounter in fulfilling this vital task.
2. Your willingness to take time off from your busy schedule in order to make a contribution to this study is deeply appreciated.
3. Due to the fact that you are not required to supply your name you will **remain anonymous**. All information supplied will be treated as **highly confidential**. No person will be harmed or adversely affected by this investigation.
4. The success of this study depends mainly on the honest and comprehensive answering of items on the questionnaire. Please do not hesitate to ask if an item on the questionnaire is not clear.
5. Due to the fact that most of the questions requires only the making of a cross I hope that the questionnaire will not take up much of your time. If you make a mistake feel free to cross it out or to use correcting fluid (Tippex). You may answer the questionnaire in pencil.
6. Your co-operation is highly appreciated.

Sincerely



J.C. Janse van Rensburg

[519]

APPENDIX D

Letter to child care worker regarding
completion of questionnaire B

Dear Child Care Worker

RESEARCH : SUPPORT FOR STREETCHILDREN

1. The fact that you have accepted responsibility to act as Child Care Worker to streetchildren at a shelter is indicative of both your interest and concern regarding the plight of streetchildren. It also indicates your willingness to render a vital service in the interest of these children. By answering this questionnaire you will render a unique contribution towards making information available regarding:
 - the special educational task (responsibility) of the Child Care Worker at the shelter;
 - the available services that exist at the shelter to cope with the special educational needs of the streetchild; and
 - the problems you encounter in fulfilling this vital task.
2. Your willingness to take time off from your busy schedule in order to make a contribution to this study is deeply appreciated.
3. Due to the fact that you are not required to supply your name you will remain anonymous. All information supplied will be treated as highly confidential. No person will be harmed or adversely affected by this investigation.
4. The success of this study depends mainly on the honest and comprehensive answering of items on the questionnaire. Please do not hesitate to ask if an item on the questionnaire is not clear.
5. Due to the fact that most of the questions requires only the making of a cross I hope that the questionnaire will not take up much of your time. If you make a mistake feel free to cross it out or to use correcting fluid (Tippex). You may answer the questionnaire in pencil.
6. Your co-operation is highly appreciated.

Sincerely



J.C. Janse van Rensburg

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APPENDIX E

Questionnaires A and B

**Support for
Streetchildren**

Questionnaire A

**Head of Shelter
(Organisation)**

[522]

INSTRUCTIONS:

**1. HEAD OF SHELTERS (ORGANISATIONS) AT SHELTERS FOR
STREETCHILDREN MUST PLEASE COMPLETE QUESTIONNAIRE A
SECTIONS 1 - 4 (pages 1 - 14).**

THANK YOU

SECTION 1

1. GENERAL DATA REGARDING CHILD CARE ORGANISATION

Kindly answer all the questions by supplying the requested information in writing. Some questions only require a cross (X) to be made next to the relevant answer in the space provided.

1.1 Name of Organisation : _____

1.2 Address of Care Centre: _____

POSTAL CODE : _____

1.3 Number of children for which care centre is registered:

Total	
Not Registered	

1.4 (i) Minimum age on entry: Boys _____ months/year

Girls _____ months/year

(ii) Maximum age on entry: Boys _____ months/year

Girls _____ months/year

1.5 Number of children in care centre:

Boys	:	_____
Girls	:	_____
Total	:	_____

1.6 Do you have (separate) accommodation facilities for the following:

	Yes	No
Boys only		
Boys and girls		
Different age groups : Boys		
Different age groups : Girls		

1.7 Do you have accommodation facilities for the following:

	Yes	No
Full-time child care workers		
Part-time child care workers		

1.8 Is the care centre facility overcrowded with street children ? (Choose one only)

Always	
Often	
Never	

1.9 Is your organisation a :

	Yes	No
Government sponsored organisation		
Registered charity organisation		
Subsidiary of a religious organisation		
Private organisation		

1.10 Are the majority of streetchildren in your care centre :

Yes No

Runaway children ?

Sexually abused children ?

Physically abused children ?

Children addicted to drugs ?

1.11 How long has your organisation been operating as a support unit for streetchildren ?

Less than 1 year

1 - 2 years

3 - 5 years

5 - 10 years

More than 10 years

1.12 How many streetchildren are cared for daily ?

1 - 20

21 - 30

31 - 40

41 - 50

More than 50

1.10 Are the majority of streetchildren in your care centre :

Yes No

Runaway children ?

Sexually abused children ?

Physically abused children ?

Children addicted to drugs ?

1.11 How long has your organisation been operating as a support unit for streetchildren ?

Less than 1 year

1 - 2 years

3 - 5 years

5 - 10 years

More than 10 years

1.12 How many streetchildren are cared for daily ?

1 - 20

21 - 30

31 - 40

41 - 50

More than 50

1.13 Does your organisation have **branches** rendering support services to streetchildren in one or more of the following cities ?

Yes No Number

Pretoria			
Johannesburg			
Cape Town			
Port Elizabeth			
East London			
Pietermaritzburg			
Durban			
Bloemfontein			
No branches			

Other(please specify) _____

1.14 Does your organisation render any assistance to streetchildren regarding the following basic physical needs:(Choose one only)

Meals only

Meals and clothing only

Meals and shelter only

Meals, clothing and shelter only

1.15 Does your organisation render any assistance to streetchildren regarding the following needs:

	Yes	No
Medical services	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Formal educational programmes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Non-formal educational programmes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Guidance and counselling	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

1.16 How do you experience co-operation between your organisation and the Department of Welfare ?

Full co-operation	<input type="checkbox"/>
Poor co-operation	<input type="checkbox"/>
No co-operation	<input type="checkbox"/>

1.17 How do you experirience co-operation between your organisation and the South African Police ?

Full co-operation	<input type="checkbox"/>
Poor co-operation	<input type="checkbox"/>
No co-operation	<input type="checkbox"/>

1.18 Has your organisation obtained a Registered W.O. Number for fund raising purposes ?

Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
No	<input type="checkbox"/>

2.5 Do you contribute financially to other branches of your organisation ?

Regularly

Never

2.7. Does the financial assistance you receive allow your organisation to attain its aims/objectives regarding support programmes to streetchildren ?

Yes No

--	--

2.8 Do you have to submit audited statements to your donors regarding their donations ?

Always

Sometimes

Never

2.9 Are fund-raising projects (eg. sponsored competitions) by your organisation a source of income ?

Yes No

--	--

2.10 Briefly outline the aims/objectives of your organisation:

SECTION 3

3. STAFFING

Please answer the following questions by making a cross (X) in the space provided.

3.1 How many staff members at your organisation are:
(Please supply the numbers at you shelter)

Volunteers

Part-time workers

Full-time employed

3.2 Are the volunteer workers:

Volunteers without receiving salary

Volunteers receiving a salary

3.3 In which section of your organisation are volunteers performing duties:

Administrative

Fund collection

Day-care

All of above

Other (please specify): _____

3.4 Do volunteers receive the following regarding the care of streetchildren :

Training ?

Training and a job description ?

Training, job description and a guide\handbook ?

None of the above ?

Other (please specify): _____

3.5 How many days per month do volunteers assist on average in the care of streetchildren ?

1 - 5

5 - 10

10 - 15

15 - 20

20 - 30

3.6 What qualifications are required by your organisation for volunteer workers who render support to streetchildren ?

None

Std 8 - 10

Diploma in Child Care

Degree in social work

Other (please specify): _____

3.7 What qualifications are required by your organisation for full-time care workers who render support to streetchildren ?

None

Std 8 - 10

Diploma in Child Care

Degree in social work

3.8 Do workers of your organisation who render assistance to streetchildren work in teams ?

Always

Sometimes

Never

3.9 Does a team include one or more of the following services rendered by suitably qualified personnel ?

Yes No

Medical services

Formal educational programmes

Guidance and counselling

Do not work in teams

3.10 Does your organisation have the following professionally qualified persons available at care centres to render assistance ?

Yes No

Medical services

Formal educational programmes

Guidance and counselling

SECTION 4

4. OCCUPATIONAL MILIEU

Please answer the following questions by making a cross (X) in the space provided.

4.1 In what age group do most streetchildren in the care of your organisation fall ?

- 3 - 5 years
- 5 - 8 years
- 8 - 11 years
- 11 - 14 years
- 14 - 17 years
- 17 and older

4.2 How did the streetchildren come to be in the care of your organisation ?

Yes No

- Picked up from streets
- Voluntarily
- Referred by social workers
- Referred by other welfare agencies
- Referred by S.A.P

Yes	No

Other (please specify): _____

4.3 How many streetchildren came to be in the care of your organisation as a result of: (Please supply numbers)

Picked up from streets ?

Voluntarily ?

Referred by social workers ?

Referred by other welfare agencies ?

Referred by S.A.P ?

4.4 Do you think that the children see the rules of the care centre as:

Yes No

Something which is forced upon them?

Unnecessarily strict?

Acceptable?

Acceptable because they are scared of being punished?

4.5 Are the children in the care centre:

Yes No

Boastful?

Spontaneous?

Quiet?

Withdrawn?

4.6 Which one of the following do the children exhibit the most ?

Temper tantrums

Bedwetting

Stuttering

Thumbsucking

Other (please specify): _____

4.7 Do the following happen frequently in the care centre ?

Yes No

Drug abuse

Glue sniffing

Sexual molesting

Bullying

Intimidation

	Yes	No
Drug abuse		
Glue sniffing		
Sexual molesting		
Bullying		
Intimidation		

4.8 When the children watch television, do you decide which of the programmes they may watch?

No television available

Fully

Partially

Children choose

4.9 Do you find the children in the shelter :

Yes No

Spontaneous ?

Relaxed ?

Withdrawn ?

Frightened ?

4.10 Do the children who attend formal education:

Yes No

Have fixed study times ?

Study under supervision ?

Have adequate study facilities ?

No formal education available ?

4.11 When you punish a child in the care centre :

Yes No

May he state his case?

Do you explain to him why you are punishing him ?

Is it done immediately after an offence is committed ?

Do you alone decide on the punishment to be given?

Is the offence and the punishment recorded for future reference?

4.12 If there are any additional comments you would like to make or information you would like to supply, please do so in the space provided :

**Support for
Streetchildren**

Questionnaire B

**Child Care
Worker**

INSTRUCTIONS:

1. CHILD CARE WORKERS AT SHELTERS FOR STREETCHILDREN MUST
PLEASE COMPLETE QUESTIONNAIRE B SECTIONS 1 - 3
(pages 1 - 17).

THANK YOU

SECTION 1

1. CHILD CARE WORKER : PERSONAL DATA

Kindly answer all the questions by indicating the relevant answers with a cross (X) in the space provided.

1.1 Sex :

Male

Female

1.2 Marital Status:

Married

Divored

Never married

1.3 Age :

0 - 20 years

21 - 25 years

26 - 30 years

31 - 35 years

36 - 40 years

41 - 45 years

46 - 50 years

51 - 55 years

56 - 60 years

61 years and
older

1.4 Home language :

Afrikaans

English

Other (Specify) : _____

1.5 Academic qualifications:

Less than Std 8

Std 8 - 10

Std 10 + 1 Year training

Std 10 + 2 Year training

Std 10 + 3 Year training

Std 10 + 4 Year training

Std 10 + 5 Year training

1.6. Number of own children :

None	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----

1.7 Number of years of previous experience as child care worker.

Less than one year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	More than ten years
--------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	---------------------

1.8 Number of years of experience as child care worker at present child care centre

Less than one year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	More than ten years
--------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	---------------------

1.9 Are you employed as a child care worker on a:

Full-time basis ?

Part-time basis ?

1.10 Did you receive a job description concerning your duties when you were appointed ?

Yes

No

1.11 Did you receive a guide or handbook for child care work when you were appointed ?

Yes

--

No

--

1.12 From whom in your organisation have you received the most support and guidance regarding your duties?
(Mark one only)

Head of child care centre

--

Social worker

--

Other child care workers

--

Other (please specify) _____

1.13 Are you aware of any of the following courses available in child care work?

Yes No

Diploma in child care

--	--

Other diploma courses

--	--

Other (please specify) _____

1.14 Does your organisation send you on any in-service courses ?

Regularly

--

Seldom

--

Never

--

1.15 Does your organisation organize any in-service courses for its own staff?

regularly

often

never

1.16 What church or religious denomination do you belong to ?

SECTION 2**2. OCCUPATIONAL MILIEU**

PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS BY USING THE KEY AS INDICATED. INDICATE YOUR CHOICE (ANSWER) BY RINGING THE APPROPRIATE NUMBER CHOSEN EG :

EXAMPLE

I find my job exciting	1	2	3	④	5
------------------------	---	---	---	---	---

The selection of number 4 would imply that this person finds that his job is usually exiting, between 66% and 85% of the time.)

KEY:

1	almost never, between 0 and 10% of the time
2	seldom, between 11 and 35 % of the time
3	often, between 36 and 65% of the time
4	usually, between 66 and 85% of the time
5	always, between 86 and 100% of the time

2.1 The director (head) of the shelter:

2.1.1 Exhibits a positive attitude	1	2	3	4	5
2.1.2 Ensures that staff know what must be done	1	2	3	4	5
2.1.3 Assists me in solving problems I encounter in my work	1	2	3	4	5
2.1.4 Assists me in identifying possible problems I may encounter	1	2	3	4	5

KEY:

1	almost never, between 0 and 10% of the time
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The director (head) of the shelter (cont.):

2.1.5 Assists me with problems before they get out of hand	1	2	3	4	5
2.1.6 Assists staff to develop abilities	1	2	3	4	5
2.1.7 Shows concern for me as a person	1	2	3	4	5
2.1.8 Is very proficient in his task	1	2	3	4	5
2.1.9 Is trusted by his staff	1	2	3	4	5
2.1.10 Commands the respect of both staff and children	1	2	3	4	5

2.2 I view my task as child care worker as:

2.2.1 Being too demanding	1	2	3	4	5
2.2.2 Being a challenge	1	2	3	4	5
2.2.3 Being meaningful	1	2	3	4	5

KEY:

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I view my task as child care worker as (cont.):

2.2.4 Very important	1	2	3	4	5
2.2.5 Being very complex	1	2	3	4	5
2.2.6 My personal responsibility	1	2	3	4	5
2.2.7 Mainly the physical care of streetchildren	1	2	3	4	5
2.2.8 Emotional support to children	1	2	3	4	5
2.2.9 Being a substitute for the child's biological parents	1	2	3	4	5
2.2.10 The creation of a family milieu	1	2	3	4	5
2.2.11 Maintaining authority	1	2	3	4	5
2.2.12 Mainly the implementation of rules	1	2	3	4	5

KEY:

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2.3 As child care worker:

2.3.1	I know when my work is performed satisfactorily	1	2	3	4	5
2.3.2	I know when my work is not performed satisfactorily	1	2	3	4	5
2.3.3	I can see the result of my efforts	1	2	3	4	5
2.3.4	I am personally involved in my work	1	2	3	4	5
2.3.5	I find that my task contains too many diverse duties	1	2	3	4	5
2.3.6	Many people are affected by the degree of efficiency I maintain	1	2	3	4	5
2.3.7	It took me a long time to obtain the skills required for my task	1	2	3	4	5
2.3.8	I am overwhelmed by the complexity of my task	1	2	3	4	5

KEY:

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2.3 As child care worker (cont):

2.3.9 I find it difficult to handle so many children	1	2	3	4	5
2.3.10 I feel that the children take advantage of me	1	2	3	4	5
2.3.11 I set an good example that the children can follow	1	2	3	4	5
2.3.12 I try to be a friend to each child	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION 3

3. RELATIONSHIPS

PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS BY USING THE KEY AS INDICATED. INDICATE YOUR CHOICE (ANSWER) BY RINGING THE APPROPRIATE NUMBER CHOSEN FOR EXAMPLE :

I find my job exciting	1	2	3	④	5
------------------------	---	---	---	---	---

The selection of number 4 would imply that this person finds that his job is usually exiting, between 66% and 85% of the time.)

KEY:

1	almost never, between 0 and 10% of the time
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3.1	Do you find that most of the children at the care centre are ungrateful?	1	2	3	4	5
3.2	Do you find that the streetchild at the care centre feels inferior to other children?	1	2	3	4	5
3.3	Do the children make negative remarks about themselves, for example "I am bad"?	1	2	3	4	5

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3.4	Are the children at the care centre willing to co-operate ?	1	2	3	4	5
3.5	Is there a need for you to encourage children to finish a job started?	1	2	3	4	5
3.6	Do you ensure that the children at the care centre say their prayers before they go to sleep?	1	2	3	4	5
3.7	When a child does something wrong, do you correct him by referring to the Bible?	1	2	3	4	5
3.8	Do you sometimes change a decision after you have discussed the matter with the children?	1	2	3	4	5
3.9	Do you punish a child in front of other children so that he can serve as an example?	1	2	3	4	5
3.10	Do the children disregard values you have taught them ?	1	2	3	4	5
3.11	Do you take your meals with the children at the care centre ?	1	2	3	4	5

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3.12	Do you say good night to each child personally?	1	2	3	4	5
3.13	Are you available if a child needs you after lights are out?	1	2	3	4	5
3.14	Do you find the children's behaviour such that you must constantly reprimand them?	1	2	3	4	5
3.15	Is it possible for a child to be completely alone if he so wishes ?	1	2	3	4	5
3.16	Do you think that the children in the care centre feel that they are "watched" too much?	1	2	3	4	5
3.17	Do you sit with a child at the care centre in a private place and talk to him about things in which he is interested?	1	2	3	4	5
3.18	Do you find that the children at the care centre are uncertain of the future?	1	2	3	4	5
3.19	Do the children at the care centre get pocket money?	1	2	3	4	5

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3.20	May they spend pocket money as they wish ?	1	2	3	4	5
3.21	Do you allow a child to go to town unsupervised ?	1	2	3	4	5
3.22	May the older children at the care centre go out on a Saturday evening, without supervision ?	1	2	3	4	5
3.23	Do you innitiate discussions about the child's parents ?	1	2	3	4	5
3.24	Do you find that children at the care centre blame themselves for the fact that they are on the street?	1	2	3	4	5
3.25	Do you find that children at the care centre blame their parents for the fact that they are on the street?	1	2	3	4	5
3.26	Do you attempt to make contact with parents of streetchildren ?	1	2	3	4	5
3.27	Does your organisation attempt to make contact with parents of streetchildren ?	1	2	3	4	5

KEY:

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3.28	Do you find that the children at the care centre experience problems in forming lasting friendships ?	1	2	3	4	5
3.29	Do you find that a child at the care centre will "test" you to see how you will react ?	1	2	3	4	5
3.30	Does it often happen that a child at the care centre complains of a headache or stomachache without him being really sick?	1	2	3	4	5
3.31	Do you think the child finds it painful to discuss his own parents ?	1	2	3	4	5
3.32	Is family worship held at the care centre ?	1	2	3	4	5
3.33	Do you sometimes feel that you do not understand a child at the care centre ?	1	2	3	4	5
3.34	When you threaten a child at the care centre do you carry out your threats ?	1	2	3	4	5

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3.35	Do the children at the care centre accuse you of not being understanding ?	1	2	3	4	5
3.36	Do you think that children at the care centre must be brought up like other children ?	1	2	3	4	5
3.37	Do you think the children are better off at the care centre than with their own parents ?	1	2	3	4	5
3.38	Do you find that there are problems at the care centre which you cannot handle ?	1	2	3	4	5
3.39	Would you welcome guidance on a permanent basis in the handling of the children at the care centre ?	1	2	3	4	5
3.40	Do you distinguish between age groups when you render support to streetchildren ?	1	2	3	4	5
3.41	Do you find that children at the care centre hide their real feelings ?	1	2	3	4	5

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3.42	Do you find that children at the care centre seeking attention abnormally ?	1	2	3	4	5
3.43	Do you find that many children in the care centre tell lies easily ?	1	2	3	4	5
3.44	Do you find that children at the care centre take things that do not belong to them?	1	2	3	4	5
3.45	Do you find that children at the care centre are addicted to intoxicating substances ?	1	2	3	4	5

3.46 If there are any additional comments you would like to make or information you would like to supply, please do so below in the space provided :
