THE

EDUCATIONAL RESPONSIBILITY

OF THE HOUSE-PARENT

IN THE

CHILDREN'S HOME

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THE EDUCATIONAL RESPONSIBILITY OF THE

HOUSE-PARENT IN THE CHILDREN'S HOME

by

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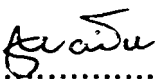
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DECLARATION

" I declare that this dissertation *The educational responsibility of house-parents in the Children's Home*' represents my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references".

S. NAIDU
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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to the children and house-parents in Children's Homes.

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SUMMARY

The aim of this investigation was to determine the awareness and capability of house-parents in children's homes to meet the educational needs of the children who have been entrusted to their care.

An introductory historical overview was provided of the origin and development of children's homes with specific reference to the Muslim Darul Yatama Wal Masakeen Children's Home, Lakehaven Children's Home and the Aryan Benevolent Home in KwaZulu-Natal. Attention was also given to the "idealized" task of these homes.

The admission of a child to a children's home was described in terms of the Child Care Act, Act No. 74 of 1983. Aspects that need to be considered when placing a child in a children's home, such as the child's cultural and religious affiliation and the distance from his parental home, were discussed. The fact that the child is admitted to the children's home as an educationally neglected child, was considered. By adopting the education situation as point of departure, educational neglect as the outcome of the inadequate realisation of educative intervention, was elucidated. The non-accountable interventional assistance of the child's own parents who are incapable, causes the child to experience the education relationships as impaired. Arising from this, the education sequence structures and the education activity structures are inadequately actualized. As outcome of the non-accountable educative intervention the normative image of adulthood which is strived for as educational aim, is not adequately realised and is posed as a delayed education aim.

An own parental home with both parents available, was scrutinised. The importance of a happy and normal family life for the becoming child was discussed by referring among others, to the significance of the father and the mother in the education of the child. The group situatedness of the child in the children's home, which entails both positive and negative educative lived- experiences, was addressed.

Attention was given to the special educative task of the house-parents, which includes the physical, psychological and spiritual "re-education" of the child in the children's home. Sufficient physical care of the child is imperative for the creation of a basis for all other educative actions. The educationally neglected child's emotional education (affective education) shows a distorted image in becoming. The house-parents' unconditional acceptance of the child and their willingness to provide assistance, aid and guidance, are necessary to winning his confidence and enabling him to live-experience acceptance. Through mutual trust and acceptance, and authoritative guidance the child experiences security.

Certain aspects of the educational task of the house-parents with regard to the cognitive education of the child, are highlighted. Through the support and guidance of the house-parents, the child must be assisted in learning how to cope with his emotions. The child can only pay full attention to his school work and studies when he experiences a stable emotional life. Attention is also given to the moral education, social orientation and religious guidance of the child in the children's home.

For the purpose of the empirical investigation, self-structured questionnaires were used. The questionnaires were completed by the house-parents of the children's homes selected for the investigation. An

analysis was done of questionnaires completed by house-parents and the data thus obtained was processed and interpreted by means of descriptive statistics.

In conclusion, the findings emanating from the literature study and the descriptive statistics were presented. Based on these findings, the following recommendations were made:

.   Urgent attention must be given to further training of house-parents and improved conditions of service for them.

.   No house-parent must be responsible for more than ten children.

.   Educational support services must gradually be incorporated in the assistance and control over the children in the children's homes.

OPSOMMING

Hierdie ondersoek was daarop gerig om die huisouers in kinderhuise se bewustheid van en toegerustheid om te voorsien in die opvoedingsnood van die kinders wat aan hulle sorg toevertrou is, vas te stel.

Ter inleiding is daar 'n historiese oorsig gegee oor die ontstaan en ontwikkeling van die kinderhuise met spesiale verwysing na die Muslim Darul Yatama Wal Masakeen Children's Home, Lakehaven Children's Home en die Benevolent Home in KwaZulu-Natal. Aandag is ook gegee aan die "geïdealiseerde" taak van kinderhuise.

Die opname van die kind in 'n kinderhuis is toegelig aan die hand van die bepalings van die Wet op Kindersorg, Wet No. 74 van 1983. Faktore wat by kinderhuisplasing in ag geneem moet word, soos onder andere die kind se kerk- en kultuur verband en afstand van sy ouerhuis, is bespreek. Die feit dat die kind die kinderhuis as opvoedingsverwaarloosde kind betree, is in oënskou geneem. Deur die opvoedingsituasie as vertrekpunt te neem is opvoedingsverwaarlosing, as die resultaat van die ontoereikende verwerkliking van die opvoedingsbemoeienis, toegelig. Die nie-verantwoordbare opvoedingsbemoeienis van onbevoegde eie ouers lei daartoe dat die opvoedingsverhoudings as versteurd deur die kind beleef word. Voortspruitend hieruit word sowel die opvoedingsverloopstrukture as die opvoedingsbedrywigheidstrukture ontoereikend verwerklik. As uitkoms van die nie-verantwoordbare opvoedingsbemoeienis word die normbeeld van volwassenheid, wat as opvoedingsdoel nagestreef word, nie toereikend verwerklik nie en as 'n verstelde opvoedingsdoel voorgehou.

'n Eie ouerhuis met albei ouers teenwoordig, is bespreek. Die belangrikheid van 'n gelukkige en normale gesin vir die volwaardige volwassewording van die kind is onder die loep geneem deur onder meer na die rol van die vader en die moeder in die opvoeding van die kind te verwys. Die groepsgesitueerdheid van die kinderhuiskind wat sowel positiewe as negatiewe opvoedingsbelewenisse inhou, is bespreek.

'n Beskrywing is gegee van die besondere opvoedingstaak van die huisouers ten aansien van die fisiese, psigiese en geestelike "heropvoeding" van die kinderhuiskind. Toereikende fisiese versorging van die kind is onontbeerlik vir die daarstelling van 'n basis vir alle ander opvoedingsaktiwiteite. Die opvoedingsverwaarloosde kind se gevoels-opvoeding (affektiewe opvoeding) toon 'n wordingsgeremde beeld. Die huisouer se onvoorwaardelike aanvaarding, bereidwilligheid tot hulpverlening en steungewing is inderdaad voorwaarde vir die ontsluiting van vertroue en die belewing van aanvaarding by die kinderhuiskind. Deur wedersydse aanvaarding, vertroue en simpatieke gesagsleiding beleef die kind affektiewe geborgenheid.

In die empiriese ondersoek is van 'n selfgestruktureerde vraelys as meetinstrument gebruik gemaak. Die vraelys is deur die huisouers in die kinderhuise wat vir die ondersoek gekies is, voltooi. 'n Ontleding is van die voltooide vraelyste gemaak en die gegewens wat verkry is, is verwerk en geïnterpreteer aan die hand van beskrywende statistiek.

Ten slotte is sekere bevindings voortspruitend uit die literatuurstudie en beskrywende statistiek aangebied. Na aanleiding van dié bevindings is die volgende aanbevelings gemaak:

- Verdere opleiding van huisouers moet dringende aandag geniet en beter diensvoorwaardes moet vir huisouers beding word.

- Elke huisouer moet vir hoogstens tien kinders verantwoordelik wees.

- Opvoedingshulpdienste (Onderwysdepartemente) moet toenemend betrek word by hulpverlening aan en beheer oor die kinders in die kinderhuise.

CHAPTER 1

CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION

1.1   INTRODUCTION

The concept parenthood is synonymous with the acceptance of responsibility for the procreation and rearing of one's child (Urbani, 1982:42). Parenthood begins with that wonderful moment when holding one's baby in one's arms for the first time. Parents should be fully aware of the role, purpose and task, as well as the possibilities and limitations of their activities as regards the education of their children (Du Plooy & Kilian, 1985:13). According to Le Roux (1992:110) parents are the most important persons in the child's life and have the greatest influence on the child's development towards responsible adulthood. Without the help and guidance of responsible parents, the child has very little chance in our present society (Ngcobo, 1992:1-6). The foundation of a healthy society is the home, and a healthy home is built around a strong family institution (Pringle, 1987:107). One of the main functions of the family is to offer security to all its members, and particularly to the children. For the young baby, the family represents the entire world. The manner in which his parents perform their various functions and carry out their capacity for parenthood, will determine the quality of the environment in which the child is raised (Kapp, 1991:455).

Parents are expected to guide their children to adulthood through all the different stages of development, each stage making new demands on, and setting new challenges to both the parents and the child (Vrey, 1990:280). The family offers, especially through the father and mother,

the necessary protection to the child in a strange and unfamiliar world. The family provides the opportunity for the child to explore the unknown, and also allows him to return to a safe haven after each expedition. The child, in an otherwise unfriendly world, experiences the family as a place of his own where he is accepted, respected and appreciated for what he is. Parents who desire to create such an atmosphere of security for their children, must themselves be stable and secure persons. They must find satisfaction, and experience a sense of achievement, in their parental roles (Du Plooy & Kilian, 1985:13).

Heck and Williams (1984:33) stress the fact that parents are the primary educators of their children. They are the foundation, the starting point from which almost everything else happens - within the intimate family circle, parents as educators, support and guide the child. In the proper system of upbringing, the child develops feelings of support, security and confidence. Whenever the relationship between the parent and the child is abounded with mutual love, respect and trust, education flourishes.

The parents and the child grow together within the context of a mutually fulfilling relationship, and lay the foundation for the trials of life which inevitably follow. In a healthy, reciprocal relationship, the parent reaps the rewards of knowing that he is a good parent and is able to meet all his child's needs. The reality however is that not all children experience this nurturing environment. Pawl (1984:246) says that "... being a parent is not a right but a privilege, and that being valued and protected as a child, is not merely a privilege, but a right." 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 education of the child

(Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988:73). Educational distress occurs when the quality of the education offered is unacceptable. When participation of both parties is insufficient and the essential meaning of education is not fulfilled, then the child is not involved in an intimate pedagogical relationship with an educator who in terms of role function focuses on adulthood (Van Niekerk, 1987:11). According to Painter (1983:2) and Pretorius (1976:17) this phenomenon can be regarded as the dysfunctioning or malfunctioning of the family. Kapp (1991:460) says when educational problems are experienced as a result of unhealthy educational relationships - all educational endeavours of the child become negative. On the one hand the family dysfunctions as an educational system, and on the other hand, as a social system. In these families the parents are not adequately equipped to carry the responsibility of the physical, psychological, emotional and social welfare of the child, and consequently it results in the breaking down of the becoming of the child.

1.2   ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM

Most families function normally with both parents who are dedicated and responsible, as well as actively involved in educating the children God has granted them (Urbani, 1982:3). There are however many children who do not enjoy this privilege. According to the Department of Health Services and Welfare, on 31 March 1995, a total of 5124 children were living in 69 children's homes in the Republic of South Africa (Annual Report, 1995:44).

If the child is removed from his parental home, a substitute home must be found. For normal growth and development, every child needs a family within which he feels safe, where there are adults with whom he

can identify, and who are devoted to him (Starke, 1987: 36-42). Residential substitute care should emulate family models of care, and bring the residential care-experience as close as possible to the family experience. In this regard, Cassidy (1988:27-30) formulates as follows: "The quality of care that a child receives in residential substitute care, depends intimately on the quality of relationships that the child has with others while in care. The practice of substitute care must attempt to provide what the child has been lacking in the parental home."

In Britain, the United States of America and South Africa, certain basic principles which underlie the care of children in institutions, appear to be accepted. These include the following (Berridge, 1985:90-98):

- The value of an individual and his right to respect, and the best possible care in accordance with his individual needs.

- The importance of family life, and the harmful effects separation may have upon a child and his family, as well as the need for special care of the child while he is in the children's home. Importance is placed on the ultimate goal of returning the child to his family, after services have been rendered to reconstruct the family situation, should this have been necessary.

- Emphasis is placed on the selection of an appropriate form of substitute care for a child, according to his individual needs. The children's home thus has a particular role to play in the care of certain children for whom institutional care is indicated.

.   A basic knowledge of the nature of child-care, growth and development, human behaviour, personality development, education, medicine, psychiatry, psychology, recreation and social work are necessary for the worker in the field of institutional care.

Services in children's homes should be geared towards care and protection of children, as well as the treatment of the specific social and personality problems of children and parents. The task of a children's home lies in educating the child to be an adult, a person capable of sustaining human relationships. Clough (1988:132-133) says it is not sufficient to give children a home-like life, social education and a sense of security. It is equally necessary to apply skills and knowledge developed in a variety of fields in order that the child can develop as a well-adjusted person. Such an approach does not only care for the child's physical needs, but also aids in the development of his personality and innate skills and abilities. A sheltered and comfortable home is not enough. The child needs varied life experiences. The care of the child then needs to be geared towards a harmonious approach which stimulates improvement in his emotional health and social functioning. Residential care should embrace the total needs of the child (Biderman-Pam & Gannon, 1990:4-5).

Children in children's homes have numerous and unique problems. House-parents are faced with the challenging task of helping the child with these problems. In the children's home remedial education must be attempted which will include measures that will assist the educationally neglected child (Van Niekerk, 1991:32; Behr, 1982:43; Ferreira, 1992:44). Essences like interference, correction, support and assistance

form components of the education of the child in the children's home. In this light, the house-parents can be regarded as the **key** persons in the education of the child in the home. House-parents are pivotal in the education of the child in the residential care. Burger (1984:1) qualifies the house-parents' educational task as "remedial" or "corrective" educational actions. House-parents must therefore not only be equipped to "re-educate" the educationally deprived child, but also be totally conscious of the child's special educational needs.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In essence, the problem to be investigated in this study centres around the following:

- Are house-parents fully aware of the educational distress of the children in their care?

- Are house-parents adequately equipped to meet the special needs of the educationally neglected children in their care?

- Are house-parents aware of the important role they play in rendering support and guidance to the child in educational distress?

1.4 ELUCIDATION OF CONCEPTS

For the sake of clarity, it is essential that certain relevant concepts be clearly defined. Regarding the gender issue it must be noted that when reference is made to a child as "his" (male) it also implies "her" (female).

1.4.1 Children's home

A children's home is 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 (Swanepoel & Wessels, 1992:13).

1.4.2 House-parents

House-parents are persons directly responsible for the physical, psychic and mental care of the child in the children's home (Urbani, 1972:11). Staff of a children's home that are directly involved with the care and education of the child while he is in residential care (Handleiding, 1988:9).

1.4.3 Child-care worker

The child-care worker is the person who is compensated to take charge of a group of children, at the most six, for a part of the day. These children are removed from their parental home for any one or more of the reasons cited in Article 14 of Act No. 74 of 1983 (cf. 3.2.1). Some of the children's homes, however, prefer to use the term child-care worker, instead of house-parent. Where there is reference to the term house-parent in this study, the term child-care worker will also apply.

1.4.4 Substitute care

Substitute care refers to the total reallocation of parental roles and responsibilities for the care of a child from his parents to a parent

substitute. This form of care becomes necessary when a child's own home presents such serious deficiencies that he suffers deprivation (Swanepoel & Wessels, 1992:18).

1.4.5 Education

Van Rensburg, Landman & Bodenstein (1994:366) define education as the conscious, purposive intervention by an adult in the life of an non-adult to bring him to independence - bearing in mind that educative assistance is the positive influencing of the child by an adult, with the specific purpose of effecting changes of significant value. This influence is seen as being positive in providing assistance towards independence (Vrey, 1990:3; Sonnekus, 1985:97-100). Education is reliant upon adult intervention in the life-world of the child. A child cannot be self-educative, but needs a close, trusting association with an adult to realize his capabilities. This close relationship is not in itself conducive to education. It needs deliberate, intentional intervention in the world of the child to bring forth and improve desirable qualities and attitudes (Le Roux, 1992:47). Education exerts a positive influence on the child culminating in his ultimate acceptance into his community as a responsible adult.

1.4.6 Educational distress

Nel (Van Niekerk, 1987:9) says 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 - the child is not involved in an 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, are most often the result of poor bonding between them (Pistorius, 1990:52). This state of affairs may then readily give rise to educational distress. 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 (Pringle, 1987:69).

1.4.7 Educational responsibility

According to Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:518) the term " responsibility" is derived from the Latin word "respondere" which means pledge, promise, morally answerable for the discharge of a duty or trust; that for which one is answerable; ability to meet obligations or to act without superior authority or guidance. Education as unlocking of reality *for* and *with* the child can only be responsible if parents (guardians, house-parents) can contribute significantly towards the child's becoming a proper adult.

1.4.8 Family milieu

Kapp (1991:455) and Pretorius (1986:56-58) regard the following as ways in which the family, as an education milieu, can contribute to the child's adequate education:

- Provide a permanent and safe living space from which the child can explore and experience life.

- Provide answers to the child's 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.

. Be dynamic so as to accommodate the changing world and circumstances.

. 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.

1.4.9 Educational neglect

Van Niekerk (1987:11) maintains that when the parent (adult), who is the more responsible person, does not take care that the conditions for adequate education are met, the child is usually effectively, intellectually and morally neglected. The parent's "neglect of duty" especially lie in their failure to carry out their educative task as they ought to, and consequently allowing the fundamental educational structures to be inadequately realized. When an educator and a child communicate inadequately, all the acts of education itself are necessarily performed inadequately and the inadequate actualization of the child's psychic life is an inevitable result. Educational neglect also implies a breakdown in the dynamics of education, caused by the absence of any of the educational relationships of trust, understanding and authority in the pedagogic situation (Kapp, 1991:115).

1.4.10 Dysfunctional education

Education is in essence a task and a responsibility and can therefore never be guaranteed to run a smooth and successful course. The participation of the parents, the child, or both, in the education situation, might be insufficient in various aspects - there is dysfunction in the dynamics of the education situation. In this regard Ter Horst (Van Niekerk, 1987:8) declares that the educational act sometimes founders badly, resulting in a perplexing situation in which one is a complete loss to find a way out of the dilemma. Within a dysfunctional education situation the child under-actualises his psychic life. This directly pertains to the modes of his exploring, emancipating, distantiating, objectivating and differentiating. Dysfunctional education therefore per se implies that the child will suffer an impediment with regard his development (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988:72-73).

1.4.11 Theory of educational relationship

Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:554) describe the concept "theory" as a plan or scheme existing in the mind only, but based on principles verifiable by experiment and observation; a proposed explanation designed on account for any phenomenon.

Relationships imply an association between two referents and the child is busy throughout life with these associations, giving them meaning and so forming a relationship (Vrey, 1990:20-21). The relationship between educator (father and mother) and child will depend largely on their knowledge of each other, mutual trust and the parent as authoritative figure.

Within the safe space of the educational encounter , the house-parent and child are in a special relationship of trust. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988;161) say trust is a basic pre-requisite for sound educational love to develop. In the absence of a loving space for encounter, the child lacks the courage and confidence to explore the world and to gradually transform it into a familiar and sheltered place. The child's need for support evokes the relationship of trust. When we examine the relationship of trust more closely a number of its essentials are clearly evident, viz. trust, acceptance, expectation and entrustment.

Being aware of his want of knowledge and experience, the child turns to somebody who can lead him to certainty and knowledge - somebody who knows and understands the child and somebody the child himself knows. To constitute the education relation, the educator should know the nature of the child and its destination. The child must also know what is proper - he must know the demands of propriety. The relationship of understanding, however, comprises more than a mere understanding of each other by parents and child, it also implies coming to grips with reality

The relationship of authority between parent and child is fundamental for the appearance of the education relation. On account of the relationship of authority, the parent as educator has something to say to the child and the child listens to what the parent has to say. In the relationship of authority the parent gives evidence of the fact that he not only has authority, but also accepts the authority of norms which has a distinct bearing on his life and actions. The relationship of understanding and the relationship of trust are prerequisites for the existence of the relationship of authority (Gouws & Kruger, 1994:113-114).

The above theory forms the **foundation** on which this study is based.

1.5 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 educationally neglected child in the children's home at the hand of relevant literature.

- To conduct an empirical survey consisting of structured questionnaires, in order to ascertain the support rendered by the house-parents to children in the children's homes.

- In the light of the findings obtained from the literature study and empirical survey, formulate certain recommendations which could serve as guidelines to assist house-parents in meeting the educational needs of the child in the children's home.

1.6 METHOD OF STUDY

Research with regard to this study will be conducted as follows:

- A literature study of available, relevant literature.

- An empirical survey comprising a structured questionnaire to be completed by house-parents.

. Informal interviews with social workers, principals of children's homes and house-parents.

1.7 FURTHER COURSE OF STUDY

Chapter 2 will deal with the origin, development and "idealised" task of children's homes.

The educational distress of the child in the children's home will be discussed in chapter 3.

In chapter 4 a review of the house-parents' educational responsibility towards the child in the children's home will be given.

In chapter 5 an explanation of the research procedures and methodology employed in this study will be given.

An analyses and interpretation of data from the responses to the questionnaires will be given in chapter 6.

Chapter 7 will present a summary of the findings of this study, and offer 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 research is explained and certain relevant concepts are elucidated. Finally, the further course of this study is set out.

CHAPTER 2

**THE ORIGIN, DEVELOPMENT AND "IDEALIZED" TASK OF
CHILDREN'S HOMES WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE
DURBAN AREA**

CHAPTER 2

THE ORIGIN, DEVELOPMENT AND "IDEALIZED" TASK OF CHILDREN'S HOMES WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE DURBAN AREA

2.1   INTRODUCTION

The present stage in the development of residential care in the Republic of South Africa, and therefore also in KwaZulu-Natal and the Durban area, must be seen against a historical background. · The first three decades since the turn of the century, saw the establishment of quite a number of children's homes. These institutions were mostly the result of community and church efforts with the result that there was no thought of planning them on a national basis. Consequently we will still have homes today that are not quite suitably situated (Pieterse, 1983:9).

During the early years the initiative for the provision of facilities for residential child care came from different churches and benevolent societies (Berridge, 1985:16). The period 1930 - 1960 was characterised by a consolidation and standardisation of services. The first South African Children's Act was passed by Parliament in 1937 and for the first time statutory provision was made for the registration of children's homes. In 1952 the first national conference on Children's homes was held in Kimberley and this provided the impetus for improvement of standards of residential child care. Four years after this conference the Department of Social Welfare published the well known "Handbook for Children's Institutions" (NACCW, 1983:10). In 1960 the third and present stage was entered and this has been characterised by a greater measure of attention being focused on the child and his needs.

This period commenced with a new Children's Act, Act No. 33 of 1960, in which better provision was made for all deprived children (Swanepoel & Wessels, 1992;5).

Children who have to be removed from their family homes because of incapable parents, or other problems within the family, are cared for on a residential basis in children's homes, places of safety or special child care schools (Newsletter, 1994:1). Most of the children placed in residential care have been placed there by Court Order. This implies that the child has experienced serious physical and/or emotional deprivation. Such deprivation is often associated with loss or separation from parents, neglect and abuse, and insufficient interventional assistance by parents - the child is an educationally neglected child (Clough, 1988:3). The families from which these children are removed are often troubled by poverty, alcoholism, low educational and/or vocational achievement, detrimental social influences, isolation and marital problems (Gannon, 1988:87).

The National Child Welfare Policy is based on the premise that a child is best cared for within his own family circle (Swanepoel & Wessels, 1992:83). Therefore both state and private initiatives aim to preserve and strengthen the nuclear family. The referral of the child to a children's home is resorted to only when circumstances in the family are of such a nature that the removal of the child (at first only temporarily) from the family is regarded as the only plausible course of action (Keyter, 1993:229).

Today children's homes, previously called orphanages, are treatment centres for children from disturbed families, and no longer just permanent

homes for "orphans". Residential child care is always linked with treatment of the child's family by social workers, with the view of returning the child to parental care as soon as possible - provided that it is in the best interest of the child (Handleiding, 1988:4).

This chapter has specific reference to the origin and development of the following children's homes in the Durban area:

- Muslim Darul Yata Wal Masakeen Home
- Lakehaven Children's Home
- Aryan Benevolent Home

An overview of the South African welfare system, the professionalisation of child care and the "idealized task" of children's homes will also form part of the discussions in this chapter.

2.2 ORIGIN OF CHILDREN'S HOMES

2.2.1 Muslim Darul Yata Wal Masakeen Home

The following discussion on the history of the Muslim Darul Yata Wal Masakeen Home is based on the 1994 Brochure of the home. In 1934 Maulana Mukhtar Siddiqui and his associates, Messrs Kajeee, Anglia, Kharwa, Fakroodeen, Osman and Paruk felt that there was a urgent need for a place to provide shelter and care for the orphaned, the homeless and widowed. Mr Paruk, who was well known for his philanthropic gestures , offered the free use of a wooden cottage in Ananda Road, Sea Cow Lake for this purpose. A constitution was drafted and at a meeting held on 10 September 1934, the cottage officially opened as a home for destitute woman and children. Mr Mukhtar was elected as the chairman

of the first committee, which consisted of Messrs Osman, Sacoor, Suliman, Essack, Baychain, Kharwa, Khan, Farokdeen (treasurer) and Messrs Bux and Mayat as joint secretaries.

Within three years after the committee began its work, it suffered a serious setback. The premises were considered a health hazard and were closed down by the City Public Health Authorities. However, over this period of three years, forty-two women and children were accommodated in the wooden cottage. The bulk of the funds for running the home was provided by voluntary donors. The Natal Provincial Administration recognised the value of the work undertaken at the home and made an annual grant of £50 during its existence.

In 1937 a suitable property, consisting of a six-roomed cottage on nine and a half acres of land, was offered for sale in Westville. The committee lost no time and the property was bought for £1,600. When the seller, a Mr Raw, learned the purpose of the purchase, he made a generous donation of £750 towards the establishment of a place for the homeless. Further donations were received from Mr Moosaib (£2300) and the widow of the late Mr Sahib (£100) in memory of her husband. The Durban City council assisted the home in granting an exemption from property rates.

For twenty six years the home in Westville provided shelter to destitute women and children. However, in 1963, after the implementation of the new Group Areas Act, Westville was declared a residential area for whites only. In 1969 the home finally had to close its doors after being expropriated by the Department of Community affairs. Fortunately, seven acres of land in La Mercy had already been donated to the home

in 1964. This donation was made possible through the generosity of the La Mercy Township Developers and their agents, Messrs Kajee and Timol. An additional four and a half acres of land were purchased for the sum of R14,000 by the committee. A Home Planning Committee was formed on which Messrs Lockhat, Timol, Khan, Moosa and the late Messrs Bassa, Sultan, Timol and Dr Vawda served. Through the efforts of this committee, the first foundation stone for the new building was laid on 12 June 1971 by the late Dr A.M. Moola. The new children's home was officially opened on 23 November 1974, by the Chairman of the Board of Trustees, the late Mr E.M. Randeree. The home could accommodate 66 children with provision for future expansion.

In 1982 the needs of the home increased. There was a great need for professional staff, study areas, sheltered workshops and a recreational hall. Under a new management, with old guards Mr Timol and Mr Moosa, plans were drawn up to meet these needs. A spacious common room, study hall, recreation hall and living quarters for the principal, child care workers, social workers and general staff were completed at a total cost of R631 000. A very humble beginning at Sherwood had culminated in a modern, spacious and comfortable children's home for children in educational distress. Undoubtedly, with these updated facilities the future looks promising for the adequate education, psychological support and social orientation of the educationally neglected children in society.

2.2.2 Lakehaven Children's Home

The 1977 Brochure of the Lakehaven Children's Home presents the following information regarding the history of the home: The Lakehaven

Children's Home, affectionately referred to as "Lakehaven", was built after many years of thought and careful planning by the Durban Indian Child Welfare Society. While the society was engaged in caring for orphaned, destitute and neglected children, they realized the need for a home for these children. The widespread poverty among the Indian people, who had concentrated largely in and around Durban due to urbanisation, gave rise to numerous social problems and social ills. However, much of the impact of poverty was cushioned by the strong family ties among Indian people and the protective umbrella of the extended family system. However today, the extended family is gradually becoming a thing of the past and is being replaced by the nuclear family. This is largely due to social and economic pressures on families and movement to urban areas. Changes in society and times made inroads into the old order of Indian families with the result that there was a growing body of children who required help because of the breakdown of their own families.

Having decided to establish a home for neglected children, the Durban Indian Welfare Society looked around for suitable land, and finally purchased a 65 acre site in Sea Cow Lake for £2407 pounds - vacant, except for two military hutments. The price paid was nominal, and the land was purchased from Mr Kristian Pine Peter, who owned extensive tracts of land in this area. The Durban Indian Child Welfare Society raised the money to pay for the land from its members and well-wishers. In 1949, a deed of trust embodying a new constitution was prepared to enable the society to take transfer of the land, and later, a permit was obtained under the Group Areas Act of 1950 for Indians to own and occupy the land (Ramasar, 1996).

Early in 1950 the Durban Indian Welfare Society formed a Child Welfare Home Committee with the specific aim of attending to the planning and erection of a children's home on the purchased land. The first chairperson of this committee was Mrs P. Morel with Messrs Naicker, Baijnaith, Moonilall, Dass, Naidoo, Singh, Gopalsingh, Naidoo and Mrs Christopher as members. The preliminary drawn plans showed self-contained cottages with a centralised administrative block including offices, a clinic, a central kitchen, a common dining-room and a recreational hall. Each cottage would provide accommodation to 20 children with all the amenities of a normal family house. Initially boys and girls were accommodated in separate cottages.

The committee decided that the children's home would commence with one cottage and three staff members - a principal, a house mother and a gardener. Considerable discussion regarding a name for the home and the children that would be admitted took place among the committee members. Eventually, in January 1958, after a year of debate the name "Lakehaven" was decided upon. At the same time, consideration was also given to the establishment of a Board of Management, in compliance with the Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983 (Swanepoel & Wessels, 1992: 9-11). A separate constitution was drafted and taken through various stages for approval by the Council of the Society. An application was made to the State for the certification of the home, with initial accommodation for forty children. The Board of Management of Lakehaven held its first meeting on 23 July 1958, only a few days after the certificate of registration had been received from the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions.

On 1 February 1959, the first group of 9 children was admitted to

Lakehaven. Simultaneously, Mr and Mrs K.C. Naidoo were appointed as the first resident house-parents. Soon after, Mr K.C. Naidoo was also designated acting principal of Lakehaven and Secretary of the Board. Lakehaven was officially opened on Saturday, 1 November 1959, by Mr B.J. Vorster the Minister of Education, Arts and Science and Social Welfare and Pensions. At the opening, Miss L.M. McKenzie, the organising Secretary of the South African National Council for Child Welfare, said that the whole of South Africa was looking to the Durban Indian Welfare Society for leadership in their Lakehaven venture - the first of its kind in the country.

2.2.3 Aryan Benevolent Home

More than sixty years ago, a group of Indian immigrants and their descendants - market gardeners, stallholders, clerks, hawkers and shopkeepers - launched the establishment of the Aryan Benevolent Home in Mayville, Durban. Their purpose was to provide refuge for the homeless and destitute who roamed the streets of the city. The project was an ambitious one because the establishment and maintenance of such a refuge required much courage, work and determination. However, according to Rambharos (1980:24) these pioneers were determined and lived up to the principle of "no man shall be content with his own welfare, but he shall look for his welfare in promoting the good of all."

A property was bought in Bellair Road, Mayville, for the purpose of erecting the planned home. On learning of the newly established organisation's aims, donations from the public started to pour in. A Mr B.M. Singh spontaneously donated large sums of money for this good cause. Funds were also raised by staging concerts and by door-to-door

collections by the members. In May 1921, the Aryan Benevolent Home opened its doors for the first time in Bellair road, Mayville. Nearly six years later, in October 1926, the first group of orphans was admitted to the home. This was the beginning of the home's proud history of service to the community's homeless waifs, aged and destitute.

In recalling the history of the home, the present chairman, Mr S Rambharos (1995), formulates as follows: "A very important fact is that the Indian community was very poor in the early nineteen-twenties. During this time the majority of breadwinners were semi-skilled or unskilled workers. These were the people mostly relied upon when the home's foundations were laid and strengthened. It is against this background that the first wood and iron building was purchased and officially opened in 1921." The home expanded from time to time as the need arose, and nine major additions were added. It became apparent however that there was no longer room for expansion, and a ten acre site was purchased close by. However, when Cato Manor was declared a white area, the Aryan Benevolent Home had to abandon its plans for any further expansion in that area. The search then began for a new site in an Indian residential area.

Well over a decade was taken up in finding suitable premises for the establishment of a new home. In the planning of new residential areas, no provision was made for the building of institutions like Children's Homes - making provision for institutional care was not the responsibility of local authorities. In 1970 a school site relinquished by the Department of Indian Education was offered to the committee for the building of a new Children's Home. Although the topography of the offered land was such that not all ten acres could be used, no time was wasted in

acquiring the land.

The initial aim was to build a children's home and a home for the aged at the same time, but for various impractical reasons this dream was not realised. Plans for both homes were approved, but the building of the old-age home was postponed until 1989 with the hope that by then funds would be available. According to Rambharos (1980:2) the children's home was officially opened in December 1979, and in his opening speech Mr Rambharos stated as follows: "Our children are now in their new home. In a way we are happy that their moving to new and better premises coincides with the International Year of the Child and National Health Year. As the custodians of the children in our care, we pledge to carry out our task according to the United Nations Declaration of the Right of The Child. This declaration is in consonance with the ancient Vedic way of life which lays down guidelines as religious injunctions on parents and teachers to provide the child with all his needs for an all round development." At present 87 children are taken care of in the Aryan Benevolent Home but this number is expected to be raised to 98 soon.

2.3 OVERVIEW OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN WELFARE SYSTEM

2.3.1 Legislation

The Republic of South Africa's Constitutional Act of 1983 enabled welfare services to be organised on a racial basis. The following three Acts of Parliament provided the guidelines for the Republic's social welfare system (McKendrick & Dudas, 1987:24-28):

.   The Social and Associated Worker's Act 1978, as amended, provided for control over the profession of social work and associated professions (for example Child Care Workers).

.   The National Welfare Act, 1978, which provided, amongst other things, for the registration of welfare organisations, the co-ordination and planning of welfare services at local level, a South African Welfare Counsel to advise the Minister on welfare matters, and for regional welfare boards for the various racial groups.

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

Within the context of these three Acts, social welfare organisations were influenced by the provision of other acts which regulate the social welfare responses to persons who are disadvantaged or at risk. Principal amongst these acts are the following (Swanepoel & Wessels, 1992:15):

.   The Rehabilitation Centres Act, 1971.
.   The Aged Persons Act, 1967.
.   The Blind Persons Act, 1968.
.   The Child Care Act, 1983.
.   The Criminal Procedure Act, 1977.
.   The Disability Grants Act, 1968.
.   The Mental Health Act, 1973.
.   The Social Pensions Act, 1973.

2.3.2 Structure

Bearing in mind that a number of non-racial welfare structures exist side by side, it is nevertheless possible to demarcate the respective roles of state and community across all these parallel structures. According to McKendrick (1987:25) 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 organisations, has primary responsibility for non-statutory personal services (Berridge, 1985:67). "Personal social services" or "social services" refer to organised activities that are directly concerned with conservation, protection and improvement of human sources. They involve direct services to people (individuals, families, small and larger community groups) to promote their social well-being, to prevent the occurrence of social problems, and to reduce existing social problems (McKendrick, 1987:25). The term "social security" is used 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 (blindness, disability, old age, etc.)

Community and church-sponsored social services are delivered by local welfare organisations registered as such in terms of the National Welfare Act, 1978 (Swanepoel & Wessels, 1992:19). Local welfare organisations are usually affiliated to one of the national or provincial welfare bodies, eg. S.A. National Council for the Blind and National

Association for Child Care Workers. These national or provincial bodies co-ordinate and develop local services within their functional fields. Although overall control of social welfare planning is retained by the various state departments, four structures exist to facilitate co-operation between the state and the private sector on matters directly or indirectly related to welfare (NACCW, 1983:26):

.   Nationally and provincially organised 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 adhoc committee for dealings with the state.

.   The National Welfare Act, 1978 provides 24 regional welfare boards, representing state and community interests, and which have statutory powers to regulate, co-ordinate, promote and plan welfare activities within their religions. These boards are non-racial. At the national level, the multi-racial South African Welfare Council advises the government on social welfare needs.

.   For the purpose 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 in South Africa. Each regional committee is represented on the National Development Advisory Committee, which in turn 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. Within each region, state and community activities to promote the Population Development Programme are co-ordinated through inter-departmental committees on which the private sector is represented.

2.3.3   Children's Homes

The Child Care Act, 1983, as amended, provides for the keeping of a child in a children's home for up to two years, while social workers are expected to render reconstructive services to the child's parents, trying to deal with whatever pathology might have contributed to the child's plight (Swanepoel & Wessels, 1992:10). Social workers are further expected to be able to eventually re-unite these children with their families (Mbanjwa, 1990:7).

Being a more permanent residence, the children's home strives to provide intensive treatment for children. Assistance to the child includes assessing their emotional/behavioural problems and thereby devising an appropriate rehabilitation programme. Education is also an important component of this rehabilitation programme (Van Niekerk, 1990:34). Children from children's homes should attend schools in the neighbourhood so as not to isolate them from the larger community.

2.4   THE PROFESSIONALISATION OF CHILD CARE

The protection and care of children and juveniles was one of the first matters to receive attention from the central government after the founding of the Union in 1910 (Pieterse, 1983:9).   During the period 1910 to 1936, three Acts placed on the statute books laid the foundation for the care and treatment of the child in need of care, and the juvenile offender.   These Acts were the following (McKendrick, 1987:35):

- The Prisons and Reformatories Act, 1911.
- Children's Protection Act, 1913.
- Adoption of Children Act, 1923.

Certain principles contained in the first two Acts had already been laid down in previous legislation, as for example in the old Cape Masters and Servants Law of 1856 (NACCW, 1983:17).   These three Acts were in force throughout the country.   After the Union was founded, the government was confronted with the task of condensing a great variety of laws, dealing with the same subject, which had existed before 1910 in the different provinces, into one National Act which would apply to the whole country.   This resulted in a consolidated act, the Prisoners and Reformatories Act of 1911, concerning the protection of children and provision for juvenile offenders.   The Act contained rules regarding prisons, reformatories, industrial schools, children in need of care and institutions for alcoholics.   The Minister of Justice and the Department of Prisons were responsible for the implementation of the Act.

Although the Act was a praiseworthy step towards child protection, the fact that child care was grouped together with the treatment of criminals

left a stigma over a period of many years and caused great damage to the work of state institutions set up to care for children (Department, 1987:34). The Act nevertheless made provision for a magistrate or judge to commit a child, under sixteen years of age, who was in specific circumstances of need, to an industrial school or a certified institution. Private children's institutions could now also be certified for purposes of committal and from this time on a child in need of care could also be placed in the care of foster parents (Bacher, 1986:16).

A national law for the protection of children, however, as still needed. Accordingly the Children's Protection Act was placed on the statute book in 1913 (Millar, 1983:19). Certain important principles which were laid down in this Act were retained in later child legislation. Steps could now be taken against people who were responsible for the ill-treatment or neglect of children. Provision was also made for the establishment of State Places of Safety to which children could be taken temporarily until such time as they could be brought before a magistrate (Verslag, 1982:39). As far as institutional care went, reports now had to be submitted regarding the reason why children, who were detained for a specific time, had to remain longer in institutional care. This stipulation drew attention to the fact that institutional care was no longer to be regarded as permanent, but that the child, where possible, should be re-united with his family.

The necessity to revise the Children's Protection Act of 1913 came about because of a need to consolidate various related laws and public petitions to the government to draw up new legislation, placing the emphasis on preventative measures (Millar, 1983;17). The Children's Act, 1937, which was subsequently promulgated, is regarded as the most important

policy formulating document forthcoming in the field of child care in South Africa (Swanepoel & Wessels, 1992:5). Although the principles contained in the Children's Act of 1937 were essentially sound, the demands of the times and the developments which have taken place in the field of child care, made it necessary to revise and adapt the Act, as well as later amendments. A working committee was appointed in 1959, and its report and recommendations culminated in the acceptance of the Children's Act of 1960 as amended in 1965. Three new methods of treatment with regard to children in need of care was introduced (Swanepoel & Wessels, 1992:5):

- The referral of children to an observation centre,
- placement on probation, and
- referral of a child to an attendance centre.

These measures were specifically introduced with the purpose of making better provision for the treatment of an uncontrollable child and a child in need of care. It was also aimed at making irresponsible parents shoulder their responsibilities, by instituting conditions for them to meet, as part of the child's court order.

As a result of developments which have taken place in the field of welfare, and particularly in the field of social work, the need arose to revise the Children's Act of 1960. Therefore the Child Care Act of 1983 was placed in the statute book - taking over a large part of the Children's Act of 1960 (Department, 1987:45). Where existing and earlier legislation aimed at the protection of children placed the emphasis more on the child's position and the extent to which the child was in need of care, the new legislation concentrated on the parent or the family, and

in this way, began at the root of the problem. This was the most important new aspect in the Act and the signs of the times indicated that this new approach had become very necessary.

Carrying out the Child Care Act, 1983, amended in 1991, is the responsibility of the Ministers of the various Government Departments involved in the welfare matters. Apart from the role of the Government Departments, the various child care institutions and the child and family welfare organisations have a substantial role to play in achieving the aims of the Act, namely the promotion of the child's interests (Berridge, 1985:23).

2.5   THE "IDEALIZED" TASK OF THE CHILDREN'S HOMES

The children's home provides "substitute parents" for children removed from their own incapable parents. According to Pringle (1987:136-138), Clough (1988:70-71) and Vos (1994:38-40) the task of a children's home includes general functions, physical care, psychological (emotional support), social orientation, religious guidance and community involvement,

2.5.1.   General functions

With reference to the information brochures which were obtained from the children's homes, the house-parents are striving towards a common goal, i.e. the physical, psychological and spiritual education of the children entrusted to them. The children's home must offer the opportunity to every child to become a responsible, fully-fledged adult in society. The question that arises is, what does this care and education

of the child entail? In the children's home food, clothes, shelter and a variety of therapeutic services are made available to each child. Comprehensive, formal schooling and a variety of recreational facilities are also provided. The children's home aims to create an effective "substitute" parental home for the child in educational distress.

2.5.2 Physical care

The children's home aims to maintain a standard equal to that of an ordinary, middle class family in respect of meals, clothing, housing, recreation, etc. Children in a children's home are subjected to long periods of physical and psychological (emotional) neglect by their parents. Special attention needs to be given to the total well-being of the neglected child. Through balanced nutrition, regular medical attention and the nurturing of a healthy lifestyle, the child is provided with the necessary stamina to participate at all levels of life.

2.5.3 Psychological (emotional) support

The removal of a child from his parental home is and will remain a traumatic experience for the child. The child has been exposed to emotionally disturbing circumstances in a dysfunctional parental home. This aspect of the child in distress deserves immediate and special attention. The children's home aims to help the child in regaining psychological balance to lead a normal, healthy and stable life. Due to the child's emotional disturbances, special attention must be given to the building of healthy relationships. Assistance must be given to the child in developing his potential for establishing sound relationships with himself, other people, objects and God. In this regard the building of a

positive self-image, high moral values and standards is of utmost importance to the child.

2.5.4 Social orientation

In a children's home, the child is subjected to social instability due to his "life-in-plural" - his own family and the "substitute" family in the children's home. The child experiences divided loyalties between his parental home and the children's home. Uncertainties about his place in society and amongst his peers incites the child to feel unsure and experience disorientation in his environment.

The children's home has to support and lead the child in the establishment of steadfast relationships. This in turn will lead to the removal of uncertainties regarding the "overseeing" of his life-world, his orientation and position in the community and the development of impending social-interaction skills.

2.5.5 Religious (Spiritual) guidance

Religious (spiritual) guidance forms the cornerstone of the child's upbringing. The child's religious development has very often been neglected in his parental home. The task of restoring the child's faith in the sublime is placed on the shoulders of the house-parents. In the realization of this task, the house-parents have to pay special attention to religion, religious instruction and the dedicated attendance of prayer services and religious meetings.

2.5.6 Community involvement

The community has a major role to play in the upbringing of the child in the children's home. Continuous contact with parents and institutions in the community are made by the children's home. Keeping contact with the "outside world" enables the child to build a realistic picture of the community at large and prevents possible social isolation. The services provided by the children's home must therefore form an integral part of the broader child and family care services of a specific region.

Community involvement is important for the following reasons:

- The children's home executes a task on behalf of and for the community. The child from the children's home comes from the community and is just temporarily taken care of and educated until he can take his place once more in the community.

- Only the community can fulfil certain roles in the children's home. Without continuous contact with the community outside the children's home the child is incapable of gaining knowledge of community activities, the role model of a healthy and stable family life and realistic image of the outside world to which he must return.

- The state and church cannot see to all the expenses required in the running of a children's home. Therefore the children's home is forced to acquire financial support from the community.

.   Each child forms part of a community's future. Therefore time, money and energies spent on children's homes is an investment for the country and the community's survival.

2.6   SUMMARY

The first children's homes were mostly the outcome of community efforts, with the result that no thought was rally given to planning them on a national basis. This was also the case in the establishment of the Muslim Darul Yata Wal Masakeen Home, the Lakehaven Children's Home and the Aryan Benevolent Home in the Durban area. The Child Care Act No. 74, 1983, as amended in 1991, focuses on the inadequate parent rather than the neglected child. The aim of the Act is the rehabilitation of the family in order to re-unite the child with his parents. The house-parents in the children's home have an important role to play in the upbringing of the child in educational distress.

Accountable support for the child in the children's home must be viewed from the child's dependence on the assistance and guidance of responsible adults. Every supporting service for a child accomplishes a specific task in the interest of education. Supporting services are the organised help provided so that the educational occurrance can run smoothly. The child in the children's home finds himself in a situation of dysfunctional education. Accountable support for the child in the children's home implies that the child must be given meaningful help so that the situation of dysfunctional education, in which the child finds himself, may be rectified.

In the next chapter the educational needs of the child in a children's home will be discussed.

CHAPTER 3

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THE EDUCATIONAL NEED OF THE CHILD IN THE CHILDREN'S HOME

3.1   INTRODUCTION

According to Van Schalkwyk (1988:132) every supporting service for a child accomplishes a specific task in the interests of education. Supporting services personnel are essentially educationally qualified and provide organised help so that the educational process can run smoothly. With specific reference to the pedagogic situation Van Schalkwyk (1988:112) notes 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. In the case of the educationally neglected child in the dysfunctional family situation, supporting services will often include the removal of the child from his present situation and placement in alternative care for therapy. According to Van Niekerk (1990) every child must have an adequate upbringing, that is, education. This 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.

Accountable support for the child in the children's home must therefore be viewed from his dependence on education (Biderman-Pam & Gannon, 1989:67). The child that is removed from his parental home finds himself in a situation of educational distress. Meaningful help and support must be rendered to the educationally neglected child to rectify educational shortcomings. This implies that all presently available legislation that provides for the welfare of the child in the children's

home, and structures for accountable support for the child in the children's home, need to be investigated (Van Rensburg, 1994:180). The Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983, as amended, is a legal instrument sanctioning the services rendered to all children in the Republic of South Africa (Swanepoel & Wessels, 1992: 34). According to Mbanjwa (1990:2) community involvement has increased particularly in meeting the needs of neglected children, but there has also been a noticeable discrepancy between what the Child Care Act provides and what the private initiative is offering towards the alleviation of the plight of the child in the children's home.

In this chapter the admittance of the child to a children's home will be reviewed, factors that cause educational neglect will be examined and the needs of the child in educational distress will be discussed.

3.2 ADMITTANCE TO A CHILDREN'S HOME

3.2.1 The Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983 as amended

The Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983, as amended, mainly focuses on the inadequacy of parents to sufficiently care for their children. The following are the various ways in which children are dealt with in terms of the Child Care Act (Swanepoel & Wessels, 1992:5-9):

- 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 is 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 the 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 policemen, 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), 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 to have custody of the child in terms of Section 14(14) to have the custody of the child.

At the children's court inquiry the court must determine whether the parent is fit to have custody of the child in terms of Section 14 (14) of the Child Care Act (Child Care Act, 1983:12-20). The court has to determine whether:

(a)   the child has no parent of guardian;

(b)   the child has a parent or guardian or is in the custody of a person who is unable or unfit to have custody of the child, in that he:

    (i)   is mentally ill to such a degree that he is unable to provide for the physical, mental or social well-being of the child;

    (ii)   has assaulted or ill-treated the child, or allowed him to be assaulted of ill-treated;

    (iii)   has caused or conducted to the seduction, abduction or prostitution of the child or the commission by the child of immoral acts;

    (iv)   displays habits and behaviour which may seriously injure the physical, mental or social well-being of the child;

    (v)   fails to maintain the child adequately;

    (vi)   neglects the child or allows him to be neglected;

    (vii)   cannot control the child properly so as to ensure proper behaviour, such as regular school attendance;

    (viii) has abandoned the child; or

    (ix)   has no visible means of support.

From the above it is clear that the emphasis in Section 14 (14) of the Child Care Act is focused more on the incapable or inadequate parent than the neglected or deprived child (Raubenheimer, 1983:126).

Upon holding of a Children's Court Inquiry the Child Care Act makes provision for the following orders to be made (Vos, 1994:34):

.   That the child be returned to his parents under supervision
        of the social worker and on a 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
        court.

.   That the child be sent to a school of industries designated
        by the court.

3.2.2 Placement in a children's home

The decision by the Commissioner of Child Care to place a child in a
children's home as a result of one or more of the reasons in Section 14
(14) (Child Care Act, 1983:12-20) is influenced by a number of important
factors. The removal of the child from his parental home to a children's
home is such an important decision that it must be approached with
great circumspection. This necessitates that the decision regarding the
removal of the child from his parental home and placement in a children's
home should always be taken by a team of professionals (AKDB,
1992:23; Swanepoel & Wessels, 1992:48,140). The child. at all times,
has the right to available preventative and therapeutic services (Starke,
1987:12-13). These services can be offered successfully through an
effective multi-professional team. According to Rossouw (1988:12) and
Swanepoel and Wessels (1992:140) under ideal circumstances a multi-
professional team shall compose of:

- A doctor, preferably a child psychologist or paediatrician as head of the team.
- A social worker, preferably with specialized knowledge of child care.
- A member of the law.

Ad-hoc members can be co-opted with regard to the needs of specific situations. The members can include an educationist, therapist, youth worker and so forth. Dingwal, Eekelaar and Murray (1983:73) and Gannon (1988:54) say that when a decision is taken regarding the choice of a children's home for the child it is important to take the child's cultural and religious affiliation in consideration. The values and norms of different cultures and religions can only result in further confusion of the child in educational distress. The Investigation Committee into various aspects of child care has found that when children are placed in a children's home with a foreign mother tongue serious communication problems are encountered (Verslag, 1982:80). Inadequate or impaired communication intensifies the distress and negative self-image of the child (Ainsworth & Fulcher, 1981:32,59; Yeats, 1991:14).

With the aim of keeping together two or more children from the same family, it is preferable to place all the members of the same family in the same home (AKDB, 1992:35; Handleiding, 1981:21). In a children's home the children are to a great extent dependant on each other and the presence of a brother or sister is often meaningful to the child. Roos (1992:71) says that when brothers and sisters are placed in the same home they find the orientation to a new and strange milieu less distressing. The presence of a family member offers some security that serves as a buffer against the traumatic experience of being removed from the parental home.

Another important factor which must be taken into account in the child's placement is the distance of the children's home from the parental home. It is important to place the child in a home that is within an easy accessible distance to the parental home to maintain continuous contact between parent and child. Erasmus (1991:6) and Hatchuel (1986:15) refer to the necessity of continual contact between parent and child so that the bond between them remains intact. However, practical problems are quite often experienced in realizing this ideal because of the geographical locations of children's homes.

3.2.3 The child in the children's home

Children's homes (orphanages) were originally established to care for "orphaned", "neglected" and "impoverished" children. Today children are referred to children's homes because of unfavourable circumstances in the family and the detrimental influence thereof on the becoming of the child (Gannon, 1988:10). According to Dingwal, Eekelaar and Murray (1983:2-5) the initial need of residential child care was mainly for orphans and destitute children but changed with time to the caring of children from "broken homes" and "dysfunctional families" where parents, because of their behaviour and life-style, are regarded as being incapable to bring up their children.

Most children come to the children's home from a disharmonious family environment and a likewise disharmonious educational situation. Campion (1985:67,107) states that the child from a malfunctioning family possesses certain personality qualities or lacks certain qualities and therefore characterizes himself as being different from children from families that function "normally". Van der Merwe (1987:3) and Righton

(1986:5) view the child in the children's home as coming from a life-world characterised by negligence, impaired relationships, lack of appreciation, insufficient communication and often abuse. The child's incompetent parents do not fulfilled their roles as primary educators sufficiently. Because of their parents' incapability children are then deprived of the love, protection and security needed by every child. Therefore, children who are admitted to a children's home experience, to a lesser or greater extent, feelings of rejection, lack of trust in adults, helplessness and insecurity (Gannon, 1988:80-81; Pistorius, 1990:127). These children are regarded, amongst others, as more demanding, individually more complex and with a stronger longing for being loved and accepted than children from a "normal" family (Pringle, 1987:34-38).

The removal of a child from a dysfunctional parental home shows the inadequate realization of the educational responsibility by the parents - the outcome is an educationally neglected child.

3.3 EDUCATIONAL NEGLECT

In investigating educational neglect the educational situation must be taken as the point of departure. The fact that the child is removed from the parental home is indicative of the problematic situation in which the child finds himself. Educational neglect and impaired family relationships can lead to the educational distress of the child (Smit, 1990:362). The outcome of the educational shortcomings of parents is an educationally neglected child. According to Behr (1982:38) and Kapp (1991:115) educational shortcomings, amongst others, can include rejection, desolation, over-protection, improper discipline, physical neglect, etc. Pretorius (1976:18-19) regards educational neglect as the inadequate

education of the child by the parents. The parent, as an educator does very little towards the child's education. Parental guidance is insufficient, respect and discipline are lacking, too few requirements for self-limitation exists, values and norms are not obeyed and the child enjoys too much freedom. Educational neglect can be regarded as an impediment in the child's transition to adulthood. For the child in the children's home the essentials of education have not been adequately realized. Sonnekus (1986:124) maintains that in an education situation where the essentials of education are not adequately realized the child is deprived of accountable educational intervention by parents. Therefore a relationship exists between educational neglect, unaccountable educational intervention and inadequate realization of the fundamental educational essences (Van Niekerk, 1991:109,116).

From the above it may be concluded that unless the various pre-requisites for education are adequately fulfilled, the outcome is educational neglect - a child in educational distress. In the absence of mutual trust, understanding and authority, inadequate association and encounter between educator and educand, lack of direction giving norms and values educational neglect, emerges. Some of the factors that may possibly cause educational neglect will be highlighted in the following discussions.

3.3.1 Impaired educational relationships

From a psychopedagogical perspective this research deals with the manner in which the becoming of the child is realized through the educational relationship between educator (house-parent) and child. The educational relationship is characterized by the child's self-becoming or self-actualization and guided becoming or guided actualization by an

adult. The question therefore is how the child experiences his self-becoming and his self-actualization as guided becoming and guided actualization (Sonnekus & Ferreira, 1991:54).

The educational relationship between parent and child is realized through educational love. Du Plooy, Griessel and Oberholzer (1987:98) maintain that educational love forms the basis of all help and support rendered by the parent in the educational situation. Mutual love creates a safe space within which the child feels secure and gains confidence for the forming of further relationships (Smit & Le Roux, 1991:89). The educational relationship consists of a number of equally important relationships which can be regarded as the pillars of all education. The relationships that are essential for education is the relationship of trust, understanding and authority. Du Toit and Kruger (1991::2,5) state that if any of these relationships are impaired the education situation cannot be adequately realized. The outcome of the inadequate realization of the educational relationships is an educationally neglected child - a child in educational distress. The child experiences the impaired relationships as meaningless and reveals an unwillingness in the forming of educational relationships and the parent-child-relationship that is imperative for education is labialised. In the absence of mutual trust, understanding and authority between parent and child, the child is not only emotionally neglected, but also cognitively and normatively (Behr, 1982:38; Ferreira, 1992:27).

(1) Relationship of trust

In the education situation a special relationship exists between parent and child. The situation is special because it is a loving meeting-space in which the child experiences security (Nel & Urbani, 1990:13). The

safety experienced by the child gives the child in educational need the necessary confidence to ask a trustworthy adult for help. An authentic relationship of trust is realized when the child entrusted himself to his educators (parents). Within a relationship of trust the child expects acceptance by his educators as he is, will be, can be, ought to be and must be. Educators should also respect the child's child-likeness and human dignity (Smit & Le Roux, 1991:92).

The loving, physical care by the parent in meeting the primary needs of the child forms the point of departure for establishing a stable relationship of trust between parent and child (Bacher, 1985:4). The child experiences the relationship as "I am welcome, I am accepted, I feel at home with my parents, I am protected by them parents and they care about me." Yonge (1990:115) says that the loving acceptance and care by parents guarantees that the child will experience safety - a prerequisite for the relationship of trust. Nel and Urbani (1990:14) state that the child will only experience a relationship of trust in the education situation if the educator (house-parent) completely accepts the child in need, helplessness and brokenness. By his actions, attitude, dedication, love and belief in the child's educability the house-parent shows his trust in the child.

The relationship of trust is an affective (emotional) relationship and any disturbance thereof will be an emotional experience for the child. In a study of educationally neglected children, Behr (1982:39) has found that when the relationship of trust is impaired feelings of distrust, insecurity, uncertainty and conflict are manifested. Foster (1981:37) says that when the child is removed from his parental home his "blind childlike trust" is changed into "blind distrust". The child believes he has been

betrayed, deserted and left alone by his parents and experiences feelings of hatred, anxiety and powerlessness. Pretorius (1976:26) maintains that the child who believes he was "betrayed" by his parents experience difficulty in regaining trust in life again. In the light of his historicity the child in the children's home experiences difficulty in having trust in adults - he feels rejected and harmed by his parents (adults). He therefore seeks solace in establishing "relationships" with toys, friends and avoids the forming of intimate relationships with adults. To the child in the children's home his parents are no longer the trustworthy identification figures which he had faith in (Aldgate, 1980:81). The child feels he cannot trust his parents and they do not provide him with the security he needs. Parent and child cannot "read" each other any more - a clear indication of an impaired relationship of trust and a child in educational distress. The outcome of the lability of the relationship of trust is that the actualising of the essences of becoming, according to the developmental level of the child, is not adequately realized.

(2)   Relationship of understanding

The relationship of understanding is alternatively referred to as the relationship of knowing by educationists. The term "know", however does not have the same meaning as the term "understanding". Grobler and Möller (1988:47) say that to know somebody does not mean that one has a complete understanding or concept of that person. Understanding and conception are more comprehensive concepts than knowing and knowledge. It is therefore possible for the educator to "know" the educand without "understanding" him. In the course of this study the term "relationship of understanding" will be used. Yonge (1990:116) points out that the relationship of understanding is a

condition for creating and maintaining the education relation. To be able to educate the child, the educator (parent) has to understand the child well, and to acquaint himself progressively and more thoroughly with the child - especially regarding whether and to what extent the child is educable (Sonnekus, 1984:56). On the other hand the child (educand) should know who his educator is and what to expect of him. On the basis of their mutual understanding they both establish the educational relationship of understanding which can be initiated from the educator's side or from that of the educand.

In his relationship to the child it is important that the educator understands the true essentials of being a child. This includes knowledge and understanding of the child's educability which is dependent on his physical abilities, talents, shortcomings, limitations and individuality. The child's possibilities and talents are not only there, but are continuously changing as the result of the becoming and growth of the child on the one hand, and education and experience on the other hand (Harmse, 1985:4). The parent, as educator, needs to be knowledgeable and well aware of the continuous changes the child is undergoing in his transition to adulthood. According to Du Toit and Kruger (1991:27-28) it is only possible for the parent to render adequate support and assistance to the child in each phase of becoming if he understands the different phases of becoming.

In the dysfunctional family where the education of the child is inadequately realised, the parents lack sufficient knowledge of the nature of the child. Parents do not understand the child and experience difficulty in understanding what being a child mean. According to Nel and Urbani (1991:19) the forming of an authentic relationship of

understanding is not possible in the absence of the loving devotion of parents. Parents do not understand the needs of the child and the child does not come to understand the parent as an educator who can and will help him. Behr (1982:39) says the parent who neglects the child educationally lacks responsibility, commitment, perserverence and consideration. In such a dysfunctional education situation feelings of aggression, guilt, uncertainty, anxiety and helplessness are experience by the child (Kapp, 1991:115).

The relationship of understanding also implies that the parent (as educator) has to understand what the future helds for the child and what the aim of education is. Bacher (1985:3-4) points out that the parent has to know and understand the essences of adulthood and be able to interpret it according to the child's level of becoming. The successful realization of the educational aim requires from both the educator (parent) and educand (child) adequate and mutual understanding. Behr (1982:37) also remarks that if the educational aim is inadequately realized due to parents' misconception or misinterpretation of the relationship of understanding, the outcome is inadequate exemplification by the parents and an insufficient experience by the child. The child who is not sufficiently supported by his parents to come to an adequate understanding of the aim of education experiences the relationship of understanding as impaired, and this is then manifested as unacceptable behaviour.

(3) Relationship of authority

Arising from the Latin words "auctoritas" and "augere" which mean "power" and "to help" educational authority implies that the educator

(parent or teacher) conveys the meaning of authority to the child by "telling, setting an example or helping" the child to behave in an appropriate manner (Van Rensburg, Landman & Bodenstein, 1994:318). Therefore, educational authority would in essence differ from all other forms of authority that are legal or official. Educationally authority is based on the love and affection that the educator has for the child (Drescher, 1991:73). Loving authority allows the child to feel safe and cared for and this leads to willing obedience to authority by the child (Pistorius, 1990:45). According to Du Plooy, Griessel and Oberholzer (1987:105) educationists agree that authority is a indispensable for all education. In the absence of authority, in one form or another, the education situation can not be realized and education will not occur (Yonge, 1990:116). According to Harsch (1990:3) the educator, as figure of authority, can change his association with the child into an education situation solely on the strength of the authority that he has. This authority is valid while the child has not yet sufficient responsibility and knowledge to make an independent choice between what is right and what is wrong, what is acceptable and what is unacceptable.

Before the child is prepared to contemplate the establishment of a relationship of authority it is necessary for him to accepts authority and be able submits to it. To obey authority the child must not only acknowledge authority but also understands it - therefore the necessity for the adequate realization of the relationship of understanding (Grobler & Möller, 1988:49). For the acceptance of educational authority by the child a relationship of trust must exists between the educator and the child. The relationship of trust and understanding are imperative for the realisation of the relationship of authority (Sonnekus, 1984:5).

The exercising of authority in the educational situation assumes the personal realization and practice of the prescribed norms and values by the educator. If the educator (parent) is not in control of the educational situation at all times, then he is merely a communicator of norms and values. In such an educational situation the child will not experience authentic authority and education is inadequately realised - in such a way that the child will not succeed in acquiring and accepting norms and values (Van Rensburg, 1994:119).

Pistorius (1990:58) states that as long as the educationally neglected child is deprived of a responsible and caring educational experience, he cannot attain a real acceptance of authority. Pretorius (1976:48) maintains that the longer the child is affectively neglected, without reassurance or support guaranteed, and where inconsistent authority is experienced, no stable basis for the acceptance of authority will be founded.

The acceptance of authority is also a cognitive task for the child (Yonge, 1990:116). When the cognitive actualization of the child is hindered by educational neglect, the relationship of authority is also inadequately realised because the child has not acquire satisfactory appreciation or knowledge of authority.

Acceptance of authority by the child also requires sustained discipline. Grobler and Möller (1988:42) state that in the educational situation, discipline means the voluntary acceptance of the educator's authority by the child. The inadequate exercising of authority by incompetent parents can obstruct the child's development into a self-disciplined existence. An educationally neglected child will seldom manifest sufficient self-discipline.

3.3.2 Under-actualization of the educational course structures

From the particular educational relationship between the parent (as educator) and the child (as educand) the educational events take on a particular course or sequence. This refers to educative occurrences as educational activities consciously and purposefully planned to assist, lead and guide children who need the assistance and support of parents (educators). According to Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:xxiii) the educational act is characterized by association, encounter, engagement, intervention, assent, periodic breaking away and eventual return to the educational association. Although the educational sequence structure can be positioned next to the educational relationship it forms an inseparable unity (Möller, 1990:348). The actualization of the educational sequence structure can only be effective when the educational relationship has been adequately realised.

It is important to remember that education has a dynamic occurrence and the outcome thereof remains unpredictable. Therefore the above mentioned educational sequence structures will not always necessarily be realized in a determined order. The educational situation comprises the following educational sequence structures (Grobler & Möller, 1988:52-55):

(1)   Educational associative situation

In the educational associative situation parent (educator) and child (educand) are together in educational communication. Being together in this education situation adult and child are aware of each other through sensory communication in space and time. Du Plooy, Griessel and

Oberholzer (1987:119) emphasize that being together educationally is the basis of, and pre-condition for, the realization of the educational sequence and eventual intervention in the life of a child by the educator. Any associative association is not necessarily a educational association, and even when the adult exercises some sort of influence on the not yet adult, the influence may be of a negative kind. The educationally associative situation has a true educative influence which tends to elevate and bring about change for the better in the child.

Van Niekerk (1987:19-23) states that if it should happen that the parent is not aware of the child's need for help, or if the child experiences the associative relation with his parents as labile, then the associative situation cannot be realized as educational togetherness between parent and child. Education association is therefore not effectively actualized, and the child may experiences feelings of insecurity and loneliness. The child also experiences the affective, cognitive and normative education association as inadequate and perceives his becoming as impaired. In experiencing the educational associative situation as insufficient the educationally neglected child reveals an unwillingness to explore and emancipate, and a reluctance to differentiate and objectify (Vos, 1994:63).

(2)   Educational encounter

The educational togetherness or association relationship become more intimate, fonder, more confidential and more intense to lead to an encountering relationship in which the educator (parent) can see clearly whether it will become necessary for him to interfere with the child's actions (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987:121). The *to-be-together*

(educational association) of the educator and educand must change into *being-with-each-other* (educational encounter) for purposeful educational concernment to become possible.

In the educational encounter parent (educator) and child (educand) are closely committed to each other. Parent and child both enter each other's life-world. According to Van Niekerk (1987:49) the educational encounter situation creates with its nearness, turning-to-in-trust, presence-in-trust, experiencing-of-belongingness and accessibility, the possibility for educative moments to become perceivable. The educational encounter is featurized by a striking and accompanying attraction , a natural affinity between educator and educand, and a deep seeded affection the educator discloses towards the child-in-need. The outcome of such an atmosphere, where love and affection are at work, is that the child will experience feelings that he is being safeguarded, and that he can entrust himself to his educator's guidance (Bacher, 1985:3).

When the educational encounter relation is inadequately realized, the child is not given sufficient guidance, is not made aware of appropriate values, does not experience trust, does not see the need to obey authority or accept responsibility and does not learn to make decisions (Kapp, 1991:455). The outcome is a child in educational distress who fails to identify with a parental figure that provides a good example. In the family where the spontaneous and loving support of parents is absent, either because of affective exclusion or the restriction of association situations as opportunities for encounters - the educational encounter situation is not satisfactorily actualized. The consequence of this is a labile education relationship in which the child discloses an unwillingness for mutual trust and understanding (Ferreira, 1992:29). In

the encounter situation where it is evident that the parent is not prepared to be an educative guide, the child experiences insecurity and thus become a child in educational distress.

(3)   Educational engagement

According to Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:327,375), in the educational course structure, being engaged refers to the willingness of educator and educand to accept responsibility for the realisation of the educative occurrence. To be educationally engaged the educator (parent) and educand (child) must be prepared to accept responsibility for the constitution of educative relationship to actualise the educative occurrence as pedagogic engagement. Both educator and educand must accept responsibility in educative situations - the responsibility must be actualised in an increasing manner.

If the educator (leader) decides to assumes full responsibility for concerning himself with the child it is his task to influence the educand as one who is being accompanied. The child must also assume his childlike responsibility which emanates from his educator's concern. As soon as both educator and educand are each willing to assume responsibility for his own share in this particular involvement, the "engagement" relationship becomes perceivable (Pretorius, 1976:20).

If the parent ignores the inducement to intervene educatively, approvingly or disapprovingly, and allows "engagement" situations to pass by, he will be labelled as an irresponsible parent and educator - one who is not a bearer of the "norm-image of adulthood". The parent who does not assume responsibility for the establishment of an educational relationship

also disclose his unwillingness to be accountable for his share in the "engagement" relationship (Ferreira, 1992:43). This refusal becomes perceivable in the inadequate realisation of the educational relationship structures - mutual liability for the establishment of relationships is not realised. The parent-child-relationship is not aimed at education and the child still finds himself in need of guidance, security and assurance (Pretorius, 1976:23-24). The educationally neglected child experiences educational engagement as insufficient and feels insecure, uncertain and even threatened which may then lead to aggressive, immature and inconsistent behaviour.

(4) Educational intervention

The actualization of the educational relationship structure, educational association, encounter and engagement, effect the responsibility of educational intervention as an outcome of reasons, perceptible as they are, as to why education has occurred (Sonnekus, 1984:6). A relationship of intervention reveals itself when the educator (parent) decides to concern himself with the child-in-need of assistance, and he has perceived the willingness of the child to accept educative help. According to Grobler and Möller (1988:54-55) the parent, in his educative interventions can be supportive in two ways. If the parent observes that the child is doing something which is contrary to particular demands (norms) of propriety, it is his duty to intervene with the view of changing the child's life for the better - educational disapproval. When the child does something which is in accordance with duly accepted norms the parent must affirmatively intervene by concurring and expressing happiness with the child's action - educational assent (Sonnekus, 1984:6-7). Both parent and child must participate in this

educative occurrence and interventions can only be meaningful if aimed towards assisting the child in his becoming an adult.

Parents who educationally neglect their children do not intervene in a educationally significant fashion. By not intervening in what the child has done, or is doing is evidence of a parent who neglects his educational responsibility, the educational intervention relation is inadequately realised. Although parent and child are together in an encounter, the intervention can lack sufficient educational intervention from the parent. There exists a serious gap between the adult image the child is aiming toward, and the image the educator holds as an example - the personal way of life of the educator does not occur in terms of the norms compulsory for responsible adulthood (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987:127). The child that perceives the norms in his parents way of living to be different to the ones prescribed by society, loses trust in his parents which not only leads to the impairment of the relationship of trust but also the relationships of understanding and authority.

(5) Return to the educational associative situation

As soon as the educational intervention has been actualized it is necessary and natural to return to being together educationally as quickly as possible giving release to the tension as the outcome of intervening educationally (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987:128). According to Pretorius (1976:20) the return creates an opportunity for the child to be himself and to become himself. When the educand and educator return to the educative association the child is able to assimilate what he had to change and also how he had to do this in terms of the demands of propriety. He now receives time to recall how and when he was

influenced to live up to acceptable norms and values. Sonnekus (1984:8) says in returning to the educative situation the child finds more time to decide to carry on, responding positively to interventions that may come his way, and progress on his becoming an adult in his own right. The "second" educational associative situation can therefore be regarded as "re-experiencing" or "re-living" of the educative occurrence by the child.

Should it, however, happen that this "second" educational associative situation also does not form a suitable basis for educational encounter, the actualizing of the educational sequence structure will fail again and intensify the educational distress of the child. The child experiences an increasing need for guidance *en route* to adulthood and reveals a labilised attitude towards acquiring knowledge about himself, other people and things.

(6)   Periodic breaking away

Although parent (educator) and child are partners in the educative occurrence they have to leave each other for shorter or longer periods - periodically breaking away (Grobler & Möller, 1988:55). The activities performed by the child when he has broken away from the education situation, are realized in other situations, affording him numerous opportunities to act independently. Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:480) say that to break away periodically from the education association, the child must prove to the adult that he already has some sense of responsibility. If the child shows signs of responsibility, he is able to increasingly take responsibility for his own actions. Sonnekus (1984:7) says that the periodic break away provides

to the child an opportunity to assume independently and on his own account, his connection with reality and to actualize it, and to further do so in a stylish manner. It must also borne in mind that this is a periodical breaking away, for the child must be sure that he can at any time return to his parents (educators) for assistance and support.

The educationally neglected child must also release himself from his parents because he yearns to become someone himself. For the child in educational distress, the educational relationships as well as the educational sequence structures have been inadequately realized. The outcome thereof is that the child has to attribute meaning to his life-world by means of labialised affective and impaired cognitive experiences. The child, therefore, experiences the educative togetherness with his parents as less meaningful - the parents do not provide sufficient security, love, trust and support to the child.

Where parents neglect the education of the child the periodic breaking away culminates in "fleeing", the implication of which is that the parent and the child have been unsuccessful in actualizing the fundamental educational structures. These structures is intervowen to such an extent that the failure of some kind or other in the one sphere, is detrimental to actualizing the other structures (Behr, 1982:67).

3.3.3 Inadequate realization of educational activities

Educative occurrences are dynamic occurrences, and include events and happenings and are therefore characterised by activities. Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:470) say that the educative occurrence is a dynamic occurrence which takes a particular course, because

educator (parent) and educand (child) are actively engaged in characteristic activities which are known as the educational activity structures. The adequate realization of the educational relationships and the educational sequence structure are however essential for the successful accomplishment of the educational activities. Disturbed educational relationships and the under-actualization of the educational sequence structure may have the inadequate realization of the educational activities as outcome.

Sonnekus (1984:8-13) and Vos (1994:66): give, *inter alia*, the following reasons for the inadequate realization of the educational activities:

- In the absence of efficient educational guidance by parents the child is not adequately assisted and supported to give meaning to, and reach the common characteristics of a particular being, or to get to know reality and his own relatedness to reality.

- Parents do not give sufficient guidance to the child in the educational situation so that he can take up his position, according to the demands of propriety, and live according to these demands.

- Parents who disobey the authority of norms or do not live up to prescribed norms, fail to ensure that the child increasingly obeys norms and shows reverence for what ought to be.

- The parent who is not prepared to enter into an understanding, trusting and authoritative encounter with the child does not believe in the human possibilities of the child. The possibilities of the child are not adequately actualized and his becoming independent *en route* to adulthood is hampered.

- The child experiences insecurity when parents do not offer him a sheltered space which is characterized by acceptance, love trust and support. The child who does not feel safe is hesitant to venture out and explore the unknown world.

- Parents who do not accept accountability for their share in the educational relationship, fail to support the child to increasingly accept responsibility for his share in the relationship. The child fails to accept responsibility for his mistakes.

- Through their inadequate support and unsuccessful presentation of the prospects of the future, parents do not succeed in directing and giving the child hope for future adulthood.

- When parents do not adequately support the child in the actualization of his possibilities towards adulthood the child will reveal insufficient understanding, acceptance and appreciation of his given possibilities.

- If parents do not accept responsibility to educatively support the child in the gradual fulfilment of his destination, the self-actualization of the child can not be realized efficiently. Thus for the child to experience adulthood, as final destination is unattainable .

- Parents who fail to show the necessary respect for the human dignity of the child in the education situation, violate the child's worthiness of being human. The child is hampered in the discovery of his own dignity and the showing of respect for the dignity of others.

- Parents with inadequate understanding of the child are not efficiently equipped to offer accountable support to the child for increasing self-understanding. The child comes to an incomplete self-understanding which hinders the discovery of his human possibilities.

- If parents disregard the limitations placed on their freedom as educators their educative intervention do not occur in terms of the compulsory norms prescribed by the aims of education. Such parents fail in guiding the child to authentic freedom that embraces obedience as voluntary commitment.

3.3.4 Readjustment of the educational aim structure

If education is not aim directed , it is aimless and meaningless. Du Plooy, Griessel and Oberholzer (1987: 136) stress the fact that when the

participants in the education situation strive towards specific educational objectives, it is not only the child who realises his aim, but it is also the educator (parent) who succeeds in this regard. The encompassing aim of all education is to educate the child to live his life as a child fully, in view of preparing him to do so on all levels of his becoming an adult. The educational relationships, educational sequence structure and educational activities are realized within the education situation, with the aim of realising the educational goal.

In an educational situation where the educational relationships, sequence structure and activities are not adequately realized, the educational goal structures will also not be adequately realized. The under-actualization of one or more of the above mentioned educational structures might have as outcome the inadequate actualization of the other structures. The under-actualization of educational activities result in readjustment of the realization of the demands of proper human existence. According to Vos (1994: 72) the following might be regarded as readjusted norms and values of full-fledged adulthood, which are the outcome of the inadequate educative intervention by incapable parents:

(1)   Inadequate significance attribution to own existence

The demands of propriety are not exemplified to the child in a responsible manner by the incapable parents. Parents are not involved in the world with the aim at personal meaning acquisition and meaning attribution, and therefore objects and relationships do not acquire a personal significance for them or for the child they educate. Significance attribution on the affective and the cognitive level are experienced as labile by the child. The outcome of which is often misunderstanding of

human existence and accountability.

(2)   Inadequate self-judgement and understanding

Living according to disapproved educational measures and the under-actualizing of the relationship of understanding have as outcome the situation in which the child does not understand the demands of propriety sufficiently, and is not able to interpret and realize his human potentials properly.

(3)   Unworthiness of being human

Incompetent parents are not fully aware of their own human dignity and therefore they do not exemplify the significance of the demands of propriety in their actions. Pursuing the requirements of propriety are not regarded as worthy by these parents, and the child's understanding of these demands is realized inadequately. The child will not be educated to show reverence for his own dignity and also for that of his fellowmen.

(4)   Inadequate moral-selfdetermination

The labile affective experiences and incoherent cognitive experiences of the child in educational distress have as outcome reliant decision making and irresponsible actions. The under-actualization of morally independent decision making and responsible conduct may result in impetuous decisions and actions by the child. The child's integrity of conscience is insufficiently realised because of a lack of sense of inner morality.

(5)   Inadequate norm-identification

Parents who do not act according to, or live under the authority of norms, fail to identify themselves with these norms. These parents also fail to adequately guide the child to live voluntarily according to the demands of propriety and to identify with the appropriate norms.

(6)   Inadequate appropriation of a life philosophy

In a situation of educational neglect the child does not experience authentic faith, trust and love *en route* to adulthood. The special requirements of the philosophy of life which the parents hold is not passed on to the child - the child is not confronted with the values and norms inherent to a specific philosophy of life; the outcome of which is inadequate meaning giving, and making choices with regard to values and norms. In his becoming, the child does not feel compelled to realize the values and norms inherent in a specific philosophy of life. As an adult the child does not accept the demands of propriety and does not use his powers and talents properly in service of his fellow-man and himself.

3.4   EXPERIENCING OF EDUCATIONAL DISTRESS

The child in the children's home comes from a dysfunctional education milieu and finds himself in an educational crisis (Van Niekerk, 1987:24). 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 freedom to be responsible, and thus also the disregarding of accepted norms and values (Maree, 1990:4). The ascribing of

significance of insufficient quality is clearly evident in the life-world of the child in the children's home - the child reveals signs of being unloved and left alone, a low self-esteem, interpersonal distrust, anxiety and depression.

Lally (1984:248) states that the level upon which the educationally neglected child communicates within his life-world, and gives meaning to it, is inadequate for his transition to a full-fledged adulthood. Because of the deficiency in communication the child in the children's home is often incapable to improve the quality of the impaired relationships that exists in his life-world. This inability to give significant meaning to his life-world in establishing meaningful relationships, results in a discrepancy between what the child in the children's home is and what he ought to be as a person in his own right.

3.4.1 The concept experience

According to Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:383) the term experience is derived from the German concept "erfahren" which means to be in motion, and while being in motion to undergo or experience something. The verb "erfahren" implies the acquisition of knowledge, getting to know, and becoming aware of something.

The child learns that experiences have a denotative (logical) and connotative (emotional) character, and it is this which makes an experience unique to the one who experiences it. Gouws and Kruger (1994:6) note in this regard: "What I know another may know, but what I experience is unique to me." An experience can be positive or negative, as seen in physical perceptions (pain, comfort, energy), social

relationships (enjoyment, rejection, acceptance), with objects (frustration, success) and spiritual experiences (peace, solace, confusion) - all describe the individual's subjective experiences in terms of moods and feelings. Nel and Urbani (1990: 106-107) assert that each experience is accompanied by feeling and willing, different in quality and intensity. Du Toit and Kruger (1991:19) state that experience is related to the emotional and affective dimension of being human and indicates an evaluation of a fluid situation in broad categories of pleasant and unpleasant. Examples of feelings experienced, such as excitement, disappointment, gaiety and frustration during involvement in a situation indicates how a person is emotionally effected by the situation. Experience never occurs in a vacuum, but is related to a person's situation. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:83) and Vrey (1990:42) give the following essential components of experience:

- Experience determines the quality of relationships.

- Experience is emotional and is evaluated in terms of varying degrees of pleasantness and unpleasantness.

- Experience stresses the uniqueness of each person's relationships.

- Experiences, especially their intensity, determine the clarity and stability of the meanings assigned by a person.

- Experience inhibits or incites a person's involvement in every attribution of meaning.

. Experience is a meaningful event, involving the total person who experiences certain feelings and who also knows that he experiences them.

. An educator's praise or disapproval is a determining factor in the positive and negative intensity of the subjective experience.

Experiencing is a way of giving meaning to the world around us and this can be effected at three levels, viz. affective, cognitive and normative. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:83) say a person (child) directly experiences a situation and becomes the recipient of the values and meanings of that particular situation. No one can select his or her experiences but when one undergoes a certain experience, meanings are assigned which acquire a personal dimension. With personal involvement the experience will have a conative dimension. It is through the child's numerous experiences of reality that his own unique life-world comes into being - without sufficient experience the child's life-world fails to come into being (Urbani, 1982:34).

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 relationship with himself, others, things around him and God. Therefore all of the child's experiences in the children's home take place within:

. his relationship with himself;
. his relationship with others;
. his relationship with objects and ideas; and
. his relationship with religion.

3.4.2 The establishment of relationships

A meaningful life-world is created when the child, by attributing meaning, forms relationships with himself, people, objects, ideas and religion. 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 relationships formed by the child are therefore an expression of his life-world that forms his psychological space and reality to which he is orientated (Nel & Urbani, 1990:14; Vrey, 1990:21).

It is not unexpected that the child in the children's home experiences difficulty in the forming of relationships (Behr, 1982:38). Disturbed family relationships (between the various members of the family , and especially between the child and his parents) transform the establishment of relationships by the child as problematic. The educationally neglected child "views" all adults in the same light as his parents. A disturbed relationship between parent and child is characterized by mistrust and therefore the child finds it difficult to trust adults. Penfield (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988:83) states that there seems to be a mechanism in the brain which sub-consciously interprets present experiences in terms of past (forgotten) experiences, thus making the individual believe that the full meaning is in the present experience. The absence of love and acceptance by parents may also result in the child being reluctant in the forming of relationships. Vos (1994:77) says the impaired relationships experienced by the child have as outcome a "defence" attitude by the child in forming relationships. The child's

longing for love and acceptance are overshadowed by his fear for rejection which manifests as unwillingness in the forming of meaningful relationships. According to Pringle (1987:65) an inability to build and maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships are characteristic of educationally neglected children.

(1)   Relationship with the self

Knowledge of one's identity consists of recognizing and identifying oneself and the formation of a self-concept. The self is compared with peers and others and one's abilities in relation to norms. Vrey (1990:25) says by comparing himself with peers and others, with their achievements in handling natural or cultural objects, the child evaluates himself and his abilities in relation to the norms. All give rise to the self-concept and a polarization effect of self-acceptance or self-rejection (Raath & Jacobs, 1990:1,12). The child, as an outcome of his physical experience, enters into a relationship with the world by means of his body (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987:62). Positive feedback and concomitant experiences of success result in a positive evaluation of the self, and negative feedback and concomitant experiences of failure results in a negative evaluation (Du Toit & Kruger, 1991:37). The majority of children in the children's home suffer from a negative self-concept because they feel "I am not wanted and therefore all my deeds and actions are worthless." The child in educational distress experiences his self-concept, which becomes the focal point of relationships, as meaningless and thus fails in establishing meaningful relationship. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988: 84) maintain that no child can truly become adult without a definite, clear self-concept.

The way people respond to each other is partially determined by physical characteristics. Educational neglect often also includes physical negligence of the child (Pringle, 1987:66). The child who holds a negative body-image of himself experience difficulty in developing a positive self-concept. Le Roux (1987:73) adds that the under actualization of physical (motor) abilities compound this negative body image when the child compares himself with other children and realizes that in many areas he cannot even compete with them.

Body concept refers to the cognitive knowledge an individual has of his body (Galambos & Dixon, 1984:285). The body concept is obtained by consciously learning all the parts of the body and their individual functions. As a result of educational neglect the child's awareness of his body, which includes his subjective image of himself, his intrinsic awareness of his body and its potential, and his objective knowledge of the body and body functions, is not realized adequately and the total psychological becoming of the child will suffer. The child's development of independence could be hampered, a feeling of insecurity and negative self-concept created, and the ability to explore be delayed (Raath & Jacobs, 1990:19).

(2)   Relationship with others

(a)   Relationship with biological parents

Literature in the field of child development has come to the unanimous decision that the most significant others in the child's life is his parents (Vrey, 1990,22; Du Toit & Kruger, 1991:12). For every child the interaction in the small, personalised reference group of the family means

a safe haven from where he can face the outside world. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:159) state that a harmonious parent-child-relationship is essential, and also the single most important factor alleviating any deficiencies the child might experience. Parents who consistently spend time with and show interest in their children, who are warm and loving, yet firm, are likely to encourage a salubrious relationship between parent and child. Reality reveals that a harmonious relationship between parent and child is marked, among other things, by the presence of love, trust, shelter (security) and support (Van Rensburg, Landman & Bodenstein, 1994;529).

Most of the time biological parents experience the removal of a child to a children's home as traumatic. Aldgate (1980:24) states that the parents regard themselves as incapable of caring for the child, and feel they have failed in their parental educative task. With the removal of the child to the children's home the parents lose their position of authority over the child - they are no longer the most significant others in the child's life. The responsibility of caring for, and educating their children, is taken away from the parents. Eloff (1986:61) says these parents often feel the child is no longer dependent on them because they are cared for in the children's home. Feelings of rejection and elimination experienced by parents, tend to intensify the already disturbed parent-child-relationship.

After being admitted to the children's home the child realises that he can no longer depend on the love and care, although inadequate and erratic, of his own parents. Jewett (1981: 22) says the child experiences feelings of despair, sorrowness, mistrust and rejection and the fear of being taken away from incapable parents has been realised. According

to Van der Merwe (1987:3) children placed in a children's home often despise their parents for not being able to adequately care for them. They feel that their parents did not love them enough to care for them - their parents have failed them. The relationship between the child in the children's home and his biological patents is characterised by distrust, misunderstanding and absence of authority.

(b)   Relationship with house-parents

Most children in a children's home experience difficulty in the forming of relationships because of a background of impaired relationships in a dysfunctional family. Burns (1988:3-4) says the educationally neglected child feels that his parents (adults) have failed him and do not see any significance in the establishment of a relationship with other adults. Out of fear of being rejected or disappointed again, the child reveals an unwillingness in forming relationships. Therefore the child in a children's home will very seldom forms a healthy relationship with the house-parent (Ramasar, 1996).

For a house-parent to be effective in "re-educating" the child in educational distress, and for the child to feel safe and wanted in the "family" in the children's home, a healthy relationship between house-parent and child should exist. Nel and Urbani (1990:11-16) regard mutual trust, understanding, acceptance, respect and authority as essential for a harmonious relationship between the house-parent and child. In essence the educational needs of the child in the children's home are the same as those of normal children, but the presence of educational neglect poses some special problems (Pringle, 1987:117). If house-parents are not adequately equipped, or do not have the

necessary experience to assist children from dysfunctional families, they may feel unable to cope effectively, and the relationship between the house-parent and the child will be inadequately realised (Harsch, 1990:2). The educationally neglected child will only have trust in the house-parents when he realizes that he is treated as a person, that he can freely approach the parent without fear, and that the parent has a genuine concern and interest in his special needs (Prins, 1987:11).

In order to help the educationally neglected child effectively the house-parent should get to know and understand the child's particular background. Pringle (1987:118) says when parents understand the child, they can convey this to him by their confident and continuous support and guidance. However, because of the high turnover rate of house-parents and movement of children, the house-parent and child do not get to know each other well and difficulty is experienced in establishing a relationship of mutual understanding between them (Harsch, 1990:3). In his analysis of the situation Righton (1986:5) summarises as follows: "More than affection and good intentions toward the child are needed. Of course, it is basic that the house-parent has feelings of warmth, acceptance and love for the child, but without the technical 'know how' the child becomes buried in a "sticky" morass of feelings of pity which eventually may prove to be a detriment to his becoming."

(c)   Relationship with peers

The child's relationships with his parents, brothers and sisters is the primary anchorage point for relationships with other people (Vrey, 1990:24).   In the dysfunctional family these relationships are inadequately realised and the educationally neglected child enters the

group situation in a children's home with a background of impaired relationships. Therefore the child in the children's home easily forms relationships with his peers to compensate for the broken relationships with his family (Rossouw, 1988:10). However, in the forming of an impetuous relationship with peers the child often gets involved in unhealthy relationships.

To be accepted in a peer group is very important to the child. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:166) state that the peer group plays an important role in assisting the child in realizing a personal identity, provides a safe place to try out certain behaviours and note the reaction he gets and is an ideal setting in which to discuss the most intimate secrets and private thoughts. Within the peer group the child gets recognition, feels safe and experience acceptance. In the children's home this may, however, manifests in the child joining a clique. Allison (1989:3-4) avers that children who are unable to obtain recognition from their parents are more easily influenced by peers and they form a small closely knit group - clique. The child in educational distress has a great need for acceptance which is "satisfied" in a clique - cliques provide a more intimate relationship than the peer group and a great measure of security.

The children in a children's home are from a background with similar problems and are therefore more attracted to one another. According to Van der Merwe (1987:3) these children share feelings of rejection, anxiety, insecurity, anger, hopelessness and sadness. Harper (1985:4) claims that where the family background is inadequate, a vacuum exists and the peer group fills the void created by the incapable parents. The educationally neglected child, vulnerable and lacking in self confidence

and experience, and needing love and acceptance, becomes especially susceptible to peer group pressures (Bacher, 1986:16). When children want to demonstrate antagonism towards someone they join a peer group, clique or even a gang which they might disliked.

To the educationally neglected child the gang provides a structured life-style, a sense of belonging and consistency, protection and recognition, status and acceptance - all the needs the child has been deprived of by incompetent parents (Botha, 1988:7). Gangs form a small society and have a specific membership and leader. The gang has most of its interactions within itself and maintains only a few threads of connection with the adult outside society. To the child in the children's home the gang serves as a family substitute. However, gang members tend to disdain accepted rules and often reflect anti-social behaviour.

(3)   Relationship with objects and ideas

The child is always coming into contact with objects and ideas in his life-world. To assign meaning to objects, involvement and experience are necessary and the child enters into relationships with them (Du Toit & Kruger, 1991:14). These relationships are also extended, adapted and refined during involvement through attribution, assimilation and accommodation with the result that the child's understanding of and orientation toward ideas and object in his world is improved (Vrey, 1990:177-178).

In constituting a "new" life-world in the children's home the child establishes relationships with objects and ideas that are alien to that of his parental home. This conflicting relationships can only lead to more

bewilderment and intensify the educational distress of the child. The child in educational distress may have limited experiences with objects and ideas because of inadequate education by their incapable parents (Kapp, 1991:430).

4   Relationship with religion

Religion is the spiritual relationship between man and a divine power and indicates a belief in, a reverence for, a desire to please and also perhaps the exercise of rites and rituals. The assimilation of a religion depends upon the internalization of standards, rituals or practices and is developed through close identification with parents, family members and significant others (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988:194). A personal religion means a faith and hope to which a child can cling during times of uncertainty and vicissitudes of his becoming (Vrey, 1990;182).

In the dysfunctional family the religious behavioural example of the parents and therefore the religious experience of the child are meaningless to the child - a negative attitude is developed toward religion (Urbani, 1982:39). The child in the children's home doubts the meaning and place of religion in his life because he has been removed from his parental home and experience feelings of rejection, insecurity and anger. In his situatedness the educationally neglected child does not see religion as meaningful association - it does not work practically for him and does not relate to the problems experienced in a new "family" in the children's home (Van Rensburg, 1994:123). The religious relationship is seen by the child in educational distress as not continuous with his changed life-world, inconsistent with his problems and does not provide a faith to live by and which can enable him to withstand conflicts

and doubts. Religion does not provide answers to the many questions of the child in the children's home.

3.5   SUMMARY

Children's homes are full of children who are neglected by their parents. Child neglect is the withholding of the necessary food, clothing, shelter and educational opportunities, or other forms of adequate care and supervision that might lead to hamper the child's proper growth and becoming. Educational neglect is often caused by an unstable and insecure parental home. Being unaccepted and unwanted, being ignored and rejected by parents, being subjected to little or inconsistent and punitive discipline by parents, have a severe effect on the adequate becoming of the child.

Educational neglect is characterised by impaired educational relationships. The relationships of trust, understanding and authority between parent and child are inadequately realised. In the dysfunctional family situation where the necessary relationship structures do not exists the educational course structures namely association, encounter, engagement, intervention and returning to the educative association can not be effectively realised. The outcome of the under-actualization of the educational course structures is the inadequate realization of the educational activities and the readjustment of the educational aim structure.

A meaningful life-world is constituted by the child in forming relationships. Relationship is a particular mode in which the child, things, ideas, self and religion are mutually connected. Such relationships are

usually dynamic and interactive and are initiated by the individual (child) through his involvement and the assigning of meaning in his life-world. Central to such a relationship is understanding - the attribution of significance or meaning through involvement and experience. The adequate becoming of the child in the children's home depends on the relationships formed with himself, other people (parents, siblings, peers,teachers), objects and things and religion. The quality of these relationships will determine how the child experiences his situatedness and the degree to which he actualizes his abilities.

In the following chapter the house-parents' educational responsibility towards the child in the children's home will be discussed.

CHAPTER 4

CHAPTER 4

THE EDUCATIVE TASK OF THE HOUSE-PARENT

4.1   INTRODUCTION

From the previous chapter it is evident that the child is admitted to the children's home as an educationally neglected child or as a child in educational distress.   The child is removed from his parental home on account of the fact that most aspects of his education have been neglected.   Kapp (1991:115-116) and Sonnekus (1986:124-125) say that educational neglect means that the child is deprived of that which is essential for his development towards adulthood - the becoming of the child is incomplete.   The educationally neglected child experiences his becoming as impaired and does not understand the need for education. Educational deficiencies have transformed the child's educational situation into a problematic one.

The task of the children's home includes the physical, psychological, social, moral and spiritual education of the child; thus the total or complete education of the child.   In this regard Ainsworth and Fulcher (1981:19) refer to the findings of various researchers who pointed out that by providing only protection and care for the child in the children's home, it is not enough for the adequate becoming of the child in educational distress.   Intervention by adults in the children's home (house-parents, administrative and therapeutic staff) must also be *educative intervention*.   The house-parent, in whose care a number of children have been entrusted, are confronted with a "special" task regarding the education of the child in educational distress.

Van Niekerk (1987:142) says that the help offered to the educationally neglected child implies much more than a mere "remedial" approach. The specific "deficits" should be attended to, although eminently still remaining an educational task, and therefore the education of children with problems is not essentially different from the education of children who do not experience problems. That which is "different" is the fact that there is a "block" which is preventing the child from developing and learning in accordance with his potential. The educative task of the children's home thus particularly lies in "demolishing" this "wall", and in supporting the child to achieve a "new" willingness to venture - a conscious intention to enter into the educational situation, and a willingness and commitment to change to the level where meanings attached by him to educational content are in accordance with his potential as a person (Van Niekerk, 1991:109-110).

Vos (1994:95) remarks that with regards to the "assistance" rendered to the child within the children's home context, house-parents as "substitute" or "alternative" parents should view their task as the authentic realization of the fundamental educational structures. The educator (house-parent), who takes responsibility for the child in educational distress, should always be able to give account of his actions in terms of the educational admissibility of these actions. The first objective of education in the children's home is devising possible ways of rectifying the wrong educative actions from incapable parents that have so far resulted in the educational neglect of the child. Help to the child in a problematic educational situation, with the aim of rectifying his problems, can thus be regarded as "correctional education" or "remedial education" (Van Rensburg, Landman & Bodenstein, 1994:465-466).

The educative responsibility of the house-parents in a children's home can therefore be seen as a "special" task in which they are most likely to make use of "special" methods to help the child in his educational distress. Through conversational help, the house-parent can help the child to view problematic facts in a different light, to interpret them differently and to attach different meanings to them. The child can be assisted in attaching a more favourable meaning to his problem situation and to modify his attitude to a more favourable one (Van Niekerk, 1987:142-143). This implies that the "re-establishment" of an educational relationship is brought about by trust, acceptance, security, authority, understanding, fellow-feeling, empathy and so forth. Pistorius (1990:46) says that the house-parents should endeavour to restore and reinforce the child's basic trust and basic security. They must support, direct and guide the child in co-exploration of his problems. In this way, an opportunity is created for the child to experience that which is lacking in his problem situation, and the house-parent can then support and direct him in solving his problems.

In this chapter, the significance of an own parental home with both father and mother present will be examined. The group situation of the child in the children's home will be looked at, and the role of the house-parents with regards to the psychological, moral, social and religious support of the child will be discussed.

4.2   AN OWN PARENTAL HOME

Pringle (1987:37) describes the family as a typically normative, ethical or loving community united by mutual ties of solidarity; unity being the hallmark of the normal family. Members are bound by ties of blood in the

most intimate way, and in a happy home there is a feeling of interdependence and intimate solidarity. The members of the family enjoy one another's company, differ lovingly and live in harmony, because on the whole they share the same view of life and the world. The permanence and intimacy of family associations is one of the characteristics of a family that has the most significance to the child - a particular bond or a particular relationship develops between the child, his home, and the people in it (Steyn, 1987:91). According to Sonnekus (1986:126) the family situation is a unique form of togetherness of people in a place (space) of trust and intimacy which may be demarcated as *our space.* This caring space is experienced by the child as a personal space. A space to which the child attributes certain meanings and certain values with regard to his own situatedness-in-the-world.

According to Engelbrecht, Kok and Van Biljon (1986:192) the relationships in a healthy family are characterised by love, intimacy, warmth, involvement, companionship, joy, pride, pleasure, spontaneity and dependence. The child has a need for a permanent space which serves as a family, which he can experience as his own space, within which he can move freely, from which he can observe, explore and conquer the world. The family home as a place of security awakens the child's trust and willingness to venture and participate in reality (Pretorius, 1986:45-46). The home, while being a personal space, therefore also becomes intentionally a space in which the child learns to attach meanings to his surroundings. Although brothers and sisters form part of the child's educational milieu, he turns to his parents for educative support. Ferreira (1992:67) says that the child's parents are the persons most capable of providing the secure environment from which he can control the unknown world. Within this environment, the

child is given guidance, is made aware of values, experiences trust and the need to obey authority, learns to make decisions and accepts responsibility, and becomes aware of the future.

Education flourishes in a family home in which there is mutual trust between parent and child, in which the child feels free to approach someone who knows and understands him - a situation in which there is consistent sympathetic authoritative guidance (Drescher, 1991:49). A family climate that is characterized by positive emotional bonds, consistent authority, mutual understanding and a feeling of belonging, provides a safe environment and serves as a strong basis from which the child can explore his world and get to know it, and therefore realize his own potential (Kapp, 1991:456).

Du Plooy, Griessel and Oberholzer (1987:92) ascribe the child's attachment to his own parental home to the security he experiences within the family. From the very beginning the infant is imbued with feelings of safety and security that are indispensable to his existence, as they are provided by the protecting influence of his home and family. Pretorius (1986:45) says that the security of the family is indispensable to the adequate becoming of the child. The child who feels safe and can rely on parental love, feels freer to take risks, to explore, find themselves, try out their abilities, develop decision-making powers and openly compare alternatives (Vrey, 1990:174). The security of a parental home has a particular significance in the life of the child - it is the milieu of the child's world. It is the home (life-space) to which he always returns after excursions, bent on discovering and conquering the "world out there". Du Plooy, Griessel and Oberholzer (1987:90) state that the child needs both a father and a mother to create the sphere of security that will

provide him with the confidence he needs to undertake the discovery of the world, and thus to continually extend the horizons of his home (situation). A mother and a father to provide him with enough self-confidence to lead him to extend the horizons of his life-world and simultaneously accept his task as co-designer of a world of human co-existence. The discussion that follows will be on the separate roles played by the mother and father in the family.

4.2.1 The role of the mother

Vrey (1990:21) states that for the infant, security consists in the intimate relationship with his mother, by means of which he acquires his first knowledge of reality. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:200) state that the very fact that a child is accepted and cared for by the mother is a reassuring experience, a safe experience, in a strange, changing world. For his adequate becoming, the child requires a relationship of trust, understanding and authority. The mother is important as a person who can arouses the child's possibilities for forming confident relationships with other people and things (Drescher, 1991:49). The cherishing care of the mother creates a space in which the child feels at home. In the presence of the mother, the child is safeguarded and from this place of safety he can venture out and explore the world under the watchful eye of the mother - from this space of safety the larger world becomes accessible to the child . The mother is the ever-present, the security and certainty of human relationships, the protection from danger and the restfulness of a tranquil existence. Vos (1994:98) cites: " Mother-love can be taken for granted. It serves best for cuts and bruises and falls on slippery floors. Mother-love is sheltering arms." Du Plooy, Griessel and Oberholzer (1987:89) also point out the

indispensability of mother love and child love. It is the mother who makes anxiety, chaos and threats harmless.

The mother is also the child's first educator. Man cannot acquire knowledge of the world except through concrete human relationships. For the child this progress starts with the aid of a single loved person, and the mother, as a rule, is the first educator who creates a sphere of security, which eventually invites the child to venture into the world (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987:89). The mother is the first embodiment of the world to the child. Vrey (1990:22) sees a harmonious mother-child relationship as a prerequisite for sound relationships with the world of things. A relationship that is both cognitive and affective. Child and mother get to know each other and the relationship is characterised as pleasant or unpleasant, affectionate, caring, feeding or the neglect thereof.

One of the primary tasks of the mother as first educator is to provide the child with impressions of the world that are appropriate for the child to copy (Baldwin, 1988:16). This means guarding and protecting the child from sensory overload in a world unknown to him. The child should be surrounded with experiences that teach him about the world in a gentle way, by letting them do things directly themselves and later act them out in play. Through their first educators, children learn whether or not their initial love and trust in the world was well founded.

4.2.2 The role of the father

The father's part in fostering the child's becoming is primarily a two fold one. Firstly it provides the child with security as breadwinner and

principal disciplinarian as head of the family. Secondly it provides the child with an adult model so that he can identify with a member of his own sex, if a boy, and also learn at first hand about the behaviour and attitudes of the opposite sex, if a girl (Pringle, 1987:61).

The father, as head of the family, designates himself as the protector of the interests of his wife and children (Campion, 1985:42). He establishes the sphere of security which enfolds his wife and children, and by so doing assures, the stable and harmonious existence of the family. Even if their father is not physically present, the children know that he has their interests at heart and cares for their well-being (Clough, 1988:7-8). By virtue of his career as the breadwinner, the father is the main agent of social control in his family, since he is in the strategic position to make decisions which directly affect his family. He is the one who is acquainted with society and the prevailing social, economic and political climate through his involvement in his profession. This enables him to expose his family to the beneficial outside influences, and to protect them against whatever is harmful and unacceptable (Foster, 1981:6).

Le Roux (1992: 61) maintains that the father's responsibility entails more than merely providing for the family's financial needs. He is expected to guarantee the family's needs in other areas too. In comparison to the mother, whose main function it is to care for the family, the father's main responsibility is to protect the family. This applies to the physical, psychological and spiritual needs of the family. On account of the father's physical size, greater physical power and especially his expansive nature, the father is expected, if needs be, to protect his wife and children with his life and property. He is also the guarantor and protector of the intimate relationship between mother and child.

Practising a particular occupation, the father leaves the intimate atmosphere of home every day to earn a living in the outside world - a world experienced by the child as alien and threatening. In this way the father provides for the living needs of his family, and for the child he becomes the trusted symbol constituting a bridge between the known (home) and the unknown (world of adults). Thus, he not merely represents the unknown living space, but he provides a glimpse of the future for the child (De Beer, 1992:41).

4.2.3 The presence of both parents

From the discussions on the role of the mother and father, it becomes clear that it is important for the child to have both parents participating in his upbringing. Pringle (1987:60) sees parenting as a shared task, where both parents participate actively in child rearing, with somewhat different roles. De Beer (1992:41) points out the necessity of having both parents for the balanced development of the child's maturation. Providing a harmonious and healthy family environment does not rest with only one of the parents but is the outcome of a shared parenting task and responsible parenthood from both parents. Both parents should be accessible to the child, willing to communicate with and listen to the child, do things with the child and exemplify responsible adult behaviour (Steyn, 1987:123).

Research has found that the child's sense of responsibility develops best in a family structure where both biological parents fulfil their share of responsibility for the upbringing of the child (Drescher, 1991:25,39).

In contrast to the *waiting* mode of being of the mother, the father's way of existence is that of *expansion* and *conquering* (Botha, 1988:7). To the child, the father is the person who knows everything and who can do

everything, while the mother is seen as the ever-present, the security and certainty of human relationships and the restfulness of tranquil existence. Du Plooy, Griessel and Oberholzer (1987:93-94) stress the father's share as a representative of adulthood, who, through his association with the child, assists him in increasing his knowledge of and confidence in the outer world, because of his authority over the child. The mother, as a rule, is the first educator who creates a sphere of security which eventually invites the child to venture into the world and to mix with others.

4.3 GROUP ORIENTATION OF THE CHILD

The normal family consists of father, mother and their children, a small group in which intimate family interaction takes place. In a children's home, a large group of children are found in the care of house-parents, forming a "substitute family". Gannon (1988:10) says the child in the children's home has to orientate himself as a "member" of a "family group" that is usually much larger than the normal family. The members of this "substitute family" have strong individual differences and come from a variety of backgrounds. It is also more dynamic in nature than the normal family because of the movement of children between "families" and the high turnover rate of house-parents. The outcome of the latter is that the child often experiences difficulties in integrating successfully in his new "family" (Pringle, 1987:137).

Child rearing in a group in a children's home differs remarkably from that in a normal family (Foster, 1981:87). The education of the child in the children's home is totally directed by the group situation - the "family group" and the group of children in the children's home. That which the

house-parents (or other staff) regard as appropriate or essential for child rearing in a group, may not necessarily be appropriate to the individual child in the group (Gannon, 1988:104). According to Ainsworth and Fulcher (1981:41) to establish the essentials of a group in the home situation, attention must be given to the binding and constructive moments, of which the most important is the child's complete dependence on the members of the group. The child finds himself in the children's home without his own consent, and therefore experiences his situatedness in a group as being cast and not as safety (Van Rensburg, Landman & Bodenstein, 1994:333). This group situatedness does not always provide the individual child with a meaningful existence. The members of the "family" in a children's home, consisting of house-parents and children, are not bound by blood ties like parents and children in a normal family -the "family" arises from being "put" together. In contrast to the security his own family offers, the child in the children's home experiences castness and dependence, which may possibly have a detrimental effect on the adequate becoming of the child (Pringle, 1987:100).

Clough (1988:70-71) maintains that in a group situation, there are many instances in which the child's educational needs cannot be sufficiently met, and in which the child does not receive the individual attention that a child needs. The circumstances in a children's home are of such a nature that for much of the time the house-parents are dealing with the child in a group situation, and not with the children as individuals. Biderman-Pam and Gannon (1989:197) see the educational task of the children's home as to be realized mainly within a group situation - an extremely difficult task with educationally neglected children.

The house-parent, as educator, has to know the nature and abilities of each individual child in the group in order to render efficient support to each child. To render accountable support to the child in educational distress requires personal educative intervention and care, as well as particular ways of handling educative mediums such as authority, punishment, approval or disapproval, association, communication, protection, etc. (Vos, 1994:102). Group education can only succeed if the house-parent has the ability to recognise individual needs while educatively intervening with the group. According to Harsch (1990:4) the house-parent plays the most significant role in group education in the children's home.

In spite of the limitations of "group education", the group situation in the children's home is one of the means which presents potentially powerful opportunities to assist the child in educational distress - to direct the child in a positive direction. Ainsworth and Fulcher (1981:110-11) state that the group acts as a positively reinforcing agent in helping the child develop positive prosocial values, and strong sanctions help to ensure conformity to social norms and values. Clough (1988:71) sees the group itself as primary vehicle for change, and the children in the group can help each other resolve problems both in and out of the group. Through the process of group decision making and task assignments, many situations arise which require children of the group to help others who cannot "handle the situation" in the children's home. In this way, the self-worth of the individual child and the confidence of the group can be built up.

Effective education of a group however, also implies the education of the child as an individual - development of the group entails the development

of each child as an individual. The house-parent has a significant role to play in the group education of children in a children's home. Uncertainty on the part of the house-parent may lead to the manifestation of feelings of insecurity and anxiety in the children, while the house-parents who show that they are confident about their task will have a positive influence on the group (Vos, 1994:104).

4.4 PHYSICAL CARE

Man's existence in the world is a physical existence - the body makes it possible for man to live in this world, to perceive things, and to encounter others. Du Plooy, Griessel and Oberholzer (1987:146) say that the child experiences his childhood, his not-yet-adultness and his progress toward adulthood pre-eminently in his corporeality - this is his way of being child in-the-world. The body makes it possible for the child to orientate himself in the world, to move and explore the world, to give meaning and find meaning in reality, to live in the world and come to self-realisation. Man's body is indispensable to him and full-fledged physical maturity constitutes an important aspect of adulthood. An integral part of the child's education implies regard for his own corporeality as well as that of others. The child must learn to live with his own physical possibilities and defects, he must be educated to accept his own corporeality (also defects and shortcomings) as an opportunity to become in a human way what he can and ought to be (Drescher, 1991:84).

Life makes demands on the child in respect of physical strength, stamina and essential skills. According to Botha (1988:6) it is extremely difficult or almost impossible for a person to fulfil his adult task in society if he is not physically capable of doing so. In the dysfunctional family, the

educational neglect of the child also includes inadequate physical care. The incapable parents do not ensure that the child has sufficient practice in the essential body skills; that he learns to care for his body properly and that he acquires sound hygienic habits (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987:147). These children will need special help and support to alter that which has gone wrong in their physical education.

The children's home must therefore provide adequate nutrition, healthy body maintenance, physical guidance and health care for the child. The child must be safeguarded against situations, circumstances and objects that might be harmful to his physical well-being. Immunization against diseases such as whooping cough, measles, diphtheria and mumps will protect the child against the risks of these serious childhood illnesses (Handleiding, 1988:3). The healthy physical development of the child is therefore completely dependent on good nutrition, a hygienic routine, sufficient clothing, rest and exercise, protection against communicable diseases and ample opportunities for play and other forms of recreation. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:171-172) state that physical development greatly affects the child's psychological development influencing his cognitive and affective development, his relationships with others and his self-concept. The more able and more active the child is physically, the better the ability to explore his world and learn from it.

In the children's home it is essential that the child learns how to care properly for his body and gets sufficient exercise in the necessary physical skills. A healthy body and efficient body skills increase self-esteem, the self-concept and relationships, together with body image (Drescher, 1989:81). A feeling of security is experienced when the

child's physical needs are adequately met - meals at set times, sufficient time to play and rest and a hygienic lifestyle.

4.5 PSYCHOLOGICAL SUPPORT

The child's psychological capacity enables him to form relationships by means of which he orientates himself in the world (Vrey, 1990:67). The psychological capacity of the child matures through development and effective interrelationships with the world in which he grows up (Du Toit & Kruger, 1991:32). The following can be distinguished as psychological abilities of the child: affective, cognitive and conative abilities. Although it is possible to distinguish between these abilities they cannot be separated in the total development of the child or the cultural milieu of the child.

4.5.1 Emotional development (Affective development)

Affective development is concerned with the development of those aspects pertaining to the emotions, feelings, passions, moods, sentiments and whims (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988:15). Affective qualities accompany the child's memory, thoughts, concepts, ways of thinking, responses, association of impressions and experiences and are inseparably joined by every perception, conscious or unconscious, physical or intimately personal (Vrey, 1990:23-24). The child's affective experiences, which may range from pleasant to very unpleasant, determine his involvement or indifference in the world, his giving meaning to objects, the relationships he forms, and the life-world he constitutes for himself (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987:148). The affective development of the child effects the total becoming of the

child - physical, psychological, social, moral and religious.

Research has shown that educationally neglected children often have affective problems (Clough, 1988:56). Anxiety, tension, aggression, fear and other signs of affective lability occur more in educationally neglected children than in normal children (Foster, 1981:38). A further characteristic of the educationally neglected child's affective development is that the defence mechanisms which they employ against negative experiences are more primitive and rigid, and therefore more difficult to eliminate than those in normal children (Kapp, 1991:307). Neglect of the affective aspect of the child may have serious consequences on the adequate becoming of the child. Inadequate realisation of affective aspects such as love, care, trust, respect and acceptance has as outcome affective lability.

Assistance to the child in the children's home implies affective stabilisation, and helping the child to discover ways in which he can achieve adequate differentiation and actualization of his potential. Van Niekerk (1987:145) emphasises the necessity of resolving the conflict of trust, by demonstrating to the child that the house-parent also trusts him to be able to do something and to be worth something. If this is achieved, the child's feelings of anxiety, loneliness, rejection, helplessness and inferiority are already lessened to a great extent. Because mutual unconditional acceptance is essential to the establishment of a relationship of trust, the willingness of the house-parent to support the child is indispensable. Berridge (1985:45) emphasises the fact that the house-parent, whose involvement with the child is merely the execution of an assignment duty, will not be able to overcome the lack of trust in the child in educational distress. The

prerequisite for mutual trust is a real and spontaneous need felt by the house-parent as educator to help the child.

(1) Acceptance

To be accepted is one of the most basic needs of every child - more so to the educationally neglected child, who experiences feelings of rejection and loneliness (Harrison, 1992:8). The child in educational distress in the children's home is longing for the acceptance, loving care and spontaneous affection of adults. It is therefore essential that house-parents show a willingness to become co-existentially involved with the child through personal intervention (Vos, 1994:108). They must show their acceptance of the child as he is and not as he should be - a favourable, willing reception of the child in educational distress. Pringle (1987:51) says that if acceptance is absent or minimal, the house-parent will be unable to assist the child in educational need. Security can only be experienced by the child if he is unconditionally accepted. Security for the child in the children's home includes physical, psychological and spiritual care - evident of the acceptance of the child as a person. Righton (1986:4-5) states that the care given in a children's home must be experienced by the child as directed at him, because of his worthiness of being human, and not as charity to a neglected, abandoned or orphaned child.

Van Niekerk (1987:142) says that to meet the child's need of unconditional and impartial acceptance, the house-parent must already show a willingness of acceptance on the child's admittance to the children's home. It is therefore imperative that on arrival at the children's home, the child must be received into his "new family" in such a manner

that he feels accepted. House-parents should encounter the child lovingly, on a basis of natural, spontaneous acceptance. They must accept with humility that it is their task to take the educationally neglected child by the hand, help him accept his own situatedness and guide him towards responsible adulthood (Bertcher, 1989:47).

Acceptance is an essence by which educative encountering is co-constituted. In the absence of affective security, the child will fail to accept the house-parent (educator) as a helper (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988:16). In the educative encounter, the child must accept the guidance of the house-parent, and also see him as a trustworthy educator. Only when the child completely trusts and unconditionally accepts the house-parent will he disclose his fears, doubts, secrets and realities to him.

It is important for the child in the children's home to have certainty that he is accepted with gladness, although he might be regarded as a problem because of his neglected education (Kapp, 1991:468). The child wants to be accepted as a unique person, and not because he is in the children's home as the outcome of his incapable parents. House-parents can respond to the child's need for acceptance by giving individual attention to the child. Through a friendly smile, a greeting that speak of interest, a caring touch or an attentive ear, the house-parent lets the child feel that he is noticed and accepted in his affective need (Ferreira, 1992:28). If the house-parent succeeds in letting the child feel that he is liked, accepted, protected and treated with respect, the child will gain more confidence and independence (Allison, 1989:67). The "re-education" of the educationally neglected child will prosper in an atmosphere characterized by love and acceptance, which brings of

necessity with it a feeling of security (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987:147).

(2)   Mutual trust

Van Rensburg, Landman and Oberholzer (1994:511) emphasize the fact that trust is a fundamental characteristic of the child's way of being in the world - a basic pre-requisite for sound and satisfactory interpersonal relations.   Harrison (1992:8) points out that a lack of trust is characteristic of the educationally neglected child. If the child's trust in his parents is shattered by their failure to adequately meet his needs, the child will manifest a feeling of mistrust in all adults. It is therefore important for the house-parent to restore the educationally neglected child's basic trust in adults (Van Niekerk, 1987:143). The educationally neglected child will only regain trust in adults if the house-parent succeeds in proving to the child his willingness to support, direct and guide him in his problematic situation (Pringle, 1987:34-35).

In a loving space for encounter, the child in educational distress has the courage and confidence to explore his problems and express his disturbed experiences (Van Niekerk, 1987:143). In being with the child in a loving manner, a relationship of mutual trust between house-parent and child is realized. The child experiences trust in the house-parent as educator when he realises that the parent offers him assistance on his way to adulthood, but especially when he (the child) fully accepts the house-parent as a person in his extreme need, helplessness and weakness (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987:95-96). The house-parent should accept the educand as he is, wants to be, must and ought to become. Trust should also stem from the house-parent. Through his conduct,

convictions, sincerity and educative love, the house-parent should provide the child with evidence of his faith in him. Andrag (1987:35) says the house-parent's faith excites reciprocal faith in the educand, who then entrusts himself to the parent and becomes open to influence.

House-parents are confronted with a special task in supporting the child who has lost his trust in his fellow man (cf. 3.4.2). Unconditional mutual acceptance is essential for the establishment of the relationship of trust, and therefore the house-parent must show acceptance and willingness to support and guide the child in educational distress. The adequate rendering of support by house-parents means that they should win the child's trust, and that the child must show a willingness to accept this guided support (Vos, 1994:12). The parent should show the child that he trusts him as someone who can do things on his own and is a worthy human being. According to Herholdt (1991:52) house-parents can win the child's trust by conveying the following message to the child:

- You can count on me because I will always be available if you need me.
- You can rely on me in good, as well as in bad times.
- I am looking for the best in you, and not the worst.
- I want you to be successful and not a failure.
- I will be there if you need me, even if it is difficult for me because I must sacrifice other important things.
- If you are in distress because of the actions of other people, I will be available to support you.

It is therefore clear that the educative efforts in the children's home must not only stem from the charitable inclination to lend assistance, but also

from the idea that the child will experience the house-parent's love as anchored in trust, and his efforts as significant. Barends(Harper, 1989:3) says that educational responsibility, without educative love and mutual trust, fails to induce acceptance in the child - the child does not experience acceptance and security.

(3) Understanding (knowing)

The relationship of knowing is a condition for creating and maintaining the education relation between the house-parent and child in the children's home (Van Niekerk, 1987:143-144). To be able to help the child in educational distress, the house-parent (educator) has to know the child well and acquaint himself thoroughly with the problems caused by educational neglect. On the other hand, the child should also understand that the house-parent is somebody who wants to help him in his educational need. He has to get to know the house-parent and what to expect of him (Vos, 1994:113). On the basis of their mutual knowledge they both establish an educational relationship which, in the case of the educationally neglected child, is initiated by the house-parent.

In a children's home the problem lies in deciding which knowledge, with regards to the child's predicament, is necessary in the support of educational activities. To succeed in the "re-education" of the child it is essential that house-parents possess as much knowledge as possible about the child. Berridge (1985:47) says in educational circles it is admitted that knowledge of the educationally neglected child's past is a pre-requisite if house-parents want to come to an adequate understanding of the child's problems. This will concern knowledge of the educative content since the child's birth until admittance to the children's home.

Although historical information, examination results and consultations provide important information regarding the better understanding of the child, authentic knowledge of the child is also essential for the establishment of a sound relationship that will develop within the associative- and encountering situations (Burns, 1988:5). No "file" can ever contain a complete record regarding the educational sequence structure of the child. Such a record is however not necessary, because what the house-parents need to know centres around two main aspects. In the first place, they want to establish the nature of the relationships within the family the child was subjected to before admittance to the children's home. Secondly they want to know if the educational aim structure within the family was realised in such a manner that it did not obscure the educational relationships. Powis, Allsopp & Gannon (1987:13) state that details regarding the child's abilities that have not been adequately realized can also be of value to the house-parent. Of primary importance however, is information with regards to the educational relationships and educational aims that may give the house-parent a better understanding of the problems of the educationally neglected child.

Van Niekerk (1991:154) says that if the house-parent wants to come to a complete understanding of the needs of the child in the children's home, it is important to be aware of the fact that every child experiences his problems in his own unique way. It is therefore not possible to create a "general profile" within which each child will fit. Righton (1986:4) points out that only when the house-parent realises what is underlying the child's deviant behaviour and/or unusual actions, will it be possible to become aware of the shortcomings in the child's education. A careful observation of the child in various situations will enable the house-parent

to gain more knowledge of the child. This acquired knowledge will lead to a better understanding of the child, which is prerequisite for education (Gannon, 1985:7). The child-in-education who experiences problems makes himself known in various ways, and the following behaviour manifestations might be characteristic of the child in educational distress: depression, aggression, attention-seeking, lack of self-control, emotional lability, etc. (Kapp, 1991;35). The house-parent should be intent upon carefully observing the child under different circumstances, and observe detailed particulars. According to Van Niekerk (1987:82-83) as an observer, the house-parent constantly interprets the child's activities within his educational situation to come to a better understanding of the child's situatedness. Educational observation together with an historical background will help house-parents to come to a more reliable understanding of the experiential world of the child. Better understanding of the child enables house-parents to offer the child better protection and more appropriate support. They should however realise that it is a lengthy process, which can only be achieved as the child regains more trust in his life-world and in himself.

Drescher (1989:41) refers to the fact that communication between the house-parent and child can be utilised as a mode of conveying to the child that his problems are understood. House-parents can communicate their understanding to the child in everything they perform, as well as in the manner of performance, for example their facial expression, tone of voice, attitude, etc. (Le Roux, 1992:127). During this communication, the aim is to help the child to view facts, with regards to his situatedness, in a different light, to interpret them more differently, and to attach different meanings to them. The house-parent aims to help the child to see his situatedness in the children's home in a more favourable

light, to determine his identity and to realize the purpose for his existence. Yeats (1991:127) draws attention to the fact that the affective meaning of the child's communications should not be ignored, but that the house-parent also has to respond to the innermost meaning of the child's behaviour during communication.

(4)   Authority (Norm identification)

In his search for direction and guidance in becoming a better person, the child first accepts the authority of the educator, and then later the norms the educator presents to him and also lives up to himself (Barnard, 1987:260). The adult world for which the child is being educated also demands obedience to authority, conformation to certain moral norms and values, harmoniously working and living together in groups, independent and responsible work, etc. In the education situation in the "substitute family", the house-parent (educator) accepts authority over the child (educand) and the child in turn accepts the educator's authority. In this relationship of authority, the house-parent must also give evidence of the fact that he not only has authority, but also accepts the authority of norms which have a distinct bearing on his life actions. Adults should be a living example of normed exemplification and norm acceptance to the child (Van Rensburg, Landman & Bodenstein, 1994:511).

The relationship of trust and relationship of knowing are preconditions for the existence of the relationship of authority (Pistorius, 1990:67). Educational authority presupposes the existence of a caring and trusting relationship between educator and educand - in the absence of trust and love, authority manifests itself as power. Autocratic discipline is experienced by the child as oppressing, and is not accepted willingly.

The child who trusts and respects the house-parent, and therefore also the norms exemplified by him, will willingly obey his authority (Breytenbach, 1988:117). The task of the house-parent, as educator, also involves the particularization of norms for a particular child in a certain situation, as required by the situatedness and circumstances of each child in the children's home (Naidoo, 1985:8).

Grobler and Möller (1988:39) stress the fact that the exercising of educational authority does not mean the using of force, tyranny, brutalising or a regimental style. Such forms of authority will only be accepted by the child because disobedience might pose a threat to him, and can therefore not be regarded as wilful acceptance of authority. According to Harsch (1990:3-4) the exercising of authority poses a problem in children's homes, because children often only accede to authority to avoid punishment or to obtain certain privileges. However, as soon as the threat of punishment disappears, the child again departs from the expectations of society and behaves indecently, improperly or unacceptable (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988:27).

The exercising of educational authority involves the loving and sympathetic authoritative guidance of the child. Nel and Urbani (1990:15) state that educational authority differs from all other forms of authority, because it has its roots in love. Within a relationship characterised by love and empathy it is easier for the child to accept the parent's authority, because he is craving for sympathetic authoritative guidance. Van Niekerk (1987:57) remarks that the sympathetic authoritative guidance of adults provide the child with stability, and the child experiences normative surety and safety.

According to Bacher (1986:16) house-parents often have different views regarding educational authority, and are also not always consistent in the exercising thereof. This can only lead to confusion regarding the relationship of authority, which can be detrimental to the becoming of the child. In the children's home, the child will experience unconditional acceptance and trust, if the house-parents are consistent and fair in the exercising of authority. Sonnekus (1984:5) maintains that a child will only accept educational authority when he experiences it as meaningful. It is therefore important that when the house-parent is intervening in the life of the child, all the fundamental educational structures are realized.

According to Naidoo (1985:8) the value of meting out punishment in the exercising of authority depends on the educational climate in the children's home. The house-parent that understands the child will be able to take a responsible decision regarding the nature of punishment. If the child trusts the house-parent, he will accept the punishment and seek to avoid a recurrence of the misdemeanour. An educational climate in which the relationships of trust, understanding and authority are adequately realised is a prerequisite for the accountable meting out of punishment (Bryan, 1990:5). The task of the house-parent is to guide the child in distress to accept educational authority, and acknowledge the authority a normated existence.

4.5.2 Cognitive development

The term "cognitive" is derived from the Latin word "*cognoscere*" which means "to know" (Du Toit & Kruger, 1991:33). The concept "cognitive" therefore implies the life of knowing of the human being, of which the outcome is knowledge. Cognitive development is the continuous and

cumulative development of the intellect, and concerns all that has to do with perception, conceptualization, insight, knowledge, imagination, etc. The child is continually in contact with the unknown: things, people, ways of behaving, ideas or concepts. In order to construct his own life-world, the child must imbue all of these things with meaning - that is, orientate himself to his environment. Knowledge of the world presupposes an effective assignment of meaning, and this calls for educational support and explanatory teaching (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988:39).

Adequate cognitive development depends on the efficiency of the opportunities for learning. Although the child's basic or potential cognitive ability is hereditarily determined, research has found that the child's cognitive ability is significantly influenced by his relationship with his parents (Vrey, 1990:99). Cognitive development is also dependent on parents' assistance with homework, sharing the child's failures and successes, and support and encouragement that will incite the child to participate more fully (Van Niekerk, 1991:110).

In the dysfunctional family, the child does not receive the necessary support and guidance to assign meaning, or attribute significance in order to orientate himself in his environment (Eloff, 1986:120). An increase in meaningful relationships is inadequately realised, and the child is unable to enhance his orientation. According to Vrey (1990:99) serious and prolonged deprivation of learning opportunities, especially in infancy and early childhood, seem to result in permanent damage to cognitive development, which even a rich environment in later years can only partially improve. Even though children are usually in formal school by six years of age, the best school cannot make up for the earlier serious

deprivation caused by incapable parents. The explication of unclear (illogical) meanings and the ineffective overtones of conative meanings are the outcome of inadequate educational help by the incompetent parents (Gerber, 1985:55). The maturing child will not actualize himself unless he knows, understands and is capable of action, *i.e.* unless he attributes meaning.

According to Van Rensburg, Landman, & Bodenstein (1994:339) cognitive experiencing by the child embraces facets of analysis, synthesis, abstraction, comparison and so forth, and leads to objective judgements, pronouncements and knowledge. Education, amongst others, implies cognitive guidance of the child towards achieving an intellectual grasp on the world. Cognitive development is always related to academic achievement, and therefore under-achievement will be associated with inadequate cognitive development, and the ensuing learning problems. Sonnekus (1986:41) regards learning problems as the outcome of educational neglect in the family. Educational deficiencies and disturbed family relationships transform the child's educational situation to one characterised by learning problems.

Learning does not take place automatically. Although each child desires to know what he does not know, and to master what he cannot do, the will to learn is determined by the educational milieu of the family. Van Niekerk (1991:99) says that the foundation for successful learning is laid within the family. In the children's home, the "substitute family" must therefore meet the requirements for the adequate development of the child's cognitive abilities. The question now is, what are the requirements for the optimum development of the child's cognitive abilities?

The child's academic achievements are not only determined by his cognitive abilities, and intelligence does not play the most important role in successful learning. Raath & Jacobs (1990:58) say that affective factors cannot be divorced from cognitive factors, nor can they be isolated from other personality factors in successful learning - the learning child also experiences feelings. According to Vrey (1990:274) an important aspect of successful learning is the learner's experience of, or feelings for the significance of what he is learning; his lively participation in what he is deliberately making his own, makes him one with the learning material. Learning is not an exclusively cognitive act, but is accompanied by experience, active participation and thus involvement in the learning act and its meaning, with a view to success. The psychological atmosphere in the children's home ultimately determines the mental welfare of the child, as well as his ability to achieve (Grobler & Möller, 1988:46). In a warm atmosphere, the child senses acceptance, personal worth, encouragement and confidence. There must be mutual trust between house-parent and child within a relaxed climate. In such an atmosphere, the child will experience safety and affective stability which are the first and foremost requirements for academic achievement (Prinsloo, 1979:72). In a children's home it is therefore required from the house-parents to create an atmosphere conducive to learning in the child's "substitute family". Agreeable and constructive incentives should characterise the educational climate in the children's home, and situations which could arouse uncertainty and anxiety should be avoided. The house-parent must aim at creating an atmosphere in which the child's emotions can be directed in the desired direction, and in which the child feels accepted, safe and relaxed (Burger, 1984:1-2).

Affective stability, which emanates from the efficient affective education by responsible parents, is imperative for the adequate development of the child's cognitive abilities. Successful learning, which depends upon the organisation, clarity and stability of the child's knowledge, can only be realised when the child experiences affective stability - learning and retention is hampered by affective lability (Sonnekus, 1986:142; Vrey, 1990:282). House-parents must support and guide the educationally neglected child to enable him to control his affective life with his will and intellect. The child that experiences his affective life as labile, because of tension, insecurity, fear and lack of confidence, will not be able to concentrate on the learning material. Affective lability results in poor academic achievement, because the child cannot give his full attention to his studies, logical thoughts are hindered, and assimilation of knowledge is blocked (Vos, 1994:123). Formal education is not experienced as meaningful by the child in educational distress.

In the children's home, the exemplification of a stable affective life by the house-parents plays a vital role in the life of the child. If the affective life of the house-parents is immaculate, they set a good example for the child to follow (Grobler & Möller, 1988:60).

4.6 MORAL DEVELOPMENT

Moral development is concerned with learning to distinguish between right and wrong, good or bad, acceptable or unacceptable behaviour within a particular society in which the child lives (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988:148). Such behaviour can only be learned, and the child learns by imitation. At birth, the infant is incapable of distinguishing between what carries approval and what is unseemly;

through the experience of education, his conscience is actualized to guide him in deciding between right and wrong, since man has an innate moral sense that responds to the call of education (Van Rensburg, Landman, & Bodenstein, 1994:444).

Parents are the most influential agents in the learning of morals. Parental attitudes and behavioural responses to right and wrong, and good and evil, set the tone and direction of the child's development of morals (Du Toit & Kruger, 1991:64). In the dysfunctional family, where the child's education is neglected, the moral development of the child is not adequately realized. The moral development of the child, which relates to his actions, attitudes, aspirations and volition - to his whole character - his virtues and vices, his values and judgements, are not sufficiently realised by incompetent parents. Such parents fail in the successful introduction of the child to the society's rules of behaviour, to which its members are expected to adhere and conform to ensure the safety of its members, and the nurturing of healthy relationships (Botha, 1984:125).

According to Engelbrecht, Kok & Van Biljon (1986:167) the education relationship between parent and child plays a vital role in the moral development of the child - education is essentially a moral function to arouse a sense of accountability for actions. In the education relationship, parental attitudes and behavioural responses to right and wrong and good and evil, set the tone and direction of the child's development of morals - the norm practised by the parents will be the norm followed by the child (Vrey, 1990:182). From his earliest years, the child should be introduced to the behaviour which is acceptable in his society.

The dysfunctional home provides neither a good moral example nor anything approaching adequate moral instruction. The insufficient realization of the education relationship has as its outcome the under-actualization of moral judgements made, and norms practised by the child (Grobler & Möller, 1988:67). The child in educational distress has not been exposed forthrightly and lucidly to what human experience over the centuries has taught us about the principles and attitudes which enrich and govern our lives. The educationally neglected child therefore does not have the judgement experience or perspective necessary for an independent formation of sound value judgements, neither can they theorize adequately on moral matters because of their limited and unique experience (Van der Merwe, 1987:4). The educationally neglected child in the children's home often engages in moral behaviour rather than moral judgement. Moral action is based on the avoidance of punishment, and the receiving of a reward serving as incentive toward moral behaviour.

The child in the children's home is exposed to a double set of moral codes, values and norms. The child is admitted to the children's home with a value system which he has learned, tested and accepted in his own family. In the children's home, different moral codes, values and norms are internalized (Hoffmann, 1993:16). The child in educational distress, in his affective lability, experience this double set of moral values and norms as a crisis. All people are confronted with values that are contrary to their own, and they must then themselves decide on the acceptability of such values. For the child in a children's home, the situation is however different. When the child is removed from his family by court order, the entire education of the child becomes the responsibility of the children's home. If the most characteristic aspect of education in the children's home is the concern of house-parents for

children, with the aim of ensuring proper upbringing, disciplinary steps will be taken when the child does not obey the values and norms in the home (Pringle, 1987:67). The child however, also has contact with the values and norms of his parental home, and will therefore experience difficulty in living according to a particular set of values and norms.

The house parent has to support the child in his mastering of the adult life world, which is normated reality. Thus the life of the child is controlled and directed by a given order of value preferences, as a life of voluntary obedience to certain norms. Kruger (1989:14) maintains that the full purpose of education is for the child to be so accompanied that, on the grounds of a personal decision of conscience, he accepts values and norms as values and norms for himself. As an adult and a morally independent being, he must strive personally for what is commendable, and reject what is reprehensible. The house-parent's exemplification of values and norms, and definite prescribing of values and norms to the child, are both necessary to arouse the child's awareness thereof (Vrey, 1990:183).

The aim of moral guidance is to help the child to become morally independent. With educational help, the child learns to attribute logically acknowledged meanings to moral and social norms, and to reach moral independence and responsibility, which means he has internalised and assimilated moral meaning (Du Toit & Kruger, 1991:10). It is important that the child should be guided to decide in freedom how he will act morally, and not because of fear of punishment. True freedom, however, is no arbitrariness or licentiousness, but when the good is freely chosen and the bad rejected because it is bad. According to Du Plooy, Griessel and Oberholzer (1987:154) morality cannot be separated from religion,

because morality means the obedience to and implementation of values accepted voluntarily and in faith - the pious life has two sides to it, the religious and the moral. The child's relation to a religion is *piety* and his relation among human beings, *morality.*

4.7 SOCIAL ORIENTATION

The child finds himself in a world of fellow-men, a meaningful human world within his cultural context, having a common language, norms, values and customs. The child is a person, a human being, and as such, he has essentially human personal needs and aspirations, such as the need to be esteemed, accepted and recognised, all of which can only be fulfilled within the human context. He also has essentially human social needs, such as human togetherness, communication and belonging (Kruger & Van Rooyen, 1987:69). The socialisation of the child is the learning process related to the growth of social relationships and social behaviours - the acceptable assimilation of the child in the society.

Burns (1988:93) sees the parent-child relationship as the primary social relationship. The family as a natural human situation is the first form of community the child encounters, and in the family he soon learns to take into account the demands of others, his fellow man. Of the first human relationships formed by the child, the child's relationship with his parents is the most important, since it serves as a frame of reference for the forming of other social relationships (Steyn, 1987:34). The child's social frame of reference which he formed in family context, is the point of departure for his socialization with others. Research has shown that impaired parent-child relationships have damaging effects on the socialization of the child (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg,

1988:214). There is no substitute for the true family environment. In the dysfunctional family, an environment of love, security and discipline, necessary for adequate social development, is absent. The educational intervention that is essential for the child's social development is also neglected by the incapable parents in a dysfunctional family. Therefore, the child's social frame of reference formed in the family is insufficiently realized. According to Ainsworth and Fulcher (1981:234) social disabilities are part of the educationally neglected child's life, and he finds it difficult to comply with social demands. In the dysfunctional family, the skills that enable the child to associate with others are insufficiently realized, and he is further hampered by anxiety and lack of self-confidence in his social behaviour (Jacobs & Vrey, 1982:397).

It is therefore important that the neglected social development of the child in the children's home must receive attention, for without it, the child would find it far more difficult to design his stand in society (Jewett, 1981:109). In this regard, the relationship between the house-parent and the child is most important, because against the background of this relationship with his "substitute parents", the child becomes involved with other people, and he attributes meaning under the influence of his experiences during his involvement with them (Foster, 1981:231). In order to support the child in his social orientation the house-parent must be trustworthy. The child must experience the social guidance of the house-parent as honest, consistent and according to the norms and values of the society in which they live. Bacher (1985:4) says that in their social support, the house-parents should acquaint the child with the rules and laws of society, which he must obey. He must learn how to behave suitably in the community; to respect the property and achievements of others; to accept authority; to give assistance, and to

be tolerant with the strengths, and especially the weaknesses, of others.

Botha (1988:8) points out that it is important that the house-parent possesses the necessary knowledge and authority to communicate social skills, philosophy of life and culture in an understandable manner to the child. The exemplification of the values and norms of the culture by the house-parent enables the child to give direction to his own life, regarding the norms he should follow, his social behaviour, and place in society. According to Pretorius (1986:14-25) social orientation can also be actualized within the peer group or other social groups. This method of socialization can, however, lead either to prosocial or to antisocial behaviour, depending on the group with which the child associates. It is therefore important that the house-parent should give the child direction towards the friends he should choose and the groups he should join.

4.8   RELIGIOUS GUIDANCE

Religious development is the development of a spiritual relationship between man and a divine power, and indicates a belief in, a reverence for, a desire to please, and also perhaps the exercise of rites and rituals (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988:194). A given religion is a feature of a given culture or like-minded group, and so differences in the practice of religion is to be expected. To the child, a personal religion means a faith and hope to which he can cling during uncertainties and vicissitudes in his becoming (Steyn, 1987:18).

The educationally neglected child who has been removed from his ineffectual parental home experienced doubt and even alienation in the beliefs and practices of religion. The child finds himself in the "strange"

environment of the children's home, where he feels rejected by his own parents, and in a situation that he can do nothing about. To the child that experiences uncertainty and anxiety, religiousness does not mean stability, absolute peace and the most profound certainty. The child will rather doubt the faith and hope of religion, and experiences difficulty in reconciling religion with his situatedness (Henning, 1989:5).

Each person hankers and strives for security and safety, and after he finds this, he finally experiences piece of mind. The child in the children's home also seeks peace of mind in the meaning which reality has for him - a meaning to the origin, nature and purpose of his placement in a children's home. Being removed from his parental home is a period of strain, change and insecurity, and a search for meaning and a place in life for the child (Pistorius, 1990:69). The child therefore needs a religion which is continuous with life, consistent with workaday world, and can provide a faith to live by, while enabling him to withstand conflicts and doubts. They seek a religion to live by, and one that works practically for them; one with which they can easily identify and which relates to the problems they meet in their everyday lives. The task of the house-parent will therefore be to restore the child's faith in religion. The child has to be assured of the meaning of religion, and that his being-in-the-world is really meaningful. Du Toit and Kruger (1991:11) maintain that the child's educators (house-parents) must accompany him, so that he will form a sound relationship with the religion in which he believes, and will find peace of mind.

In the children's home, the content of the child's religion will depend upon the content of the faith of the house-parents. By observation, imitation, participation, identification and assimilation, the child develops

positive or negative attitudes towards his religion. By their example and support, house-parents can help the child in educational distress to develop a own philosophy of life, with regards to the meaningfulness of his life. Drescher (1991:86-87) says that there is no substitute for a religious home environment and for religious instruction if children are to remain committed to their religious heritage. In providing a religious environment, the children's home can guide the child to assume responsibility for his own beliefs, attitude, commitments and life-style.

4.9 ACCOUNTABLE HOUSE-PARENTS

The acceptance of the post as house-parent in a children's home is synonymous with the acceptance of responsibility for the care and education of the child in educational distress. The aim of the education of the child in educational distress is the same as that for the child with "normal" educational needs, namely to educate the child to that level of self-determination, independence and responsibility of which he is capable (Harper, 1985:7-8). In order to succeed in this, the task of the house-parent will be remarkably different and often more demanding, because of the particular educational needs of the educationally neglected child. The "re-education" of the child who has been subjected to the educational mistakes of incapable parents, will require special skills and expertise from the house-parents. House-parents should have no uncertainties as to their responsibility as "substitute parents". As "substitute parents" in a children's home, house-parents should have adequate training, or receive in-service training to obtain basic knowledge with regards to psychology, orthopedagogy, administration, etc. They should be fully aware of the role, purpose and task, as well as the possibilities and limitations of their activities, regarding the education of

the educationally neglected child. House-parents must be able to work in a team, be able to handle pressure, be emotionally stable and have faith in their task.

According to Bacher (1985:3-4), Burger (1984:1-2) and Eisikovits (1983:1-51) the following can *inter alia* be considered as skills needed by house-parents in the responsible guiding of the child towards optimal self-actualization:

(1)   The creation of a family atmosphere

In every family it is primarily the parent's task to make the child feel at home in the world - to prepare him for the demands of life which will be made on him. For this, a permanent space, a family space, or home, is necessary, because education begins in the family. The family situation is a particular form of togetherness of people in a place of trust and intimacy, which may then be demarcated as our space. This caring space (home), is experienced by the child as a personal space, i.e. space for himself. Personal space is a space to which the child attributes certain meaning, certain values regarding his situatedness-in-the-world.

As "substitute parent", it is the house-parent's responsibility to create an adequate "family milieu" for the child who has been removed from his own family. The educationally neglected child has a need for a permanent space which serves as a family space, which he can experience as his own space, within which he can move freely, from which he can observe, explore and conquer the world. House-parents must therefore establish a family atmosphere in which the child feels safe, trusted and accepted as one of the "family".

(2)   Physical care

The house-parent's loving and personal physical care of the child, to provide for his bodily needs, is necessary for the child's physical well-being - a pre-requisite to the well-being of the child as totality. Adequate physical care by parents (house-parents) is the single most important requirement for the child's attachment to them. The child feels accepted, which is essential for the emergence of the relationship of trust. Proper physical care is experienced by the child as protective assurance, as well as an expression of parental affection. If the child's physical needs are sufficiently fulfilled, he is able to cope better with anxiety and conflict situations.

(3)   Concern and interest

House-parents should show genuine concern and interest towards the educationally neglected child's feelings and "special" needs. They should care about the child's well-being, health, joys and sorrows. They should be interested in what is happening with the child and how the child is. Sincere concern and interest means: it hurts me when you get hurt, I feel and share your joy, your sorrow, your enthusiasm, your loss and your confidence - in fact, you matter to me.

(4)   Support and assistance

The house-parent must render support and assistance to the child in such a manner that he feels safe and experiences acceptance. They must demonstrate a relationship of warm, emotional closeness to the child, and also show emotional involvement. In showing their willingness to help

and support the child at any time, the child experiences security and feels accepted as he is by the house-parents. Accountable support and assistance can be rendered by house-parents who are always available to help the child, exercise strict disciplinary measures, are consistent in their actions, and are trustworthy.

(5)   Forming of relationships

In initiating and building a harmonious relationship with the educationally neglected child, the house-parent creates an atmosphere suitable for "re-education". All education can only be adequately realized within a relationship of trust, understanding and authority between house-parent (educator) and child (educand).

(6)   Affection

In their actions, deeds and beliefs, the house-parents can show to the children in the children's home that they truly care for them. They can make their affection known to the child through a loveable hug, in listening with interest to the child's joys, sorrows, fears, disappointments, achievements, expectations, worries, etc.

(7)   Knowledge and understanding

To understand and know the child is a condition for creating and maintaining opportunities to help the child in educational distress. To be able to render adequate support to the child in the children's home, the house-parent has to learn to know and understand the child well, and to acquaint himself progressively and more thoroughly with him, especially

regarding the "special" needs of the educationally neglected child.

(8)   Discipline

The code of conduct of the children's home should always be spelled out clearly and consistently, and held up fairly. Children like to know what they can and cannot do. In their disciplinary actions, house-parents must be firm, fair and consistent, but also allow for a certain degree of flexibility. Disciplinary actions should be taken as soon as possible after the offence, otherwise the child will lose respect for the disciplinarian.

(9)   Regard for human dignity

Regard for the dignity of the child in the children's home must at all times be showed by the house-parent. A house-parent that shows reverence for his own human dignity, and strives towards the realisation of the demands of propriety, will also show regard for the dignity of a fellow human being - including the child in the children's home.

(10)   Acceptance

Acceptance of the child in educational distress as an individual with shortcomings, special needs and problems, is essential for winning his trust. This implies that the house-parent must accept the child as he is, and not as he should be. The house-parent has to accept, with humility, that it is his task to take the educationally neglected child by the hand, and to support and guide him towards responsible adulthood.

(11)   Morality

The house-parent must aspire to arouse the aspirational life and appreciative life of the child to such an extent that he will at least sense the moral good, and obey the norms emanating from it. Moral guidance by the house-parent will amount to the appeal to the child to make his choices, and direct his actions in such a way that they are in keeping with the requirements of propriety. To ensure that the child increasingly obeys moral norms, the house-parent should prescribe norms for himself, and live up to these norms in actual education situations.

(12)   Religious guidance

In their exemplification, support and guidance, the house-parents can help the child in the assimilation of a religion. The religious beliefs of the child in the children's home depends largely on the behavioural example of his educators (house-parents) and the religious experiences in the children's home.

4.10 SUMMARY

The child is admitted to the children's home as an educationally neglected child. In a dysfunctional parental home, most aspects of the education of the child have been neglected and therefore the child is removed. Educational neglect means that the child is deprived of that which is essential for his adequate development towards adulthood - the becoming of the child is incomplete. The educationally neglected child experiences his becoming as impaired, and does not understand the need for education. Educational deficiencies have transformed the child's

educational situation into a problematic one.

The task of the children's home includes the physical, psychological, social, moral and spiritual "re-education" of the child in educational distress, thus, the total or complete "re-education" of the child. A child needs both a father and a mother to create an atmosphere 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 (situation) - a normal family to provide him with enough self-confidence to lead him to extend the horizons of his life-world and simultaneously accept his task as co-designer of a world of human co-existence. Providing a harmonious and healthy family environment does not rest with only one of the parents, but is the outcome of a shared parenting task and responsible parenthood from both parents. Both parents should be accessible to the child, willing to communicate with and listen to the child, do things with the child and exemplify responsible adult behaviour.

The education of the child in the children's home is totally directed by the group situation - the family group and the children's home group. In a group situation, there are many instances in which the child's educational needs cannot be sufficiently met, and in which the child does not receive the individual attention that he needs. However, in spite of the limitations of "group education", the group situation in the children's home is one of the means which presents potentially powerful opportunities to assist the child in educational distress - to orientate the child in a positive direction. The group can act as a positively reinforcing agent in helping the child develop positive prosocial values, and strong sanctions help to ensure conformity to social norms and values. It can also be a primary vehicle for change, and the children in the group can

help each other resolve problems both in and out of the group.

The child's welfare (physical, affective, cognitive, moral and spiritual) should have a high priority in the house-parent's lives. They must be fully aware that the child has to be guided, protected, and safeguarded in a responsible manner. The potentials and limitations of the child have to be taken into consideration on all his niveaux of becoming. The child's educational distress imposes a greater responsibility on the house-parents. They have to take into account to what extent the neglected aspects of the child's education require special attention, without being detrimental to other children in the "family". Therefore, "parenting" or education in a children's home will be a more demanding and complex task than that performed in a "normal" family.

The theory (cf. 1.4.10) of this study and the questions in the questionnaire (cf. Appendix A) are based on the effectiveness of the educative task of the house-parents (cf. 4.9).

The planning of the research will be explained in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 5

CHAPTER 5

PLANNING OF THE RESEARCH

5.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Smit (1983:10) it is imperative that a valid literature study precedes empirical research. In the preceding chapters the origin, development and "idealised task" of children's homes were described and the educational needs of the child in the children's home delineated by means of available relevant literature. The literature study also revealed the house-parents' educational responsibility towards the child in educational distress. The education of the child admitted to the children's home has been impaired by the inadequate intervention of incapable parents.

This chapter describes the methodological procedures adopted in constructing, administering and analysing the questionnaires employed in the research.

5.2 PREPARATION FOR AND DESIGN OF THE RESEARCH

The researcher obtained all the help he could in planning and constructing the questionnaire (Appendix A). Other questionnaires were studied and after formulating an item it was submitted to the study leader for evaluation. In the designing of the questionnaire separate cards were used for each item. This enabled the researcher to revise, refine or replace an item in developing the questionnaire without changing the entire instrument. This procedure also provided flexibility in arranging

items in the most appropriate psychological order before the questionnaire was put into its final form.

5.2.1 Permission

With the aim of administering the questionnaire to the house-parents in the selected children's homes, it was essential to first request permission from the Board of Management of each home. A letter to obtain the necessary permission was drafted (Appendix B) and posted to the chairperson of the Board. A copy of the preliminary questionnaire (Appendix A) for the Board's approval was enclosed in the letter.

After permission was granted by the Boards of Management a letter to request permission from the principals of the children's homes (Appendix C) was drafted. After permission was granted by the principals the researcher made arrangements for administering the questionnaire to the house-parents at dates and times that would be convenient to them.

5.2.2 Selection of respondents

Children's homes in the Durban area were selected in order to save money and time in administering the questionnaire. All the house-parents in these selected homes completed the questionnaire which provided the researcher with 31 completed questionnaires.

The purpose of the research was explained to the respondents in the accompanying letter. Anonymity and confidentiality in the completion of the questionnaire were assured to the respondents.

5.3   THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

5.3.1 The questionnaire as research instrument

According to Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994: 504) a questionnaire is a set of questions dealing with some topic or related group of topics, given to a selected group of individuals for the purpose of gathering data on a problem under consideration. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:190) define the questionnaire as a prepared question form submitted to certain persons (respondents) with a view to obtaining information. Churchill and Peter (Schnetler, 1993: 77) have shown that the measuring instrument has the greatest influence on the reliability of research data. The characteristics of measurement are best controlled by the careful construction of the instrument. There is, however, insufficient appreciation for the fact that a questionnaire should be constructed according to certain principles (Behr, 1988:155-156).

A well-designed questionnaire is the culmination of a long process of planning the research objective, formulating the problem, generating the hypothesis, etc. A questionnaire is not simply thrown together. A poorly designed questionnaire can invalidate any research results, notwithstanding the merits of the sample, the field workers and the statistical techniques (Huysamen, 1989:2). In their criticism of questionnaires Berchie and Anderson (Schnetler, 1993:61) object to poor design rather than to questionnaires as such. A well-designed questionnaire can boost the reliability and validity of the data to acceptable tolerances (Schumacher & Meillon, 1993:42).

It therefore stands to reason that questionnaire design does not take

place in a vacuum. According to Dane (1990:315-319) the length of individual questions, the number of response options, as well as the format and wording of questions are determined by the following:

- Choice of the subject to be researched.
- Aim of the research.
- Size of the research sample.
- Method of data collection.
- Analysis of the data.

Against this background the researcher can now look at the principles that determine whether a questionnaire is well-designed. It is thus necessary to draw a distinction between questionnaire content, question format, question order, type of questions, formulation of questions and validity and reliability of questions.

5.3.2 Construction of the questionnaire

Questionnaire design is an activity that should not take place in isolation. The researcher should consult and seek advice from specialists and colleagues at all times during the construction of the questionnaire (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988:198). Questions to be taken up in the questionnaire should be tested on people to eliminate possible errors. A question may appear correct to the researcher when written down but can be interpreted differently when directed to another person. There should be no hesitation in changing questions several times before the final formulation keeping in mind the original purpose. The most important point to be taken into account in questionnaire design is that it takes time and effort and that the questionnaire will be re-drafted a

number of times before being finalised. A researcher must therefore ensure that adequate time is budgeted for in the construction and preliminary testing of the questionnaire (Kidder & Judd, 1986:243-245). All of the above was taken into consideration by the researcher during the designing of the questionnaire for this investigation.

An important aim in the construction of the questionnaire for this investigation was to present the questions as simple and straightforward as possible. Reasons for this were that not all members of the target population under investigation might be adequately literate to interpret questions correctly or familiar with the completion of questionnaires. The researcher further aimed to avoid ambiguity, vagueness, bias, prejudice and technical language in the questions.

The aim of the questionnaire (Appendix A) was to obtain information from the house-parents in children's homes regarding their educational responsibility in meeting the needs of the child in educational distress. The questions were formulated to establish the importance of the house-parent-child-relationship with regard to the following:

- The relationship of trust.
- The relationship of understanding.
- The relationship of authority.

The questionnaire was sub-divided into two sections as follows:

- Section one which dealt with the biographical information of the respondents and consisted of questions 1.1 to 1.21.

- Section two focused on the occupational milieu of the house-parents and included questions 2.1 to 2.17.

- Section three dealt with the relationship of trust. understanding and authority between the house-parent and the child in the children's home (4.1 to 4.25). This section consisted of items in which respondents were requested to indicate their responses in five ways: almost never, seldom, often, regularly and always.

5.3.3 Characteristics of a good questionnaire

Throughout the construction of the questionnaire the researcher had to consider the characteristics of a good questionnaire in order to meet the requirements necessary for the research instrument to be reliable. The characteristics of a good questionnaire that were considered by the researcher are, according to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:190), Mahlangu (1987:84-85) and Norval (1988:60) the following:

- It has to deal with a significant topic, one the respondent will recognize as important enough to warrant spending his or her time on. The significance should be clearly and carefully stated on the questionnaire and on the accompanying letter.

- It must seek only that information which cannot be obtained from other sources.

- It must be as short as possible, but long enough to get the essential data. Long questionnaires frequently find their way into the wastepaper basket.

- Questionnaires should be attractive in appearance, neatly arranged and clearly duplicated or printed.

- Directions for a good questionnaire must be clear and complete and important terms clearly defined.

- Each question has to deal with a single concept and should be worded as simply and straightforwardly as possible.

- Different categories should provide an opportunity for easy, accurate and unambiguous responses.

- Objectively formulated questions with no leading suggestions should render the desired responses. Leading questions are just as inappropriate in a questionnaire as they are in a court of law.

- Questions should be presented in a proper psychological order, proceeding from general to more specific and sensitive responses. An orderly grouping helps respondents to organise their own thinking so that their answers are logical and objective. It is preferable to present questions that create a favourable attitude before proceeding to those that are more intimate or delicate in nature. Annoying and/or embarrassing questions should be avoided.

5.3.4 Advantages and disadvantages of the questionnaire

Data can be gathered by means of a structured questionnaire in *inter alia* the following ways: a written questionnaire that is mailed, delivered or handed out personally; personal interviews; telephone interviews (Kidder and Judd, 1986: 221). Each mode has specific advantages and disadvantages which the researcher needs to evaluate for their suitability to the research question and the specific target population being studied, as well as relative cost. Researcher used the written questionnaire as research instrument taking into consideration the following advantages (Mahlangu, 1987:94-85; Norval, 1988:60).

(1) Advantages of the written questionnaire

- Affordability is the primary advantage of written questionnaires because it is the least expensive means of data gathering.

- Written questionnaires preclude possible interviewer bias. The way the interviewer asks questions and even the interviewer's general appearance or interaction may influence respondent's answers. Such biases can be completely eliminated with a written questionnaire.

- A questionnaires permit anonymity. If it is arranged such that responses were given anonymously, this would increase the researcher's chances of receiving responses which genuinely represent a person's beliefs, feelings, opinions or perceptions.

- They permit a respondent a sufficient amount of time to consider answers before responding.

- Questionnaires can be given to many people simultaneously, that is to say that a large sample of a target population can be reached.

- They provide greater uniformity across measurement situations than do interviews. Each person responds to exactly the same questions because standard instructions are given to the respondents.

- Generally the data provide by questionnaires can be more easily analyzed and interpreted than the data obtained from verbal responses.

- Using a questionnaire solves the problem of non-contact when the respondent is not at home "when the interviewer calls". When the target population to be covered is widely and thinly spread, the mail questionnaire is the only possible method of approach.

- Through the use of questionnaires the problems related to interviews may be avoided. Interview "errors" may seriously undermine the reliability and validity of survey results.

- A respondents may answer questions of a personal or embarrassing nature more willingly and frankly on a questionnaire than in a face to face situation with an

interviewer. In some cases it may happen that respondents report less than expected and make more critical comments in a mail questionnaire.

. Questions requiring considered answers rather than immediate answers could enable respondents to consult documents in the case of the mail questionnaire approach.

. Respondents can complete questionnaires in their own time and in a more relaxed atmosphere.

. Questionnaire design is relative easily if the set guidelines are followed.

, The administering of questionnaires, the coding, analysis and interpretation of data can be done without any special training.

. Data obtained from questionnaires can be compared and inferences made.

. Questionnaires can elicit information which cannot be obtained from other sources. This render empirical research possible in different educational disciplines.

(2)   Disadvantages of the questionnaire

Researcher is also aware of the fact that the written questionnaire has important disadvantages. According to Van den Aardweg and Van den

Aardweg (1988:190), Kidder and Judd (1986:223-224) and Mahlangu (1987:84-85) the disadvantages of the questionnaire are *inter alia* the following:

- Questionnaires do 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 the question. If questions asked are interpreted differently by respondents the validity of the information obtained is jeopardized.

- People are generally better able to express their views verbally than in writing.

- Questions can be answered only when they are sufficiently easy and straightforward to be understood with the given instructions and definitions.

- The mail questionnaire does not make provision for obtaining the views of more than one person at a time. It requires the unbiased views of one person only.

- Answers to mail questionnaires must be seen as final. Re-checking of responses cannot be done. There is no chance of investigating beyond the given answer for a clarification of ambiguous answers. If respondents are unwilling to answer certain questions nothing can be done to it because the mail questionnaire is essentially inflexible.

- In a mail questionnaire the respondent examines all the questions at the same time before answering them and the answers to the different questions can therefore not be treated as "independent".

- Researchers are unable to control the context of question answering, and specifically, the presence of other people. Respondents may ask friends or family members to examine the questionnaire or comment on their answers, causing bias if the respondent's own private opinions are desired.

- Written questionnaires do not allow the researcher to correct misunderstandings or answer questions that the respondents may have. Respondents might answer questions incorrectly or not at all due to confusion or misinterpretation.

5.3.5 Validity and reliability of the questionnaire

There are two concepts that are of critical importance in understanding issues of measurement in social science research, namely validity and reliability (Huysamen, 1989:1-3). All too rarely do questionnaire designers deal consciously with the degree of validity and reliability of their instrument. This is one reason why so many questionnaires are lacking in these two qualities (Cohen & Manion, 1989:15). Questionnaires have a very limited purpose. In fact, they are often one-time data gathering devices with a very short life, administered to a limited population. There are ways 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, do the items sample a significant aspect of the purpose of the investigation? Terms must be clearly defined so that they have the same meaning to all respondents (Cohen & Manion, 1989: 111-112).

Kidder and Judd (1989:53-54) mention the fact that although reliability and validity are two different characteristics of measurement, they "shade into each other". They are two ends of a continuum but at points in the middle it is difficult to distinguish between them. Validity and reliability are especially important in educational research because most of the measurements attempted in this area are obtained indirectly. Researchers can never guarantee that an educational or psychological measuring instrument measures precisely and dependably what it is intended to measure (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988:198). It is essential, therefore, to assess the validity and reliability of these instruments. Researchers must therefore have a general knowledge as to what validity and reliability are and how one goes about validating a research instrument and establishing its reliability (Huysamen, 1989:1-3).

(1) Validity of the questionnaire

Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:560) define validity as the extent to which a measuring instrument satisfies the purpose for which it was constructed. It also refers to the extent to which it correlates with some criterion external to the instrument itself. Validity is that quality of a data-gathering instrument or procedure that enables it to determine what it was designed to determine. In general terms validity refers to the degree to which an instrument succeeds in measuring what it has set out to measure. Behr (1988:122) regards

validity as an indispensable characteristic of measuring devices.

Van den Aardweg and Van Den Aardweg (1988:237), Mulder (1981:215-217) and Dane (1990:257-258) distinguish between three different types of validity:

.   Content validity where content and cognitive processes included can be measured. Topics, skills and abilities should be prepared and items from each category randomly drawn.

.   Criterium validity which refers to the relationship between scores on a measuring instrument and an independent variable (criterion) believed to measure directly the behaviour or characteristic in question. The criterion should be relevant, reliable and free from bias and contamination.

.   Construct validity where the extent to which the test measures a specific trait or construct is concerned, for example, intelligence, reasoning, ability, attitudes, etc.

It means that validity of the questionnaire indicates how worthwhile a measure is likely to be in a given situation. Validity shows whether the instrument is reflecting the true story, or at least something approximating the truth. A valid research instrument is one that has demonstrated that it detects some "real" ability, attitude or prevailing situation that the researcher can identify and characterize (Schnetler, 1993:71). 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 (Dane, 1990:158).

The validity of the questionnaire as a research instrument reflects the sureness with which conclusions can be drawn. It refers to the extent to which interpretations of the instrument's results, other than the ones the researcher wishes to make, can be ruled out. Establishing validity requires that the researcher anticipates the potential arguments that sceptics might use to dismiss the research results (Dane, 1990:148).

The researcher employed the questionnaire as an indirect method to measure house-parents' awareness of their educational responsibility regarding the child in the children's home. Because of the complexity of the respondent's attributes one is never sure that a questionnaire will actually measure what it purports to measure. Items such as height, mass, length or size cannot be measured in a questionnaire. From the interpretation of the results obtained and the sureness with which conclusions could be drawn, the researcher is, however, convinced that the questionnaire to a great extent did measure that which is was designed for.

(2)   Reliability of the questionnaire

According to Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994: 512) reliability is a statistical concept and relates to consistency and dependability. Consistency of obtaining the same relative answer when measuring phenomena that have not changed. A reliable measuring instrument is one that, if repeated under similar conditions, would present the same result or a near approximation of the initial result. Van den

Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:194) and Kidder and Judd (1986: 47-48) distinguish between the following types of reliability:

- Test-retest reliability (coefficient of stability) - consistency estimated by comparing two or more repeated administrations of the measuring instrument. This gives an indication of the dependability of the results on one occasion which may then be compared with the results obtained on another occasion.

- Internal consistency reliability. This indicates how well the test items measure the same thing.

- Split-half reliability. By correlating the results obtained from two halves of the same measuring instrument, we can calculate the split-half reliability.

In essence, reliability refers to consistency, but consistency does not guarantee truthfulness. The reliability of questions is no proof that the answers given reflect the respondent's true feelings (Dane, 1990: 256). 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 effect reliability are *inter alia* the following (Mulder, 1981: 209; Kidder & Judd, 1986:45);

- Fluctuations in the mood or alertness of respondents because of illness, fatigue, recent good or bad experiences, or temporary differences amongst members of the group being measured.

- Variations in the conditions of administration between groups. These range from various distractions, such as unusual outside noise to inconsistencies in the administration of the measuring instrument such as omissions in verbal instructions.

- Differences in scoring or interpretation of results, chance differences in what the observer notices and errors in computing scores.

- Random effects by respondents who guess or check off attitude alternatives without trying to understand them.

When the questionnaire is used as an empirical research instrument there is no specific method, for example the "test-retest" method, to determine the reliability of the questionnaire. Therefore, it will be difficult to establish to what extent the answers of the respondents were reliable. Researcher, however, believes that the questionnaires in this investigation were completed with the necessary honesty and sincerity required to render the maximum possible reliability. Frankness in responding to questions was made possible by the prospect of anonymity promised to the respondent. In the coding of the questions it was evident that questionnaires were completed with the necessary dedication.

5.4   PILOT STUDY

A pilot study is an abbreviated version of a research project in which the researcher practises or tests the procedures to be used in the subsequent

full-scale project (Dane, 1990:42). For the purpose of the pilot study in this research project, ten people were selected from amongst the researcher's colleagues. The pilot study is a preliminary or "trial run" investigation using similar questions and similar subjects as in the final survey. Kidder and Judd (1986:211-212) say 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 measuring instrument. A pilot study gives the researcher an idea of what the method will actually look like in operation and what effects (intended or otherwise) it is likely to have. In other words, by generating many of the practical problems that will ultimately arise, a pilot study enables the researcher to avert these problems by changing procedures, instructions and questions.

The number of participants in the pilot study or group is normally smaller than the number scheduled to take part in the final survey. Participants in the pilot study and the sample for the final study must be selected from the same target population. For the purpose of this study the researcher conducted a pilot run on ten of his colleagues with school-going children.

According to Plug, Meyer, Louw and Gouws (1991: 49-66) the following are the purposes of a pilot study, and these were also the aim of the researcher in this survey:

- It permitted a preliminary testing of the hypothesis that leads to testing more precise hypotheses in the main study.

- It provided the researcher 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.

- Feedback from other persons involved were made possible and led to important improvements in the main study.

- In the pilot study the researcher tried out a number of alternative measures and selected only those that produced the best results for the final study.

- The approximate time required to complete the questionnaire was established in the pilot study.

- Questions and/or instructions that were misinterpreted were reformulated.

Through the use of the pilot study as "pre-test" the researcher was satisfied that the questions asked complied adequately to the requirements of the study.

5.5   ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

If properly administered the questionnaire is the best available instrument for obtaining information from widespread sources or large groups simultaneously (Landman, 1980:39). Researcher personally delivered questionnaires to the children's homes and collected them again after completion. This method of administration facilitated the process and the response rate. A 100% return rate was obtained with 31 questionnaires completed and collected.

5.6   THE PROCESSING OF THE DATA

Once data was collected, it was captured in a format which would permit analysis and interpretation. This involved the careful coding of the questionnaires completed by the house-parents in children's homes. The coded data was subsequently transferred onto a computer spreadsheet using the Quattro Pro 4.0 statistics computer programme, The coded data was submitted to the Department of Statistics at the University of Natal and computer analyzed using the SAS programme in order to interpret the results by means of descriptive statistics.

5.6.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics serve to describe and summarise observations (Van Rensburg, Landman & Bodenstein, 1994:355). Frequency tables, histograms and polygons are useful in forming impressions about the distribution of data. According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988: 65-76) frequency distribution is a method to organize data obtained from questionnaires to simplify statistical analysis. For the

purpose of this study frequency tables provided percentages that reflect the number of responses to a certain question in relation to the total number of responses.

5.6.2 Application of data

The questionnaire (Appendix A) was designed to determine house-parents awareness regarding their educational responsibility in a children's home. In order to obtain the information needed for the purpose of this study the questionnaire was sub-divided into two sections.

- Section 1 required demographic information about the house-parent and included items 1.1 to 1.7

- Section 2 was aimed at the occupational milieu of the house-parent in the children's home

- Section 3 gathered information regarding the relationships of trust, understanding and authority between the house-parent and the child in the children's home.

  - The relationship of trust was covered by items 4.8, 4.9, 4.10 4.13, 4.16, 4.18, 4.21, 4.22, 4.25.

  - The relationship of understanding included items 4.1, 4.2, 4.11, 4.12, 4.15, 4.19, 4.20, 4.23, 4.24.

  - The relationship of authority involved items 4.3, 4.4, 4.5, 4.6, 4.7, 4.14, 4.17. 2.28, 2.36, 2.37, 2.42.

5.7   LIMITATIONS OF THE INVESTIGATION

This investigation was constrained by a number of factors. The following are likely factors that might have influenced the reliability and validity of the questionnaire:

- Although anonymity was required in the questionnaire the possibility exists that, because of the sensitive nature of the information required, house-parents might not have been frank and truthful in their responses.

- Respondents could have felt loyalty towards the children's home that employed them and therefore gave biased, false or misleading responses that could have influenced the reliability of the results.

- The questions were only formulated in English which is not necessarily the mother-tongue of all the house-parents. House-parents with a poor command in English might have mis-interpreted questions and thereby influenced the validity of the findings.

5.8   SUMMARY

In this chapter the planning and design of the empirical research was discussed and a description of the questionnaire as research instrument was given.

In the following chapter the data obtained from the completed questionnaires will be analyzed.

CHAPTER 6

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE RESEARCH DATA   PAGE

CHAPTER 6

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE RESEARCH DATA

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The objective of this chapter will be to discuss the data collected from the questionnaires completed by thirty-one house-parents. Findings from the data will be interpreted and commented on, and apparent patterns and trends reflected, discussed. Thereafter the responses to the questions will be described by means of descriptive statistics.

6.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The descriptive method of research seeks to describe a situation as it is - in this study the educational responsibility of the house-parent in a children's home. There is no intervention on the part of the researcher by means of experimental control or the establishing of possible causes and effects. By means of descriptive research the aim was to seek the natural settings in the children's homes with special attention to the relationship between the house-parent and child

6.2.1 Gender of house parents

Table 1   Distribution according to the house-parents' gender

	Gender	%
1	Male	29%
2	Female	71%
	TOTAL	100%

Table 1 indicates that the majority (71 %) of the house-parents are female and 29% are male. This distribution corresponds with the national ratio between male and female as it exists in other similar professions such as teaching.

6.2.2 Marital status

Table 2   **Distribution according to the house-parents' marital status**

	Marital status	%
1	Married	23%
2	Widow/Widower	6%
3	Divorced	19%
4	Never married	52%
	TOTAL	100%

According to Table 2 most of the house-parents (77%) are not married and therefore do not represent a "normal substitute family" with a father and mother present. A married couple creates a situation where there is identification figures from both sexes available to the child. The child is offered the opportunity to be brought up in a natural family environment. The unmarried house-parents may be viewed as "single-parent families" and the children in these "families" do not have the privilege of identifying with a "substitute father" because most of the house-parents are single females (cf. 6.2.1).

6.2.3 House-parents' own children

Table 3   Distribution according to the house-parents' own children

	Number of own children	%
1	None	0%
2	One	55%
3	Two	23%
4	Three	10%
5	Four	6%
6	Five	3%
7	Six	0%
8	Seven	3%
	TOTAL	100%

Table 3 shows that all the house-parents have children of their own. Research done by Vos (1994:87) indicates that house-parents with own children reveal more patience and insight in meeting the needs of the child in educational distress in the children's home. A possible question that certainly arises is whether the house-parent with own children does not find the obligation of caring for 10-12 children, or sometimes even more (cf. 6.2.17) too exacting (Painter, 1983:84).

6.2.4 Age of house-parents

Table 4   Distribution according to the house-parents' age

	Age	%
1	0 - 20 year	0%
2	21 - 25 year	26%
3	26 - 30 year	26%
4	31 - 35 year	12%
5	36 - 40 year	23%
6	41 - 45 year	10%
7	46 - 50 year	0%
8	51 - 55 year	3%
	TOTAL	100%

Although researchers do not refer to a specific age group as "suitable parents" or specific personality qualities which also makes specification more difficult, it can however be established that a parent must have a specific "life-maturity" (Clough, 1982:99). For Foster (1981:3,10) the "suitable parent" falls within the age-group 30 to 45 years. Parents in this age group are not too old to bring about adequate contact with the child and also not too young to serve as suitable identification figures (role models) for the child. According to Painter (1983:89) house-parents older than fifty-years are often not adequately equipped physically and/or emotionally for the exacting task of educating the child in educational distress in the children's home. From Table 4 it appears that forty-five percent of the house-parents fall in this "suitable age-group".

6.2.5 Home language of house-parents

Table 5   Distribution according to the home language of the house-parents

	Language	%
1	English	71%
2	Afrikaans	0%
3	Both	0%
4	Other	29%
	TOTAL	100%

The majority (71%) of house-parents' were English speaking (Table 5). The educationally deprived child feels more at "home" in the care of a house-parent that is powerful in his language (Handleiding, 1981: 16). It will eliminate the possibility of communication problems which serves in intensifying the educational distress of the child (Colyar, 1984:4).

6.2.6 Religious affiliation of house-parents

Table 6   Distribution according to the house-parent's religion

	Religion	%
1	Hinduism	42%
2	Islam	26%
3	Christianity	32%
	TOTAL	100%

Table 6 shows that the larger number (42%) of the house-parents are Hindus - a predicted finding because the research was mainly conducted in Indian children's homes.   With a personal faith, experience and knowledge the house-parent can be a source of comfort and spiritual security to the child in educational distress.

6.2.7 Educational qualifications of house-parents

Table 7   Distribution according to the qualifications of the house-parents

	Qualifications	%
1	Std 10 or lower	52%
2	Std 10 + 1 year training	19%
3	Std 10 + 2 years training	16%
4	Std 10 + 3 years training	13%
5	Std 10 + 4 years training	0%
6	Std 10 + 5 years training	0%
	TOTAL	100%

The data reflected in Table 7 corresponds with the finding of Gannon (1988:33), namely that less than fifty percent of the house-parents in the Republic of South Africa have no further relevant training after matric.

6.2.8 Qualifications in residential child care

Table 8   Distribution according to house-parents qualifications in residential child care

	Further training	%
1	Diploma in child care	19%
2	National Higher Certificate in residential child care	20%
3	Certificate in child care	10%
4	Other	3%
5	No further qualifications	48%
	TOTAL	100%

More than half (51%) of the house-parents have no formal training in residential child care (Table 8). According to Painter's (1983:90) findings this "gap" or "deficiency" has a negative effect on the work-performance of the house-parent in the sense that they cannot adequately perform the multiple duties required of them in a multi-professional team. This often result in feelings of despondency, frustration and inferiority which may be projected onto the child.

6.2.9 Years of experience as a house-parent

Table 9   Distribution according to the number of years experience as a house-parent in a children's home

	Years experience	Total years	In present post
1	Less than a year	19%	23%
2	1 year	16%	19%
3	2 years	10%	13%
4	3 years	16%	10%
5	4 years	12%	16%
6	5 years	10%	6%
7	6 years	0%	0%
8	7 years	0%	0%
9	8 years	3%	0%
10	9 years	0%	0%
11	10 years	6%	0%
12	More than 10 years	6%	0%
	TOTAL	100	100

The data in Table 9 suggests an alarming tendency, namely the high fluctuations of the number of years experience as a house-parent in a children's home. More than half (55%) of the house-parents have two years or less experience and 65% three years or less experience. With

each change of house-parent the child has to form a new relationship with a new "substitute" parent with a different educational style. Biderman-Pam and Gannon (1990:92) are of the opinion that the change of personnel in the children's home provides insufficient opportunity for the establishing of an adequate educational relationship. In the absence of a relationship based on trust, understanding and authority, educational activities and educational goal structures cannot be sufficiently realized. Herbert (1988:93) states that with each change the child relives rejection and often feels that it is he who failed and thus experiences insecurity.

6.2.10 Previous occupations of house-parents

Table 10   Distribution   according   to   house-parent's   previous occupations

	Previous occupation	%
1	Child care worker	3
2	Student	16
3	Teacher	10
4	Nurse	6
5	Clerk	23
6	Self-employed	10
7	Driver	10
8	Managerial post	3
9	Unemployed	19
	Total	100%

The response frequency in Table 10 shows that only thirteen percent of the house-parents came from professions that were associated with taking care of children namely child care work (3%) and teachers (10%). Nearly a fifth (19%) were unemployed and possibly had no work experience. These findings imply that the majority (87%) of the house-

parents should receive training related to child care in order to meet the special needs of the child in a children's home.

6.2.11   Help received by house-parents in their duties

Table 11   Distribution according to the persons from whom house-parents received help regarding their duties

	Persons help was received from	%
1	Director/Head of children's home	6%
2	Social worker	58%
3	Administrative staff	36%
4	Other house-parents	0%
5	Committee member	0%
4	Nurse-Aid	0%
5	Other	0%
	TOTAL	100

Most of the house-parents (58%) indicated that the social worker provided them with guidance and support regarding child care duties in the children's home.

6.2.12   Service contract

Table 12   Distribution according to the house-parents' receiving a service contract

	Service contract	Yes	No
1	Was a service contract signed?	16%	84%
2	Are duties sufficiently explain in the contract?	81%	19%

An alarming high percentage (84%) of the house-parents did not sign a service contract (Table 12). Rossouw (1988:12) and Theron (1986:3)

feel that because of the variety of duties that is required of the house patents and the responsibility that the task entails, a service contract in which the duties are clearly outlined is indispensable for the effective task performance by the house-parents. Hatchuel (1986:6) is of the opinion that a service contract in which duties are fully explained is very helpful for especially new house-parents with no knowledge of residential child care.

6.3.13   Availability of courses in child care

Table 13   Distribution according to the house-parents' awareness of courses available for them

	House-parents awareness of available courses	Yes	No
1	Diploma in Child Care Work	87%	13%
2	Higher Certificate in Residential Child Care	90%	10%

According to Table 13 only a small number (13%) and (10%) of the respondents were not aware of the diploma and certificate courses in child care work. Possible reasons for this are:

- a short service time in present education;
- inadequate information regarding available training; and
- lack of interest by house-parents.

Hoffman (1993:16) and Levine (1986:10) state that house-parents should be adequately informed with regard to relevant courses (new as well as existing) in their occupation, not just merely to improve their qualifications but also to be better equipped for the accomplished task in the children's home.

6.3.14 Study facilities for house-parents

Table 14 Distribution according to the study facilities available for house-parents

	Study facilities available	Yes	No
1	Study leave	19%	81%
2	Financial assistance	39%	61%

Table 14 shows that less than only a fifth (19%) of the respondents are knowledgeable about the availability of study leave for house-parents and only 39% is conscious of the availability of financial assistance for studies. It would thus appear that most of the house-parents have no knowledge about available study facilities. Clough (1988:41) says that because of the importance of the task performed by house-parents, it is essential that they receive the necessary training. Hoffman (1993:16) emphasizes the necessity for on-going relevant training of house-parents with the aim of learning new skills and knowledge and to expand and improve on acquired skills and knowledge in residential child care.

6.3.15   Formal-in-service training of house-parents

Table 15   Distribution according to the formal-in-service training of house-parents

	In-service-training	%
1	In-service-training is offered	100%
2	In service training not offered	0%
	In-service-training offered by:	
1	Director/head of children's home	19%
2	Senior child care worker	26%
3	Social worker	55%
	TOTAL	100%

All the house-parents receive in-service-training and most of them (55%) indicated that it was offered to them by social workers (Table 15). According to Mbanjwa (1990) in-services-courses are often organised by welfare agencies and other interests groups such as universities. Gannon (1988:23) noted that in-service-training courses within an organisation still remain one most of the most effective and economical ways to adequately equip staff with the necessary skills and knowledge they may require in fulfilling their task.

6.2.16 Residence of house-parents

Table 16   Distribution according to the house-parents' place of residence

	Place of residence	%
1	Separate house on premises (not with children)	6%
2	Separate flat on premises	0%
3	Separate flat in children's home	55%
4	Separate living quarters on premise	6%
5	Separate living quarters in children's home	33%
6	Separate house not on premises	0%
	TOTAL	100%

Table 16 reveals that only a small percentage (12%) of house-parents do not live with the children in the block or house system. House-parents living with the children enhances the creation of a substitute family for the child who has been removed from his own parental home (Millar, 1983:45).

6.2.17 Number of children cared for

Table 17   Distribution according to the number of children in a house-parent's care

	Number of children	%
1	5 children	3%
2	6 children	10%
3	7 children	3%
4	8 children	3%
5	9 children	13%
6	10 children	3%
7	11 children	10%
8	12 children	13%
9	13 children	3%
10	14 children	23%
11	15 children	10%
12	16 children	0%
13	17 children	0%
14	18 children	6%
	TOTAL	100%

According to various researchers the "ideal" number of children to be placed in the care of a house-parent is between ten and twelve (Foster, 1981; Gannon, 1988; Levine, 1989; Painter, 1983). The data in Table 17 shows that most of the house-parents (58%) are responsible for twelve or less children which is in accordance with the "ideal" number. Alarming, however, is the finding that forty-two percent of the house-parents have more than twelve children in their care. Although there are advantages associated with group teaching groups that are too large experience disadvantages (Handleiding, 1981:32). In large groups it is not always possible to meet the individual needs of every child.

Theron (1986:4) says that even the most dedicated, experienced and well trained house-parent will be discouraged in the educating process if the group is too large.

6.2.18 Age group of children

Table 18   Distribution according to the age group of the children in each house-parent's care

	Age group	%
1	Different age groups	100%
2	The same age group	0%
	TOTAL	100%

The placing of children of different age groups in the care of house-parents is in agreement with the constitution of a normal family (Ainsworth & Fulcher, 1981:37). All the house-parents in Table 18 fulfilled this ideal in their "families".

6.2.19 Supervision of study

Table 19   Distribution according to persons supervising study

	Supervisor	%
1	House-parent	90%
2	Prefects	0%
3	Older children	0%
4	Other	10%
	TOTAL	100%

Table 19 indicates that the majority (90%) of house-parents supervise

the study of the children in their care. By showing interest in the child's schoolwork and by assisting the child in homework, house-parents encourage the child in his formal education (Van Rensburg, 1994:339).

6.2.20 Assistance with study problems

Table 20 Distribution according to persons assisting children with study problems

	Person assisting	%
1	House-parent	74%
2	Social worker	0%
3	Older children	0%
4	Other	26%
	TOTAL	100%

From Table 20 it emerges that the minority (26%) of house-parents do not assist the children with their study problems. A possible reason for this finding is that house-parents are not always adequately equipped to effectively help children in different grades and with a variety of subjects. Righton (1986:6) has found that house-parents who have a large group of primary school children in their care often find it impossible to help them on an individual basis with study problems or just ordinary school work. Primary school children are to a great extent still dependent on adult guidance when doing their homework.

6.2.21 Forms of punishment

Table 21 Distribution according to the forms of punishment applied in the children's home

Form of punishment	Never	Some-times	Often	Always	TOTAL
Corporal punishment	74%	26%	0%	0%	100%
Group punishment	45%	39%	16%	0%	100%
Grounded	6%	59%	29%	6%	100%
Reduced pocket money	10%	67%	13%	10%	100%
Extra homework	19%	62%	13%	16%	100%
Do girls receive corporal punishment?	96%	4%	0%	0%	100%
Are prefects allowed to punish children?	100%	0%	0%	0%	100%

Foster (1981:60) and Young (1992:173) have found that the restriction of the child's privileges is the most effective form of punishment in the children's home. This punishment measure is also the one mostly applied in families with "normal, caring and fair" parents. According to Table 21 this is also the form of punishment used by most of the house-parents in children's homes. Eighty-eight percent of the house-parents often or sometimes ground the children and the same percentage (88%) applies the reduction of pocket money as a form of punishment.

6.2.22 Prefect (monitorial) system

Table 22   Distribution according to the existence of a prefect (monitorial) system.

	Prefects	%
1	Yes	13%
2	No	87%
	TOTAL	100

According to only a small percentage (13%) of the house-parents a prefect (monitor) system exists in the children's home where they are (Table 22). Prefects or monitors can, however, play a significant role in the exercising of discipline in the "large families" in a children's home (Naidoo, 1985:8-9). They can also be of great help with the orientation of new children in the home. Dingwall, Eekelaar and Murray (1983:199) are of the opinion that the prefect (monitorial) system promotes responsibility in older pupils because they help with the care of younger ones. Pelcher (1992:9) states that pupils who enjoy prefect status and recognition are given the opportunity for possible future leadership.

6.2.23 Awakening method

Table 23   Distribution according to the method by which children are awakened each morning

	Method	%
1	Alarm/siren	0%
2	Own alarm clock	0%
3	House-parents	100%
	TOTAL	100%

In Table 23 all the respondents indicated that they personally wake the children in the morning. This "personal attention" by house-parents help to fulfil the child's need for acceptance, belonging and security (Drescher, 1991:38). After admittance to a children's home the child feels anxious and experiences the new environment as unfamiliar. The new child who is awakened by the house-parents feels accepted in his new family, the child's feelings of anxiety are reduced.

6.2.24   Compulsory tasks for children

Table 24   Distribution according to tasks that are compulsory for children

Tasks	Yes %	No%	TOTAL
Make up beds	100%	0%	100%
Keep rooms tidy	100%	0%	100%
Set the table	94%	6%	100%
Clear the table	100%	0%	100%
Work in garden	94%	6%	100%

Table 24 reveals that the children in children's homes perform tasks similar to those performed by children in "normal" families. Hoffmann (1993: 16) says that it is necessary for children to perform certain tasks in order to learn skills, gain self-confidence and improve their self-image and in feeling that they are useful and needed.

6.2.25 Attending of outside activities

Table 25 Distribution according to the activities outside the children's home the children are permitted to attend

Activities	Yes %	No%	TOTAL
Film shows	94%	6%	100%
Concerts	90%	10%	100%
Excursions	100%	0%	100%
Weekend/Holiday camps	100%	0%	100%

From Table 25 it appears that very little restriction is placed on the children's attendance of, or participation in activities outside the children's home. Only sixteen percent of the respondents gave a negative answer. In taking part in activities outside the children's home the child learns that there are certain standards of behaviour and/or responsibilities which need to be conformed to (Ainsworth & Fulcher, 1981:120). Participation in group activities therefore helps in shaping the child's personality - the child learns which behaviours, norms and attitudes are acceptable in society. This also helps the child in his social orientation.

6.2.26 Pocket money

Table 26 Distribution according to children receiving and spending pocket money

	Pocket money	Yes %	No%	TOTAL
1	Do children receive pocket money?	100%	0%	100%
2	Is guidance given in respect of spending pocket money?	94%	6%	100%

Table 26 shows that all the children residing in children's homes receive pocket money and that the majority (94%) is given guidance with regard to the spending thereof. In teaching the child ways to spend money wisely he also learns to be responsible with regards to financial matters.

6.2.27 Knowledge of AIDS

Table 27 Distribution according to house-parents being adequately equipped to answer questions on AIDS, homosexuality, etc.

	Requirements	Yes %	No%	TOTAL
1	Are you adequately equipped to answer questions on AIDS/Homosexuality/etc.	81%	19%	100%
2	Do you require more knowledge on AIDS?	19%	81%	100%
	Persons you would like to get more knowledge from regarding the above			
1	Social Worker	3%		
2	Community Health Nurse	61%		
3	Doctor	3%		
4	School Guidance Counsellor	30%		
5	Department of Health	0%		
6	Not applicable	3%		
	TOTAL	100%		

Most of the house-parents (81%) regard their knowledge on AIDS as adequate to answer children questions thereof. However, the same percentage (81%) of respondents also indicated that they would like to require more knowledge on AIDS. This contradictory finding may be because people do not readily admit their lack of knowledge on such a prevalent issue as AIDS. The larger number of house-parents (61%) favoured the Community Health nurse as the source of more knowledge on aspects regarding sexuality.

Any aspect of sexuality education is a sensitive and delicate issue which must be handled with great care and authentic knowledge (McDowell, 1988:39). In dealing with questions on sexuality attention must not only be given to the physical aspects but the moral and social aspects must also be emphasized (Bongers & De Klerk, 1980:45). House-parents should thus have sufficient knowledge of these aspects and must be prepared and be able to answer any possible question put to them by the children.

6.2.28   Age level as starting point for sexuality education

Table 28   Distribution according to the age level at which sexuality education should begin

	Age	%
1	Under 2 years	3%
2	2 years	3%
3	3 years	3%
4	4 years	3%
5	5 years	0%
6	6 years	3%
7	7 years	3%
8	8 years	0%
9	9 years	6%
10	10 years	3%
11	11 years	32%
12	12 years	13%
13	13 years	19%
14	14 years	0%
15	15 years	3%
16	16 years	6%
	TOTAL	100

The responses in Table 28 indicates that the largest group of house-parents are of the opinion that sexuality education should commence at the age of eleven. Even more alarming is the forty-one percent who indicated the age level at which sexuality education should begin as between 12 and 16 years. Although there is disagreement amongst experts as to the exact age at which sexuality education should begin most of them admit that children of two to three years are receptive to sexuality education which falls within their realm of understanding (NOD, 1990:14; Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988: 209). This opinion is confirmed by McDowell (1988:209) as follows: "The sex education of our children must begin at a very early age - in a sense literally from birth. From an early age children must learn that the body is a wonderful gift from God and all the parts and functions thereof is normal."

6.2.29 Sexuality education

Table 29   Distribution according to house-parent's preference regarding the way in which they discuss issues on sexuality

	Discussion choice	%
1	In groups	39%
2	Individually	10%
3	Both (individually and in groups)	51%
	TOTAL	100%

More than half (51%) of the house-parents in Table 29 prefer to discuss issues with regard to sexuality in individually and in groups. Both the choices can be effective, depending on the needs of the children.

Children with similar problems can benefit from group discussions, for example a group of boys of the same age. Children with confidential and/or sensitive questions prefer to discuss it on an individual basis (Foster, 1981:162-163; NOD, 1990:15).

6.2.30 **Literature/videos on sexuality issues**

Table 30 **Distribution according to the availability of literature/videos on sexuality issues**

	Topic	Yes %	No%	TOTAL
1	Sexuality education	45%	55%	100%
2	AIDS	54%	46%	100%
3	Boy/Girl relationship	48%	52%	100%

An average of fifty-one percent of the house-parents indicated that the children's home in which they are do not provide any literature/videos on the aspects indicated in Table 30. Bongers and De Klerk (1980:10) emphasize the value of relevant literature and videos in sexuality education. In making use of appropriate drawings, pamphlets, books, videos, etc. not only a good foundation is laid for sexuality issues but the individual is also provided with the required relevant information.

6.2.31   House-parents' perception of their task

Table 31   Distribution according to the house-parents' perceptions of their task

Question	Never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	TOTAL
My task as house-parent is:						
Very demanding	10%	10%	13%	38%	29%	100%
A challenge	0%	0%	10%	16%	74%	100%
Meaningful	0%	10%	13%	67%	10%	100%
Very important	0%	6%	8%	67%	19%	100%
Really complicated	0%	0%	0%	3%	97%	100%
My personal responsibility	0%	0%	0%	0%	100%	100%
To take care of the physical needs of the children	0%	0%	6%	20%	74%	100%
Emotional support to children	0%	0%	3%	29%	68%	100%
Substitute for biological parents	6%	0%	6%	35%	53%	100%
To provide normal family circumstances	0%	0%	0%	29%	71%	100%
Mainly for implementing rules	0%	6%	29%	39%	26%	100%
One of maintaining authority	6%	13%	16%	36%	29%	100%

Table 31 shows that the majority of house-parents (67%) usually or always perceive their task as a very demanding. Although nearly all the house-parents (97%) always observe their task as complicated most of them (74%) also see it as a challenge. The larger number of house-parents (67%) usually perceive their task as meaningful and very important while all the respondents always regarded it as their personal responsibility. Seventy-four percent perceive their task as always taking care of the physical needs of the children and sixty-eight percent as emotional support to the children. Most of the house-parents (88%) usually or always consider themselves as substitute parents and all of them see their task usually or always as providing a normal family circumstances to the children in the children's home. More than half (65%) of the house-parents view their task usually or always as mainly the implementing of rules and maintaining authority.

6.2.32   House-parents' experience of their task

Table 32   Distribution according to the house-parents experience of their task

Question	Never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	TOTAL
As a house-parent:						
I am aware when my work is satisfactory	3%	10%	23%	41%	23%	100%
I am aware when my work is unsatisfactory	3%	10%	26%	29%	32%	100%
I can see the results of my work	0%	3%	16%	23%	58%	100%
My task embraces a great variety of duties	0%	3%	13%	23%	61%	100%
Many people are affected by my task skilfullness	6%	6%	16%	36%	36%	100%
It took me a long time to master my tasks skilfully	3%	19%	36%	26%	16%	100%
I am personally involved in my task	3%	6%	6%	14%	71%	100%
I feel that the children abuse me	29%	71%	0%	0%	0%	100%
I enjoy enough privacy	42%	23%	23%	10%	2%	100%
I spend sufficient time with my friends	35%	30%	16%	19%	0%	100%
I find it difficult to handle so many different children	0%	6%	10%	61%	23%	100%
I regard myself as a friend of every child	3%	6%	3%	36%	52%	100%
I am a perfect example to the children	0%	3%	32%	55%	10%	100%
I feel overpowered by the complexity of my task	3%	3%	10%	42%	42%	100%
I feel that the children have a hold over me	52%	29%	13%	3%	3%	100%
I am satisfied with my salary	81%	13%	3%	3%	0%	100%

On the continuum often to always, eighty-seven percent of the house-parents indicated that they are aware when their work is satisfactory or

not (Table 32). Most of the respondents (84%) usually or always experience their task as consisting of a great variety of duties, feel overpowered by their task and find it difficult to handle so many children. For forty-two percent it took a long time to master their duties skilfully. The majority (65%) of house-parents feel that they very seldom or never enjoy enough privacy or have sufficient time to spend with friends. The larger number (81%) of the house-parents indicated that they are never satisfied with their salaries.

6.2.33 Relationship of trust

Table 33   **Distribution according to the relationship of trust between the house-parent and the child in the children's home**

Question	Never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	TOTAL
Children are afraid of new situations	6%	19%	26%	39%	10%	100%
I read stories to younger children	3%	0%	3%	23%	71%	100%
Children may use their own initiative to do things, e.g. baking	6%	6%	23%	26%	39%	100%
I am over protective towards children	0%	16%	13%	36%	36%	100%
The children discuss their personal problems with me	0%	0%	26%	42%	32%	100%
I praise the children	28%	10%	10%	26%	26%	100%
I play with the children	0%	0%	0%	29%	71%	100%
I express my feelings to the children	13%	6%	13%	19%	49%	100%
I perform tasks with the children, e.g. gardening	0%	0%	3%	26%	71%	100%

According to Table 33, most of the aspects regarding the relationship of trust between the house-parents and the children in the children's home is adequately realized. The above findings are substantiated by the responses to the questions in Table 33:

Most of the house-parents (84%) indicated that they read stories to younger children and by doing so gain the child's confidence and acceptance. Van Rensburg, Landman & Bodenstein (1994:32) believe that the child has to accept and have confidence in the house-parent to establish a relationship of trust. Acceptance is an essence by which the relationship of trust is co-instituted (cf. 4.5.1 (1)) and also teaches the child to accept himself and others (Kapp, 1990:459). More than half of the respondents (52%) indicated that they praise the children's achievements. In showing their approval for the child's achievements, regardless of the excellence thereof, the house-parents show acceptance of and trust in the child as he or she is (cf. 4.5.1 (1)).

Nearly three quarters (74%) of the house-parents stated that children discuss personal problems with them. This will only happen when the child has unconditional trust in the house-parent. Sixty-eight percent also indicated that they have enough trust in the children to express their feelings to them. Mutual trust is a basic essential for a sound relationship between the house-parent and child. The child must have complete trust in the house-parents as educator, and the house-parent must have trust in the child's potentials (cf. 4.5.1 (2)).

More than eighty percent (87%) of the respondents indicated that they perform tasks with the children and all of them play games with the children. In doing things with the children the establishing of a relationship of trust is enhanced.

Forty-nine percent of house-parents found that children are usually or always afraid of new situations. A possible reason for this finding is that the child fears failure because of a lack of trust.

6.2.34 Relationship of understanding

Table 34   Distribution according to the relationship of understanding between the house-parent and the child in the children's home

Question	Never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	TOTAL
Children show inferiority towards children from "normal" homes	13%	26%	29%	29%	3%	100%
Children criticise themselves, e.g. "I am bad"	19%	19%	36%	23%	3%	100%
Children emulate their parents	13%	19%	36%	32%	0%	100%
I have the interest of every child at hand	0%	0%	6%	23%	71%	100%
I understand the child's behaviour	26%	19%	26%	19%	10%	100%
I find the children ungrateful	13%	23%	3%	10%	51%	100%
The children are uncertain about their future	13%	29%	36%	19%	3%	100%
I understand every chid's worries	7%	23%	20%	25%	25%	100%
I am are aware of every child's problems	3%	27%	23%	32%	15%	100%

Table 34 shows that the relationship of understanding between the house-parent and child is not adequately realized in the children's home. The responses to the questions in Table 34 confirm the above statement:

Research has found that most of the children in children's homes show inferiority towards children from "normal" homes, criticise themselves in a negative way and are uncertain about their future (De Beer, 1992:56; Colyar, 1984:4). The child in the children's home has a low self-esteem and self-image and is likely to form inconsistent conclusions about himself, other persons and the future as the result of being educationally neglected (Eloff, 1986:67; Prinsloo, 1979:78).   According to Mudaly

(1985:3-5) feelings of anxiety and insecurity dominate the life-world of the child in the children's home and this may lead to children emulating their biological parents or being ungrateful towards the house-parents. Only thirty-two percent of the respondents indicated that children suffer from an inferiority complex, twenty-six percent that children are inclined to negative criticism of themselves and twenty-two percent that children are uncertain about their future. These findings indicate that house-parents do not always have sufficient knowledge about the children in their care. House-parents must have sufficient knowledge of the child in order to help and support him or her to become a responsible adult (cf. 3.3.1 (2)).

Effective educational support is embedded in understanding every child's worries, problems and shortcomings. This implies that a place is made for the child in the house-parent's world, and that the parent makes himself available to give support to the child (Kapp, 1990:459). Nearly a third of the house-parents indicated that they never or seldom understand every child's worries or problems.

Less than a third (29%) of the respondents usually or always understand the child's behaviour. Only when the cause of a child's unacceptable behaviour is known, will the house-parent be able to help the child to modify the behaviour or seek professional help (Derbyshire, 1989:45).

6.2.35   Relationship of authority

Table 35   Distribution according to the relationship of authority between the house-parent and the child in the children's home

Question	Never	Seldom	Often	Usually	Always	TOTAL
Children are unco-operative	16%	39%	39%	3%	3%	100%
Children need encouragement to complete a task	0%	10%	36%	31%	23%	100%
Children are allowed to express themselves without criticism	0%	0%	16%	61%	23%	100%
Children are allowed to view TV programmes of their own choice	0%	26%	45%	13%	16%	100%
Children are restricted to TV viewing time	6%	29%	36%	13%	16%	100%
I change decisions after discussing them with the child	19%	10%	23%	27%	21%	100%
Children are "difficult" and/or disobedient after a weekend or holiday "out"	0%	0%	13%	26%	61%	100%
Children acknowledge my authority	0%	13%	35%	32%	20%	100%
I punish the child immediately after an offence	13%	19%	10%	26%	32%	100%

According to the findings in Table 35 it appears that the children in children's homes are not always effectively guided in self-discipline or the acceptance of authority. Without authority there cannot be an educational situation, for education implies an authoritative relationship between educator and educand (cf. 3.3.2 (3)). Vrey (1990:97) states that the relationship of authority is fundamental for the appearance of the educational relationship. The child must accept the parent's authority, and the parent assist the child in his craving for support.

The above is supported by the following responses to the questions in table 35:

Children should acknowledge the authority of the house-parents. Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:319) maintain that it is a

characteristic of the child that, to secure his own position, he is eagerly looking for a guiding authority to place demands on him, expect things from him, lay claims on his loyalty and service, exact obedience from him and control his life. This is, however, not always the situation in the children's homes because more than half of the house-parents (52%) indicated that the children do not acknowledge their authority and fifty percent also admitted that they change their decisions after discussing them with the children. Twenty-two percent also do not punish the child immediately after an offence. Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg (1988:187-188) say punishment should fit the misdemeanour, and be meted out as soon as possible after the violation. When punishment only remains a threat, or is postponed, unacceptable behaviour is likely to resume. Children can only learn self-discipline through the educator's consequential practice of authority (Bryan, 1990:3).

Children who usually or always have to be encouraged to complete a task (as indicated by 52% of the respondents) and children who are "difficult after a weekend or holiday away from the children's home (87% of the hous-parents indicated this happens usually or always) show a lack of self-discipline in the child (Breytenbach, 1988:13).

Discipline is necessary to maintain a certain standard of social conformity so that the community can function in an orderly, fearless manner. Through discipline, the child realizes the necessity for order in the world around him, and that some behaviours are abhorrent, whilst others are praiseworthy (Gerdes, 1990:234). According to the minority of house-parents (29%) children are usually or always allowed to watch TV programmes of their own choice without any time restriction.

6.3 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the researcher's aim was to give some order to the range of information provided by the house-parents in their responses to the questions in the questionnaire. Some of the data collected was of a demographic nature, which enabled the researcher to construct a broad profile of the sample selected for the investigation. Data collected regarding the relationship of trust, understanding and authority between the house-parent and the child in the children's home, was organized in frequency distribution tables - to simplify statistical analysis. The responses to the questions were interpreted and the findings discussed.

The last chapter of this study will consist of a summary of the literature study and the empirical investigation conducted. Certain relevant recommendations arising from the study will also be included in the chapter.

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7.1 SUMMARY

7.1.1 Statement of the problem

In this study, an inquiry was made into the educational responsibility of house-parents in a children's home. In the literature study, and through empirical research, it was found that the child in a children's home is a child in educational distress. The child is admitted to the children's home as an educationally neglected child as the outcome of the inadequate realisation of educative intervention by incapable parents in a dysfunctional family. The child in educational distress experiences the educational relationships of trust, understanding and authority as impaired. House-parents have a more demanding educative task than "normal" parents and need to be adequately equipped to meet the special needs of the child in educational distress. House-parents educate children under circumstances quite different to those in "normal" families and have an important role to play in rendering support and guidance to the child in educational distress.

7.1.2 Origin, development and "idealized" task of children's homes

The historical background of children's homes in the greater Durban area shows that welfare organisations and religious organisations had taken the incentive in the establishment of homes for orphaned or destitute children. Although "orphanages" have existed since 1814 in South

Africa, the first legislation for the protection of children was only introduced by the old Cape Parliament in 1856. This legislation did not cover all the aspects of child care but it nevertheless laid the foundations for child care in South Africa. The first legislation that made provision for the protection of children was only introduced in 1913 with the "Wet op die Bescherming van Kinderen". This legislation was revised in 1937 and in 1960 and still mainly focused on the circumstances of children. The new Child Care Act, No. 74 of 1983, however, shifted the emphasis from the "child in need of care" to "incapable or incompetent parents".

The children's home strives to provide the best physical, psychological and spiritual care for the child in educational distress.

7.1.3 The educational needs of the child in the children's homes

Although the removal of a child from his own parental home is sometimes unavoidable, it is regarded as the most extreme form of intervention in a dysfunctional family. After a children's court has conducted an investigation into the circumstances of the child and is convinced that the parents are incapable of taking care of the child, a Commissioner of Child Care can order that the child be removed from his parental home. In deciding which children's home to place the child in it is important to take into consideration the child's language, religious affiliation and the distance of the home from his parental home. This is necessary to protect the child against a possible " cultural shock" and an accessible distance to his parental home.

The dysfunctional family is characterized by inadequate educational intervention by parents, insufficient communication, impaired educational

relationships and impeded social orientation. The child from such an educational milieu is in educational neglect and has negative experiences regarding education. Being removed from his parental home and placed in a children's home is a traumatic experience that can intensify the educational distress of the child. The educationally neglected child suffers from serious shortcomings in his upbringing. He is deprived of the adequate educational help and support that is needed for normal transition to adulthood. The educationally neglected child can be viewed as a child for whom the educational essential are not sufficiently realized.

When the education of the child is neglected he experiences the relationships in his life-world as impaired. The educational relationship of trust, understanding and authority between parent and child is not adequately realized. The child is deprived of sufficient support and help in the establishing of harmonious relationships amongst others, mutual trust, understanding, authority, respect for the self and others, freedom and self-discipline.

As a result of educational neglect by incapable parents the child's transition to adulthood is inadequately realized and the educational aim structure is sufficiently accomplished. The child in educational distress does not experience his existence as meaningful, is incapable of self-judgement and understanding, does not realize the worthiness of being human, falls short of morally independent choices and responsible conduct, experiences norm identification as perplexed and finds it difficult to live in obedience of the demands of propriety.

7.1.4 The educational responsibility of the house-parent

A family with both parents is the natural educational environment for the child. Education is pre-eminently a matter for the parents and occurs primarily within the family situation. In an intimate family milieu where mutual trust and acceptance, love and security exist the child is adequately cared for and guided towards adulthood. A healthy family atmosphere is characterised by intimacy, warmth, harmony, happiness, proudness, spontaneity, devotion and sociability.

A child needs the support, help and guidance of both parents to become a responsible adult. The mother is the creator of an intimate home atmosphere and forms the most important binding power in the family. Children often feels more free to go back to the mother for comfort and protection. The father is the protector of the intimate relationship between mother and child and brings the unknown world into the home in a safe and understandable way.

In contrast to the normal family life that a child experiences with his biological parents and siblings the child in the children's home finds himself in a "substitute" or "artificial" family usually with a larger number of "family members". The child is dependent on this "substitute" family for his upbringing - a family comprising of members from other families with different backgrounds. For the house-parents the caring of this "artificial" family entails a difficult and complicated task. Each child has his or her individual problems as an educationally neglected child comes from an environment with different norms and values. The family in the children's home is also characterised by instability as house-parents and children come and go.

Efficient physical care is essential for the adequate upbringing of the child. A correct diet, good health, enough exercise and rest are important for the physical well-being of the child. In the dysfunctional family the education is neglected and the child's becoming is impaired. The house-parent's unconditional acceptance of the child, willingness to help, support and guide the child are necessary to restore the child's trust. In understanding the special educational needs of the child in the children's home house-parents can render suitable assistance and play a meaningful role in the becoming of the child. House-parents can assist the child in gaining emotional security by their acceptance, trust, empathy and authoritative guidance.

A stable emotional life is essential for the adequate actualization of the child's cognitive abilities. The task of the house-parent is to help the child in educational distress to gain control over his feelings so that he can give the necessary attention to his schoolwork. An educational short-coming results in the inadequate actualization of the child's abilities. Accountable support and guidance from house-parents need to direct the choices and actions of the educationally neglected child in accordance with the demands of propriety.

The child in the children's home often experiences a "plural life" - he has a biological and a "substitute" family. The child is uncertain about his place in society and experiences social instability. To overcome social liability and find his place in society the house-parent should help the child in the establishing of healthy relationships, in effective communication skills and the forming of social bonds.

7.1.5 Planning of the research

This study utilized a questionnaire, constructed by the researcher, as the data source. The information sought was not available from any other source and had to be acquired directly from the respondents. When this situation exists, the most appropriate source of data is the questionnaire as it can easily be adapted to a variety of situations.

With the aim of administering the questionnaire to the house-parents in children's homes, it was required to first ask permission from the Management Board of each children's home and there-after the principals of the selected children's homes. Finally, the researcher visited the selected children's homes to administer the questionnaire to the house-parents.

The aim of the questionnaire was to obtain information regarding the educational responsibility of house-parents in children's homes. The questions were formulated to establish the importance of the house-parents-child-relationship with regards to the relationship of trust, understanding and authority between father and child.

7.1.6 Presentation and analysis of research data

The purpose of this chapter was to discuss the data collected from the questionnaires completed by 31 house-parents and to offer comments and interpretations on the findings (cf. 6.2). At the outset, an explanation and description was provided as to the methods employed in the categorisation of responses and the analysis of the data. This was followed by an examination of the responses to the questions in the questionnaire.

The following are some significant *findings* that emanated from the descriptive statistics:

- Most of the house-parents (71%) were single females (cf. 6.2.1; 6.2.2). This finding is in conflict with the premise that house-parents should be married couples so that a "substitute" family, with a "father" and "mother", can be established for the child in educational distress in the children's home (cf. 3.3).

- More than half (52%) of the house-parents' academic qualifications were matric or lower (cf. 6.2.7) and only nineteen-percent had qualifications in residential child care (cf. 6.2.8). The scarcity of persons with qualifications appropriate to residential child care often compel principals of children's home to employ house-parents without the necessary qualifications (cf. 6.2.10). A poor salary structure in residential care also fails to attract people with suitable qualifications.

- The average number of years service of house-parents in a children's home is two years and eight months (cf. 6.2.9). This high turn-over of house-parents can be ascribed to the following (cf. 6.3.31; 6.2.32):

  - The complexity of the task.
  - The variety and number of duties.
  - Insufficient guidance and help.
  - Inadequate qualifications.

. Although most of the house-parents (89%) were aware of the courses available in child care a large percentage (71%) indicated that study facilities in this regard were not readily available to them (cf. 6.2.13; 6.2.14). Possible reasons for this finding are:

- . The task of a house-parent is very demanding and involves many different duties which leaves very little time for studies.

- . Financial constraints in children's homes do not allow for financial assistance or leave for study purposes.

. According to the responses of all the house-parents, in-service-training is offered to them in the children's home (cf. 6.2.15). When formal training is not possible, in-service-training is the best alternative method to better equip house-parents for their task.

. More than half (55%) of the house-parents have more than twelve children in their care (cf. 6.2.17). This finding is in contrast with research that found that the "ideal" number of children to be placed in a house-parent's care is between ten and twelve (cf. 6.2.17). All the house-parents have children from different age groups in their care which is in accordance with creating a family atmosphere for the child removed from his or her own family (cf. 6.2.18).

- The experiences of the majority of house-parents (88%) were that the most effective form of punishment is to deprive children of their privileges (cf. 6.2.21).

- Only a small number of the respondents (13%) gave evidence of the existence of a prefect or monitorial system in the children's home where they are employed (cf. 6.2.2).

- The findings that all the house-parents wake the children in the morning and that nearly all of them (98%) allow children to perform certain tasks are evidence of the house-parents acceptance of the child (cf. 6.2.23; 6.2.24).

- No restriction is placed on the number of activities outside the children's home that they are allowed to attend (cf. 6.2.25).

- A large number of house-parents (81%) felt that they do require more information regarding AIDS and other sexuality issues such as homosexuality (cf. 6.2.27). Only a very small number of the respondents were aware of the fact that sexuality education should already be introduced to children between the ages of two and three years (cf. 6.2.28). More than half of the house-parents (52%) also indicated that there were no videos and/or literature available on sexuality education (cf. 6.2.30).

- The majority of house-parents perceive their task as very demanding, complicated and consisting of a great variety of

duties (cf. 6.2.31). They often experience difficulty in caring adequately for the large number of children in their "family". Most of them also felt that they do not enjoy enough privacy or spend enough time with their friends (cf. 6.2.32).

.   The finding that the relationship of trust between the house-parent and child in the children's home is impaired can be regarded as the cause for the inadequate realization of the relationship of understanding and authority between parent and child (cf. 6.2.33; 6.2.34; 6.2.35). Although strict discipline is exercised in the children's home it appears that the children are not always guided sufficiently to exercise self-discipline (cf. 6.2.35).

7.1.7 Aim of the study

The researcher formulated specific aims (cf. 1.5) to determine the course of this study. These aims were realised through a literature study, together with an empirical survey consisting of a structured questionnaire and informal, unstructured interviews with social workers, principals and house-parents in children's homes. On the basis of the aims and findings of this study, certain recommendations are now formulated.

7.2   RECOMMENDATIONS

7.2.1 Training of house-parents

(1)   Motivation

To adequately educate the child in educational distress in the children's home entail certain demands on the personnel in a children's home - especially the house-parents in whose care the children are most of the time. As "substitute" parents they have accepted responsibility for the upbringing of the child.   Although house-parents might have the necessary knowledge, qualities, skills and experience to raise their own children the "re-education" of educationally-neglected children and their orientation into a new and larger "family"   often cause feelings of inadequacy and uncertainty in house-parents. To perform their exacting task effectively house-parents need exceptional qualities and skills that can often only be acquired by special training in residential child care.

In the therapeutic atmosphere of a children's home house-parents also have to work in close relationship with the professional, administrative and household staff. This implies that working together as a team is another ability expected from house-parents.

Research findings indicated that very few (19%) of the house-parents had qualifications relevant to residential child care (cf. 6.2.8) and only thirteen percent had previous experience in child care (cf. 6.2.10).

The majority of house-parents therefore had no experience or training in residential child care.

Due to financial constraints and/or the unavailability of study facilities,

in-service-training is a very effective alternative method to obtain skills necessary in residential child care. Professionally designed, standardised, formal in-service-training courses, presented by experts, can serve to equip house-parents to execute their task more effectively.

(2)   Recommendations

The recommendations are that:

.   House-parents must be encouraged to obtain The Diploma in Child Care or The National Higher Certificate in Residential Child Care. In order to encourage house-parents to advance their qualifications the following must be provided:

.   Opportunities for study leave.

.   Financial support in the form of bursaries and/or loans.

.   Promotion after obtaining a further, relevant qualification.

.   Financial reward in terms of a salary adjustment.

.   Intensive attention must be given to standardised, formal in-service-training regarding the following aspects:

.   The contents of the training programme must be relevant and practical.

.   Experts in residential child care must be in the training team to provide formal in-service-training.

- A Committee for In-Service-Training of House-parents must be formed to control, plan and guide training programmes.

- With the assistance of experts the in-service-training of house-parents, amongst others, must be introduced as a way of evaluating the task performance of house-parents in order to reach a stage where it can become a career with promotion opportunities.

- The salary scale of house-parents should be reviewed taking into account the complexity and importance of the task as well as to attract efficient persons for the job.

7.2.2 Number of children in each house-parent's care

(1)   Motivation

In the children's home the child finds himself in a "family" with more "members" than in a normal family. In this research it was found that the average number of children in the care of a house-parent was thirteen - 42% cared for more than twelve children. The number of children in the "substitute" family is one of the factors that plays an important role in the house-parent's capacity to adequately meet the special needs of the child in educational distress. The more children in a family the lesser attention each child is likely to receive. Most of the time house-parents are involved in the education of the group with little time for individual education. Nearly half (49%) of the house-parents stated that they experience difficulties in the handling of a large number of children (cf. 6.2.23).

Although education in a "large family" is regarded as one of the means to effectively assist the child in his becoming, individual intervention is also needed. The giving of meaningful individual attention to the large group of children in their care is one of the most demanding tasks faced by the house-parents. The possibility therefore exists that the child in a "bigger family" will not be adequately assisted individually in actualizing his potentialities which in turn can affect his effective transformation to adulthood. The house-parent plays the most important role in the "group-education" of the child in a children's home and the successful becoming of the child within the group and individuality depends on the educational capability of the house-parent. House-parents with a large number of children in their care often feel overwhelmed, inadequate and uncertain about their task. They experience feelings of restlessness and anxiety and are impatient with the children.

(2)   Recommendations

The recommendation is that:

.   The maximum number of children placed in the care of a
       house-parent must not be more than ten.

7.2.3 Further research

Most of the research done in children's homes was predominantly from a Social Work perspective. From this study it is however apparent that child neglect is essentially the result of the inadequate *educational assistance* by parents. Although education cannot be separated from socialization the educational situation can be regarded as more

encompassing - though the one cannot be realized without the other.

Within the realm of socio-political changes, a new education dispensation and the emergence of multicultural children's homes, a new field of research has been unlocked. It is therefore recommended that further research in children's homes should be conducted taking the above mentioned factors in to consideration.

7.3 CRITICISM

Criticism that emanates from this study include the following:

- It can be presumed that some of the house-parents who completed the questionnaire drew their perceptions regarding their educational responsibility from the media - where in many cases the media tends to prescribe to the appropriate parental responsibilities in educating the child. The probability therefore exists that the majority of house-parents indicated what is theoretical to their educational responsibility and not what they practise in the "substitute families" in the children's home.

- By introducing an English questionnaire as research instrument to Indian house-parents, the researcher differentiated between respondents' ability of mastering a second language. Although more time-consuming and expensive, the written questionnaire could have been translated into other languages in order to obtain the responses of house-parents whose mother tongue is not

English. This could have improved the reliability of the findings.

7.5 FINAL REMARK

The aim of this study was to come to a better understanding of the child in educational distress in a children's home and the educational responsibility of house-parents in meeting the special needs of the child. It is trusted that this study will be of value to house-parents, educational authorities and other stakeholders in child care. It is also hoped that the recommendations from this study will be implemented and thereby enhance house-parents' fulfilment of their educational responsibilities towards the educationally neglected child in the children's home.

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APPENDIX A

Dear House-parent (Child care worker)

QUESTIONNAIRE: THE EDUCATIONAL RESPONSIBILITY OF THE HOUSE-PARENT IN THE CHILDREN'S HOME

At present I am engaged in a research project aimed at examining "The educational responsibility of the house-parent in a children's home. This research is towards a M.Ed degree and is being carried out under the supervision of Prof G Urban at the Umlazi Extramural Division of the University of Zululand

In fulfilling the role as a house-parent demonstrates that you care for the children and I have taken the liberty of writing to you in order to seek your assistance in acquiring information about your experience relating to the research. Your willingness to complete this questionnaire ensures that you are making a unique contribution to the knowledge of the special educational task of the house-parent with regard the particular educational needs of the children in children's homes.
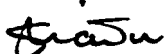
I have attempted to keep the questions as simple as possible and since answering most of the questions only require making a cross (X) I trust that the completion of the questionnaire will not take up much of your time. The success of the research will depend greatly on your honesty and the answering of the questions to the best of your ability

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CONFIDENTIALITY

All information will be regarded as CONFIDENTIAL, and no personal details of any house-parent (respondent) will be mentioned in the findings, nor will any of the results be related to any particular children's home

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Thank you for your co-operation

Yours sincerely

Mr S Naidu

QUESTIONNAIRE 1

1. BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION ON HOUSE-PARENTS (CHILD CARE WORKERS)

> **INSTRUCTIONS**
>
> Please fill in the correct number or insert a cross (X) where applicable.

1.1 Sex

Male ☐   Female ☐

1.2 Marital status

Married	Widow/ Widower	Divorced	Never Married

1.3 Number of own children

None	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11

1.4 Age last birthday (house-parent/child care worker)

0-20	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50

51-55	56-60	61-65	66-70

1.5   Home Language

English	Afrikaans	Both	Other (Specify)

1.6   Religion

Hinduism	Islam	Christianity	Other (Specify)

1.7   Educational Qualifications

Std 10 or lower   ☐

Std 10 + 1 year training   ☐

Std 10 + 2 years training   ☐

Std 10 + 3 years training   ☐

Std 10 + 4 years training   ☐

Std 10 + 5 years training   ☐

1.8   Do you possess the following?:

	Yes	**No**
Diploma in Child Care	☐	☐
National Higher Certificate in Residential Child Care	☐	☐

Other (Please specify) [   ]

1.9   Number of years of experience as a house-parent (child care worker) in a children's home.

Less than 1 year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	More than 10

1.10   Number of completed years of service at present children's home as house-parent (child care worker).

Less than 1 year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	More than 10

1.11   Occupation before you accepted a post at the children's home.

_____

1.12   From which one of the following persons in the present children's home did you receive the most help in your duties?

Director / Head of the children's home   ☐

Social worker   ☐

Administrative staff   ☐

Other house-parents (child care workers)   ☐

Committee member   ☐

Nurse-Aid   ☐

Other (please specify)   _____

1.13 Did you sign a service contract setting out the conditions of employment from the children's home in which you are presently working as a house-parent (child care worker)?

Yes ☐   No ☐

1.14 How are your duties explained in the conditions of service?

Fully / Complete ☐

Incomplete ☐

If your answer is "Incomplete", what would you like to add? Please motivate

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

1.15 Are you aware of the following courses that are available in your occupation as a house-parent (child care worker)?

	Yes	No
Diploma in child care work	☐	☐
Higher Certificate in Residential Child Care	☐	☐

Other (please specify) [_____]

1.16 Which of the following study facilities are available to you as a house-parent (child care worker)?

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
Study leave	☐	☐
Financial help	☐	☐

Other (please specify) [   ]

1.17 Does FORMAL in-service training of house-parents take place at the children's home?

Yes ☐   No ☐

If "Yes", by whom is it done?

(please specify) [   ]

1.18 Where do you reside in the children's home?

Separate living quarters (not with children) ☐

Separate flat on premises   ☐

Flat in children's home   ☐

Separate flat in home   ☐

Other (please specify) [   ]

1.19 How many children are in your care?

Number of boys   ___

Number of girls   ___

Total   ___

1.20 Are the children in your care of:

different age groups? ☐

the same age group? ☐

1.21 In case of the same age group, what is the age group of the children?

QUESTIONNAIRE 2

2.   DOMAIN AND FUNCTIONS

INSTRUCTIONS

Please fill in the correct number or insert a cross (X) where applicable.

2.1   Under whose supervision does study take place?

House parent (child care worker)   ☐

Prefects   ☐

Older children   ☐

Other (please specify) ⌞_____⌟

2.2   Who helps the pupils with study problems and/or additional study?

House parent (child care worker)   ☐

Social worker   ☐

Older children   ☐

Other (please specify) ⌞_____⌟

2.3 Are the following forms of punishment applied?

	Never	Some-times	Often	Always
Corporal punishment	☐	☐	☐	☐
Group punishment (where one child transgresses and the group is punished.	☐	☐	☐	☐
Grounded (may not go out weekends, attend functions or go to town)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Reduced pocket money	☐	☐	☐	☐
Extra homework	☐	☐	☐	☐
Do girls receive corporal punishment?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Are prefects allowed to punish children?	☐	☐	☐	☐

2.4 What form of punishment do you find most effective? (state briefly)

_____

2.5 Do you make use of a prefect/monitorial system?

Yes ☐   No ☐

Questionnaire 2

2.6 The children are woken each morning

By means of an alarm / siren ☐

By his / her own clock ☐

By you personally ☐

2.7 Are children required to execute the following tasks?

	Yes	No
Make up beds	☐	☐
Keep rooms neat	☐	☐
Set the table	☐	☐
Clear the tables after eating	☐	☐
Work in the garden	☐	☐
Other (please specify)		

2.8 Are children permitted to attend the following activities outside the children's homes?

	Yes	No
Film shows	☐	☐
Concerts	☐	☐
Excursions	☐	☐
Weekend / Holiday camps	☐	☐
Other (please specify)		

2.9 Do children receive pocket money?

Yes ☐   No ☐

If "yes", who gives the money to the children in your care?

_____

2.10 Is guidance given to the children in respect of the spending and saving of money?

Yes ☐   No ☐

2.11 Do you find yourself adequately equipped to answer questions on Aids, Homosexuality, etc. to the children?

Yes ☐   No ☐

2.12 If ' 2.11 is "No" would you require more knowledge in this regard?

Yes ☐   No ☐

2.13 From which one of the following persons would you choose to receive more knowledge on Sexuality Education?

Social Worker   ☐

Community Health nurse   ☐

Doctor   ☐

Guidance Counsellor from a
school   ☐

2.13 *(continued)*

Department of Health ☐

Not applicable ☐

Other (please specify) [   ]

2.14 At what age level, in your opinion, should Sexuality Education begin? (Please indicate one age group only)

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

11	12	13	14	15	16	17

2.15 If you are discussing Sexuality Education with the children, would you choose that it takes place:

In groups ☐

On an individual basis ☐

On an individual basis as well
as in groups ☐

Other (please specify) [   ]

2.16 Does the children's home possess literature or videos on the following:

	Yes	**No**
Sexuality Education	☐	☐
Aids	☐	☐

2.16 *(continued)*   <u>Yes</u>   <u>No</u>

Boy / Girl Relationship   ☐   ☐

Other (please specify)

QUESTIONNAIRE 3

3.   OCCUPATIONAL MILIEU

> **INSTRUCTIONS**
>
> Answer the questions to show to what extent the following behaviour, happenings or observations you experience in your educational milieu. ONE cross per question

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.	regularly, between 66% and 85% of the time
5	always, between 86% and 100% of the time

Example:

1	2	X	4	5

Questionnaire 3

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	regularly, between 66% and 85% of the time
5	always, between 86% and 100% of the time

3.1   My task as a house-parent is:

3.1.1	Too demanding	1	2	3	4	5
3.1.2	A challenge	1	2	3	4	5
3.1.3	Meaningful	1	2	3	4	5
3.1.4	Very important	1	2	3	4	5
3.1.5	Very complicated	1	2	3	4	5
3.1.6	My personal responsibility	1	2	3	4	5
3.1.7	To take care of the physical needs of the children	1	2	3	4	5
3.1.8	To help the children emotionally	1	2	3	4	5
3.1.9	To act as a substitute for the biological parents	1	2	3	4	5
3.1.10	To provide the children with normal family circumstances	1	2	3	4	5
3.1.11	Mainly for implementing rules	1	2	3	4	5
3.1.12	One of maintaining authority	1	2	3	4	5

Questionnaire 3

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	regularly, between 66% and 85% of the time
5	always, between 86% and 100% of the time

3.2 As house-parent (child care worker)

3.2.1	I am aware when my work is satisfactory	1	2	3	4	5
3.2.2	I am aware when my work is unsatisfactory	1	2	3	4	5
3.2.3	I can see the results of my work	1	2	3	4	5
3.2.4	My task embraces a great variety of duties	1	2	3	4	5
3.2.5	Many people are affected by the skilfullness of my tasks	1	2	3	4	5
3.2.6	It took me a long time to master the skilfullness of my tasks	1	2	3	4	5
3.2.7	I am personally involved in my job	1	2	3	4	5
3.2.8	I feel that the children abuse me	1	2	3	4	5
3.2.9	I enjoy enough privacy	1	2	3	4	5
3.2.10	I spend sufficient time with my circle of friends	1	2	3	4	5
3.2.11	I find it difficult to handle so many different children	1	2	3	4	5
3.2.12	I regard myself as a friend of every child	1	2	3	4	5
3.2.13	I am a perfect example to the children	1	2	3	4	5
3.2.14	I feel overpowered by the complexity of my task	1	2	3	4	5
3.2.15	I feel that the children have a hold over me	1	2	3	4	5
3.2.16	I am satisfied with my salary	1	2	3	4	5

QUESTIONNAIRE 4

RELATIONSHIPS

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│              INSTRUCTIONS                     │
│                                               │
│  Answer the following questions to show       │
│  to what degree the undermentioned            │
│  appear in your children's home / unit.       │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

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	regularly, between 66% and 85% of the time
5	always, between 86% and 100% of the time

Example:

Please answer all the questions

4.1	Children show infèriority towards children from "normal" homes	1	2	3	4	5
4.2	Children criticise themselves e.g. "I am bad"	1	2	3	4	5
4.3	Children are unco-operative	1	2	3	4	5
4.4	Children need encouragement to complete a task	1	2	3	4	5
4.5	Children are allowed to express themselves without criticism	1	2	3	4	5
4.6	Children are allowed to view TV programmes of their own choice	1	2	3	4	5
4.7	Children are restricted to viewing time	1	2	3	4	5
4.8	Children are afraid of new situations	1	2	3	4	5
4.9	Stories are read to the younger children	1	2	3	4	5
4.10	Children use their own initiative to do things e.g. baking	1	2	3	4	5

RELATIONSHIPS *(continued)*

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	regularly, between 66% and 85% of the time
5	always, between 86% and 100% of the time

Please answer all the questions

4.11	Children emulate their parents	1	2	3	4	5
4.12	I have the interest of every child at heart	1	2	3	4	5
4.13	I am over-protective of the children	1	2	3	4	5
4.14	I change decisions after discussing them with the children	1	2	3	4	5
4.15	I understand the child's behaviour	1	2	3	4	5
4.16	The children discuss personal problems with me	1	2	3	4	5
4.17	I punish a child immediately after an offence	1	2	3	4	5
4.18	I praise the children	1	2	3	4	5
4.19	I find the children ungrateful	1	2	3	4	5
4.20	The children are uncertain of their future	1	2	3	4	5
4.21	I play with the children	1	2	3	4	5
4.22	I express my feelings to the children	1	2	3	4	5
4.23	I understand every child's worries	1	2	3	4	5
4.24	I am aware of every child's problems	1	2	3	4	5
4.25	I perform tasks with the children, e.g. gardening	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your co-operation!

APPENDIX B

9 Gangoo Road
MALVERN
4093

24 May 1995

The Chairperson
Board of Management
Children's Homes

Sir

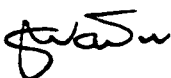**REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH**

I am currently conducting a research project aimed at examining *"The educational responsibility of the house-parent in the children's home"*. This research is towards an M.Ed. degree and is being carried out under the supervision of Professor G. Urbani at the Umlazi Campus of the University of Zululand.

For the purpose of the research a questionnaire will be developed which I need to administer to house-parents in the children's homes in the Durban area. All the house-parents will be approached to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaires will be delivered and collected personally by the researcher.

A copy of the questionnaire is attached for your inspection and approval. Completion of the questionnaire will not take more than 30 minutes. All information given by the house-parents will be dealt with in the strictest confidence because anonymity is asked.

I request your permission to administer the questionnaire to the house-parents of the children's homes during the last quarter of 1995. I will minimize any interference with the normal functioning of the children's home. Information gathered in this research will offer invaluable assistance to all the stakeholders in institutional child care and in particular to house-parents.

Yours sincerely

S Naidu

APPENDIX C

9 Gangoo Road
MALVERN
4093

The Principal   31 August 1995
Lakehaven
P O Box 76332
MARBLE - RAY
4035
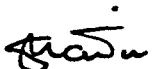
Sir

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For the purpose of the research a questionnaire will be developed which I need to administer to the house-parents (child care workers) in a children's homes. All the house-parents (child care workers) will be approach to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaires will be delivered and collected personally by the researcher.

A copy of the questionnaire is attached for your inspection and approval. Completion of the questionnaire will not take more than 30 minutes. All information given by the house-parents will be dealt with in the strictest confidence because anonymity is asked.

Permission for the research has been granted telephonically by the chairperson of the Management Board of your children's home. I therefore request your permission to administer the questionnaire to the house-parents of your children's home during the last quarter of 1995. I will minimize any interference with the normal functioning of the children's home. Information gathered in this research will offer invaluable assistance to all the stakeholders in institutional child care and in particular to house-parents.

Yours sincerely

S Naidu

9 Gangoo Road
MALVERN
4093

The Principal   31 August 1995
Aryan Benevolent Home
P O Box 56199
CHATSWORTH
4030

Sir

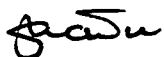## REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

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Yours sincerely

S Naidu

9 Gangoo Road
MALVERN
4093

Muslim Darul Yatama   31 August 1995
379 Pine Street
DURBAN
4001
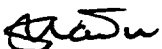
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Yours sincerely

S Naidu