

THE PLACE OF SOCIAL WORK IN COMMUNITY
DEVELOPMENT WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO
WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN LEBOWA RURAL
AREAS

by

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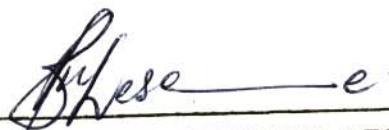
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Submitted: March 1983

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WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN LEBOWA RURAL AREAS,

was not submitted at any other university
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responsible for the particular approach,
and that all the sources I have used or
quoted have been indicated and acknowledged
by means of complete references.



BELLINAH MAPULENG LESEME

This dissertation is dedicated to my beloved parents:

Seotsa and Mpolai Moleli

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Background and Motivation

The social work profession has, among its responsibilities, the tasks of identifying, analysing and interpreting specific unmet needs among individuals, groups and communities. It also has the task of advancing the standard of recognized social obligations between society and its individual members so that those needs may be met, and a more satisfying environment for all be achieved. Social work can perform these tasks by participating in an inter-disciplinary process of community development with other related disciplines such as education, health, etc. Thus, the mission of community development impinges directly on the mission of preventive and promotive social work.

The need for community development in the rural areas of Lebowa became vividly clear to the writer while working as a social worker in the Department of Health and Social Welfare. The most common social problems encountered in this work situation are poverty due to lack of employment facilities, disturbed or sometimes disrupted family life as a result of insufficient financial support, neglected and malnourished children, etc. These problems are related and form a vicious circle. Many people in the rural communities are poor, because they are poor, they are usually badly fed and prone to disease, they are illiterate or ignorant, they live under poor housing conditions, their economic production is

poor and because they produce little, they are poor. Thus the sequence of cause and effect returns upon itself. The importance of community development in relation to the above conditions is that, isolated attempts to locate and tackle these problems individually cannot be effective because they are inter-related. What is necessary is a comprehensive development plan covering the entire range of problems in the rural areas of Lebowa.

The success of such a scheme leans heavily on bringing about change in the mental attitudes of the people and instilling in them an ambition for improved living conditions and the will to work toward such improvement.

It is the writer's contention that social workers are particularly well-equipped to motivate and encourage people to identify their needs and potentialities and to instil in them the need to organize themselves, and the will to work toward the satisfaction of their needs with as much reliance upon their own resources as possible, thus helping them to develop and grow. Although all the methods of social work may be used interchangeably, the common practice in Lebowa is to emphasize casework method and to concentrate on curative treatment measures. It was the realization of the futility of such an approach, especially under the prevailing socio-economic conditions in the rural areas of Lebowa, that strongly motivated the writer to undertake this study of identifying the place of social work in community development and revealing the significant contributions that social workers can make in improving the social conditions of poor communities by being more development oriented.

The writer based her investigations on women as a special resource group.

The importance of women in rural development in Lebowa is based on such factors as the absence of the majority of men due to the migratory labour system and the status and roles of women as mothers with responsibilities such as child care, budgeting on the minimal cash available, producing meagre food through farming, etc.

1.2 Aims of the Study

This study will be directed at achieving the following:

- (a) Identifying the place and contribution of the social work profession in community development.
- (b) Highlighting the circumstances of women in the rural areas, especially their socio-economic needs, aspirations and problems.
- (c) Revealing the socio-economic roles of women that can be tapped to bring about important developmental changes in the lives of their families and those of their communities.
- (d) Suggesting a broad framework which incorporates social work involvement and women participation in the government machinery for rural development.

1.3 Hypotheses

Following the aims of the study as outlined above, the following hypotheses

are formulated:

- (a) Constructive alleviation of social problems in the rural areas of Lebowa is, to a considerable extent, dependent upon the government being more development oriented and involving the social work profession as one of the relevant disciplines in the initiation, planning and implementation of development programmes.
- (b) Rural women, because of their circumstances, status and roles, which imply certain socio-economic interests and requirements, constitute a large part of the target group, that can make significant contributions to the development of their communities.

1.4 Methods of Study

The following methods of investigation were applied in this study:

- (a) Library Research: Available literature on community development, community work, community organization and the involvement of women in community development in other African developing countries were studied.
- (b) Community Survey: The two areas of the study were visited to observe the available resources such as schools, churches, health and welfare services and the existing development projects in which women are involved.
- (c) Questionnaire: A questionnaire was compiled in English and was

administered by four field-workers. The field-workers were Sociology III students who have had training in research methods. However, in order to ensure the suitability of the field-workers and the reliability and validity of the questionnaire, the writer first discussed the questionnaire with the field-workers, showed them how to ask questions, and conducted a pilot research with a random sample of 30 women from the adjacent village of Mothapo.

1.5 The Area of the Study and the Sample:

The study was confined to the district of Thabamopo which has an approximate population of 274 712.

The area was chosen simply because it is the district within which the writer has been working for the past five years. Two areas, that is, Dikgale and Mathabatha were chosen from this district. The choice was made in order to allow the sample to cover as broad an area of the chosen district as possible. Dikgale is situated some 50 kilometres north-east of Pietersburg while Mathabatha is approximately 65 kilometres south-east of Pietersburg.

These are rural areas and just like in many other rural parts of Lebowa, the problem of poverty is manifested in the form of poor nutrition, illiteracy, poor health, poor housing and apathy. Samples from the two areas were chosen as follows:

MATHABATHA:

The area is divided into five small villages. The population, that is all

female spouses in the area, was determined on the basis of allocated residential plots in each village. This was done so because on the basis of the information obtained from an officer of the Department of Agriculture and Forestry, it is only married men, widows, and single female adults who have dependents who may be allocated a residential plot. On the basis of this information, assuming that all allocated stands have a female spouse or holder, it was deduced that the number of plots in each village is representative of the approximate number of women in each village. The fact that there may be more than one female spouse in some households was however not overlooked. In such cases only one female spouse was chosen. The sample was chosen by selecting women from any 30 households in each village, trying by all means to cover all the sections of the villages. This random sampling technique was chosen because it is the only one that does not insist on systematic selection of a sample. Systematic selection of a sample was made impossible by the fact that in some villages the houses are not arranged systematically and they are also not numbered.

The five villages and the numbers of families were as follows:

Table 1.1

Villages	Number of families
Mathabatha (Chief's Kraal)	384
Grootfontein	90
Tubex	85
Koedoeskop R1	107
Koedoeskop R2	109
TOTAL	775

The study was thus conducted with a random sample of 150 women from this area.

DIKGALE

The population in this area was determined on the same basis as that of Mathabatha. However, seeing that this area is divided into six villages, the number of women chosen from each village was 25.

The six villages and numbers of families were as follows:

Table 1.2

Villages	Number of families
Maboyane (Chief's Kraal)	267
Mmarobala	298
Mokgopo	203
Leruleng	406
Mantheding	128
Madiga	140
TOTAL	1 442

From this area another random sample of 150 women was chosen. The total sample number from both areas was thus 300 women.

1.6 Data Processing and Analysis

A university computer was used for processing data. After processing, the writer analysed the results of the study.

1.7 Problems Encountered

- (a) As the questionnaire was compiled in English, using scientific terms, it necessitated "on the spot" translation when being administered. This resulted in the field-workers being compelled, at other times, to ask leading questions in attempting to make the respondents understand the questions properly. The individual field-workers' translations could easily give different meanings of the same question to the respondents. Leading questions, on the other hand, affected the validity of the responses given.
- (b) Progress in actual fieldwork was hampered by the fact that some of the villages were still not yet well planned, with houses still being situated far apart and poor roads. The field-workers had to walk from house to house with the result that when they got to some respondents, they were already physically and mentally tired and lacked the enthusiasm and patience to explain the questions properly to the respondents. They were thus instructed not to administer more than five questionnaires per day.
- (c) Some respondents, being totally illiterate, could not understand the purpose of the investigation. They therefore identified the field-workers with some government officials who wanted information about their circumstances in order to provide them with some assistance. With such raised hopes, they tended to exaggerate their circumstances.

1.8 Presentation

Chapter 1: It is an introductory chapter which outlines the background, motivation and research design.

- Chapter 2: In this chapter basic concepts of the study, such as, community, community work, community organization and community development are defined and analysed.
- Chapter 3: The theoretical background to the identification of the place of social work in community development is presented.
- Chapter 4: In this chapter a general discussion of the nature of rural community development with special attention to those factors which influence the success of its implementation is presented.
- Chapter 5: This chapter traces how the involvement of social work in community development can foster professional efficiency in less developed countries.
- Chapter 6: A description of the prevailing socio-economic conditions in Lebowa is outlined in this chapter.
- Chapter 7: Empirical findings regarding the role of women in community development in the rural areas of Lebowa are analysed.
- Chapter 8: A summary of the study, conclusions and recommendations are presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER 2

CONCEPTUALIZATION

2.1 Introduction

Some of the basic concepts in this study have been widely used in a number of social sciences and professions. A study of the definitions of some of these concepts reveals that many scientists or professionals tend to identify the conceptual content of their work with the task and the situation that they have in hand. This tendency has resulted in various and sometimes vague definitions of the same concept. It is important, therefore, for the sake of clarity and consistency in any scientific study to identify and define the relevant basic concepts.

Conceptual description is further necessitated by the fact that concepts are used in a scientific study to portray and outline the nature and goal of the investigation. Concepts are also the medium through which the researcher interprets his findings. It must be mentioned however, that in certain circumstances a study can lead to the formation of new concepts.

In this study, the basic concepts involved are: Community; Community Organization; Community Work and Community Development.

2.2 Community

A study of some definitions of the concept shows that there is a tendency

among authors to emphasize one or two elements of a community and base their definitions of the concept on that element.

Ross (1931 p. 12) emphasized the geographic and functional connotation of the concept and differentiated between the two. According to him the geographic community refers to people living in a defined area and having some very general common identification which could be as wide as a common nationality; on the other hand the functional community refers to groups of people who share some common interest of functions such as welfare, agriculture, religion, education, etc.

It seems that Ross is referring to two different social categories, one defined by reference to common location and the other to common interest. The difficulty is that the idea of community contains both these elements. Operationally a community worker may focus his attention either on unity of interest, or on locality at a given time, but he has to be conscious of both elements in what constitutes a community.

As early as 1963 some writers saw the importance of defining a community as a social system. One of these writers, Warren R. L. (1963 pp. 9 - 20), saw community as space, as population, as shared institutions, as distribution of power, in other words as a social system which must maintain a symbiotic balance.

According to Hawley as quoted by Dunham, "Community refers to the structure of the relationships through which a localized population provides its daily requirements.....participation in a daily rhythm of collective life is the

factor which distinguishes and gives unity to the population of a locality". (37 p. 27).

In the above definition the author brings out another important element of a community, that is, individual participation in a community in order to satisfy his daily requirements within this or that structure of relationships.

Dunham based his definition on the importance of customs, traditions, values and modes of speech as elements which distinguish one community from another. He defined the concept as: ".....an aggregate of families and individuals settled in a fairly compact and contiguous geographic area with significant elements of common life as shown by manners, customs, traditions and modes of speech".(37 p. 27).

In 1974, Maqashalala (97 p. 236) adopted Warren's view and said that one should not over-emphasize the geographic area to the total exclusion of the psychological elements. He said that we must see the structural, functional and psychological components of a community as all-embracing and affecting its harmony and orchestration.

This approach is again reiterated by Ferrinho (48, p.1) who sees community as a complex system of interaction between ecological, social, cultural and psychological elements. The author gives the following definition which will be adopted in this study. "Community is the specific system of action which arises when a human population settled in a given territory establishes structural arrangement for adaptiveness to it in order to live and survive as a

group, developing interactive relationships among its components, which not only define an order kept off equilibrium by some kind of stress but also originate shared ways of thinking, feeling and acting which are internalized by all the population and with which each individual identifies himself in a particular degree according to his personal living experience and inherited characteristics" (48 p.5). This comprehensive view of the concept will be adopted in this study because it helps one to realize that in dealing with a community although one may be concerned with one element at a given time, it is always important to take into account all other elements because a change in one element affects the balance of the whole system.

2.3 Community Organization

This being a social work study more emphasis will be laid on the definition of the concept within the field of social work.

Fink et al. (50 pp. 509 - 510) mentioned that from as early as 1947 attempts were made to ascertain whether community organization can be identified as social work practice. They indicated that at a National Conference of Social Work held in San Francisco, K. Pray, one of the participants in the discussions concluded that community organization becomes social work practice when:

- a) the worker's primary objective is concerned with the development and guidance of the process by which people find satisfying social relationships;
- b) the worker pursues these objectives through consistent realization of a democratic philosophy and respect of the right and responsibility of communities as of individuals to create and use their own satisfying relationships; and

- c) the worker employs methods and skills in a helping capacity and not a controlling relationship with individuals and groups.

Ross (132 pp. 5 - 11) in an attempt to improve on his earlier broad definition of the concept identified community organization as part of a more general practice of social work by reflecting Pray's generic formulation of distinctive conditions. He amplified the analogy to casework and group-work and said that for the process to be called community organization in social work, it must meet at least the following:

- a) It must deal with problems which the community recognises as its problems.
- b) It must engage the community in an active way in the solution of its problems.
- c) It must provide for community self-determination.
- d) It must move at a pace that is comfortable for the community.
- e) It must encourage growth through problem-solving.
- f) It must encourage community self-understanding and integration.

He further believed that there were three primary orientations of the practice, namely:

- a) The specific content objective or reform orientation.
- b) The general objective or planning orientation.
- c) The process objective or process orientation.

He postulated that the last mentioned orientation contained the heart of community organization process - the achievement of self-determination, co-operation and collaborative work among various groups and the capacity to solve community problems.

Despite these early attempts, as Ecklein et al. (41 p. 10) recently pointed out, community organization practice as an occupation and as a specialization within social work is still in its infancy. There is little experience on which to build practice principles or consistent practice approaches.

Although Brager et al. acknowledged that community organization may take place in education, in civic actions of various sorts and in a number of private or governmental enterprises such as are found in agricultural extension work, they postulated a broad definition of the concept to incorporate social work elements such as "method of intervention to influence social problems" and "the enrichment, development and change of social institutions". Their definition is as follows: "Community organization is a method of intervention whereby individuals, groups and organizations engage in planned action to influence social problems. It is concerned with the enrichment, development and/or change of social institutions and involves two major related processes: planning (that is identifying problem areas, diagnosing causes and formulating solutions) and organising (that is developing the constituencies and devising the strategies necessary to effect action)" (20 p. 27).

M. Bopape modified Dunham's definition and postulated the following definition: "Community organization is a method of social work which aims at the enrichment of social functioning of the client system (which may be either individuals, groups or communities) by bringing about and maintaining adjustments between social welfare needs and social welfare resources in a given community (spatial) through the professional efforts of the change agent (which is always the professional social worker) working under the auspices of a social welfare institution" (18, p. 15).

Community organization in this study will refer to a method of social work

through which the professional efforts of a social worker under the auspices of a social welfare agency are geared towards the enhancement of the social functioning of the community by encouraging individuals and groups to participate in relationships which are concerned with bringing about self-determined initiation, development and/or changes in social institutions in order to maintain a balanced adjustment between social welfare needs and social welfare resources. This method involves two related processes, namely, planning and organizing.

2.4 Community Work

Several definitions of the concept community work which will be discussed in this section reveal different views among authors of various countries, for example the British and American authors.

According to Batten and Batten in Britain, the concept is defined in the broadest sense to indicate....."anything that anyone may do to influence people's values, ideas, attitudes, relationships or behaviour for better". (12 p. 4). This definition embraces a wide range of activities and it does not limit the field of community work to a particular profession. The definition further points out that in community work efforts are directed towards the betterment of the people's life. This implies an element of change from the existing conditions which are found to be unpleasant by the people concerned.

Leaper, who regards the concept to include the activities of a ".....fairly large body of people whose work is designed by some reference to the community" (79 pp. 8 - 128) goes on to differentiate between two types of com-

munity work, namely, community organization which is concerned with providing the community with the means of mobilizing its resources in a coordinated way to prevent social problems or to meet them when they become evident; and community development whose primary function is to work directly with local people at grass-roots level.

Recently, one British author, Leissner, defined community work as ".....a social work discipline which has the overall task of enabling communities to function effectively as communities" (86 p. 4).

The author lists a number of specific tasks that are found in both community organization and community development such as:

- a) helping a group of people to become aware of their identity as a community and to recognise the needs that they share;
- b) helping them to identify and mobilize their own resources;
- c) providing them with professional guidance in utilizing these resources;
- d) stimulating people's interest in all aspects of community life and enabling them to participate in the running of their affairs, thereby achieving a realistic degree of autonomy over its own social situation.

In the British context therefore, the concept community work is an all-embracing term which includes both community organization and community development. In most British publications the concept community work has gained more usage, for example in Social Work Today.

Sieder (138 p. 53) who expresses the American usage of the concept

distinguished three major functions of a direct-service agency and gave a functional explanation of the concept. The three functions are "client work", "community work" and "administrative work". According to her, community work encompasses three distinct activities that engage the direct-service agency in active relationships with other organizations, outside groups and individuals, to facilitate the agency's ability to serve its clients. The activities are:

- a) inter-organizational relations, including referrals, inter-organizational exchange and joint agency action on behalf of its clients;
- b) mobilization of community support for the agency, its programme financing and ideology; and
- c) change of community resources including initiation, revision, elimination or combination of services needed on behalf of the agency's clients.

In this sense the author limits the concept to the field of social work because she bases her definition on the activities of a welfare agency.

Spergel (143 pp. 3 - 4) also mentioned that the concept community work came into usage to indicate the advanced form of the old community organization. The author said that in the past the concept community organization in social work suggested a process of co-ordination of established social agencies to achieve a balance between human needs and resources. But community organization as it is developed today suggests a practice which has more varied objectives, activities and methodologies encompassing certain efforts of direct-service agencies as well as of community groups, hence a change to a more appropriate concept of community work. The author further regards

the concept to be more appropriate to go with the concepts of casework and groupwork in social work. The author then replaces the concept community organization by the concept community work.

Thus, in America the concept is either used to replace the concept community organization or inter-changeably with it.

In South Africa, Hare (61 p. 106) mentioned that at The Sixth Conference of Lecturers in Social Work, the discussion groups reached the conclusion that community work was possibly a useful term to encompass both community organization and community development. It was agreed that a study of community development be included in the curriculum thereby preparing social workers for the overall task of community work. Subsequent definitions of the concept which were formulated by South African writers reflect this agreement. For example Bopape M. formulated the following definition of the concept: "The term 'community work' is used here to cover all types of activities involving community relations external to the welfare agency. These activities are subsumed under one of three major functional categories, i.e.

- mobilization of community support;
- inter-organization exchange; and
- exchange of community resources". (18 p. 22).

From the above definition, the writer concludes that every direct-service agency must perform three major functions, namely client work, administrative work and community work. In this study a more detailed and explicit definition of the concept as postulated by Molefe will be adopted. He defined the concept

as follows: "Community work will be regarded as referring to any direct services rendered by voluntary organizations and/or statutory bodies designed to benefit the community through offering opportunities for participation by community members in order to increase their capacity in dealing with common social problems and in this way contribute towards the improvement of the quality of life in the community". (106 p. 16).

2.5 Community Development

The concept community development first appeared in 1948 as a substitute for mass-education by a British Conference on African Administration which defined it as follows: "A movement designed to promote better living for the whole community with the active participation and if possible on the initiative of the community, but if this initiative is not forthcoming spontaneously, by the use of techniques for arousing and stimulating it in order to secure its active enthusiastic response to the movement". (39 p. 122). Underlying this definition is the fact that in community development the efforts are directed towards improving the living conditions of the whole community. Further the people's initiative and active participation are regarded as basic elements, which when not forthcoming spontaneously, must be aroused and stimulated in order to ensure effectiveness of community development process.

The role of the people in initiating and implementing development programmes has received more emphasis in the definition provided by the Agency for International Development of the U.S.A. which conceived of community development as a process of social action by the people of the community, and outside help such as governmental and non-governmental agencies as a supplement to

the people's own resources. The concept was defined as ".....a process of social action in which the people of a community organize themselves for planning and action, define their common and individual needs and problems, make group and individual plans to meet their needs and solve their problems, execute these plans with a maximum reliance upon community resources and supplement these resources, when necessary, with services and materials from governmental and non-governmental agencies outside the community". (28 p. 3).

With the rise of national community development programmes in parts of Asia and Africa, a definition which has gained a wide acceptance was formulated by the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations in 1956. The concept was defined as follows: "The term community development has come into international usage to connote the process by which the efforts of the people themselves are united with those of the governmental authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities to integrate these communities into the life of the nation and to enable them to contribute fully to national progress". (39 p. 121).

In view of the above discussions, the concept community development, in this study will be regarded to presuppose a social process which, taking into account the people's needs, interests, customs and values, aims at:

- a) motivating and educating people towards self-help at grass-roots level;
- b) encouraging the establishment and maintenance of harmonious relationships in their participation in efforts directed towards the attainment of self-chosen goals which may entail the creation, change and/or revitalization of social institutions, interests, and attitudes;

- c) supporting maximum use of the existing community resources and only where necessary supplementing these with governmental and non-governmental services and materials; and ultimately
- d) creating citizens who can live with and gain control over local aspects of a changing world thereby attaining a more satisfying life.

From the above definition it is clear that community development process involves several different disciplines. Accordingly it may find expression in the following areas:

- a) Health, including public health and health education.
- b) Education.
- c) Town planning and housing.
- d) Human relationships; and
- e) Welfare Services.

2.6 Conclusion

Up to this stage the key concepts which indicate the meaning of community and various ways of working with the community, each in its appropriate circumstances, have been outlined. The concept community is seen as a complex social system of interaction between ecological, social, cultural and psychological elements. The concept community organization will imply a social work method through which a social worker encourages individual and group participation in relationships which are concerned with bringing about self-determined initiation, development and/or changes in social institutions in order to maintain a balanced adjustment between social welfare needs and social welfare resources.

Community work is regarded as direct community services rendered by voluntary and/or statutory bodies through participation by community members in dealing with common social problems thus contributing towards the improvement of the quality of life in the community. The concept is a comprehensive term covering both community organization and community development. The concept community development will imply a grass-roots process of mobilization carried on by people with the help of the community worker in order to attain a more satisfying life for the community as a whole.

CHAPTER 3

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE:

A THEORETICAL BACKGROUND.

3.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter community development has been referred to as an inter-disciplinary approach to community needs and problems. It seeks to co-ordinate various specialities such as agriculture, education, public health, social welfare services, etc.

Closely tied with the inter-disciplinary nature of community development, arise questions such as, what professions or vocations should be represented, what should be their respective roles, functions and relationships.

It is the aim in this chapter, therefore, to trace the place and relationship between the social work profession and community development and to show how community development can benefit from social work practice and vice-versa.

Before determining the place of social work in community development, it is deemed necessary to give concise descriptions of the nature of each one of them.

3.2 The Nature of Social Work Practice.

Social work is a profession which has certain philosophical concepts which

are basic to its practice. It is directed towards the attainment of certain professional goals. Like other professions it derives knowledge from a variety of sources and in application brings forth further knowledge from its own processes. It uses certain methods, techniques and skills.

3.2.1 Definition of Social Work

This study will be based on Robert C. Crouch's definition of social work, because, although concisely stated, the author's own analysis of the definition reveals its comprehensive nature.

The author gives what he believes to be a concise definition built around the common goals that unify the profession's diverse fields and specialities and make them social work. "Social Work is the attempt to assist those who do not command the means to human subsistence in acquiring them and in attaining the highest possible degree of independence". (31, p. 46).

Several facets of this definition were explained in the following manner by the author: "Human subsistence" is defined as consisting of five fundamental components, namely, physical subsistence, economic subsistence, emotional subsistence, political subsistence and social subsistence.

"Assist in attaining the highest possible degree of independence" refers to the development of the client's ability to provide himself with the fulfilment of his needs without reliance on others. "Highest possible" means that some clients are limited by physical, emotional, psychological etc. handicaps that render them incapable of levels of independence experienced by the non-

handicapped (31, p. 47).

Although this definition does not mention explicitly the preventive aspect of social work, the author argues that assisting an individual to develop from sub-standard circumstances to his highest possible level of independence is ultimately aimed at preventing a return to social-dependent circumstances. This definition implies that social work practice becomes involved and intervenes when and where individuals in interactions with their social and physical environment, either because of their own short-comings or because of the limitations of their environment, find themselves unable to lead normally acceptable lives.

The purpose of this intervention is found in Goldstein's definition of social work when he refers to social work as ".....a form of social intervention which enhances, conserves and augments the means by which persons, individually and/or collectively, can resolve disruptions in their social existence". (59, p. 4). The concept intervention as used in this definition implies the social worker's use of professional authority and skills to modify, settle or hinder some action or social conditions. The use of the concept social intervention in social work is based on the acknowledgement of the fact that individuals are part of the social systems to which they belong and therefore when helping them, the conditions in their social systems need to be taken into consideration. Therefore, intervention in social work may be at the level of the individual and/or at the level of the social system to which he belongs.

3.2.2 The Purpose of Social Work

In the expression of professional responsibilities in a variety of settings,

social work has some central distinguishing purpose.

According to Goldstein (59 p. 5) the central and distinguishing purpose of social work is to provide the means and the opportunity by which persons can work out, find alternatives for, organize about, contend with or in otherwise autonomous ways deal with conditions, (internal, interpersonal or environmental) which interfere with productive social living.

From the abovementioned central purpose flow the following corollaries outlined in the Working Definition of Social Work as presented by Pincus and Minahan (125 p. 9): Social work activities are directed towards the attainment of the following purposes:

- a) Enhancing the problem-solving capacities of individuals and groups by assisting them to identify and resolve or minimize problems arising out of disequilibrium between themselves and their environment.
- b) Identifying potential areas of disequilibrium between individuals or groups and their environment and providing them with resources, services and opportunities that will prevent the occurrence of disequilibrium.
- c) Seeking out, identifying and strengthening the maximum potential in individuals, groups and communities.
- d) Contributing to the development and improvement of social policy.

3.2.3 The Functions of Social Work

According to Boehm W. (16 p. 51) the goal of social work can be achieved

through the discharge of the following three functions: restoration of impaired social functioning, provision of resources, individual and social, for more effective social functioning and prevention of social disfunctioning. For clarity, the key concepts in this statement need to be explained. They are restoration, provision and prevention.

a) Restoration:

This function is seen as curative and rehabilitative. It implies that after identifying those factors that have caused impairment of the individual's social functioning, social work endeavours to restore the individual's capacities to a maximum level of social functioning by helping him to eliminate those causative factors.

b) Provision of Resources:

This function is seen as developmental and educational. Within the social system, this entails the development of social conditions by creating new resources, improving and co-ordinating the existing social resources. To the individual it means the mobilization of existing but inoperative individual capacities for interaction in the physical, intellectual, emotional or spiritual realms. Its educational aspects are designed to acquaint the public with specific conditions and needs for new changed social resources.

c) Prevention:

This function entails early discovery, control and elimination of conditions and situations that potentially could hamper effective social functioning.

This prevention may take place in the area of interaction between individuals and groups or it may entail the prevention of social ills by creating socially healthy conditions. Although cited long ago in 1959, there is a marked similarity between Boehm's exposition and the seven major functions of social work outlined by Pincus and Minahan (123 p. 15) in their recent book. The authors postulate that the intervention activities and tasks performed by social workers are designed to accomplish one or more of the following functions:

- a) Help people enhance and more effectively utilize their own problem-solving and coping capacities.
- b) Establish initial linkages between people and resource systems.
- c) Facilitate interaction, modify and build new relationships between people and societal resource systems.
- d) Contribute to the development and modification of social policy.
- e) Dispense material resources.
- f) Serve as agents of social control.

3.2.4 Basic Values of Social Work

Values are beliefs, preferences or assumptions about what is desirable or good for man. According to Friedlander (53 p. 1) the basic values of social work stem from democratic beliefs such as spiritual equality, freedom of individual development, free choice of opportunities, fair competition, a certain degree of personal independence, freedom of speech, freedom of expression and communication.

The following six values are listed as basic to the practice of social work in The Working Definition of Social Work developed by the National Association of Social Workers in America:

- a) The individual is the primary concern of this Society.
- b) There is interdependence between individuals in this Society.
- c) They have some social responsibilities for one another.
- d) There are human needs common to each person yet each person is essentially unique and different from others.
- e) An essential attribute of a democratic society is the realization of the full potential of each individual and the assumption of his social responsibility through active participation in society.
- f) Society has a responsibility to provide ways in which obstacles to this self-realization can be overcome or prevented. (11 p. 221).

Pincus and Minahan (123 p. 39) mention that in social work these basic values dictate ways in which the social worker should interact with others in carrying out his professional activities by constantly reminding him what he is striving for, what he should be mindful of in his strife to attain the ultimate good.

3.2.5 Professional Knowledge.

In The Working Definition of Social Work Practice it is mentioned that the practice of the social worker is typically guided by knowledge of:

- a) Human development and behaviour characterized by emphasis on the wholeness of the individual and the reciprocal influences of man and his total environment
 - human, social, economic and cultural.

- b) The psychology of giving and taking help from another person or source outside the individual.
- c) Ways in which people communicate with one another and give outer expression to their inner feelings such as words, gestures and activities.
- d) Group processes and the effects of groups upon individuals and the reciprocal influence of the individual upon the group.
- e) The meaning and effect on the individual, groups and community of cultural heritage including its religious beliefs, spiritual values, law and other social institutions.
- f) Relationships, i.e. the interactional processes between individuals, between the individual and the group and between group and group.
- g) The community, its internal processes, modes of development and change, its social services and resources.
- h) The social services, their structure, organization and methods.
- i) Himself, which enables the individual practitioner to be aware of and to take responsibility for his own emotions and attitudes as they affect his professional functions. (11 p. 223).

3.2.6 Techniques of Social Work

Incorporated in the use of the social work method may be one or more of the following techniques or tools as listed in The Working Definition of Social Work Practice: Support, clarification, information giving, interpretation, development of insight, differentiation of the social worker from the individual or group, identification with agency function, creation and use of the structure, use of activities and projects, provision of positive

experiences, teaching, stimulation of group interaction, limit setting, utilization of available social resources, effecting change in immediate environmental forces operating upon the individual or groups, and lastly synthesis (11 p. 224).

3.2.7 Methods of Social Work

In social work the following methods are applied:

3.2.7.1 Social casework method

Social casework, because of its dynamic, complex and ever changing nature, is characterized by a long history of problems in attempting to define it adequately.

This problem was recently acknowledged by M. Bopape when he said: "..... since the objectives and functions of social casework have always been undergoing modification, it is difficult to formulate a unique operational definition" (18 p. 57).

Despite the abovementioned problems, some definitions will be cited and analysed in this study.

In his article, Henry Maas refers to an old definition that was cited by S. Bowers. The significance of this definition is its reference to skill in relationship as a major factor in the method of social casework. It was as follows: "Social casework is an art in which knowledge of the science of human relations and skill in relationships are used to mobilize capacities

in the individual and resources in the community appropriate for better adjustment between the client and all or any part of his total environment". (94 p. 19). H. H. Perlman defined social casework as follows: "Social casework is a process used by certain human welfare agencies to help individuals to cope more effectively with their problems in social functioning". (120 p. 4). The merit of this definition is that it includes all four components of social casework, i.e. a person with a problem comes to a place where a professional representative helps him by a given process.

A client is a person under stress. He may be in a personally quite painful situation or in a culturally deviant and therefore socially threatening position. To modify such imbalances in the person, client-worker-relationships are the medium for change in the casework method.

In Smalley's definition the nature of the relationship in a casework situation is specified: "Social casework is a method for engaging a client through a relationship process, essentially one to one, in the use of a social service towards his own and the general social welfare". (141 p. 81).

Here the author specifically mentioned that the relationship is essentially on a one to one basis. The phrase "engaging a client" in the definition points to the significance of the individual client's participation and that this participation is skillfully guided and not haphazard. For the purpose of this study social casework will be defined as a method and a process through which an individual who comes to a social welfare agency with a social problem is skillfully engaged in a worker-client relationship on a one to one basis to mobilize his individual capacities and resources in his environment so as to help him solve his problem and to enhance his social functioning.

3.2.7.2 Social groupwork method

Social groupwork as a method of social work has undergone some changes ever since its introduction to the profession. However, presently social groupwork is generally accepted as a primary method of social work.

H. Northern (1966 p. 110) mentioned that social work practice uses the small group as both the context and the means through which its members support and modify their attitudes, interpersonal relationships and abilities to cope effectively with their environment.

G. Konopka defines social groupwork as ".....a method of social work which helps individuals to enhance their social functioning through purposeful group experiences and to cope more effectively with their personal group and community problems". (1966 p. 20). According to Klein A. "Groupwork is a method of helping people through group experience - a form of social helping directed toward giving people a constructive experience of membership in a group so that they are able to develop as persons and be better able to contribute to the life of the community". (1965 p. 26). As it stands, this definition does not limit the groupwork method to the field of social work. But its emphasis of the use of "group experiences" reflects the purpose for which social work practice uses a group. In social work, the modification of individuals' attitudes, interpersonal relationships and abilities to cope effectively is done through participation in interactions among members. These interactions of the members result in a group experience which helps individuals to grow and develop, thus enabling them to cope with their life situations and to contribute to the community as a whole.

In this study, Du Preez M.S.E.'s definition will be adopted:

"Maatskaplike groepwerk is een van die primêre metodes van maatskaplike werk waardeur 'n opgeleide maatskaplike groepwerker op 'n professionele wyse aan groepe bestaande uit unieke individue hulp verleen deur die groeiproses, die onderlinge verhoudinge en die programmedia op 'n doelgerigte en bedrewe wyse te hanteer en aan te wend. Hierdie metode van hulpverlening word gewoonlik aangewend binne die raamwerk van 'n geregistreeerde welsynsorganisasie en kan op 'n selfstandige wyse of aanvullend tot die ander primêre metodes van maatskaplike werk gebruik word". (38 p. 16).

The significance of this definition is that it explicitly refers to the following components of social group work:

- (a) As a method of social work, social group work is applied in a social welfare agency setting.
- b) There should be a professional social worker who guides individuals' interactions.
- c) The individuality of members should be taken into consideration when guiding participation.
- d) Group experiences and programmes are used in a purposeful manner to strengthen and develop members.
- e) This method can be used independently or supportively with other methods of social work.

From the above outline, it is clear that the social group work method in social work is used for the solution of individual problems as well as for preventive rehabilitative and developmental purposes.

3.2.7.3 Community organization method

Several definitions and views on community organization have been outlined in the previous chapter.

Carter, G.W. (25 p.210) mentions that the development of social work doctrines for community organization has roots in the 1920's when community chests and councils of social agencies were already becoming widespread.

Later it was acknowledged that although community organization was accepted as a method of social work, social workers were only one group among many trying to organize the community. The author goes on to say that in social work this organization was to apply specifically to building co-operation and collaboration in the discovery and definition of welfare needs, in the development of preventive and corrective programmes for social pathology, and in the constant mobilization and readjustment of community resources to meet the changing content of these needs and programmes.

Therefore in this study community organization is accepted as one of the methods of social work, applied by social workers under the auspices of a welfare agency.

3.3 The Nature of Community Development

Some definitions of community development were discussed in the previous chapters and therefore no definitions will be cited in this section.

It will, however, be mentioned that community development is a specific

approach, a pattern of well established practices emanating from certain basic principles, attitudes and objectives.

Although originally it was associated with underdeveloped rural communities, Du Sautoy has mentioned that in principle there is no reason why community development should not be undertaken in towns. (39 p. 34)

Community development is not one service but a composite of all the various services needed - agricultural extension, adult education, health education, social welfare services, etc.

Morgan and Tyler mention that because of its inter-disciplinary nature, community development like many challenging concepts, has different meanings to different people. (109 p. 28).

3.3.1 Characteristics of Community Development

Despite its inter-disciplinary nature, community development is characterized by certain basic elements that run through several definitions of the concept. The following are some of these characteristics.

a) Community development achieves both material and non-material goals. Dunham A. refers to these goals as task-goals which are concerned with achieving certain concrete objectives and process goals, which are concerned with strengthening the qualities of participation, self direction and co-operation. (36 p. 173).

b) Anthony Lloyds (90 p. 13) cited planning for the needs of the total community as one of the basic elements of community development.

But, as Dunham has mentioned, not all the people of the community may participate in community projects at the same time, nor all the needs may be satisfied at the same time. (36 p. 173).

c) Community development is problem-solving oriented.

d) Community development is based upon the philosophy of self-help and participation by as many members of the community as possible.

e) Community development is essentially inter-disciplinary. According to Du Sautoy (39 p. 126) it usually operates in four main fields: adult education and basic social education; specialized work among women and youth; self-help construction projects; extension education work in various nation building fields.

f) Community development is non-coercive. It emphasizes voluntary participation and co-operation among community members when planning and undertaking community projects.

g) Community development helps people to achieve goals democratically. The leader becomes an agent constructing learning experiences rather than the proponent of a programme.

h) According to Dunham (36 p. 173), as far as possible a community development programme should be based on the "felt needs" and desires and aspirations of the people. In community development action is based on unforced consensus rather than on the promotion of a predetermined programme.

i) Community development involves an educational process, which, according to Homero Ferrinho (48 pp. 41 - 42), develops leadership, a strong sense of individual and group responsibility, community loyalty and areas of common interest.

j) The Encyclopaedia of Social Sciences (46 pp. 169 - 172) mentions that community development is characterized by four functionaries that are found in its practice: local leaders, who are essential if there is to be a genuine involvement of the people of the community; community organizers, who are trained in human relations skills rather than in any other subject-matter field; he is supposed to relate subject-matter fields to the problems of the community; subject-matter specialist, eg. agriculturist, having a thorough training in his subject matter, the specialist becomes involved after the community has decided to take action on a project that concerns his field and an administrator, who is responsible for the proportion of energy and money that go into the programme.

k) In community development, local development efforts must be a part of an over-all national or regional development plan.

3.3.2 Philosophical Principles of Community Development

Several authors have enumerated the basic principles that must obtain if community development programmes are really to serve the people to whom they are offered.

One of these authors, Fred Wale, as quoted by Morgan L. and Tyler E. (109 p. 31) has listed a number of basic principles of community development

and some of them are the following:

- a) People living together have a right to share in anything that affects their lives.
- b) Men must come together voluntarily and with continuity to study, analyse and examine all matters that affect them.
- c) No free man ever accepts physical or spiritual enslavement.
- d) Unless a climate of study is erected by the people, no community development is possible.
- e) A people should live consciously not submissively: if they live in a dependent state it should be because they understand it, accept it and prefer it to other ways of living.

In this study, Homero Ferrinho's comprehensive exposition of the philosophical principles of community development will be adopted. The author lists these principles and goes on to explain what each implies to the individuals in the community and to the community development worker. Ferrinho (48 pp.50 - 55) gives the following basic principles of community development:

- a) Human Solidarity which implies a shared feeling or spirit of unity and a common responsibility for the present and future life of the community. This shared feeling of unity is manifested through moral and social responsibility which imply awareness of public interest and freedom to participate in the definition and solution of social problems.

This unity of action and spirit binds individuals together by conscious obligations, cutting across egoistic and self-seeking considerations.

Every person who understands what community development is, should, as a member of the community feel morally obliged to participate in it.

b) Social Equity. Equity is a concept of distributive justice which holds that social organizations should provide appropriate opportunities to all individuals to participate in social life to develop themselves and to ascend in social rank according to their uniqueness and their personal merits and efforts. To the individual equity is an active concept of life which implies an idea of personal effort to attain a status or any other thing. Through equity the individual's potentials that equip him to participate in tasks imposed by community development are mobilized and developed and the capacities of the individual are integrated into a collective situation, thus providing him with a social support for maximum social efficiency in the application of those capacities to problem-solving.

c) Respect of the human being for himself. This involves acceptance of all other human beings irrespective of their race, nationality, social status or other attributes, as fellow men, to respect them and to live without depreciating them and rendering their efforts as being unnecessary to the solutions of their problems.

Coupled with respect for others is self-respect which implies appreciation of oneself and one's fellow men as the principal means for your development. Respect for oneself and fellow human beings forbids offering or accepting substitute for self-help.

d) Continuing Activism of People. Because people are the objective and the beneficiaries of community development, they are its agents. This means that they must be continually involved, not only in power-sharing and decision making, but also in the practical realization or actualization of its philosophical principles. As a social process, community development is a continuous reaction against everything that oppresses human beings.

It should therefore continue to involve more people by encouraging those concerned in it to win others for its purposes so that it must continue to overcome everything that tends to jeopardize the achievement of the aims defined by its ideology.

3.3.3 Objectives of Community Development

Although it may be said that because of its inter-disciplinary nature, community development will have, at different times, different objectives to the various fields which engage in it, attempts have been made to work out certain basic objectives. According to Gradus Hendriks (62 p. 75), one of the basic objectives of community development is to promote a better functioning of the community by bringing about the necessary social and cultural changes with the ultimate aim of bringing about greater prosperity in the economic, social and cultural welfare of the population.

The author goes on to mention that community development has as its objective, fostering popular participation of all sectors of the population in planning for what is needed and in implementing the plan. In addition, A. Dunham (37 pp. 10 - 13) has listed the following objectives of community development:

- a) To strengthen and improve the structure of government and other social institutions in such a way as to facilitate social change and the process of growth.
- b) To mobilize citizen enthusiasm for improving their society by making them aware of their capacities, potentials and resources for improving their standard of living.
- c) To promote social justice by permitting less privileged

groups to give expression to their aspirations and to participate in development activities.

- d) To develop the role of the community in reflecting the needs and wishes of the populations to the local government.
- e) To make sure that the development of our social services is such that it strengthens the bonds of mutual aid and encourages self-help.

3.3.4 Methods of Community Development.

Community development, as a change inducing process, has to give close attention to the strategy and tactics it considers using. Before giving an outline of alternative strategies that can be used in community development, the Regional and Community Developing Section of the United Nations (128 pp. 148 - 152) mentions that the methods to be used depend on the characteristics of the community concerned. It is important therefore, before deciding on a particular method to conduct a preliminary fact-finding investigation. On the basis of a diagnosis based on the facts thus collected, it is possible to formulate alternative action proposals. Here follow alternative methods of community development as given by the abovementioned section of the United Nations.

3.3.4.1 Village level Workers or Village Leaders.

A village level worker is a government paid officer who may be a local citizen who has had training in community development outside the community or an outsider born and trained outside the community. In using a village level worker, it is to be considered whether it is to be over a period of time or on occasional visits.

Such village-level workers, by remaining in touch with villages, helping them to accept new values and attitudes can help create conditions for the acceptance and diffusion of technical assistance to be provided by the government. The use of village-level workers is sometimes disadvantageous. A village-level worker may be regarded as a foreigner whose stay in the village may be temporary, and because of this he may not be in a strategic position to mobilize the villagers. Secondly, if a village-worker is young and unmarried or a woman, he/she may find it difficult to make an impact in rural areas where the cultural pattern is such as to render the acceptance of their status doubtful. Among village leaders we have those who already perform traditional leadership functions and recruited or trained local leaders, who may be functional leaders who influence the community on specific issues or general leaders whose authority is recognised in many aspects of life.

In communities where the hold of tradition is so strong that young leaders capable of assuming new roles are not available or are too much under the influence of their elders, one has no choice but to work with traditional leaders. However, one has a choice of selecting those whose orientation is more akin to the modern roles they are expected to perform. On the issue of functional or general leaders the answer may be that both are required and the more comprehensive the activities are, the greater will be the need to use both general and functional leaders.

3.3.4.2 Community Consensus

Because the essence of the community development approach is to enhance the ability of community groups to promote development rather than focus on

individuals, it is important that a broad spectrum of the community participate in the development process. An emphasis on general community interest may lead to the establishment of community consensus. This approach while at times correct, is not always valid in all places or at all times. Consensus should not be viewed as a positive quality regardless of the goals around which it is formed, nor should conflict be necessarily viewed as undesirable. An over-emphasis on consensus may hinder innovation, it may also serve as a pretext for the dominant groups in the community to control groups and individuals that challenge consensually-determined goals and means.

3.3.4.3 Ad hoc Group and Institution building

The process of development may be considered to consist of two stages - mobilization and institutionalization. In mobilization and institutionalization the purpose is to weaken the hold of traditional groups and institutions on the individual in circumstances in which they are not conducive to motivation, so that the individual may be inclined to invest his energy in new goals, associate with new groups and perform new roles. During this stage the social equilibrium of the community tends to be upset. The formation of ad hoc groups and voluntary associations is often an effective method at this stage, to help mobilize the public to strive for developmental goals. To some extent, community development has encouraged this sort of approach to generate enthusiasm and spontaneous action for achieving its objectives.

The role of ad hoc groups is effective only at the mobilization stage. In

order to sustain the level of activity it is essential that the right to command and receive obedience be transferred from the person of the leader to his office. When this stage is achieved, the stage of institutionalization is reached.

3.3.4.4 Communication in Community Development

The role of communications as a two-way process in development and change of attitude cannot be underestimated. To integrate rural communities into national life, to impart new dynamism, to create new institutions possessed of vigour and vitality, rural communities have to be put in touch with the wider world. For example, films, radio and television can produce attitudinal changes more effectively when local groups are organized to benefit from specially prepared programmes.

Another aspect of communication is the establishment of a dialogue between communities and government officials which is frequently lacking. Dialogue helps to narrow the gulf between what the population thinks and what government officials think is beneficial to the people.

3.4 Community Development and Social Work Practice

The descriptive discussions given earlier in this chapter have led to the contention in this study, that, the social work profession has a place in community development. Although community development and social work may differ in some aspects they are, as processes, supplementary and substantially similar if not identical.

Ferrinho H. (48 pp. 93 - 94) ascribes the supplementary relationship between social work and community development to the integrated system of social work methods. According to him, social work may be described as using knowledge of psycho-social sciences in the practice of a complex art of helping others to improve their social functioning at the levels of the individual, the group and the community. As none of the levels are independent of each other where their capacity to promote healthy social functioning is concerned, the practice of social work must always be seen as a systematic approach involving casework, groupwork and community work. In reference to this integrated system of social work, the author postulates the concept of synergy, which connotes a consequence of a symmetric effect, i.e. while one method is contributing to improve the people's social functioning in its specific area, e.g. casework at individual level, it is also making a contribution to improve the people's social functioning in other areas, e.g. group and community. The improvement of the latter is in turn a contribution to the improvement of the former.

Gordon Hamilton (60 p. 25) although writing about casework, gives a clearer exposition of the supplementary relationship or contribution of community development to social work. She mentions that as a caseworker, one is not only obliged to help the person satisfy his social functioning in an appropriate way but also to stimulate and release capacities for constructive social living and further, to create a better social environment for human beings.

It is through community development that social work can succeed in creating a better social environment because tasks towards the improvement of a social environment may include better employment facilities, better housing, improved social services, literacy, sanitation and so on. Therefore, community

development, characterized by its broad approach to local problems, based on extensive citizen participation and help from professional people in terms of technological knowledge and also in terms of facilitating inter-communication and mutual goal-setting and co-operative efforts, constitutes one method working towards such tasks. (156 p. 42).

Community development may further, contribute in increasing the effectiveness of social welfare work. By being members of inter-disciplinary committees of community development social workers, by attending regular meetings of such committees, may, while acting as consultants, discussants and advisors, discover special needs in specific welfare areas and then bring them to the attention of service agencies or help create the necessary welfare services.

Perhaps the greatest contribution of community development to social work, says Biddle W. and Biddle L. J. (13 pp. 221 - 230), will be an urging that social workers reconcentrate their attention upon persons. The people served by the workers should be regarded as more important than the refined techniques and services.

Co-operation between the two fields is further noticed in the attack on persistent poverty. When efforts are being made to bring into the mainstream of economic well-being those who have been cast aside, it must be borne in mind that they will need help to overcome their inner handicaps, to cultivate their own initiative and to be motivated to use their own resources, thus enabling them to be increasingly self-reliant. Ferrinho H. (48 p. 97), further mentions that complex changes which political and technological factors of development impose on the community create psychological, cultural and social impairments in people's capacity for adapting to new

roles. The role of social work at this point in community development is to help people in learning how to deal constructively, not only with impairments of personality and institutional modernization, but also with the impact of the personal and social products of such modernization. If it is to be successful, social work intervention should not try to deal with the community at large, or with small local groups or with individuals as isolated entities, but with all of them as parts of the same system.

The contribution of social work to this mutual helpfulness is shown in the outline of areas and skills of social workers that are exportable for effective use in community development as given by R. J. Dumpson, quoted by R. Warren (156 pp. 52 - 53). They are the following:

- a) Understanding of the nature and dynamics of human behaviour. Certainly, this is one of the social worker's basic tools and one which the social worker adapts most easily to the culture of the people with whom he is working.
- b) Skill in effecting change in human behaviour and helping people realize their full potential as functioning members in the family and community.
- c) A deep commitment to and concern about people in need, however that need is defined, and a drive to assure that all individuals in a group or community have full access to and benefit from the development of their community facilities.
- d) An ability to help individuals and groups to identify their needs and concerns and to motivate them to want to effect change and seek improvement programmes.
- e) Provision of specialized services to meet specific needs of individuals and groups.

- f) Ability to work with others in the helping process, with whose functions the social worker is fully acquainted, and to whom they traditionally have given acceptance as having parallel professional status.
- g) Administrative know-how in the planning and execution of programmes designed to help people and groups achieve socially desirable goals in modern social living.
- h) A value system that is consonant with the democratic way of life which includes a philosophy and practice rooted in belief in the intrinsic worth and value of each human being and his right to self-determination.
- i) A body of knowledge which represents a growing synthesis of a broad spectrum of disciplines and skills in community organization and groupwork methodology that is transferable to social work practice at inter-disciplinary level.

On the issue of similarities, Dunham A. (36 p. 150) mentions that the philosophical bases of community development and social work have much in common. Both are concerned with enabling people to live, both emphasize a belief in the common man, and in the community where people live, an acceptance of the right of self-determination within the general framework of society and an emphasis upon self-help. Perhaps the best comparison between social work and community development may be achieved by outlining the similarities and differences between community development and community organization method in social work, because community organization is the method of social work that is closely related to community development.

3.4.1 Similarities

3.4.1.1 The Nature of Concern

As far as community needs are concerned, both community development and community organization share the same basic social welfare concern, that of meeting social welfare needs. They both define social welfare needs, individual and community in the same way, using the same terms.

3.4.1.2 Objectives

The objectives of these two methods are the same, namely, problem-solving and working with people in the community, to recognise their needs, to find resources and to use these resources to provide the necessary services.

3.4.1.3 Approach and Method

The approach and method of community development and community organization are similar. They share the same philosophical bases and assumptions about the individual, the group and the community.

Dame E. Younghusband, as quoted by Dunham (36 p. 152), has identified eleven basic social processes in community development that are closely related to community organization method in social work: getting to know the local community; gathering knowledge about the local community; identifying the local leaders; stimulating the community to realize that it has problems; helping people to discuss their problems; helping people to identify the most pressing problems, fostering self-confidence; deciding on a programme of action; recognition of strengths and weaknesses; helping people to continue to work on solving their problems and increasing people's ability for self-help.

Both share the basic tools such as interviewing, community surveys, analysis and planning etc. and they both emphasize the use of community resources including technical and professional assistance.

3.4.1.4 The Role of the Worker

The role of the worker in community development and community organization is similar in that the worker is an objective participant attempting to offer a service to those who need it, and encourage a more efficient and effective use of natural social processes to achieve agreed aims and objectives.

3.4.2 Differences

3.4.2.1 Concern with the Field of Social Work

Community organization is closely related to the social work profession. In the United States of America it is seen as having evolved from charity organizations and councils of welfare organizations. Again community organization is mainly concerned with relationships between established social welfare bodies and the needs of the community. It is mostly concerned with health and welfare or adjoining areas of community life.

Community development on the other hand frequently deals much more with the basic needs and with the economic life of the total community, concerning itself with all the people. It is concerned with the less organized, informal, autonomous groups in the community which provide services for themselves and for others in the community.

3.4.2.2 Relationship to Existing Social Structure

The main objective of community organization is to strengthen and rationalise the existing network of statutory and voluntary welfare bodies and to initiate new services within the network. By contrast community development is always concerned with bringing about change. Its primary aim is to enable the community itself, at its own pace and in its own way to accept responsibility and achieve status. However, sometimes, community development must accommodate new ways within some existing cultural assumptions. Community development is thus concerned with conserving the social fabric as well as with innovation.

3.4.2.3 Approach and Method

Community organization uses its methods to achieve greater effectiveness and efficiency within and between welfare bodies on an administrative level. Community development, using similar methods adapts them to achieve the same ends but working with community groups. In community development, programmes always reflect community felt needs. Further, community development normally involves a wider range of methods and skills including adult education methods, agricultural methods etc. Community organization is more limited.

3.4.2.4 The Role of the Worker

Community organization is a specialized type of social work, with the worker seen as a social administrator, or social planner or policy expert in relation to the needs of statutory and voluntary bodies.

On the other hand, community development is inherently inter-disciplinary with the community development officer as a detached informal inter-disciplinary generalist whose relations to the community groups are much more informal, unscheduled and unstructured.

3.4.2.5 Consensus and Conflict

Community organization places heavy emphasis on consensus. Conflict is not a typical or important characteristic of the process. In community development much use is made of consensus but along with it is an acceptance of conflict as a natural element of democracy.

3.4.2.6 Participation

In community development direct participation is normally open to virtually any community resident who wishes to participate. In community organization most services are carried out by agencies with limited governing boards, staff members with special qualifications and sometimes a limited number of volunteers. Community development lays emphasis on direct participation in a programme; on the other hand, community organization makes much more use of representational devices and delegate bodies.

3.5 Conclusion

Community development and social work as demonstrated through the method of community organization have much to offer each other. The two fields can co-exist with much mutual benefit. It must be borne in mind, however, that many other professions lay claim to this co-existence and mutual benefit with community development.

CHAPTER 4

RURAL COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT : CONCEPTS AND PLANNING IMPLICATIONS

4.1 Introduction

It is the intention, in this chapter, to discuss the general nature of rural development and to pay special attention to those factors that influence the success of the implementation of development projects, such as the design of the development strategy and the extension education for citizen participation.

It is also deemed imperative, before embarking on the abovementioned discussion, to consider various views on community development in order to determine a view suitable for this study.

4.2 Views on Community Development

Certain basic elements distinguish community development. Du Sautoy, in his definition of community development mentions that, "It is that part of the process which is distinguished by the following ingredients:

- a) Self-help.
- b) Attention paid to the people's felt needs.
- c) Attention paid to the social, traditional and other aspects of the community as a whole". (39 p. 126).

Anthony Lloyd's phrasing of the four basic elements of community development includes:

- a) Planning for the needs of the total community.
- b) Self-help as a basis for action.
- c) Technical assistance when necessary.
- d) Integration of specialist services. (90 p. 13)

From the elements listed above, it is evident that basically community development should culminate in the following consequences:

- a) Human development.
- b) Social changes; and
- c) Concrete achievements.

It is on the basis of these basic elements and consequences that different views will be analysed. The discussion of these views will be based on FitzGerald's discussion of the four ways of viewing community development, i.e. as a method, a programme, a social movement and a process.

4.2.1 Community Development as a Method

As a method, community development denotes a special form of procedure, orderly arranged to attain a specific goal, generally of material concrete nature. For example, as mentioned by Robert Currams (32 p. 3), during the 1960's in the United States, the idea of developmental method was promoted by the Department of Education and Welfare in the solution of social problems. It interpreted the provision of social services as the element of developmental method by adopting the view that these social services should not only provide a service for people who seek help in meeting personal needs, but also play a part in bringing about social change

by creating a better ordering of relationships among people and their social organizations in order to provide a more satisfying life. The Department invoked the principles of community development by inviting people to endorse the method and contribute to its success. They were encouraged to take part in making available resources needed and cooperate in using them for agreed purposes. Viewed in the sense outlined above, community development was seen as a method of improving social conditions. FitzGerald (51 p. 34) expressed the view that as a method community development may be conceived as a function of government or it may be the means used in effecting forms of social organization and in this manner be confused with community organization. Although as a method, community development may be directed at the needs of the people, and may encourage self-help and participation as seen in the above example, it lacks the element of human development by laying more emphasis on concrete results achieved, i.e. more attention is given to the development of environmental resources than to that of the people.

4.2.2 Community Development as a Programme

As a programme, community development denotes a definite plan of any intended proceeding. Inherent in this definite plan are activities in order to attain the desired results. The following extract from Malcolm Wallis's (155 p. 193) discussion of community development in Kenya, emphasizes the programme approach.

"The slogan of "self-help" became a familiar theme in Kenya's politics soon after independence. As a first step, a policy document was drawn

up by the Kenya Government in 1963. The intention was to give to the department a new lease of life. For example, to improve co-ordination between self-help activities, a pyramid of community development committees at various administrative levels was to be established and community development staff were given a task of establishing and servicing these potentially valuable rural development institutions. The results produced by the 'self-help' programme have been impressive. In particular self-help groups involved in the construction of primary and secondary schools mushroomed in the more densely populated and developed parts of the country".

It is observed that in the above discussion, emphasis fell on drafting a policy document which outlined the programme, starting from the formation of committees down to the training of staff that would carry out the drafted programme. In this sense community development denotes an approach in which a highly trained community development worker approaches the community with a package of plans and activities which he persuades or coerces the people to support and carry out in order to attain preconceived results. The programme approach tends to contribute to the creation of a situation in which government officials who are more interested in environmental improvements than in human development, use either paternalistic or authoritarian approach to get the local people involved in self-help projects and evaluate the results of development in terms of project statistics instead of human change and development.

4.2.3 Community Development as a Social Movement

Efforts in community development as a social movement are directed at

modifying, replacing or destroying an existing order. It has its inception in a condition of unrest and derives its motive power on one hand from dissatisfaction with the current form of life and on the other hand from the wishes and hopes for a new scheme or a system of living. Certain elements of a social movement point to the disadvantages inherent in the movement approach to community development. Taylor, as quoted by FitzGerald (51 p. 36) mentioned the following:

- a) As a movement, community development is based on propaganda aimed at mobilizing the masses whose expectations are then raised by promises which are almost certain to be not capable of fulfilment.
- b) It has the tendency to advertise the spectacular or to claim credit or achievement that derives from other resources and to rely continuously on the use of propaganda.
- c) Based on appeals to people's emotions, as a social movement, community development tends to stimulate furious activities to accomplish spectacular physical results rather than promoting either human development or lasting environmental development.

4.2.4 Community Development as a Process

As a process, community development denotes "a progression of events that is planned by the participants to serve goals they progressively choose. The events point to a change in a group and in individuals that can be termed growth in social sensitivity and competence" (13 p. 4). Defined as a process, community development establishes as its starting point the people in the community and works progressively

with them taking into account their needs, interests, beliefs, capabilities and the available community resources. As FitzGerald has rightly mentioned, "A necessary prerequisite for this to occur is the process of involving people in thinking, in expressing their ideas, in making decisions and in planning to implement their decisions to solve their identified local problems". (51 p. 46).

An outline of the flow of process as given by Biddle et al. (13 pp. 90 - 100) indicates the manner of proceedings that follow an orderly progression. The flow takes place along the following stages:

(a) The Exploratory phases

At this stage the community development worker makes efforts to know about the background of the community in which he is to work. He obtains information about its population, its conflicts, frustrations, hopes and fears. He obtains this information by firstly speaking to individuals and finally through informal discussions with groups.

(b) The Organizational phase

At this stage he organizes the information obtained in all his discussions with individuals and groups and comes to recognize areas of concern among the people. Several people shall have indicated that there is some problem upon which they are willing to work and that they see some way of starting to make progress upon it. At the end of this phase, the worker shall have begun to discern the people's felt needs.

(c) The Discussional phase

At this stage the worker holds purposeful discussions with the groups in relation to the felt needs expressed in the previous stage. He involves people in these discussions thereby helping them to develop the art of creative discussion. The content of discussion is mainly the expressed problem or need. Alternatives to its solution or satisfaction are considered and the phase ends with definite decisions to take some definite steps designed to contribute to the solution.

(d) The Action phase

At this stage the people actively take part in the implementation of a plan designed in the previous stage, making use of their available resources both human and material.

(e) The Evaluation phase

Progress in the action stage must be recorded so that at the end of the project the results may be analysed and evaluated. The best evaluated yardstick is a discernable change and development in the people.

Outlined in this manner, community development places much emphasis on human development while other changes, social and environmental, are of secondary importance. The importance of human development is that it has lasting effects brought about by the people's changed perception of their situations and the resultant enthusiasm to do something to improve it.

Therefore, whatever the nature of a particular community development project, if undertaken along the stages of a process approach will not only result in structural constructions and changed social organizations, but also in creating better developed people with broader insights, understanding and changed attitudes. It is for this reason that, in this study, the process approach will be taken as a suitable view on community development. Suffice at this stage therefore to reiterate Mukerji's statement as quoted by FitzGerald: "I would say that in community development how a thing is done is more important than what is done and that if the 'process' is taken care of the 'product' takes care of itself and the reverse is not true". (51 p. 47).

4.3 Rural Community Development

Rural community development is simply perceived as the application of community development principles to a rural community. What then, is a rural community? The Encyclopedia of Social Sciences (46 p. 581) mentions that there is a controversy of opinion in the use of certain variables in distinguishing between urban and rural communities. But the most general current practice is to use two demographic variables, i.e. absolute size and density of settlement, which result in certain conditions of social action.

The following definition from the Dictionary of Social Sciences reflects the abovementioned agreement: "A society or community may be classified as rural rather than urban by the following criteria which denote areas of a continuum: lower population density; less social differentiation; less social and spatial mobility; slower rates of social change;

agriculture as a major occupation, and the centering of the politico-economic system in the holding of land". (34 p. 612).

Concern for rural development was aroused when the Western Countries realized the gravity of problems experienced by the rural people in the so-called Third World countries. According to Long (91 p. 2), this concern was sparked off by the fact that these Third World countries, generally account for some 70 per cent of the national population of which the majority are engaged in agriculture and allied occupations and contains about two-thirds of the poorest income categories. Generally, communities in these countries exhibit a mixture of traditional non-capitalist and a newly emergent capitalist form of organization, and unlike the Western industrial countries, have a large and persisting peasant population. Large proportions of farmers use relatively simple forms of technology and do not always maximise their use of available resources with the result that their production is mostly low. Because of poor production, their economy is underdeveloped and because of an underdeveloped economy, they cannot always provide for other basic social amenities such as health facilities, schools, good communication systems, proper housing conditions etc.

Having been inspired by a humanitarian spirit, the Western Countries decided to contribute towards the development and improvement of the living conditions of the Third World countries' rural communities. As Ferrinho (48 p. 21) mentions, at first the Western concept of development was identified with technological progress and economic growth based on the belief that the chief concern of human activity is the production of wealth. Within this context Western countries provided generous help in the form of money and technological implements, which because the rural people did not know how

to use them in the intended way, or did not want to use, were either consumed rapidly or left unused. Having realized the futility of just handing out money and goods without educating people on how to use them, the next step was to couple these hand-outs with some form of education and training. Even at this stage emphasis was still on economic development alone, hence the inclination at that time to identify rural development with agricultural development. The usual emphasis placed on agriculture when writers and planners of that time spoke of rural development is seen in the definitions of rural community development. For example, in the Rural Development Report of a Working Group, U.K. Ministry of Overseas Development, the concept rural development is defined as ".....any series of integrated measures having as their purpose the improvement of the productive capacity and standard of life in its broadest sense, of those in developing societies who live outside urban areas, and particularly of those people who depend directly or indirectly on the exploitation of the soil. It will include those engaged in agricultural, forestry, fishery and related production, rural industries and handi-crafts, and trade and commerce and services in the rural areas. But whatever the specific measures adopted may be, the economic and social advancement of all sections of the rural community must depend in the final analysis on the success or otherwise of the action taken to improve the productivity of agriculture". (133 pp. 120 - 121). From the sense depicted by this definition one detects the belief that emphasis should be placed on increased production which will in turn increase wealth and therefore enable rural communities to provide for other basic social amenities.

In another case, for instance Mosher, as quoted by Mijindadi defines

"a Progressive Rural Structure as one having several elements: Market towns as outlets for farmers' products and where supplies may be purchased, rural roads to aid flow of commodities, local verification trials that determine best farm practices in the light of local conditions and an extensive service through which farmers can learn about new technologies". (102 p. 21).

While one cannot deny the importance of developed and increased agricultural production and its direct influence on the provision of other basic social amenities, failure to recognise the importance of these services and their direct influence on increased production is being short-sighted. For example, poor health and physical conditions, lack of skills, inadequate social policy etc., all have an influence on economic production. The importance of other social services is noticed in Mijindadi's statement that despite such widely accepted emphasis on agricultural development, production in most developing countries remained below expected or planned levels. It was then realized that other factors are involved and that the problems of rural communities include malnutrition, poor health facilities, illiteracy, poor housing as well as low agricultural production; thus agricultural development alone cannot be equated to rural development. In contrast "... rural development focuses on people and their vocationally, economically, physically and socially acceptable levels of living as the dependent variable. Thus while agricultural development does not embrace all the components of rural development, rural development includes agricultural development". (102 -. 22).

This new outlook towards rural community development brought along the introduction of the concept of integrated rural development. It is within this context that Uma Lele gave the following definition of the concept

rural development: "In this study rural development is defined as improving living standards of the mass of the low-income population residing in rural areas and making the process of their development self-sustaining". (87 p. 20).

The author goes on to point out implied features of this definition which have substantial implications for how rural development strategies are designed and implemented. They are the following:

- a) Improving the living standard of the subsistence population involves mobilization and allocation of resources so as to reach a desirable balance, over time, between the welfare and productive services available to the subsistence rural sector.
- b) Mass participation requires that resources be allocated to low income regions and classes and that the production and social services actually reach them.
- c) Making the process self-sustaining requires development of the appropriate skills and implementing capacity and the presence of institutions at the local, regional and national levels to ensure the effective use of existing resources and to foster mobilization of additional financial and human resources for continued development of the subsistence sector. Self-sustenance thus means involving, as distinct from simply reaching, the subsistence population through development programmes.

Some elements of integrated rural development may be detected from this definition. Firstly, rural development is viewed as an improvement of living standards and the welfare of rural people. Rural welfare here

includes better occupational skills, better health facilities, better housing conditions and the provision of other basic amenities. Secondly by stressing mass participation in the allocation of resources, the definition suggests that attempts must be made to ensure that the masses, including the poorest, benefit from the development process, by alleviating or controlling certain inhibitions inherent in the social organization of the people, and that actual measures be taken to accelerate the spreading of these resources and services. Lastly, the definition points to human involvement and development by referring to the introduction of certain institutions at all levels which will foster the training of individuals in appropriate skills and implementing capacities so as to ensure optimum utilization of the available material resources and to upgrade the human resources.

Integrated rural development may thus be seen as a strategy seeking to achieve enhanced rural production and productivity, greater socio-economic equity, a spatial balance in social and economic development and broader based community participation in the process of growth.

In this respect, Sudesh Kumar Sharma (136 pp. 5 - 6) mentions that integrated rural development as a synergistic approach aims at total development of the area and the people by bringing about the necessary institutional and attitudinal changes and by delivering a package of services through extension methods to encompass not only the economic field like the development of agriculture and rural industries, but also the establishment of the required special infrastructure and services in the areas of health and nutrition, education and literacy, basic civic amenities, family planning, social welfare services, etc., with the ultimate object of im-

proving the quality of life in the rural areas and ensuring that the poor sections share the benefits. The basic objective of rural development therefore, according to Aziz is: "To organize, develop and utilize the available resources of land, water and manpower in such a manner that the entire rural population dependent on these resources, has an equal (or at least an equitable) opportunity to meet, as a minimum, their basic needs of food, clothing and shelter with reasonable facilities for education and health and can live together in a positive and healthy social environment". (8 p. 99).

This objective has three basic components, viz:

- a) The economic, which points to the importance of sustained increase in agricultural production, investment requirements, technology and trained manpower;
- b) the social, which points to the importance of a social organization that allows equal opportunity to develop and to share the available resources and an adequate employment opportunity for everyone; and
- c) the political, which points to the importance of a development policy which emphasizes the improvement of the relationship between the economic and social aspects so as to create a healthy social environment for development and a development policy; that also ensures effective and harmonious attainment of all other objectives through political leadership with mass participation at a higher level.

It was on the basis of this objective that China worked out its rural development strategy and Aziz recommends that other countries should

consider its significance if they wish to attain achievements similar to those attained in China.

4.4 The Design of Rural Development

Various factors play an important role in designing a development strategy that will ensure the attainment of any development objective.

(a) According to Du Sautoy (39 pp. 3 - 4) the achievement of a development objective in any country depends basically on its political system which provides a framework within which the structures and choices of implementation methods may be discussed.

In this respect, Du Sautoy says that community development is concerned with a variety of practical activities as wide as the needs of the people whom it serves. The subject concern of these activities falls largely within the field of health, agriculture and education in the developing countries, involving a large number of government and non-governmental organizations which need some form of co-ordination. He suggests that because it is only the government that can co-ordinate and control all the services which a community may need, accordingly, if community development is to be taken seriously as a means of national development, it is best supervised and co-ordinated by a national government organization. (87 p. 258).

Uma Lele (87 p. 258) in agreement with Du Sautoy's idea, mentioned further that in executing its co-ordinating function, a particular government, in order to achieve the aims of rural community development must consider the interaction of a variety of specific issues which have a profound impact

on the design and performance of individual programmes. She classified these issues under the following categories:

- i) national policies;
- ii) administrative systems; and
- iii) overall institutional development.

i) National policies: Here the extent to which the existing national policies that have a bearing on development may influence its success or failure, needs to be considered. For example, if the full potential of improving the living standards of the lowest-income group were to be attained, it would necessitate some consideration of the existing inequity in the distribution of land rights. In such circumstances a change in the land-tenure policy should probably be an integral part of the rural development strategy.

ii) Administrative system: i.e. the degree of centralization - decentralization in the government structure. Here attention is to be paid on whether the government should delegate the administrative functions of the development policy into the hands of the various existing government departments, such as for example, the department of agriculture for economic development and the department of health for the improvement of health standards, and arrange inter-departmental committees for the co-ordination of their activities, or whether a separate department that would take into account all the complex factors involved in the rural development process should be established. Further, the extent to which these administrative responsibilities may be decentralized down to the local levels so as to ensure a successful implementation of the development strategy, is to be considered.

iii) Overall institutional development, including developmental institutions such as credit system, market system etc. and the distribution of institutional responsibilities among the regular government structures, semi-autonomous structures and private commercial and traditional institutions and elective bodies. This category involves the implementation of the policies on the development of the institutions that are to effect development among the people in the communities. It is further clear that in this category policies on the relationship among governmental, semi-autonomous and private bodies are implemented.

In the above exposition it is noticed that Lele suggests that it is the government's responsibility to work out and formulate a policy stipulating the principles on which to base the development strategy and to provide the necessary infrastructure for implementation.

b) Aziz mentioned further that the development policy of a country should be based on its social philosophy. As an example the author mentioned China's social philosophy which formed the basis for its development policy and said "The Chinese want to build a modern progressive economy, they want to achieve sustained growth in industrial and agricultural production and above all, they want full employment and an equitable distribution of the country's resources and incomes". (8 p. 91).

c) Other than the policy and infrastructural factors that have been considered thus far, the design of a rural development strategy is further influenced by some socio-cultural factors. To support this statement, Long (91 p. 57) mentioned that social organizations are governed by certain

cultural norms that determine relationships and conduct and therefore have an influence on the success or failure of a development strategy. The influence of these cultural norms on the development strategy is depicted in Moore's discussions, as quoted by Long, where he mentions that certain normative and institutional changes must precede economic growth and prepare ground for it. To illustrate this, Moore briefly outlines the basic structural conditions for industrial development. He first emphasizes that values are important because they provide the rationale for particular norms or rules of organization and conduct. Thus the value of economic growth requires for example, a fairly high degree of individual mobility and a placement system grounded on merit in performance. Such a value orientation is likely to come into conflict with strongly held values of a more traditional kind based on kinship status and obligation. In this sense extensive value changes are the most fundamental conditions for economic transformation.

In another example, Long (91 p. 153) quotes Dube's account of normative problems encountered in the introduction of better sanitation and public health in India. "Several compost pits were dug outside the villages for the depositing of manure and refuse. This was supported by the passing of regulations by local village councils making it obligatory for villagers to use these pits and fines were to be imposed for default. Yet many pits remained unused. Although it was customary for women (even in high caste) to clean the household and to deposit rubbish in one corner of the yard near to the house, women of higher castes refused for reasons of status to carry it all the way to the compost pit".

d) Lastly, the strategy of a development programme will be influenced by the nature of the problem which it is designed to solve.

The Rural Development Report of a Working Group, U. K. Ministry of Overseas Development (133 pp. 121 - 125) mentioned that rural community development may be designed to solve the following problems:

i) Poor economic conditions due to low agricultural production. Improvements here may include the following requirements; basic technological knowledge, means of communicating and applying it, favourable physical environment, human incentive and urge to improve their production and an accessible market and sound pricing of products. Development strategy here includes a suitable land-tenure system, quality, coverage and effectiveness of agricultural extension services, the contribution of the private sector, etc.

ii) The common irrelevant and inadequate general pattern of rural education which is usually based on urban needs and operates mainly by enabling pupils to seek employment in the towns. Successful rural development must be accompanied by a radical rethinking of current attitudes to education and a revision of the school curriculum to accord more suitably with rural development. For example, if rural education is to be functional to rural economy, it should equip the ruralites with the knowledge necessary to successfully pursue their agricultural pursuits. Therefore through schools, extension services and various forms of adult education, considerable improvements in the living conditions of the rural areas could be effected.

(iii) Health and Social Welfare problems peculiar to rural areas due to poverty, isolation, ignorance, lack of adequate basic health and social welfare facilities, large family size and frequently crowded living conditions, frequent child-bearing, continuing reliance on indigenous and often inadequate health practices etc. The complexity and inter-relatedness of these problems point to the importance of a comprehensive community approach if any hope of controlling and alleviating them is cherished. This approach is one by means of which individuals and communities are helped to perceive, within the context of their national health and welfare plans, their health and welfare needs (that is the need to change beliefs and/or behaviour in order to increase the incidence of good health and social welfare), and aided to remedy them by utilizing internal and external resources. The long term aim is improved rural health and social welfare conditions, the responsibility for whose organization and maintenance rests largely with rural communities themselves.

(iv) Political problems. Rural people, particularly those who are under-privileged, seldom organize themselves to defend their interests and represent their point of view before policy-making bodies. Unless the rural poor are united for a common cause, they will not be able to pierce through village cliques and deeply entrenched interests. Rural development therefore, is seen as a mission and liberating force. It is a thrust unravelling the potentialities of latent and overt institutional and attitudinal changes for the services of the rural poor. Efforts are made to liquidate vested interest which act as a sieve preventing the benefits of development to percolate down to the disadvantaged groups. At best, all it attempts is growth with social justice. When that is achieved, the rural poor could and would resolve most of their problems themselves.

Although the abovementioned problems are discussed individually here, in actual fact there is a marked inter-relatedness in their occurrence which indicates the importance of the integrated rural development approach. Because the integrated rural development approach involves various disciplines there is a challenge of adequate interaction especially at the level of assessing community problems from various angles in order to arrive at a common plan of action. The difficulties usually expressed include the fact that specialists in their chosen disciplines have little understanding of ideas, principles and concepts of other fields. Consequently, they have different levels of focus when studying a problem and communication becomes difficult. As a solution to this problem, Mijindadi quotes Whyte W. et al.'s statement: "We must get down to cases where behaviour can be observed.....when we talk about behaviours in concrete situations and then relate our concepts to these behaviours, we shall discover how the conception of various disciplines can be linked together". (102 p. 24).

To conclude this section on the design of rural development, it must be mentioned that a wide range of activities involved in the design of a development strategy, makes it impossible for anybody to describe alone, with any precision the forms in which development might most effectively be undertaken.

However, several models have been suggested and a choice to modify them to suit the conditions of the communities in which they are applied is left to those who may choose to use them. As an example, the elements of Aziz's model are mentioned here:

- " - more equitable distribution of land and other rural resources in order to give greater opportunity to the poorest segments of the rural population to meet their minimum needs;
 - organization of farming and other related activities, including land and water development, on a collective or co-operative basis in order to ensure a fuller utilization of available physical and human resources and more equitable distribution of future incomes;
 - diversification of the rural economy within agriculture and into small and medium-scale agro-based industries to provide additional employment opportunities and incomes and to improve the pattern of rural life;
 - an active policy of social development through the expansion of social services and the improvement of social relations;
 - political and administrative capacity for the planning and implementation of this strategy to provide linkages with the rest of the economy and protect the legitimate interest of the rural population".
- (8 pp. 113 - 114).

4.5 Extension Education for Citizen Participation.

The implementation of a development strategy implies undertaking several forms of community development projects, working with the people and based on the people's expressed needs. The projects involve the process of development which commences at initiating contact with the people, holding purposeful discussions on the project and working out the plan of implementation on the basis of the community's available resources or, where these resources are unavailable or limited, on the agreement that outside help should be obtained.

Du Sautoy said: "In this context the word 'extension' is used to describe an educational process designed to show people how to improve themselves within their own environment". (39 p. 47). Ferrinho, (48 p. 86) tracing the development of extension education mentions that rural extension was first conceived of as a way to extend scientific and technological research findings to farmers. Very soon however, the important role performed by women in rural development was realized and so instruction in home economics was included in rural extension work. Extension thus began to embrace other fields, often providing compensation for non-existent or inadequate technical services in the community. This wide spectrum extension work posed the problem of the qualifications of extension officers. The main question was whether extension officers should be specialists or generalists who should be equipped to tackle problems from different fields. In this respect, Du Sautoy (39 pp. 48 - 53) is of the opinion that in the rural areas, where specialists from different fields are few and sometimes widely scattered, an extension officer must be both a specialist and a generalist. His own speciality should consist of human relationships and should involve the following tasks:

- a) Organizing, stimulating and arousing interest in improvements among the people.
- b) Helping people to analyse and define their needs and fulfilling the functions of a leader by guiding people and setting them an example.
- c) Acting as a link between the people and other technical specialists and the outside world.

As a generalist an extension officer is better equipped because the rural population is anxious to improve in several directions at once. It does not divide its interests into compartments and it does not see why a

person who has helped them in one direction, cannot help in other directions as well. Therefore, in accordance with the principles of community development, he is there to help the people with their felt needs and also to look at those needs as an integrated whole within the normal pattern of the life of the community.

As a generalist an extension officer will be able to tackle improvements not directly related to his own subject, so that he may later use the people's confidence in him which he has thus gained in order to perform his own special duties. As a generalist an extension officer is able to co-ordinate improvement services which would have been fragmented if undertaken by different specialists.

The author mentions that the use of a generalist however, has its own limitations and says that he will be an agent of communication but he will not normally be an expert in the subjects which he is teaching and he can only be expected to receive sufficient specialist instruction to teach one or two specific subjects at a time.

Secondly, there is of course always difficulty in a bureaucratic organization in getting other services to confide a part of their speciality to someone who is not under their control.

Finally, the author suggests that where possible, extension services may be introduced from two different sources, i.e. a specialist of a particular field and a community development worker whose speciality consists of relationships with communities.

Ferrinho (48 p. 87) objects to the suitability of a generalist approach saying that it led in some countries to the transformation of extension services into an octopus-like organism threatening to entangle all specialist institutions into its grip. He does not even regard a generalist approach as a solution to a shortage of specialists because as he puts it: "Over-extending the task of the extension worker creates confusion about what extension really is".

The author is of the opinion that extension cannot provide all the services needed by community development. Neither is it the only service necessary for community progress, it implies the support of other agencies in the field of education, agriculture, medicine etc. It is a means by which these other agencies can be stimulated to meet some of the functional requisites of progress. The main function of extension at community level is to promote insight and change, or else to reinforce certain attitudes towards technological innovations. Hence a trained scientist in any branch of work, either medicine or agriculture, who finds himself at a disadvantage when trying to put over to the local people new methods of cultivating or new precautions against the spread of disease, because he does not know how the local people regard the traditional practices, may solicit the support of the extension officer who will diffuse his aims and ideas and encourage the community to accept them.

The service of extension education should neither superimpose itself on the work of other technological agencies, nor should it absorb them. The technical assistance given by the extension worker himself may sometimes be limited. The author concedes only to a limited general approach and says: "But he must be a generalist, able to understand the aims of other specialists and the expectations of the community. On the one hand, he must enlighten the community about such aims, and on the other hand, he must acquaint

the experts with the community expectations in such a way that:

- a) people in the community feel motivated to adopt the aims; and
- b) the experts try to meet the expectations". (48 p. 88).

Of the two views on extension education thus far discussed, Ferrinho's view will be adopted in this study. Preference to his view is based on the fact that it suggests a team-approach to community development, having an extension officer as a member of the team who specializes in human relationships. It is unlike Du Sautoy's view which, by suggesting that an extension officer is on the one hand a specialist on human relations, but that, on the other hand, he must have enough knowledge of several fields so as to be able to give people advice and guide them on technological innovations, has failed to state clearly what extension education is all about. One gets the impression that according to Du Sautoy, community development projects can be undertaken by extension service alone if an extension officer has enough knowledge on several subjects. Clarity on Ferrinho's view is further detected in his identification and specification of the role of extension in community development thereby indicating that extension education alone is not enough for community development. He clearly states that extension focuses specifically on repatterning human behaviour, utilizing the power of education as its activating force. Its field lies mainly in the changing of attitudes regarding technological innovations. Other than this there is no definite and specialized area of action which is the specific field of extension education. The overriding challenge to extension educators for rural development is to have ideas useful to an audience, to make their meaning clear, to get the ideas accepted and to motivate people to adopt them and practice them. In short, the main function of extension is to provide logical information which:

- a) helps people to identify their technological needs and to

- rank them in priorities;
- b) develops in residents a feeling of confidence in themselves as individuals and as members of a community which must face a changing world that imposes on everybody, on-going technological innovation;
 - c) shows the residents how they must set about meeting their technological needs (which usually calls for fostering appropriate attitudes that will permit use being made of the necessary resources and technology).
- (48 p. 89).

The author further mentions that extension is not only a means to explain scientists' opinions and administrative leaders' decisions to the community, but also to provide researchers and administrators with information about the residents' reactions and problems.

From the above exposition the strategic value of extension education in community development is understood, and surely success in community development projects will only be attained if extension education is left to those who specialize in human relationships, and technical assistance is given by specialists in different fields. Ferrinho (48 pp. 89 - 90) suggests the following methodological principles of extension education which he says are just guidelines, as no definite method that suits all situations can be formulated:

- a) He should work in consultation with the representatives of research, training institutions, and other agencies so as to keep abreast with all the new ideas, principles or any information necessary for his work.

- b) He should work through socio-cultural patterns rooting his activities in the existing situation and developing a double relationship with the community, i.e.
 - i) a relationship of knowledge in which the extension worker adapts himself to the community in order to be accepted by it;
 - ii) a relationship of influence in which the extension worker tries to change the attitudes of the community towards technological innovations according to his value orientation.
- c) He should adapt his work to the social and psychological features of the target people.
- d) He should avoid action dispersion by ensuring compatibility where sex, age, economic and technological interest and other relevant factors are concerned.

In conclusion it must be mentioned that some people argue that extension work operates against the element of attending to the people's 'felt needs' saying that it is a mere manipulation of opinion. But this is not true as pointed out by Du Sautoy: "It is entirely possible to make people feel a need in relation to something they do not already know about, but they must feel it. Extension worker can give a more precise idea of how to correct a situation which the people feel ought to be corrected although they themselves do not know how to do it. Villagers may feel they ought not to fall ill, but only health extension work can show them specifically how to avoid illnesses which are due to lack of hygiene". (39 p. 55).

4.6 CONCLUSION

In this study, rural community development is seen as an integrated process that encompasses all the needs of the rural people and that must be extended to reach all people in the rural areas. Although no specific strategy for rural development in Lebowa is suggested here it has been pointed out that rural development is a complex process whose problems involve the solution of technological, economic, social and human problems and that the strategy of such a complex process is bound to cut across the boundaries of several disciplines which therefore necessitates an inter-disciplinary research before any development strategy can be worked out.

CHAPTER 5

SOCIAL WORK'S CONTRIBUTION TO RURAL COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN OTHER AFRICAN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

5.1 Introduction:

The relationship between social work and community development has been outlined in one of the preceding chapters of this study.

In this chapter, special attention will be on how the involvement of social work in rural community development can ensure more professional efficiency in less developed countries; and to illustrate through reference to specific African developing countries, how women were successfully involved in the development of their communities through programmes in which a social worker was a member of a professional team.

5.2 Social Work in Developing Countries

Discussions in this section will be based on the following statement by Midgley et al. "It is clear that in most developing countries social workers are usually employed by government Ministries of Social Welfare where they work primarily as caseworkers. They are as some have pointed out, primarily concerned with providing limited casework services for the few when there are more urgent tasks to ensure the survival of the many". (101 p. 138).

The question whether the modes and models of social work practice, as they have evolved in the industrialized countries can be applied with or without adaptation to predominantly pre-industrialized countries has been widely debated. The question was mainly based on certain characteristics which distinguish under-developed from developed countries. These characteristics may briefly be outlined as follows:

(a) Economic Conditions:

According to Heydenrych (63 p. 5), although they may not be the root cause of under-development, economic factors combine to form the key characteristic of developing countries, which is mass poverty. This mass poverty is associated with subsistence production, non-diversified economy, lack of manufacturing industry, absence of a proper marketing system, low productivity and per capita income and consequently low rate of saving and investment. The author goes on to mention that although economic growth in developing countries is not stagnant, an outstanding feature of poverty in these countries is that it is chronic, which means that it persists over more than one or two generations.

(b) Population:

Developing countries are experiencing what is termed population explosion. Heydenrych explains the term to mean that "the populations of these countries are not only increasing, but increasing at a faster rate of growth year by year with a high rate of acceleration.....viewed in terms of their social implications

one can only arrive at the disturbing conclusion that it will be virtually impossible to catch up with the already existing backlogs. The majority of the people will not be in a position to maintain a level of living commensurate with minimum standards for human worth and dignity. There will still be hunger, ignorance and squalor". (63 p. 6.)

(c) Limited Social Services

Khinduka (12 p. 63) postulates that there is a positive correlation between economic development and the extent of a country's social services such as education, housing and health facilities. Hence, for example, in a number of the Third-World nations, a substantial proportion of the adult population is still illiterate, there is a recognized shortage of physicians and housing facilities are in similar short supply as compared to rich developed countries.

(d) Problems of Societies in Transition

According to Khinduka (12 p. 63) the developing countries are experiencing problems of societies in transition which are caused by their attachment to traditional values and institutions, while passing through convulsive and revolutionary changes, many of which are being induced or imposed by their own governments. Social dislocations are prevalent under such conditions.

These characteristics manifest themselves in the following major problems: poverty, ill-health, lack of adequate education, inadequate housing, population pressure, apathy and lack of incentive to bring about change. These problems are interrelated and overlapping with regard to causation and consequences to such an extent that they cannot be viewed and treated as separate variables. Jacob says this about them: "Rural problems being the result of deep-rooted causes and long-standing traditions, any attempt to solve them in a casual or careless manner can only accentuate these maladies. The deeper causes of these socio-economic problems must be traced and attempts have to be made to face these problems at the time and place of their origin". (70 p. 80).

With these conditions in mind and the involvement of social workers in several developing countries as outlined by Midgeley and Adler above, one cannot but ask, as Hunter did : "How much are social workers really doing about reducing the poverty rather than merely ameliorating its effects in a comparatively few instances?". (69 p. 504).

It was on the basis of questions such as these that several writers, for example, were of the opinion that, as so well expressed by Khinduka: "Despite its abiding humanitarian concerns, the current conception of professional social work.....is generally irrelevant and sometimes dysfunctional to the resolution of the major issues that beset the poor nations". (12 p. 64).

Various reasons have been forwarded to support this statement. In most of the reasons, strong criticism was levelled at the traditional nature of social work with its strong emphasis on casework method. Heydenrych, quoting

Warner A.G. et al. said social work was defined as being concerned:

- (1) "with the development or rehabilitation of those individuals, families and institutions which, for whatever reason, are not adjusted to the communities of which they are a part; and
- (2) with the development or reorganization of communities as a whole. It seeks to increase personal, institutional, and communal efficiency wherever it finds the opportunity". (63 p. 7).

Tracing the development of the profession, the author mentions that later, as the need in society for social welfare services became intensified and more knowledge of human behaviour was accumulated, the need to organize social welfare services was realized and advances in the professionalization of social work and the development of skill were made. However, as the author puts it, improvement in contemporary social work may be qualified as follows: "To my mind, social work is improved mainly -

- (1) in so far as a greater variety of services is offered; and
- (2) in so far as there has been an intensification in the application of professional skills in respect of services to individuals, families and groups which are not adjusted to their communities.

As far as the development of communities as a whole is concerned, the contribution of social work has probably been restricted to sporadic and isolated efforts". (63 p. 7).

David R. Hunter, mentioned that social work has fallen into the trap of too

often specifying personal rather than institutional inadequacies as the cause of social problems. Social workers have been caught up in this trap partly because they have been successful in developing and refining family-focussed and individualized diagnostic and treatment methods. "This myopic view has caused them to look within the confines of the individual and the family constellation for the causes of deviancy and malfunctioning and thus to limit their remedial efforts to these targets".

Khinduka (12 p. 67) described this kind of social work as the one that is concerned for the most part with the individual's problems in his milieu rather than with the conflicts and contradictions in the societal structure, with the biography of the person rather than with the history and drama of society, with individual troubles rather than with societal issues.

Midgley J. et al. (101 p. 133) mentioned that this emphasis of individual problems in developing countries is comparable to winning battles and losing the war. This is so because the majority of needy people in developing countries live in the rural areas in conditions of appalling poverty and deprivation. They are dependent on subsistence farming for their livelihood. Their standards of nutrition and health are poor and life expectancy is low. Child mortality is high. They have limited access to education and many rural children reach maturity without knowing how to read and write. Compared with urban areas, most rural communities have no safe drinking water, no electricity, roads and sanitary services. It is evident therefore that if social workers in the developing countries continue to be concerned for the most part with individual problems, they cannot claim to be committed to the remedy of poverty, deprivation and need, the real problems of under development, because as quoted

by Heydenrych "you can't casework people out of poverty". The author recommends that there is only one solution and this is that social work in developing countries should make a full-scale effort to become development-orientated. (63 p. 8).

The second objection in Khinduka's opinion is that western social work seems to subscribe primarily to, despite its change-agent rhetoric, a philosophy of gradual change. In the belief that fundamental societal change produces tensions and maladjustments which are to be avoided at all costs, professional social work seems to have aligned itself with a version of structural-functional theory in Sociology and Anthropology, which stresses stability rather than change, equilibrium rather than a potentially growth-conducive tension. In this manner the profession has not yet recognized that under some circumstances, the least dislocating change may be the one which is introduced rapidly. The acceptance of the abovementioned professional philosophy lock stock and barrel by social workers in the developing countries has resulted in the fact that today "social work in not a few nations has remained a peripheral profession without making any real impact on the overall progress and development of the countries.....there is little wonder that social workers in developing countries are not adequately represented at the highest echelons of policy-making bodies for community development, planned parenthood or social planning". The author suggests that social workers in developing countries should realize the necessity of a modicum of coercion for the task of development and recognize the role of confrontation, advocacy, coalition and political action for social and economic reform in their style of social work practice. (72 pp. 67 - 68).

The third reason is related to the futility of copying sophisticated welfare programmes from the technologically advanced and far richer countries with

rare or slender adaptation or alteration to suit local conditions in the developing countries. As Bulsara J.F. rightly puts it: "While comprehensive social well-being is a universal human desideration it has to be admitted that the removal of individual social ills and solution of socially deleterious problems involve men, material and techniques which cost money and time". (22 p. 8).

It is evident therefore, that the poor developing countries with their limited resources are experiencing tremendous problems when trying to meet increasing demands for better housing, more educational facilities, more job opportunities etc. They are faced with a seemingly impossible task of assigning priorities for a long list of development needs with a limited national budget. Bulsara puts the problem thus: "To cut the argument short, the poorer developing countries cannot today afford all the sophisticated social services of affluent societies, nor can they pin their gaze on ushering in a comprehensive social security system within less than a generation or perhaps two". (22 p. 8).

The author suggests that social workers in developing countries should recognize the importance of intelligent understanding and active co-operation and participation of individual community members and wisely employ the leaven of the greatest resource at their disposal, viz: "the strength, spirit of public service and moral support of cohesive co-operation of the recognisable community". (22 p. 9). In this manner, social workers in developing countries can help relieve the burden from their local government by putting into practice the appreciation of the supremacy of the community's role in spotting in time its social needs, hazards or solve them. By thus handling its own social problems with its current competence, the community gains increasing capacity to tackle more difficult problems if necessary by developing its own technical skills or by intelligently drawing upon the available professional expertise

provided by higher voluntary agencies or government authorities.

It should however not be inferred from the preceding discussion that the view held in this study is that modes and models of western social work should be totally rejected in developing countries.

Rather, the view held here is that in developing countries, more than in industrialized countries, we need to recognize the limitations as well as the benefits of the individual therapy approach. We need to pay sufficient attention to the context in which predisposing factors that produce problems and obstruct progress of the casework itself take place, because they are outside the control of the individual and the family.

We must recognise that the growth and development of the human being to satisfy innate physical, psychological and social needs represent a continuum with some elements that are constantly needed and that others are waxing and waning at different stages of life. These elements include nutrition, housing, education, health care, satisfying work and satisfactory socialization. Thus social workers should realize that social work is not the only system that affects the lives of clients. Often the switches that must be pulled are not in the office of the welfare agency, they are in the employment service, the education board, the mayor's office, and the community health centre. All these groups must participate in analysing the problems and in mounting the common attack on them, and social workers can take the lead.

5.3 The Involvement of Social Work in Development Programmes for Rural Women in some African Developing Countries

Tinker, (149 p. 22) mentioned that unfortunately, few developing countries

have involved women in the early years of community development programmes; they were often neglected, perhaps because the administrators who were usually men were not aware of women's special needs and potential contributions. Thus in many developing countries women lagged behind men in educational attainment and social advancement. However, much of the progress hoped for as a result of community development was hampered by this complete neglect of women because, for example, it is up to them to provide better nutrition, safe drinking water, child care and a clean household. Recently the scheme of Integrated Rural Development has been initiated in several African developing countries. Integrated rural development means a strategy to improve the economic and social life of the rural poor in the overall spectrum of development and growth. The ultimate purpose of all development activities is to provide increasing opportunities to all people for a better life, bring about a more equitable distribution of income and wealth, achieve a greater degree of economic security, expand and improve facilities for education, health, nutrition, housing and social welfare. In special programmes for rural women, attention is focussed on the plight of rural women who often bear the heaviest burden of those who live in the poor rural areas of the country. The essential aims in these programmes are, first, to develop leadership skills among rural women, enabling them to acquire the educational skills necessary to plan and organize for the future, to pass on their knowledge and experience to others, to share in decision-making and in shaping the future of their communities; secondly, to help them acquire essential services such as food, water, basic health care and housing; and thirdly, to bring to the attention of the authorities the needs and aspirations of rural women.

Different philosophies have led to somewhat different approaches to community development in the developing countries. In some countries community development was initiated and developed out of the sphere of social work, while

some countries emphasized co-operation between community development and social work. A review of development programmes in those countries which emphasize co-operation between community development and social work is of significance in this study.

5.3.1 East African Countries

The governments of East African Countries have expressed concern with the co-ordination of community development and social welfare services. The basis for this co-ordination of community development and social work can clearly be detected from the following statement by a social worker writing from a poor area in Africa.

"In L.....Province, the soil is mainly poor. There is no ready market for cash crops (with the possible exception of fish), and village life is barely maintained at a very low level.....Of a hundred women attending a clinic, perhaps two are able to sign their names.....Poverty and lack of water supply close at hand do partly explain the dirtiness and squalor found in most villages.....The poverty of people practicing subsistence agriculture without the opportunity for cash crops is increased by the drift to the towns of many able-bodied men. Many of the families coming for help have 'lost' their father. He went to the Copperbelt some years ago to seek his fortune. He has not returned and probably never will". (42 pp. 39 - 40).

The significance of this statement is that it depicts the general picture of the socio-economic conditions within which social workers in the rural areas of poor African countries perform their professional duties. The underlying feeling is that in depressed areas such as this, not much worthwhile individual treatment can be done until village life itself is improved.

Having thus established the groundwork for co-operation between social welfare and community development, social workers in these countries pinpointed women's voluntary organizations as viable instruments for involving women in the development of their communities. For example, in one East African country, Uganda, women's organizations have made important contributions to the social welfare of the country. There are several of them but for the purpose of this study, the activities of only two of them will be discussed:

(a) The Uganda Federation of Community Development Women Clubs

This is the only women's organization which is fully supported materially by the government. The Ministry of Culture is responsible for all the women's clubs. The procedure for the formation of these clubs is that women who are interested get together or one woman gets women and girls together and form a voluntary club. After this, the members can then apply to the Ministry through the Community Development Officer (female social worker) to be recognized as a community development women's club. Every district has a woman Community Development Officer stationed at the district headquarters. She is assisted by female community development workers who are stationed at country headquarters. At the lowest level there are part-time leaders who really organize weekly activities of the club.

The women's clubs meet at least once a week and their programmes differ from time to time. However, nutrition, childcare and agriculture are given greater attention. Apart from offering an opportunity to women to learn new things, there is also an opportunity to discover and use their talents. In each district there are annual competitions in handicraft, traditional music and dancing between different clubs and other women's organizations.

(b) The Family Planning Association of Uganda

The association has four main objectives. There is stress on the need for spacing children so that mothers are not overstrained through too frequent births. The second and third objective emphasize the importance of having children when they are needed rather than by chance. This means that children will be born only when they can be supported economically, socially and physically. The association at the same time holds clinics where the staff advises couples who are finding it difficult to start pregnancies. Although the association is basically a women's organization, it has a big number of male doctors helping on the medical side. There is also a number of midwives and nurses offering their medical services. Almost every district has a field-worker (mostly female social worker) whose job is to disseminate family planning information and education.

The contributions of the abovementioned women's organizations and many others towards raising the standard of living in Uganda can be observed from the following:

- a) Trade: There is more desire to produce for the market rather than for the home and family. Co-operatives are formed by some women who have some handicraft to sell and who feel that they would sell their finished articles much more easily at a group level than at an individual level. This can be seen as the women's recognition and concern about unity.

- (b) Emphasis of good family living. The possibility of having children who are well fed, well clothed and with a possibility for good education can prevent an already poor family from becoming poorer and gives parents a chance to save for the future.

- (c) Improved Health and Nutrition: There are still widespread cases of Kwashiorkor in Uganda and different women's organizations aim at combating this terrible disease. In different meetings women are taught the food contents and their suitability to different age groups. (145 pp. 221 - 226).

One valuable approach in East Africa has been the use and development of traditional welfare societies. For example Ethiopian women belong to traditional mutual aid groups. The functions of these groups, among others, are to make monthly contributions which are collected for funeral expenses of members or for occasions of great need. These groups may meet monthly, fortnightly or weekly, but whenever they come together they provide an audience which would welcome development programmes occasionally. Social workers under the Department of Community Development have recognized these societies as a suitable human resource and have successfully arranged for community development programmes through these traditional groups.

There are a number of advantages to be gained by working with existing groups.

First, an existing group is already formed and meeting so the work of bringing people together on a certain day is done by the organizational structure of the club. All the community worker has to do is arrange which meeting he is going to attend and then turn up and address the meeting.

Secondly, these groups may well be pleased to have a regular speaker, as it can be very difficult for the committee to think up a different programme for every meeting throughout the year.

Thirdly such groups enable the community worker to contact a number of

people at the same time for the same amount of effort.

Finally, if a group of people know each other and come together often, there will be an informal atmosphere where members will feel free to ask questions. It may also facilitate the adoption of ideas if several members agree to try a new practice at the same time. Successful and exiting programmes which have already proven to be beneficiary for women of Ethiopia include literacy, cooking, nutrition, agriculture, child care, handicrafts and the discussion of family problems. (42 pp. 41 - 42).

5.3.2. Zimbabwe.

Another African country in which the contribution of social work profession in community development was successfully enlisted is Zimbabwe. In the pamphlet on The Story behind the Community Development Section (Women) the Ministry of Internal Affairs proudly presents the work of two women, Miss W. Wilson, a community development officer and Mrs B. Mtero a social worker.

These two women, it is reported, were urged in their efforts by the realization that help could not be handed out on a plate, for, resources would never be sufficient, nor would it be wise. They believed that help must come from within the women themselves, by the development of their own talents for leadership. Only among women themselves could the necessary vast resources of human skill, ability and leadership be found.

Together, the two women set out to formulate the best way in which to utilize the country's human resources, seeking ways to motivate and guide women into new roles - the givers rather than the takers, the makers rather than the

watchers - African women moving spontaneously to improve their own lives and those of their families. The nucleus of their work was a countrywide network of African Women Advisors who first attended a course to study project planning, how to work with people, tribal structure, outline of Government, communication, community development methods, club management, nutrition skills and other related subjects. The first group of Women Advisors went back to their homes and villages filled with confidence in their new-found ability, being the nucleus of a movement which has grown and divided into provinces, grown and spread through most of the country.

Through these Women Advisors the following achievements were made:

- (i) Clubs have become the focal point for many activities, particularly the learning and practising of skills, both traditional and more recently acquired. Pottery, basket-making, crochet, embroidery, knitting and dress-making are carried out enthusiastically and the highlight of the year comes when exquisite work is displayed and judged.
- (ii) The traditional tillers of the soil, rural women, are now encouraged to learn new methods of farming with a resulting improvement in diet. The need for different and better types of food is recognized and agricultural demonstrators are at hand to give specific assistance.
- (iii) At the instigation of the Women Advisors, rural women are recognising the need for improved health facilities and are looking for ways to obtain them.

- (iv) The Roger Howman Hall in Muccheke township was built exclusively for the training of women. Courses held at this training centre include: home economics, creche management, club management, show planning and health education and nutrition.
- (v) In many areas women who have not had the opportunity to attend school now learn to read and write at many literacy groups formed by the Adult Literacy Organization throughout the country. Some of these are sponsored by the women themselves.
- (iv) Savings Clubs affiliated to the Credit Union Movement are run in many villages and through them sums of as little as 10c a week can be saved by individuals. These savings come from the sale of handicrafts, produce or crops and go towards fertilizers, day-old chicks or purchases for the home, thus gradually moving the members into a cash economy.
- (vii) Women are looking beyond the needs of themselves as wives and mothers, and of their own families and recognizing their place in the wider community. They are not only building halls for themselves but are also labouring hard and long for the good of the village. Any resistance from the men weakened as they found out that women were not playing games but achieving small rural miracles.

- (viii) Perhaps its greatest achievement is the acceptance of what it stands for - SELF-HELP.

The part played by social work through Women Advisors is that of liaison - to help women to decide in which direction needs lie, perhaps health or education, and then to identify experts from whom advice may be sought. The Women Advisors work closely with educators and demonstrators in a number of different fields including the many voluntary organizations whose work is much appreciated.

All over the country self-help projects have come into being as rural communities begin to accept responsibility for their own development and the individual accepts her responsibility to pass on newly acquired knowledge and to work for the community as a whole. (104 pp. 1 - 22).

5.4 The Analysis of Social Work's Contribution to Community Development

Programmes discussed in the preceding section indicate that community development was concerned with projects aimed at specific improvements in village life, in health education, agriculture and sanitation. However the involvement of the social work profession may be seen as a tacit acknowledgement of the conception that bringing about institutional change is not the only characteristic of community development. Success in community development programmes demands firstly that the people emotionally identify themselves with these programmes. Such identification gives community development the character of a movement providing strength and a sense of purpose to the current change. The people's emotional involvement is directly linked with their needs and can easily be detected from their

active participation because people will not participate unless they are getting what they want.

Ferrinho (48 pp. 77 - 78) mentioned that in order to obtain active participation of the people in the formulation and implementation of development plans, it is necessary to mobilize their hearts, their minds and their bodies, in other words, to organize them. He sees the encouragement of as many voluntary associations as possible as basic in involving people in community development because, as he puts it: "Voluntary associations are a frame within which people feel psychologically safe because they are not alone in the world. They realize that their lives have personal and social meaning since they belong to groups with power to influence economic and political decisions affecting their existence. Through voluntary associations the residents of a community may be involved in the process of rapid social change without losing their feeling of social identity..... Associations also improve both information processes and administrative structures in such a way that many tasks of modernization cannot be mastered without them". (48 p. 77).

The recognition of voluntary associations as significant instruments for development and the actual involvement of social workers in the programmes discussed earlier in this section, denote the assumption that social work was deemed to be a more suitable profession in organising people because through his over-all knowledge of working with people and through an understanding of the social consequences of the deprivation of those satisfactions fundamental to human well-being, a social worker may play an important role in promoting a desire for constructive change on the part of the people, receptivity to other technical services and fuller participation in activities

designed for the common good. The chief element of the social worker's skill in community development is having trusting relationships with other persons involved in a process and using one's relationships with others to develop trusting relationships among others. Through these relationships the social worker bears and conveys values with conviction and courage, finds and brings out the strengths of people and gets released pertinent feelings, enables others to work individually or together but geared into a productive process, maintain significant association with the various participants, and is ready to influence those aspects of the community development process which are threatened or impeded by improper functioning or poor relationships of any participant with other participants.

It is the viewpoint held in this study that a social worker is professionally competent and can, precisely, through the conscious use of self, help others to form relationships that may go beyond the spheres of welfare into any other aspects of community development. It is however important to note that although basic professional training equips a social worker to perform the abovementioned role, it is necessary for him to have supplementary training in community development methods and techniques. In some African countries, for example, Tanzania, co-operation between social work and community development is recognized and implemented at training level. Training for community development is closely linked with training for social work. This is seen as a sound approach because basic courses are similar or identical for both specialities. This however, leads to some overlapping of professional roles as community development workers sometimes find themselves doing what is more commonly labelled as social work, while social workers often become involved in community development programmes. Further, those social workers who work directly under the Department of Community Development lose their

professional identity as they come to be known as community workers or community development workers.

In most cases, social work's professional contribution becomes blurred as specific or concrete results of other professionals become discernible in the change of community conditions. As a member of a professional team, a social worker, more often than other professionals should sometimes explain and account for his involvement both to citizens and to other professionals.

5.5 Conclusion

Examples of development programmes for women, cited in this chapter, where women were seen developing and taking more active and meaningful places within their communities should serve as convincing evidence of the emergence of women as a potential human resource in the improvement and advancement of African rural communities. The involvement of social workers in these development programmes should be seen as proof that social workers possess special skills which make them eminently suitable to mobilize and organize people for participation in development, thus contributing to the amelioration of real social problems of developing countries through community development.

CHAPTER 6

BASIC SOCIAL NEEDS AND RESOURCES IN LEBOWA

6.1 Introduction

Communities are organized for the benefit of their individual members. Communities must, therefore, be so ordered that their common resources are devoted to assuring each of their members the following:

- a) The means for meeting economic needs in terms of the standard their productivity makes possible.
- b) Opportunity for a healthy full growth and development.
- c) A share in advancing and benefiting from the cumulative human heritage of knowledge, culture and social organizations.
- d) Provision for mutual aid for meeting those needs in which social inter-dependence is a basic factor.
- e) Full participation in democratic social relationships.

Social needs, therefore, are ".....those requirements in mankind for conditions that will allow survival, existence, growth and fulfillment".

(30 p. 329). Cox et al. (30 p. 329) cited what according to the League of California Cities constitute basic social needs:

- a) The need for sufficient economic development.
- b) The need for extended health and medical services.
- c) The need for a relevant satisfactory educational system.
- d) The need for social welfare services for adjustment and development.
- e) The need for an adequate political structure.

The purpose in this chapter is to discuss the manner in which the abovementioned social needs are being provided for in the rural areas of Lebowa, to assess the extent to which the available resources meet these needs and to ascertain the extent to which the prevailing socio-economic conditions influence and determine the occurrence of social problems in these areas.

The assessment will be based on information obtainable from the official annual reports of the various Government Departments of Lebowa, because they include such important aspects as policies, measures and efforts of implementation, achievements and problems encountered.

6.2 Social Needs and Social Problems

Cox et al. (30, p. 329) mentioned that the League of California Cities maintained that social needs are always present, but social problems result when the local conditions fail to provide for the minimum satisfaction of basic needs.

For the sake of clarity only a brief account of the existing relationship between social needs and social problems will be presented in this section. Deficiency within the machinery uniting the economic processes of production, distribution and consumption results in a high rate of worklessness among people. Unemployment has come to be recognized as one of the outstanding contemporary hazards in society as a whole. It is generally conceded to rank among the leading causes of social distress.

Firstly because of its frequent and widespread recurrence and secondly

because of the increasing number of persons and occupations affected. It is one of the primary causes of poverty. Poverty as a social problem is further reflected in a high rate of malnutrition, poor housing conditions, poor health and many other social problems related to lack of a sufficient material basis for the satisfaction of basic needs. (122, p. 316).

Physical illnesses and their results are both social problems and causes of social problems. As a cause of social problems, illness ranks among causes of family disorganization. This is obvious when a wage earner is the victim and the family income is reduced or cut off entirely. It is equally apparent if the mother is ill and unable to provide adequate child and family care. National social problems that are directly associated with illness are: First of all, a high rate of illness among people brings about the need for a large percentage of national income in the support of hospitals, clinics for treatment and rehabilitation. Secondly it adds to the tax burden when those who are ill and their dependents must be maintained by private or public insurance or poor relief programmes. Thirdly it reduces the national labour force in size and productivity. (122, p.14).

Education has been labelled the driving force behind social development. Therefore illiteracy is a social problem because it hampers manpower utilization when people have no skills and knowledge to conceive, formulate, represent and negotiate in the utilization of the national resources of their country.

6.3 The Assessment of Resources available for the Satisfaction of Social Needs in the Rural Areas of Lebowa

Although these social needs will be discussed individually here, in

reality they are interdependent and progress towards meeting one of them may assist progress towards the others.

6.3.1 The Need for a Sufficiently Developed Economic System

The economic system is that part of the institutional framework of society which is concerned with the provision for the material wants of man, both goods and services. It is based on the available natural and human resources and is influenced by the social system within which it is found. By natural resources it is meant the available land, condition of the soil in respect of physical and chemical properties, temperatures and rainfall. Human resources mean the people, their skills, physical conditions, work habits, interests and attitudes. Elements of the social system basic to the economy are such as the land tenure system, choice of employment facilities, beliefs and values. Economic production may be described as primary, secondary and tertiary. Under the primary sector is included the agricultural, pastoral, forestry, etc., the secondary sector includes manufacturing, building etc. and the tertiary sector consists of all distributory activities such as transport, public administration etc.

Economic development, as defined by Shannon, is ".....a process comprising capital formation, increased production and a near optimum utilization of the resources, and its yield is a high level of material welfare". (135 p. 20) The importance of this high level of material welfare yielded by economic development is best spelled out by Kindleberger C.P. (73 p. 1) when he said that generally, economic development includes improvements in material welfare which result in the following benefits: making the necessary

shifts in the underlying structure of production away from agriculture towards industrial activities, providing general employment to the working age section of the population which results in the eradication of mass poverty with its correlates of illiteracy, disease and early deaths; and increasing participation of individuals and groups in making decisions about directions in which they should move to improve their welfare. In essence, therefore, economic development must represent much more than the simple quantitative measurements of income and employment. It must represent the entire gamut of changes by which an entire social system, tuned to the diverse basic needs and desires of individuals and social groups within that system, moves away from a condition of life widely perceived as unsatisfactory and towards a situation or condition generally regarded as materially and spiritually better.

The development process in rural economy usually starts with the premise that a forward thrust of agriculture is one of the essentials in initiating a broader rural development process. Economic development would thus involve, among other things, an increase in resource utilization (natural and human) by means of technical development in as much as it affects the output and efficiency of the economy, the productivity of the work-force and the ability of the economy to generate new employment opportunities. Technical development, however, does not necessarily mean the utilization of the most modern and sophisticated technology. It means that the economy and the society at large is capable of using the appropriate mix of capital and human resources and has the ability to adapt its production methods to changing needs or develop its own technology whenever this is required.

Once agricultural development is firmly under way, the process spreads to

other economic sectors. Increased farm income, particularly if widely distributed, generates new demands for an ever-widening assortment of goods and services, both agricultural and non-agricultural. Village artisans, craftsmen and small shopkeepers feel the stimulus as many new products and technologies penetrate the area and greater specialization and division of labour take place giving rise to new jobs and providing employment opportunities to rural people.

From the above exposition it is evident, therefore, that the need for a sufficiently developed economic system is based on the assumption that it will ensure the optimum material basis for the satisfaction of such basic needs as for shelter, food, etc., without which no community can exist, survive or grow.

In assessing rural economic development in Lebowa, more emphasis will be placed on agricultural development, because as stated in the White Paper: ".....approximately two-thirds of economically active people are in the rural areas and they are still dependent on agriculture for livelihood". (83 p. 3)

The principles for the implementation of rural development strategy in Lebowa endorse the following:

- a) The essential role of agriculture in economic development and a high priority to optimal utilization of available agricultural resources.
- b) The dual main objectives of agricultural development as commercial agricultural production and labour absorption. (84 p. 3)

These principles, together with the implementation strategy indicate that the main objectives of rural economic development in Lebowa is to increase

agricultural production, to commercialize it, thereby creating employment opportunities for those people who are not engaged in agriculture and to preserve human resource by absorbing as many people as possible into employment, either within or outside the agricultural sector.

The Lebowa Government's most important instrument in the execution of the abovementioned strategy is the Department of Agriculture and Forestry. The assessment of agricultural development in Lebowa will therefore be based on this department's annual report. Without going into an exhaustive discussion of agricultural production in Lebowa, for the purpose of this study, only a few aspects which will throw light on its level of development will be considered.

Firstly, the pattern of land usage will be considered because of its significance in optimal utilization of resources. In table 6.1 are figures obtained from the Department's 1980 annual report which indicate the then pattern of total land usage.

Table 6.1 Patterns of Land Usage

Land use	Total Ha.	Percentage
Arable land (Dry and Irrigable)	341 188	15.2
Forestry	29 718	1.4
Grazing and non-productive	1 879 356	83.4
Total	2 250 262	100

The table indicates that of the total surface area of Lebowa, only 15,2% is reserved as arable land for agricultural production. The report further mentions that of this arable land, 62% is presently utilized for production. It must be mentioned here that the average size of an arable allotment per household is 1 morgen (0,856 ha).

The above percentages indicate that in Lebowa the available land is not yet optimally utilized. The second consideration is that of the mechanization of production. According to the report of the Bureau for Economic Research re Bantu Development (Benbo), an Economic Review in Lebowa (24 p. 30) in 1975 the tribal authorities and private farmers possessed 93 and 937 ploughing units respectively (tractors, ploughs, disc ploughs etc.) There were therefore some 115 farmers and 400 ha. of arable land per ploughing unit. Although no statistics were available concerning the present ploughing units, on the basis of production figures which will be reflected in the next table, it may be deduced that mechanization of agricultural production in Lebowa is still considerably low.

Third is the level of production which will be considered on the basis of three main grain crops in Lebowa, namely, maize, sorghum and wheat. The Department's report gives the following statistical information:

Table 6.2 Value of Agricultural Grain Crop Production 1980

Type of crop	Production in tons	Marketed	Income
Maize	53 110	13 643	R1 479 151
Sorghum	13 517	6 249	R 466 130
Wheat	1 395	1 376	R 1 695
	68 022	33 668	R1 946 976

From the above table it can be seen that maize is one of the most important fieldcrop products in Lebowa. It is however discouraging to note that only 25,7% of the production is marketed. This is an indication that a higher percentage of production is still subsistence oriented. The seriousness of the situation is compounded by the fact that figures reflected in the above table represent only that part of production which has come to the notice of the Department of Agriculture and Forestry. It is therefore contended, in this study, that individual farmers' production is still very poor, to such an extent that it does not reach the market.

Regarding commercialization of agriculture, the Lebowa Development Corporation (L.D.C.) plays a major role. The Corporation has a share of 50 percent in the Lebowa Agricultural Company (Pty.) Limited. According to the Corporation's Fourth annual report (80 pp. 2 - 7) this company is deeply involved in six schemes providing job opportunities to 400 full-time and 2000 seasonal workers. Further, during the period 1979/80 loans to the value of R210 000 were approved for the settlement of private farmers. On the basis of information thus far expounded, it is evident that in Lebowa land it not yet optimally utilized, mechanization of production is still low, the level of production is therefore still short of potential and commercialization is inadequate. All these factors, according to Natrass (114 p. 199) are some of the distinguishing characteristics of an under-developed economy.

Having thus established that agricultural production in Lebowa is still under-developed, it is important to briefly consider some of the factors influencing it:

Leseme R.M. et al. (88 pp. 179 - 184) ascribe poor agricultural production in Lebowa to the following factors:

- (a) It is common knowledge that the size of land plays an important role in agricultural production. With the increasing population in Lebowa and the constant adherence to the traditional land tenure system, which entitles each tribesman, by virtue of membership to the tribe, to receive a residential plot and an arable allotment, the plots have dwindled in size.

- (b) Although the majority of the people live in the rural areas of Lebowa, their productive quality is affected because land is not allocated on the basis of skill, aptitude of being successful farmers, and other factors such as inherent preference for farming to other occupations, which enhance the quality and quantity of production.

- (c) Some traditional and cultural beliefs and practices such as, for example, keeping cattle predominantly as a store of value and as a means of fulfilling their tribal obligations, are retarding the growth of a realization that cattle have an economic good that should be used productively.

- (d) Constant adherence by the majority of the people to the traditional agricultural methods according to which seed was sown by depositing it into the hole depressed by fingers or broadcast by hand and hoed in, generally growing different crops on the same land and not practicing crop rotation.

With this poor agricultural development it is evident that increased income and meaningful contribution to the development of other sectors would be adversely affected. However, some attempts are being made to pay attention to the much needed industrial development as an alternative for the creation of employment opportunities.

For this purpose, the Lebowa Development Corporation was established on 1st September 1976. This Corporation was established with the basic view point that economic development in Lebowa must in the first place be accomplished by Lebowa citizens themselves. However, if the citizens are unable or unwilling to tackle new undertakings, the Corporation must do so by means of direct investment in its own undertakings as well as co-operative ventures with experts from outside.

In its fourth annual report, 1980, the L.D.C. mentions progress thus far attained:

- Against the background of the Corporation's basic aim of providing financial aid to Lebowa entrepreneurs who, in their turn, can make a contribution to the economy, total business loans of R4,5 million were provided by 31st March, 1980.
- A sub-department dealing mainly with the development of small industrialists in the L.D.C.'s factory training centres. The following projects are presently being evaluated or established:
 - pottery, needlework centre and the manufacture of copper products
 - all in Seshego.

- The marketing of buffing cloth made from sisal by Northern Cordage Co. (Pty.) Ltd. in which L.D.C. is a shareholder. This will provide employment opportunities to the people of Lebowa. (80 pp. 2 - 7).

Progress in industrial development as reflected in the L.D.C.'s report indicates few entrepreneurs thus a limited citizen participation. Even the employment opportunities created by L.D.C. are still insufficient, hence the majority of wage-earning citizens, especially men, are eventually compelled to seek employment outside Lebowa. People most hit by the high rate of unemployment are those in the rural areas.

Thus, although the Lebowa Government has sound economic development principles, the implementation of this strategy is still basically hampered.

It is inevitable therefore, under these economic conditions, that unemployment should rank among the prevalent social problems in the rural areas of Lebowa.

6.3.2 The Need for extended Community Health Services

Health has been defined as ".....a state of feeling well in body, mind and spirit, together with a sense of reserve of power based upon normal functioning of the tissues, a practical understanding of healthful living, and harmonious adjustment to environment (physical and psychological)....." (21 p. 13).

Explicitly, this definition relates health to, firstly the individual's

biological, mental and emotional faculties, secondly the understanding and acceptance of healthful living based on certain values, beliefs and interests and expressed in certain health habits, thirdly the organization of certain medical and health services for the promotion of health.

It is important to note here, on the basis of the above outline, that health is not only an individual or family concern, but a social responsibility as well, because although the individual's basic health needs may motivate him to take initiative in preserving his and his family's health, his capacity to control certain health conditions is so limited that many other health benefits may be obtained only through united community effort. This community effort for health is known as public health practice. Lucy Morgan et al. quoted the best known definition of public health as cited by C.E. - A. Winslow who characterized it as follows: "Public health is the science and art of preventing disease, prolonging life and promoting physical and mental health and efficiency through organized community efforts for the sanitation of the environment, the control of infections, the education of the individuals in principles of personal hygiene, the organization of medicine and nursing services for the early diagnosis and the preventive treatment of disease and the development of the social machinery which will ensure to every individual in a community a standard of living adequate for the maintenance of health". (109 pp. 28 - 29). The key concept in the above definition is prevention. More emphasis is placed on the organization of efforts so as to create health conditions that will check and control the occurrence of disease in the community. Of importance in this respect is the control of environmental factors, the education of individuals in the community and the organization of the necessary institutions for the maintenance of health.

Community health services in the rural communities are provided for the

prevention of causes of poor health which may be categorized as follows:

- (a) Demographic factors; when large numbers of people live in poor households located in crowded, unsanitary surroundings, communicable diseases spread easily, and high mortality and morbidity rates result, particularly in cases of children. High fertility rates imply high parity, and high parity directly affects maternal mortality, increase in risk of death occurring after the third birth. Demographic factors may influence health at community level as well as at family level. Population pressure on land may lead to overcropping, soil degradation and poor nutrition for an entire community.
- (b) Malnutrition; in addition to being a primary cause of death among children, malnutrition is also a major contributory factor in infectious disease. Malnutrition impairs normal body responses to disease, thereby reducing acquired immunity. The problem of inadequate nutrition is compounded by rapid population growth. Large family size and close spacing of births frequently preclude sufficient food and care for children.
- (c) Unsanitary conditions and housing; there are certain diseases whose transmission cycle depends upon contamination of such environmental factors as water or soil by the wastes of infected human beings, and others that are air-borne and are transmitted by the breathing in of the disease agent. Therefore unsanitary environmental conditions and crowded ill-ventilated housing foster the spread of these diseases.

A general improvement of these causes of poor health by means of better water

supply, sanitation, improved housing conditions can reduce their hazards. Nutrition alters both the incidence and the effects of clinical disease. (137 pp. 25 - 26).

One important point that stands clearly out of this discussion is the fact that community health is not only a medical problem. In fact sophisticated medical technology alone is inappropriate unless backed up by outreach and preventive services. Even under very favourable circumstances, curative health care can do little to alter the incidence of disease, although it can reduce its effects, if a person must return to a disease-ridden environment.

Having thus established the basis for the social need for community health services, attention will now be on the assessment of available services in Lebowa and on the prevailing health conditions.

The Department of Health and Social Welfare in Lebowa, through its health policy accepts the responsibility of contributing towards the health of the people of Lebowa by giving priority to the establishment of health services. In the Department's 1979/80 annual report, it is mentioned that the first priority as far as health services are concerned is for curative services, the second priority is for preventive services and the third priority is to promote the general health and welfare of the people.

In accordance with the above order of priorities, the following services are available in Lebowa:

(a) Medical services: According to the abovementioned report (1979/80), Lebowa had 18 hospitals with a total bed capacity of 6426 beds and 99 medical

practitioners 48 of which were on part-time service. In order to make services available to as large a number of the population as possible especially in outlying areas, health services are decentralized through clinics. During the year 1979/80 there were 130 clinics in Lebowa. The abovementioned figures of the available medical services, when viewed against the total population of approximately 1 771 442 in Lebowa indicate a severe shortage of doctors and hospital accommodation which further reflects inadequacy in the very first priority of the department. It is evident that medical services cover only a small portion of the population. Clinics in the outlying areas are managed by one or two qualified nurses who give the following services: treatment of minor ailments, ante-natal clinic, tetanus, toxoid, to aid deliveries, child health, tuberculosis follow-up treatment and psychiatric follow-up treatment and family planning services. Serious cases are referred to the hospitals. The distances to the nearest hospital and even to the clinics from some villages are considerable and considering the fact that these are the areas where individual car ownership is uncommon and public transport services inadequate, such long distances mean that most people do not manage to get medical services for serious illnesses or if they do, they are most of the time, too late for effective treatment.

The quality of hospital services is also affected, as mentioned by the Secretary when he said in his report ".....congestion and overcrowding exist and are still experienced in most of the hospitals. This does not produce an environment conducive to good quality performance by the health workers (Doctors and Nurses)". (44 p. 45)

(b) Environmental Health Services: Environmental health services

for the prevention and control of diseases are provided under the following categories:

- (i) Sanitation of residential areas and schools by encouraging the construction of pit latrines. The report mentions a steady progress in this respect but states further that the majority of people cannot afford to buy latrine accommodation that complies with the minimum health requirements. This means that the poorest rural population still defecate in the fields at a high risk of contamination by human waste of such important things as water and food. Hence the recent outbreak of cholera in some parts of Lebowa.
- (ii) Water supply, especially in the rural areas by means of windmills, hand pumps, engines and reservoirs. The report mentions that during the year 1979/80 there were 1833 windmills, 3087 hand pumps, 1315 engines and pumps and 3726 reservoirs. Viewed against the background of Lebowa as a whole, it may be deduced that there is still a serious shortage of clean water supply in the rural areas.
- (iii) Sewerage purification and regulation of food establishments.

Although efforts are being made to improve the environmental conditions, the poor economic conditions among the people retard progress. It has already been mentioned that they cannot afford the minimum health standard latrine accommodations. Their housing conditions are also poor; with the persistent traditional rectangular mud-built houses roofed either with grass or corrugated iron still being predominant. In most cases the kitchen serves both as a cooking place and a crop store.

The bedroom contains one or two beds and serves as a store for household materials and a dining place. Sometimes the house is flanked with poultry shelter and goat shed. Available statistics on common medical conditions which were encountered among school children indicate a high incidence of skin sores, scabies and sore eyes in some areas. These diseases are known to have a direct link with unhealthy environmental conditions such as poor housing, overcrowding and poor sanitation.

- (c) Prevention and Control of Infection for the Promotion of General Health and Welfare: In this respect the department maintains a constant control of tropical diseases such as Malaria. The report mentions a marked reduction in the occurrence of this disease and the intention of the department to keep it to its lowest level.

On the basis of information thus far expounded, it is concluded that although the Lebowa Government has a basically sound health policy, the available health services are limited and health conditions in general still leave much to be desired.

This unfavourable state of health conditions in the rural areas of Lebowa may be attributed to the following reasons:

- (a) The poor economic conditions discussed in the previous section do not only affect the individuals and communities alone, but the Government as well. This is revealed in the Minister's address when he pointed, in the annual report, to the futility of having such sound basic principles when they cannot be applied as a result of the negative trend in the economy of Lebowa over the past number of years.

- (b) The Department's order of priorities which stresses curative services as opposed to environmental and preventive measures has a bearing on the narrow coverage provided by health services in Lebowa. This is so because the Department is compelled to maintain expensive, well-equipped hospitals manned by highly trained medical personnel, an expense that it can ill afford with its limited revenue.
- (c) The limited role that public health education plays. According to the annual report during the year 1979/80 only 453 public health education programmes were offered. The importance of public health education is based on the fact that it begins with the people and leads them from limited understanding to a broader conception of what is involved in achieving better health. It helps people to form more desirable patterns of thought and behaviour in line with scientifically valid ways. It is on the basis of these facts that one tends to believe that perhaps if the majority of the people in Lebowa were well informed about health matters, active co-operation on their part would be ensured, especially on the preventive level, thereby reducing the number of people requiring curative treatment.

6.3.3 The Need for a Relevant Education System

Education in this study will be discussed in the context of its relationship to social development. According to Mphahlele (110, p. 3), in its broadest sense, education includes all learning which takes place in the world at large.

(a) The informal unstructured and incidental learning which takes place all the time. It is the most unorganized and unsystematic feature of the whole learning system but it is the most important part of that life-long process because it is a daily occurrence and has a much more profound effect on the individual in that it transmits experience more quickly, though admittedly, sporadically. It relies upon personal contacts, television, radio or any other mass media.

(b) The structured non-formal learning which is organized but comprises a large number of separate, sometimes even isolated educational activities which have little relationship with each other and which vary in concept, schedules, curriculum standards and so forth. Non-formal education may include instructions in health matters, sporting activities etc.

(c) Structured learning which takes place in formal situations. It is highly institutionalized, with well defined programmes such as would be found in conventional schools.

Formal, informal and non-formal education are not separate sectors, they are part of a life-long learning process. They over-lap in some cases, but they also interact, supplement and reinforce each other. What is important is to ensure that people, and in particular the masses who are involved in the development process, have access to the various forms of education. (45 p. 12).

Equating rural development with the far-reaching transformation of the social and economic structures, institutions, relationships and processes in the rural areas, Coombs et al. (29 p. 15) grouped the educational needs for rural development under the following four main headings:

- (a) General or basic education: Literacy, numeracy and elementary understanding of science and one's environment etc. - what primary and general secondary schools seek to achieve.

- (b) Family improvement education: Designed primarily to impart knowledge, skills and attitudes, useful in improving the quality of family life, on such subjects as health and nutrition, homemaking and child care, home repairs and improvements, family planning, and so on.

- (c) Community improvement education: Designed to strengthen local and national institutions and processes through instruction in such matters as local and national government, co-operatives, community projects, and the like.

- (d) Occupational education: Designed to develop particular knowledge and skills associated with various economic activities and useful in making a living. These four types of education are needed by both young people and adults, male and female.

The development of education in all its forms, therefore, seems to be the key element, in all endeavours to involve the population in development. By equipping people with skills and knowledge required by a pattern of development, helping them to take advantage of the new employment opportunities and by helping to transform the social structures by imparting knowledge about new values attitudes and beliefs, the development process

becomes accelerated. To achieve the breakthrough, some pre-requisites have to be fulfilled. In the first place, education and training have to be democratised by making them accessible to all people without discrimination. This means that resources designed for education have to be reallocated in such a way that education reaches the masses. Secondly education has to be seen as a life-long process, in which people can alternate between work and education whenever they feel a need for more skills and knowledge and where they can benefit from experience, they gain from their day-to-day work and from their environment. Thirdly education must be made relevant to the needs of the country and to work requirements. This means that educational plans should be integrated into development plans and that the curricula, methods and techniques used in education should be reviewed. It is within the framework of these three major principles that education can not only contribute to development and participation, but also become the driving force behind them. (45 pp. 9 - 12) On the basis of what has been said so far, assessment of an educational system in Lebowa will involve, consideration of the system's overall objectives, the availability and relative size of pre-school and school education, basic occupational training facilities and life-long education of adults and, relevance to development.

Before assessing the educational system of Lebowa it must be mentioned that Lebowa has no independent national educational system. The provision and control of education are done under the Education and Training Act No 90 of 1979 which governs Black education in South Africa.

On the basis of the recommendations of the Eiselen Commission (1951), which maintained that education for the Blacks has a separate existence because of

their different cultural background, language, values and interests, separate from those of the Whites, the South African Government formulated an educational policy whose basic aims were, firstly, from the viewpoint of the society as a whole, to retain and develop the cultural heritage of the Blacks based on their present and past, their inherent racial qualities, their distinctive characteristics and aptitudes and their needs under the ever changing social conditions. Secondly, from the viewpoint of the individual the aims are the development of the character and intellect and the equipping of the child for his future work and surroundings. (65 p. 5).

The content of this educational system was determined by the Government without consulting Black leaders.

There was a general outcry against this step among Black educationists.

The first objection was to the determination of an educational policy for the Blacks without involving them. In this respect, Kgware W.M. quotes the following statement of the Inter-departmental Committee on Native Education : "The educated Native (i.e. not the half-educated) is the best judge.....and it would be presumptuous.....to tell him what elements are valuable in his own culture. The evidence shows that those who have gone furthest in the study on the White man's history, science and culture in general, are much stronger advocates than is generally believed....of the preservation and development of worthwhile elements in Bantu Society". (71, p. 29).

The second objection was to the content of Black education. Here Kgware (71 pp. 30 - 32) refers to M'Timkulu's article on The African and Education

in which he made several observations, a few of which may be summarized as follows:

(a) He contended that what had been styled the social needs of the Black were in fact needs which arose from the changing conditions of his environment and would pass as the Black adjusted himself to the conditions of his society. On the other hand what had been called individual needs were needs shared with the rest of mankind, and that the only limit to human achievement was human capabilities.

(b) He disagreed with the assumption that education produces a good "Black" or good "European". He contended that the aim of all education was the development of good men and women.

(c) He voiced the suspicion that the content of education was designed to greatly influence and maintain the perpetual subordinate political position of the Blacks.

In so far as relevance is concerned, M.C. Mphahlele, (111 p. 10) tracing the history of Black Education from when it was still under Missionary influence said: "It would appear that the missionaries on the whole were not prepared to equip the Blacks with the tools for free enquiry and uncircumscribed reasoning which characterized the period of the Aufklärung (Enlightenment) in Europe. They never thought it their mission to educate with any aim that went beyond the Christianizing process and the preparation for earning a living. It is understandable therefore why some of the products came out of the mission institutions unprepared to respond positively to the burning political, social and even economic issues of the time.....The type of education that they received created problems for themselves. The emphasis has been on unrelated

needs and norms to those of the Blacks as a cultural group".

Despite the abovementioned objections and many others, the objectives and content of Black education remained unchanged for a long time. However, as a result of the 1976 riots which were sparked off by the enforced usage of Afrikaans as a medium of instruction in Black schools, some form of modification was provided in the form of the Education and Training Act, No 90 of 1979, which provided among others, that,

- (a) in co-operation with the parents, compulsory school attendance and free tuition be introduced; and
- (b) that parents and communities be encouraged to be actively involved in the education system.

For the first time there was serious talk of the establishment of technical schools and technicons for Blacks even in urban areas. This, according to M.C. Mphahlele, was a tacit acknowledgement that Black education had been too one-sided, bookish and therefore irrelevant to the contemporary technological era. This new trend of providing technical education, though belated is certainly going to benefit Blacks tremendously.

In Lebowa education is provided in State schools and Community schools. It is divided into primary education, secondary education, teacher training, trade and technical training and adult education.

In general, the subject matter of the syllabuses from primary education to secondary education includes: North Sotho, Social Studies, Arithmetic, Biology, Book-keeping, Agricultural Science, Accounting, Commerce, Commercial Mathematics, Religious Education, Housecraft and Home Economics, History and Geography.

According to the 1979 annual report of the Lebowa Government Service Department of Education, there were 961 primary schools with a total pupil enrolment of 455 326 in Lebowa. These pupils were taught by 7 558 teachers at an average pupil-teacher ratio of 68, 4:2. There were 6843 class-rooms built according to the standard plan. (82 pp. 13 - 16). From the above figures it is evident that teachers in the primary schools are overloaded with pupils and that it is not possible to notice if there are children with special needs and problems. There is also a shortage of class-room accommodation which result in over-crowding of pupils in class-rooms.

It is further noticed that the report does not mention any provision of pre-school education despite its widely acknowledged importance in providing experiences that are necessary for facilitating the child's readiness for school which for lack of time, facilities or competence, parents cannot provide. This serious deficit in pre-schooling compounds the problem of primary schools being usually inflated with pupils who are repeating grades because to them school constitutes a different environment with strange experiences. This can be seen in the great difference in numbers between secondary school pupil enrolment and primary school pupil enrolment, which was 374 851 in 1979 (82 p. 21). In the same report (1979) figures given on the total numbers of secondary schools in Lebowa indicate that there is a sharp decrease of schools at secondary level as compared to primary level. In 1979 there were 224 secondary schools (82 p. 19). It is evident therefore that at present the available educational facilities still have a low coverage. Although it is a common practice for most children to go to school, the abovementioned sharp decrease in secondary schools and pupil enrolment at secondary school level indicate that still more young people

end at the primary level of education and are destined to perpetuate the familiar cycle of semi-literacy.

The report further mentions that high priority is being given to the development in the field of technical and trade education. Presently there are four Technical Institutes and one Technical High School in Lebowa. Courses offered include carpentry, welding, motor mechanics, upholstery, leatherworks, tailoring, glazing, electricians etc. Enrolment figures, 765 in 1979 indicate that only males are trained in these centres. Courses offered, enrolment figures, sex of pupils, and the number of available training centres indicate sex discrimination in technical training, insufficient training centres and a low coverage.

A belated realization of the importance of a functional rural education in the form of agricultural training that will equip people with the knowledge to successfully pursue their agricultural pursuits, is worth mentioning. Presently an Agricultural High School which will satisfy the highest standards is being erected.

It is regrettable to note that non-formal adult education plays a very insignificant role in Lebowa. The report mentions that only four literacy training courses were held and that 146 adults were awarded literacy certificates in 1979.

Lastly, in as far as contribution is concerned, it must be mentioned that although much has been done in the achievement of literacy, education in Lebowa has done very little for rural development.

Formal education has been urban oriented and has had little economic value in the rural areas. In this respect M. C. Mphahlele said: "As could be predicted, most social workers, teachers, bookkeepers and lawyers who emerged from these colleges and universities did not find the rural environment attractive or suitable for their careers and consequently drifted back to the urban areas". (111 p. 12).

It is evident therefore that even the non-agricultural occupations that may emerge in the rural areas need to be rural oriented rather than urban oriented.

The important issue in education for development is not so much the need for education for development as the need for the kind of education required for development.

6.3.4 The Need for Social Welfare Services for Development and Adjustment.

So far no general agreement has been reached on the questions of what is social welfare and what is its role in society, and various reasons and difficulties have been forwarded.

One writer, Madison (95 p. xvii) ascribed the problem to the nature of social welfare, which he described as dynamic and constantly being influenced by evolving social, economic, political and cultural trends. It is because of its dynamic character that the services offered, the methods by which they are extended, and the persons eligible to receive them, differ not only from country to country, but also from place to place and from time to time within

each country.

On the other hand, Gilbert N. et al. (57 pp. 81 - 82) attributed the problem to the fact that unlike the other social institutions that achieve normative acceptance primarily on the basis of their core functions, no definite agreement has been reached on what is the core function performed by social welfare institutions as distinct from allied fields such as education, religion and so on. In attempting to establish the core function of social welfare institutions and thereby justifying their establishment in a society, the authors explained and used as their basis, the origin of social welfare. According to them, the institution of social welfare as we know it today, emerged out of society's varied efforts to cope with changes in economic and social relationships which fostered the breakdown of feudal society and so the individual household. With the crumble of feudal society, individual freedom increased along with uncertainty and hardships brought about by the dying of the feudal form of insurance against unemployment, old age and other exigencies of life. As societies became more complex, other groups, organizations and agencies, such as the church, voluntary agencies and government developed to carry out mutual support activities. Therefore "The institution of social welfare is that pattern of relationships which develops in society to carry out mutual support functions". (57 p. 82). This explanation is accepted and used as basis in this study because it accounts for an increasing resort to social welfare organizations by Blacks as the traditional kinship system of society disappears. In the old days an individual looked to his kinsmen for moral, social and economic support and his kinsmen accepted responsibility and were prepared to help him in time of need. It must be noted that social welfare institutions are referred to as mutual support institutions because they come into play to

meet the problems that arise when individuals are not able to meet their needs through major institutions which operate to carry out other social functions. This may occur for a wide variety of reasons, such as sickness, loss of a wage earner, or inadequate functioning of the economic institutions.

Wilensky et al. (159 pp. 16 - 17) mention that currently there are two conceptions of social welfare in the United States of America. They are:

- (a) The residual conception which holds that social welfare services are emergency measures that come to play when normal structures of supply break down and are therefore expected to withdraw when conditions return to normal.
- (b) The institutional conception which holds that social welfare is ".....the organized system of social services and institutions designed to aid individuals and groups to attain certain satisfying standards of life and health. It aims at personal and social relationships which permit individuals the fullest development of their capacities and the promotion of their well-being in harmony with the needs of the community".

The former conception is limited and does not justify the establishment of social welfare institutions on a full-time basis. In this study the second conception will be accepted because instead of limiting social welfare services to crises only, it includes preventive activities as well as social education thereby justifying full establishment of social welfare services in a society.

The significance of social welfare institutions in the present day society is based on the following conditions as postulated by Wolins M. Firstly an admission that even under ideal circumstances some members of the society will have their basic needs unmet. Secondly, recognition that pressure builds up for orderly modification of the social structure of provision of some alternative ways for needs to be met. Thirdly, an understanding which has, in part come from Freudian psychology, that needs will be met at the expense of the orderly functioning of society, if necessary, when other alternatives are difficult or blocked. (162 p. 110).

Although the nature of social welfare services may differ in different cultures and political systems, there are widely accepted categories of social welfare services. According to Thursz D. et al. (148 pp. 16 - 21) essentially, social services may be classified in the following areas:

- (a) Family social services which deal with the preservation and development of family life.
- (b) Services to the violators of law, such as probation, parole services as well as individual and group counseling within prisons for the prevention of habitual relapse into crime.
- (c) Health and mental health services which include preventive and supportive social services to the sick and recuperating individuals as well as the family base on the recognition of close interrelationships between psychological, social and cultural factors in the onset and character of illness.

- (d) Services to the aged which include provision of income through pensions, accommodation and medical care for the weak and infirm.
- (e) Special and rehabilitation services to the physically handicapped which may take the form of special training or financial support.
- (f) Housing for target groups such as the poor, coupled with various problems of integration of new population.
- (g) Community organization and community development which are concerned with mutual support in the betterment of social conditions within societies.

In Lebowa, the department responsible for social welfare work is the Department of Health and Welfare. In its policy declaration the Department accepts the responsibility of contributing to the social welfare services of the people of Lebowa. However, the Department further accepts the principle that social welfare services can only be provided as the fruit of economic development. It is on the basis of this principle that social services are regarded as secondary to health services which, it is declared, have a direct bearing on economic development. (84 p. 9). It is evident that in pursuance of the above principle, the most senior officer, the Secretary, who together with the Minister, determines the departmental policy and the allocation of resources, will undoubtedly be a medical professional. The arrangement has been that on social welfare matters he be assisted by the Assistant Secretary who has, until recently, not necessarily

been a qualified social worker. Qualified social workers have always served under the above officials. The result is that, in Lebowa, qualified social workers have had little involvement in social policy formulation. Without suggesting that only qualified social workers can make sound contributions in the field of social welfare, it sounds incongruous that social workers lower down in the social welfare ladder have always been expected to hold at least a degree or diploma in social work, whilst their immediate superiors were not necessarily expected to be professionally qualified for their specific positions.

In the 1979/80 annual report of the Welfare Section of the Department of Health and Welfare (84 p. 50) it is indicated that although there were 63 approved social workers' posts only 29 were occupied. Of the 29 occupied posts only 25 social workers were engaged in district professional services. The report reflects the following caseloads for the year:

Table 6.3 Casework Services Rendered in Lebowa 1979/80

Classification	Cases	Percentage
Prevention	164	9.4
Reconstruction -	104	6.0
After care	75	4.4
Supervision	84	4.8
Juvenile court	22	1.3
Children's court	33	1.9
Foster care	35	2.0
Adoption	26	1.5
Alcoholics	31	1.8
Adult offenders	58	3.3

Classification	Cases	Percentage
Abandoned children	74	4.3
Family welfare	385	22.1
Cripple care	108	6.2
Cerebral Palsied	8	.5
Blind	24	1.4
Deaf and Dumb	12	.7
Aged	60	3.4
Psychiatric cases	219	12.7
Maintenance	94	5.4
Poor relief	54	3.1
Divorce	68	3.8
Legal aid	2	.1
TOTAL	1740	100%

Table 6.4 Social Work in Hospitals

Category	Cases	Percentage
Psychiatry	1395	52.1
Tuberculosis	252	9.5
Gynaecology	151	5.7
Paediatric	274	10.3
Surgical	74	2.8
Medical	281	10.6
Chronic sick	95	3.6
Aged	143	5.4
TOTAL	2661	100%

The above tables reflect the type of welfare services that are rendered at district and hospital level. The report does not reflect any group work services or any specific involvement of social workers in community work. The implication here is that, of the three methods of social work more emphasis is placed on casework method. The fact that the official report does not reflect any groupwork and community work services implies that the engagement of social workers in such services is haphazard and sporadic. Intensified casework services to the exclusion of the other two methods imply that preventive and developmental services are neglected in rendering welfare services in Lebowa.

Social pensions constitute another form of welfare services in Lebowa. The Report (84 p. 52) reflects the following types of pensions:

Table 6.5 Social Pensions and Allowances 1979/80

Type of grant	No of pensioners	Amount paid
Old age	60 816	R17 210 029
Disability grants	5 550	R 1 561 059
Blind persons	2 595	R 721 989
War veterans	78	R 19 026
TOTAL	69 039	R19 512 103

The fact that preventive and developmental services are being neglected in Lebowa is a contributory factor to the high pension allowances in the blind and disability grant categories. It is an undisputable fact that

with some special rehabilitative services in the form of training some of the disabled people could earn their living under sheltered employment. Unfortunately the only available handcraft centre for the disabled can only accommodate 120 people. There is only one school for cripple children which can accommodate approximately 200 children. Other special schools include, one for blind children, one for the deaf and one youth camp. It is evident from the above information that welfare services in Lebowa still fall short of the need.

The limited attention paid to community work implies that the Government shoulders the bulk of social welfare expenses with very limited contribution from the public in the form of private voluntary welfare organizations.

Little or no involvement in preventive services implies a serious neglect of real prevailing issues which are reflected in the earlier discussion on economic, educational and health conditions in Lebowa, that greatly influence the occurrence of social problems and on the other hand, adversely affect professional efficiency, especially in poor rural communities.

6.3.5 The Need for an Adequate Political Structure

In discussing the concept political system, Wiseman H. (161 p. 99) begins with the simple proposition that social organization pre-supposes that some people must have power over other people, which is recognized by enough of all the people as legitimate. Competition for power must be regulated or institutionalized. Polity, therefore is the recognized societal institution where the expression of the drive for power is exercised and regulated.

Politics then, is public behaviour in striving to share power, or influence the distribution of power, or the power to make decisions.

Government is that part of society which implements the political functions of a political system. R.H. Saltau gave the following definition of government: "We mean by government all those persons, institutions and agencies by which the will and policy of the state is expressed and carried out". (134 p. 107).

In this broad sense, government is bigger than a special body of ministers. It not only includes the cabinet or parliament but also refers to a whole string of local authorities, chosen bodies as well as appointed personnel, and the civil service with all its different branches. The word government includes the legislative, judicial as well as executive authorities.

Important in a government is its format, that is, the degree of representativeness of the system. Further, the capability of a political system may be considered in terms of the following:

- (a) Extractive capability, i.e. the range of performance of the political system in drawing material and human resources from the domestic and international environment.
- (b) Regulative capability i.e. the flow of control over behaviour of individuals and group relations stemming from the political system.
- (c) Distributive capability, i.e. the allocation of goods, services, statuses etc.

- (d) Symbolic capability, i.e. the rate of effective symbol flow from the political system into society and the international environment.
- (e) Responsive capability, i.e. the degree to which outgoing activity is the consequence of demands arising in the environment of the political system.

Government, therefore, is most strategic for the maintenance of society. It has an indivisible responsibility through its monopoly of coercive powers for protecting the system of which it is a part.

In this study the Lebowa Government Service's political development will be considered on the basis of its executive authority.

After several stages of development, on 2 October 1972, under Proclamation R225 of 1972, Lebowa received Chapter II rights of the National States Constitution Act (Act 21 of 1971). Lebowa then became a self-governing area within South Africa with the authority to make laws within the limits set by the Act. The government consists of eight departments, each of which is headed by a minister. The name and objective of each department can be classified as follows:

- (a) Department of the Chief Minister: To promote efficient government management.
- (b) Department of Finance: To look after the Government service's financial interests.

- (c) Department of Justice: To administer law and order within the framework of the legal principles and legislation.
- (d) Department of Internal Affairs: To undertake general internal affairs.
- (e) Department of Agriculture and Forestry: To promote the agricultural and forestry potential.
- (f) Department of Works: To undertake public works of a capital nature.
- (g) Department of Education: To expand the intellectual, mental and physical potential of the individual to the advantage of the community.
- (g) Department of Health and Welfare: To promote health services and social stability.

According to Section 3, Schedule 1 of the abovementioned Act, the Lebowa Government is responsible for the following matters only:

- (a) Administration and control of the various departments.
- (b) Welfare services.
- (c) Education.
- (d) Construction, maintenance, management and control of clinics.
- (e) Planning, construction, control and management of business undertakings.
- (f) All aspects of agriculture.

- (g) Protection of fauna and flora and the extermination of vermin.
- (h) Public works and undertakings.
- (i) Control and administration of Magistrate's courts.
- (j) Labour affairs.
- (k) Direct taxation.
- (l) Intoxicating liquor.
- (m) Personnel for the government service.
- (n) Protection of people and property.
- (o) Maintenance of law and order.
- (p) Management of estates.
- (q) Road, transport and motor vehicles.
- (r) Births, deaths and marriages.

It is evident from the information outlined in this section that Lebowa Government Service cannot be regarded as a full fledged government because it still has limited powers and authority.

6.4 Conclusion

Information thus far expounded has proven that in order to survive, a society must seek to preserve a balance in its resources for the satisfaction of basic needs. Material resources must be abundant and wisely administered. People must be healthy, educated and socially well adjusted. Social institutions, individually and collectively, must be efficient and well co-ordinated. Any defect or deficiency in these desirable achievements may be either an actual problem or a menace to social or personal security.

The assessment of the available resources in Lebowa has revealed that the satisfaction of basic social needs is not yet adequately provided for, especially in the rural areas, because these services are underdeveloped and limited in quality and scope. It may be deduced, therefore, that social problems related to poor economic conditions, poor health standards and conditions and poor educational standards are prevalent in these areas.

It is therefore contended that integrated rural development should be regarded as a suitable measure for overall improvements of socio-economic conditions in Lebowa.

CHAPTER 7

THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN RURAL COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT IN LEBOWA

7.1 Introduction

The socio-economic development of the National States in South Africa commenced with the implementation of the Promotion of Black Self Government Act (Act 46 of 1959), which acknowledged that the Black peoples of South Africa are not of a homogeneous nature and provided for the establishment of separate state machinery to guide these various Black population groups to meaningful self-government and independence. Lebowa is one of these self-governing National States in South Africa. As one of the States that are going through the process of becoming self-sufficient, Lebowa may be regarded as a developing territory which experiences the same development problems of the Third World, as already established in chapter 6 of this study.

This chapter deals with the analysis of the results of an investigation that was conducted with the purpose of determining the extent to which women in the rural areas of Lebowa can influence and contribute to the development of their communities. The analysis will be based on background information obtained from literature on women in African developing countries (I. Tinker 1976, E. Boserup 1970, L. Mullings 1976) which has revealed that women's crucial role in the development process of these countries has generally been neglected and overlooked.

7.2 The Status and Role of Women in the Rural Areas of Lebowa

Women participation in community development is seen as a way in which women are related to the process of social, economic and political development as reflected in their statuses and roles. Therefore, if one is to understand the position of an African woman in the changing world and the part she is likely to play in community development, one must be well aware of her status and role

A review of literature on the involvement of African Women in community development (I. Tinker 1976, E. Boserup 1970 and M. Nelson 1979) reveals two important factors which have had a negative impact on their participation.

First, due to the process of development, the economic and social structures of African life underwent changes which affected the status and roles of African women, threatening the protected and secure rights that they enjoyed when they belonged to self-sufficient households in traditional societies.

The second factor came as a result of these changes which, had they been based on the correct interpretation of African culture, would have necessitated some modification in their status together with training and guidance in their roles so as to enable them to play their part in full. However, because of the wrong interpretation of African culture by Europeans who, as Mitchell (105 p. 124) has mentioned, measured African behaviour against their western values, changes which were introduced were in the form

of laws and constitutions which were intended to protect these women, together with measures which celebrated only the child-rearing and household roles of women, while neglecting their economic roles. Yet, as rightly pointed out by Tinker (149 p. 24), recent studies recording women's roles in subsistence economies show a panoply of traditional roles, both economic and familial, whose patterns more often add up to near serfdom than to any significant degree of independence and personal dignity for women. These studies indicate that however onerous women's lives, development plans have seldom helped them. Rather, development has tended to put obstacles in the women's way, that frequently prevent them from maintaining whatever economic independence that they had under traditional law.

The above discoveries led to the realization that because of their status and roles, certain development programmes, such as in economy, education, health and nutrition will be mostly affected by ignoring women in the planning and implementation processes. Having thus examined the generalization, attention will now be turned to the extent to which development changes have affected the status and role of women in the rural areas of Lebowa. For the sake of clarity in this study, the two aspects, status and role, will be examined separately.

7.2.1 The Traditional and Present Status of Rural Women in Lebowa

The traditional status of women in Lebowa was almost similar to that of African women in other African countries. According to Mönnig H.O. :
 "The status of women is always inferior to that of men.....Women never attain independence and through various phases of life they remain under

perpetual tutelage, first of their father then of their husband and if widowed, of a guardian". (197 p. 268).

It must be noted, however, that because of a subtle interplay of cultural, social and economic forces, this minority status of Pedi women was not absolute. On this point Mönning mentions that among the Pedi status found its most marked manifestation among men in the political and jural positions and that married women could acquire certain powers. For example: "They have the power to discipline and protect their children and have some powers over their homesteads and property assigned to their households without consulting their husbands. The disposal of any property assigned to a household can occur only with the consent of both the woman and husband or guardian". (107 p. 330).

It is evident therefore that despite their legal minority under customary law, these women had their realms with remarkably strong positions in certain aspects of family life.

Although Pedi women did not suffer absolute social and economic repercussions because of their minority status, they did however, experience impairing restrictions in their legal capacity as implied in the following statement by Mönning: "All members of the family are subject to the authority of the father or guardian..... No minor may enter into a contract without the assistance or consent of the father, husband or guardian and all possessions held by the family are subject to his control". (107 p. 331). It was this lack of legal capacity which, when extended to the European way of life, as mentioned by Simons H.J., was interpreted to imply that women ".....cannot

own property in their own right, inherit, or act as guardians of their children. They cannot enter into contracts, sue or be sued without the aid of their male guardian". (140 p. 187). Proposed improvements on the above minority status of women which prevailed, although to different degrees, among all South African Blacks, are found in the constitutional modifications of customary law under the British colonial rule. These modifications are stipulated under sub-section 11(3) of the Black Administration Act (Act No 38 of 1927). For the purpose of this study, only the effects of this sub-section on the status of Black women in South Africa, and thus in Lebowa, will be considered. According to Muriel Horrel (66 p.2) the effects of this sub-section on Black women is that (unless any other statutory provisions otherwise provide) the legal capacity of Black women in South Africa is governed by common law. This means that Black women in South Africa have full legal capacity if they are unmarried and over 21 years of age or widows or divorcees, or if they are married according to civil rites and their husbands' marital powers have been excluded.

Although it may be acknowledged that this sub-section has helped to improve the legal capacity of unmarried women, divorcees and widows, it has however not brought any change to the legal capacity of women who are married according to customary rites. In fact it places them in a rather confusing situation because their legal capacity is determined on the basis of two different laws. Before marriage, and if they are above 21 years of age, common law applies, after customary marriage customary law applies, if they are widowed or separated, common law applies again. This surely is a confusing situation, and more often these women refrain from seeking the relevant assistance and suffer unnecessary repercussions due to ignorance about which law applies when in their case.

On the basis of the abovementioned sub-section, it has now been established that the legal capacity of Black married women in South Africa is based on the nature of their marriage. It is important at this stage, therefore, to examine the extent to which civil rites marriages as a form of an enhancement of the status of married women have been adopted in the rural areas of Lebowa. The samples on which this investigation was based have revealed that 68,2% of the respondents are married, 12% are unmarried, 18,1% are widowed and 1,7% are separated. The significance of the higher percentage of married women is that it permits an examination of the general status of women on the basis of the nature of their marriage. On this aspect the results indicated that 85,2% of the married respondents are married according to customary rites while 14,8% are married according to civil rites. The predominance of customary marriages revealed by these findings indicates that the majority of married women in the rural areas of Lebowa are minors. Although no specific question on knowledge about the constitutional reforms mentioned earlier was included, on observation it would seem that very few women are aware of their legal rights under common law. It may therefore be concluded that these constitutional reforms were introduced silently and in isolation without making women aware of their significance. It is the contention held in this study that unless these legal reforms are accompanied by a nationwide campaign to publicise them and educate women on how they affect their lives, women will remain ignorant about them and rights assigned to them by custom will continue to seem more real in practice.

The minority status of women in the rural areas of Lebowa is also reflected in the findings on the pattern of authority in the family, irrespective of the type of marriage. The relevant quantitative information is reflected in Table 7.1

Table 7.1 Pattern of Authority Within the Family in Lebowa 1979/80

	Head of family		Maintenance of order and discipline		Control over property		Important family decisions	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Husband	283	95	280	94	240	80,5	281	94,3
Wife	15	4,7	15	4,7	31	10,1	13	4
Both	2	0,3	5	1,3	29	9,4	6	1,7
TOTAL	300	100	300	100	300	100	300	100

Data presented in the above table reflect sample, numbers and percentages. The results indicate that in the majority of households the husbands have an upper hand on all aspects of authority. Since lack of authority implies less decision-making powers, it is evident that the majority of women cannot make independent decisions concerning serious family issues without consulting their husbands.

The contention held in this study, therefore, is that if progress in national development is to be achieved, both the legal and social status of women in these areas need to be improved. This is more important because of the following significant points : Due to the migratory labour system, in some cases, the husbands are absent from home for long periods. Sample data in this study have revealed that in 70,8% of the married women, the husbands are not living with their families. Of these men, 79,1% live in towns and cities outside Lebowa while 20,8% live in other areas of Lebowa,

but away from their families. Concerning how often these men visit their families, it was revealed that 2,7% of the women have long lost contact with their husbands, while 97,3% are visited once per year. Different periods of their stay can be observed in Table 7.2 below.

Table 7.2 Duration of Husbands' Annual Visits

P e r i o d	Sample distribution	
	No	%
Never	4	2,7
Less than 1 week	8	5,4
1 - 4 weeks	52	35,1
5 - 8 weeks	29	19,6
9 weeks and above	55	37,2
TOTAL	148	100

It is evident from the above table that most men spend between 4 to 9 weeks and above per year with their families. Women in these households therefore have to hold the position of head of the household for the major part of the year. The situation depicted above propounds the question of who these women consult in the absence of their husbands. On serious financial matters the results indicated that 29,7% of the respondents decide alone, 14,9% consult parents, 14,9% consult male relatives, 25,7% write

to him, while 14,9% wait until he comes. On any other serious family matter such as children's education or marriage, 31,1% of the respondents indicated that they decide alone, 13,5% consult his parents, 10,8% consult male relatives, 27% write to him, while 17,5% wait until he comes.

The above findings reveal that cases where the decision lies with somebody else other than the woman herself on all serious matters are more than where she decides alone. Thus, despite their being expected to take over their husband's responsibilities, these women still have limited rights to make important decisions. The removal of all obstacles that impair the women's legal capacity and decision-making powers is therefore regarded as one form of accelerating their integration into the development process.

7.2.2 Traditional and Present Roles of Rural Women in Lebowa

In this section particular attention will be on the extent to which national development plans have taken into consideration the contribution that women in the rural areas can make to the development process because of their specific roles and interests.

On the aspect of their traditional roles, Mönning H.O. mentions that : "All housework is done by women. They are responsible for fetching water and firewood, for grinding corn, for preparing food and making beer, for washing the cooking and eating utensils and keeping the huts and courtyards in good repair". The author further mentions that although both sexes shared the agricultural activities, livestock was within male province while all activities entailed in planting, weeding and reaping, were all done by women. (107 p. 145).

It is noted from the above statement that in a traditional Pedi society women performed all familial duties entailed in household and child-rearing, while at the same time carrying out the major part of economic activities essential to the family unit.

In the editorial article of the Canadian Journal of African Studies (43 p. 359) it is mentioned that the social role of African women in development has long been acknowledged. The existence in most African countries of health services, cooking and sewing classes, maternal and child health centres in the rural and urban areas, testifies to this recognition. But the traditional economic role of these women is neither evident nor even acknowledged in the modern sectors of agriculture, industry, commerce or government.

The extent to which these allegations are a true reflection of conditions in the rural areas of Lebowa will be examined in subsequent discussions on women participation in specific aspects of development. However, as a basis to this examination, it is deemed imperative at this stage to consider the prevailing role structure in the rural areas of Lebowa. Findings in this regard are presented in Tables 7.3, 7.4 and 7.5

Table 7.5

Economic Activities

	Providing Cash Income		Deciding on Expenditure		Providing Arable Land		Providing Live-stock		Cultivation of Land		Weeding		Threshing and Storage		Sale of crops and livestock		Herding Live-stock	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Husband	294	98,6	292	97,6	291	97,3	290	97	110	32,7	2	0,3	3	0,7	49	16,2	185	61,7
Wife	4	1	5	1,7	5	1,7	10	3	180	60,8	296	99,4	297	99,3	166	55,5	108	35,9
Both	2	0,3	3	0,7	4	1	-	-	10	6,5	2	0,3	-	-	85	28,3	7	2,4
TOTAL	300	100	300	100	300	100	300	100	300	100	300	100	300	100	300	100	300	100

Percentage figures reflected in the above tables clearly indicate the retention of the traditional role structure although women seem to lag behind in the monetary sector of economic activities.

Although the role structure is retained, developmental changes occurring in recent years in the social and economic structures of Lebowa have inevitably resulted in changes in the performance of the abovementioned roles of women. As an adaptation to these changes, the logical approach would be the extension of these roles by means of adequate training and education thereby introducing women into new practices and causing them to adopt new attitudes. This extension of the women's traditional roles to suit new conditions would then constitute the acknowledgement of their contribution to community development. It is therefore concluded that effective development of the economic and social potential of the rural communities in Lebowa is dependent on the women of these communities playing a significant role because in the first place, many aspects of better living, such as improved nutrition, better health and home sanitation, depend on women. Secondly, women usually have more contact with children and it is their influence which can facilitate or hinder the children's healthy growth and development. Thirdly, the persistent performance of their traditional economic activities makes them a target group for economic development.

The above factors indicate that in considering the participation of women in economic and social development, we should not only recognize the improvement in the status of women as an essential requisite to their full participation, but should also broadly consider the positive aspects of the roles of women in influencing development. Therefore, in this respect

the role of women in rural community development in Lebowa will be determined on the basis of their active participation in education, economy, health and social welfare services and political life.

7.3 The Educational Status of Rural Women in Lebowa

The potentialities of a human being must be realized by education and training before he can become a key factor in the development process. In the Third Report of the Fifth African Regional Conference, held in Abidjan during September - October 1977 (45 pp. 12 - 13), it was mentioned that development requires the participation of people, men and women, young and old, either directly through their daily work or indirectly through their social and economic groups. Education was seen as the driving factor behind all this process. While by no means the only facilitating elements education was nevertheless recognized as having a critical role to play since, though not itself a development resource, it is a key that unlocks human potential and enables it to be applied to development. It was stressed that for education to be truly enabling, it must emphasize:

- (a) Universality - the ability to reach the masses of the people wherever they are and of whatever sex and age group.
- (b) Relevance - to the needs, potential and development possibilities of those who have access to it; and
- (c) A commitment - to apply what is learned to development.

The significance of education for women as a special group is based on

the following development factors:

- (a) In a family situation all children of both sexes receive their education from their mothers during their most crucial years of development. Thus where women remain uneducated not only is their contribution to society limited, but the potential contribution of the next generation is also limited by inadequate pre-school education.
- (b) In the development of manpower for economic development education will equip women to live productively by possessing occupational competence in a skill or group of skills. Acquiring new skills or improvement of their existing skill through occupational training and in-service training can enable them to gain access to the economic system through employment in vital sectors of the economy.
- (c) In general education can teach women how to exercise independent thinking that will enable them to consider alternatives when taking steps towards improved living.

Having thus established the relationship between education and participation in the development process, attention will now be turned to the specific position of women in the rural areas of Lebowa regarding their education.

Traditionally, in Lebowa both boys and girls receive equal education. The basis of this instruction was functional and utilitarian with respect to the different roles that boys and girls were called upon to fill as men

and women in a subsistence society. Children learned, not by attending school, but by observing and participating in the life of the community. Though boys and girls had different roles to learn, girls were not neglected. However, the introduction of modern education in Lebowa changed this situation considerably. Education became more formal and both sexes undertook similar if not the same type of education. Since most of the early education systems were run by missionaries who placed a high value on education regardless of sex, girls have had some access to schools. The attitude of parents, however, did not seem to keep pace with modern concepts of education. Parents often wanted girls to remain at home and help with work or with the younger children. Some parents have not wanted their daughters to make the sometimes long and arduous journeys to school because of the physical strain. Girls often got married at an early age and this either prevented them from going to school or has usually put a premature end to their education. These factors have all contributed to the delay in sending daughters to school. Thus, difficulties encountered by girls in obtaining formal education have obviously affected the educational level of the female population in the rural areas of Lebowa. This fact is confirmed by sample data from the present study. The results show that 49% of the respondents are illiterate, as against 29,5% of illiterate men; 46% of the women have had primary education as against 59,6% of men who have had primary education. These percentages drop sharply for both sexes when it comes to secondary education, but men are still better off than women. In this respect the results show that 10,9% of the men have had secondary education, while only 5% of the women received secondary education.

Other than the traditional attitudes towards women which have militated against education for girls, 50,7% of the women mentioned financial

difficulties as the reason for their leaving school at primary level. Although a similarly high percentage of men, 54,4% mentioned that they discontinued their education for economic reasons, the common practice has been that, because education was often a great expense for the family, if it could be provided for one child only, that child was more likely to be a boy because they were the only ones who could provide heirs and therefore assets to the family. Although the results indicate that most adults in the rural areas of Lebowa, both males and females, have not had adequate opportunities for education, higher proportions of males as compared to females, who have attained primary and secondary education clearly indicate that males have an edge over females. It can therefore be concluded that illiteracy and semi-literacy among rural women in Lebowa are still widespread. This disparity still prevails, though to a lower degree, as indicated by a higher drop-out rate, 34,4% among school-going girls as compared to 26,3% of drop-outs among school-going boys. There is however some indication that the male/female differentials in education will gradually diminish over the years as revealed by the fact that more and more parents, 97,3% of the respondents, regard education as equally important for both boys and girls.

As for whether women in the rural areas have the opportunity to overcome their illiteracy at least partially through out-of-school education programmes such as adult education, 50,3% of the women mentioned that there were facilities for adult education in their communities. The results further revealed that a higher proportion of women, 72% irrespective of whether there were facilities or not, were in favour of enrolment for adult education.

The high incidence of illiteracy and semi-literacy among rural women and the enthusiasm to enrol for adult education all give a clear picture of the

magnitude of the need for education among rural women in Lebowa. On the basis of these findings it can therefore be concluded that rural women in Lebowa are still not well equipped for development. Because of this, most children still remain under the care of uneducated mothers with drastic consequences for their pre-school education. The majority of these women lack the necessary entrance qualifications for vocational training with the result that they lack the opportunity to find satisfactory jobs. Illiteracy and semi-literacy act as barriers to their independent thinking and thus they are still rigid and obstinate to change their living habits. It will be revealed in subsequent discussions how this lack of education among rural women has acted as a barrier to their participation in important aspects of community development.

7.4 Rural Women in Lebowa Economic Development

Until the agricultural revolution in Africa introduced the animal-drawn plough, women played a crucial role in agriculture, sharing with men the subsistence activities of food production, conservation and distribution. With the introduction of the plough, the increasing productivity of agriculture and the development of foods that could be stored for long periods some men and women were relieved from day-to-day pre-occupation with the problems of subsistence. Freeing more people from the primary sectors of economy allowed the spreading of labour to the secondary and tertiary sectors of economy and it was seen as progress towards an increasingly intricate pattern of labour in the production and distribution of goods and services.

Recent studies (Nelson, Boserup) and debates at symposia and conferences are all agreed on the fact that African women, relative to men, are not adequately woven into this pattern. Their economic roles, though often observed are seldom articulated or acknowledged by development planners.

Attitudes of Europeans, that men were better farmers and that a woman's place was in the home became institutionalized when men were introduced and encouraged to cash-crop farming. It was argued that with the introduction of crop rotation to improve production and with the consequential increase in the acreage under cultivation, women would be more obliged to spend more time the year round in the fields. This would make it difficult for them to attend to their other household duties, especially child-care. The perpetual minority status of African women also greatly influenced their absorption into economic development. Incentives to produce cash-crops, - extension services, fertilizers and credit, - were introduced for the most part to those considered as heads of families, - men, and denied to the producers of food - women. Development planners were further indifferent to the economic significance of some of the rural woman's household activities such as carrying water and wood for home consumption. For example, a male laying a water pipe to a house was considered economically active, but a woman carrying a jar of water daily for one or two hours was seen as just doing a household task.

Modernization of African economy has therefore, as mentioned by I. Tinker, ".....not helped improve women's life but rather has had an adverse effect on them". (149 p. 22). The situation was aggravated when men who had access to incentives to produce cash-crops later accepted wage-earning

employment as migrant labourers on plantations, in mines and other industrial jobs in towns and cities. With the absence of men, women again became principal producers of food. Their tasks multiplied as they did not have training in modern agricultural methods, nor did they have any share in family decisions where the spending of money was concerned and could thus not purchase labour-saving devices or hire additional labour for work. The result was that although the masses of rural women continued to spend more than half their working hours on various economic activities, their productivity was far from commensurate with their labour input.

In South Africa, with the emergence of the National States in 1960, the importance of agriculture as the largest single contributor to the economy of the National States in terms of both revenue and employment was recognized. Specific measures for increasing the production of individual farmers were adopted. "Soil conservation and reclamation projects, agricultural guidance and training, the creation of infrastructure, the supply of water and the provision of assistance such as credit in the form of seed and fertilizers, marketing facilities and veterinary services are all approaches which the government has adopted with success in recent years". (23 p. 80).

Since 1972 the emphasis has shifted from individual farming to project farming to enable the active utilization of the agricultural production potential in the National States. This led to increasing pressure to transform the subsistence nature of agriculture to an agriculture marketing orientation. In the case of Lebowa, according to Benbo report in 1976, progress that had been made in agriculture was still insufficient because a large proportion of agricultural production was still subsistence oriented. (24 p. 30).

With this background in mind, information which indicates the present role of women in agricultural production, marketing and trading, and wage employment in the rural areas of Lebowa will be considered.

7.4.1 Women in Agricultural Production in Lebowa

From Mönning's exposition of the traditional economic life of the Pedi, it may be deduced that although their economic activities ranged from agriculture consisting of crop production and animal husbandry, to hunting and gathering of wild fruit and insects, their main activity was crop production. Though both sexes shared in these agricultural activities, women were responsible for the major part of the crop production activities, while men were mainly responsible for livestock. Due to the abovementioned significance of crop production, it is evident that women were economically more important than men. (108 pp. 144 - 145).

The present position of rural women in agricultural production is revealed by the results of this study which indicate that 76,5% of the interviewed families are still engaged in agriculture and that out of these families, only 37,4% own livestock. These figures show that crop production is still the main agricultural activity in Lebowa. The results further indicate that in 91,8% of the families who are engaged in agriculture, women still play a major part. Information on the person actually responsible for doing different agricultural activities, is reflected in table 7,5 on page 157. Here female predominance of such crop activities as cultivation of land (60,8%), weeding (99,8%) and threshing and storage (90,9%) is noticeable.

Figures on land-holding indicated that it can be held by both men (67,6%) and women (32,4%). The significance of these figures is that when correlating the above 67,6% with figures on the marital status, which indicate that 68,2% of the respondents are married, while 31,8% are single, it can be deduced that land is normally assigned to the husband as the head of the family and that only in the case of widows, divorcees and unmarried women, is land assigned to a woman. Although women rarely possess land-holding rights, they possess cultivation rights and are able to make independent decisions on crop production matters as reflected by the following figures which favour them on matters such as, time when to sow, 94,8%, place where to plant, 94,7%, types of crops, 92,2%, when to harvest, 94,7%, how much for household use, 94,5% and how much to sell, 84,2%. For information on whether rural development planning and implementation in Lebowa is taking into account this manifest significance of women in agricultural development by reducing the burden of their work, while raising the level of their production, questions on the type of agricultural implements used, access to training and extension services, average annual production and the prevailing agricultural problems were asked. The results indicate that the only frequently used mechanical implements are a tractor and a plough (81%). When asked who actually uses these implements, the women explained that due to the absence of the majority of the men, it has frequently become the woman's responsibility to ensure that ploughing, which is primarily a man's task, is done. Therefore those who can afford it do hire private tractors operated by men. Those who cannot afford either use animal-drawn ploughs led by the women themselves or hand-hoes.

The above percentage however indicates that in most cases the tractor and plough are used. The unavailability of any other agricultural mechanical

implements implies that all other activities such as weeding, harvesting and threshing are done by hand with simple implements.

On the question of agricultural training, the results show that 95,6% of the respondents who are engaged in agriculture have had no training. Pursuing the matter further by asking the reason why, 74,5% of the respondents ascribed it to lack of training facilities. On extension services, 80,2% of the respondents replied that they were aware of the availability of extension officers. The results however, reflect that only 29,5% of them ever consulted an extension officer with their agricultural problems. The remaining 70,5% indicated that they could not consult extension officers because they were not readily available. The apparent widespread lack of agricultural training together with the limited extension service mean that the women's agricultural activities continue to remain tradition-bound.

Information on the types of crops commonly produced by households reveal the following order of significance in crop production.

Table 7.6 Fieldcrops Normally Produced by Households

Crops	Sample distribution	
	No	%
Maize	121	71,3
Sorghum	102	67,6
Beans	60	45,8
Wheat	29	29,9

These figures give a clear indication that sorghum and maize are the most important fieldcrop products produced by most households. The level of household production of each crop is perceived from the average annual production tables below.

Table 7.7 Household Crop Production 1976

Production Particulars	Sample distribution per crop							
	Maize		Sorghum		Beans		Wheat	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Below 10 bags	112	93,3	95	93,1	54	90	20	76,9
10 - 30 bags	9	6,7	7	6,9	6	10	9	23,1
31 - 50 bags	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	121	100	102	100	60	100	29	100

Table 7.8 Household Crop Production 1977

Production Particulars	Sample distribution per crop							
	Maize		Sorghum		Beans		Wheat	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Below 10 bags	110	90,2	94	92,1	56	93,3	23	85,2
10 - 30 bags	11	9,8	8	7,9	4	6,7	5	11,1
31 - 50 bags	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	3,7
TOTAL	121	100	102	100	60	100	29	100

Table 7.9

Household Crop Production 1978

Production Particulars	Sample production per crop							
	Maize		Sorghum		Beans		Wheat	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Below 10 bags	102	86,4	88	91,7	54	90	23	85,2
10 - 30 bags	16	13,6	7	7,3	5	8,3	5	11,1
31 - 50 bags	-	-	1	1	1	1,7	1	3,7
TOTAL	118	100	96	100	60	100	29	100

The results in each of the above tables are presented in terms of average number of bags per household. Data in these tables reveal high percentages of households which produce less than 10 bags of each crop per year.

There are no significant increases in yields year after year even in the most commonly produced crops such as sorghum and maize.

The respondents cited several agricultural problems to which they ascribed their poor level of production. The following figures indicate respondent percentages per individual problem.

Table 7.10

Agricultural Problems

Problems	Sample Distribution	
	No	%
Lack of irrigation	158	78,6
Lack of fertilizers	147	76
Lack of mechanical implements	132	69,9
Poor soil	130	68,4
Pests	78	53,8

On the basis of quantitative findings expounded in this section it can be concluded that:

- (a) Most families in the rural areas of Lebowa are engaged in agricultural crop production. The low percentage of families who own livestock indicates that animal husbandry still plays an insignificant role in the economic activities of Lebowa.
- (b) Women are much more involved in important agricultural activities, being both responsible for carrying out the crop producing operations especially planting, weeding, harvesting, threshing and storing. The roles of women are somewhat influenced by the absence of men. In most households husbands work and stay away from home.

The effect of this is that these women often have to take the responsibility for all operations, not only those that are usually undertaken by women.

- (c) Technological innovations, training and extension services are reaching only a small proportion of people who are engaged in agriculture. Seeing that women are in the majority, they constitute a group that is mostly affected by this short-coming. Their activities continue to be tradition-bound because they receive little or no assistance from official sources.
- (d) Although in the case of married women land is normally assigned to the husband as the head of the household, this apparent lack of land-holding rights does not bar them from carrying out their agricultural responsibilities because they possess cultivation rights and are free to make independent decisions concerning their agricultural activities and products.
- (e) Agricultural productivity tends to be considerably low, partly due to lack of adequate agricultural training and extension services and partly due to the prevalent farming problems mentioned earlier. Plant production still seem to be susceptible to climatic changes which is an indication that farmers are not yet capable of exploiting modern farming methods.

- (f) Due to the women's poor production which is not commensurate with their labour input, there is a growing possibility that women may gradually retire from agricultural production. Thus the transformation of the rural areas will continue to lag behind its potential for development.

7.4.2 Rural Women in Marketing and Trade

Traditionally, other than agricultural duties, men as well as women also devoted part of their time to the production of a variety of goods for household use such as containers for food, cooking utensils, mats, hand-hoes and clothing for the family. From these early stages the importance of women in trade could be detected because very often they bartered produce in order to meet family needs which they could not provide for by self-production. The introduction of money as a fixed basis of exchange has greatly influenced this position. Some men and women began to specialize and produced for sale some of the goods hitherto produced for household use. Even surplus grain was sold for money. (107 pp. 144 - 145).

Although commercialization of agriculture and craftsmanship commenced during the early phases of the 19th century, it was minimal. Agricultural production remained mainly subsistence oriented and later the situation deteriorated because of serious over-cropping and over-grazing which drastically reduced production to even below subsistence level.

When specific development measures were introduced in all the National States during the 1960's through the 1970's, the basic strategy for economic development was to increase agricultural production so as to ensure regular marketing

and a provision of primary income. In 1976 Benbo reported that 84,4% of agricultural production in Lebowa was still subsistence oriented and that marketing was relatively low. This fact is confirmed by the production tables in the previous section which reflect such poor annual productions that chances of marketing are highly questionable.

Before determining the extent to which the above situation affects women, it was deemed necessary to ascertain the extent to which women's basic purpose in production might be influencing the level of their production, that is, whether women's basic aim is to produce for home consumption only, or for commercial purposes or for both.

From the results of this study it was discovered that the majority of women, 93,4% produce for home consumption only, while 6,6% produce for both home consumption and selling. None produce for commercial purposes only. It may be inferred from the above findings that women's traditional purpose of producing for home consumption has still not been changed. This confirms the fact that women were left out when cash-crop farming was introduced. The result is that only a few women, those who have a surplus, market their produce. In the next tables we see their annual marketed production for the 1976 - 1978 period.

Table 7.11Grain Marketing 1976

Quantity	Sample Distribution per Grain					
	Maize		Sorghum		Wheat	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Below 10 bags	15	88,2	24	92,3	9	75
10 - 30 bags	2	11,8	2	7,7	2	16,7
31 - 50 bags					1	8,3
51 - 70 bags						
TOTAL	17	100	26	100	12	100

Table 7.12Grain Marketing 1977

Quantity	Sample Distribution per Grain					
	Maize		Sorghum		Wheat	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Below 10 bags	16	84,2	24	88,9	8	80
10 - 30 bags	3	15,8	3	11,1	2	20
31 - 50 bags						
TOTAL	19	100	27	100	10	100

Table 7.13

Grain Marketing 1978

Quantity	Sample Distribution per Grain					
	Maize		Sorghum		Wheat	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Below 10 bags	13	56,5	23	88,5	9	81,8
10 - 30 bags	9	39,2	2	7,7	1	9,1
31 - 50 bags	1	4,3	1	3,8	1	9,1
51 - 70 bags						
TOTAL	23	100	26	100	11	100

Figures in the preceding tables indicate that in most cases a considerably small component of agricultural production was marketed. Although figures in the 1978 table indicate a decrease in producers who marketed below 10 bags of maize and an increase in those who produced between 10 and 30 bags, the marketed quantity still remained insignificant. It was not possible to ascertain the actual market value because 46,5% of them indicated that they sold to individuals at different prices while 53,5% sold through co-operatives. In the next table we observe some indication of the approximate annual amount obtained through sale of crops.

Table 7.14 Average Annual Income From Crops

Amount	Sample	Distrubution
	No	%
Below R10	5	11,9
R10 - R50	10	23,8
R51 - R100	15	35,7
R101 - R150	9	21,4
R151 - R200	2	4,8
R201 - R250	1	2,4
TOTAL	42	100

On the basis of all statistical information reflected in this section, it is evident that women's agricultural activities remain tradition bound and their labour is inferior and limited to domestic purposes.

The effect of this situation on women is that with the persistence of agriculture as the prominent occupation of women, failure to raise their level of production prevents them from entering the monetary sector of the economy through marketing. They therefore constitute the majority of those individual farmers whose production hardly reaches marketing channels. Finally, these women face the danger of being squeezed out by big commercial undertakings such as the Lebowa Agricultural Co. (Pty.) Limited.

7.4.3 Women in Home Industries

In non-agricultural economic activities, the same dislocation is observed. When economic development reached the stage where production of such items as cloth, household tools, and the like, moved out of the family dwelling to special workshops or factories, women tended to drop out because they could no longer combine this work with the tasks of caring for the household and the children. Lack of opportunities for vocational training and in-service-training for women further barred them from taking any significant part in industries.

There are however some women, 63,3% of the respondents, who reported that they still produce and sell some traditional household utensils such as clay-pots and grass-mats as a form of self-help occupation to augment their family income or as an unwilling option for a source of income. Even here women stand no chance against machine-made articles that are refined, attractive and produced in bulk. Women's individual trade in handicrafts is also on a very small scale as indicated by 85% of the respondents who mentioned that they raise between R10 - R30 per month. It is therefore clear that women in the rural areas of Lebowa compose a significant portion of petty traders.

The absence of women in rural business enterprises is the result of several factors related to educational status and their legal minority status among which lack of training and apprenticeship opportunities for acquiring needed skills, lack of capital necessary for undertaking self-owned enterprises and limited access to loan and credit facilities are the most

significant ones.

7.4.4 Rural Women in Wage-Employment

Mönnig (107 p. 182) mentions that from the onset, when the Pedi began to enter into the labour market, an extensive flow of migrant male labourers began to stream to the towns as wage-earners. Not many women were active as wage-earners because they could not leave their homes for long periods as men could do. A large proportion of younger women, however, were active as seasonal labourers on nearby European farms during harvesting.

In recent years according to Benbo report (24 p. 30), the strategy for economic development in Lebowa is to prevent migration from this area by curbing the existing unemployment in the rural areas. In order to do so, the Lebowa Government realized that employment opportunities that will absorb workers and transfer them out of the traditional agricultural sectors would have to be created yearly. At that time there was 42,7% yearly potential supply of migrant workers which indicated a great need for the provision of employment opportunities. The engagement of women in non-agricultural economic activities in the rural areas of Lebowa is very minimal. Excluding the professionally trained women such as teachers, nurses and typists who constitute only a small proportion of the female population in Lebowa, there is a shortage of employment alternatives in these areas. Where they are employed - though in decreasing numbers - it is principally in domestic service or as casual workers on private farms.

The results of this study show that 10,3% of the respondents are employed as domestic employees while 49,6% are employed as casual workers. Other

than the lack of employment facilities, other considerations which contribute to the low participation rates of rural women, especially those who are married include differences in social attitudes towards women working outside the home. Women are usually not expected to be engaged in employment away from home and as a result the commonly held belief is that the provision of family cash-income is the man's responsibility. This fact was confirmed by a large proportion of women, 66,3%, who mentioned that they were not expected to contribute towards family cash-income.

Although we observe the same dislocation of women in wage-earning as in agriculture and commerce, women show a remarkable persistence in the performance of their economic role even if it is in a less significant manner as compared to men.

Inevitably, where the husbands are absent from home due to the migratory labour system, these women are expected to budget for the family's needs with most likely an inadequate amount that their husbands send once per month. They well realize that in order to provide adequately for the family's nutritional, educational, medical and other needs, there should be two incomes.

Their cash contribution is however usually very insignificant. The results show that 16,4% of those women who are employed earn below R30 per month, 30,9% earn between R31 - R50, 3,6% earn between R51 - R70 while 1,8% earn above R90 per month.

It is evident therefore, that women in the rural areas of Lebowa constitute

a very small proportion of the total adult labour force engaged in permanent wage-employment. On the other hand the proportion of females engaged in casual wage-employment is much higher. The women's cash contribution is very low and insignificant as shown by a sharp decline in the higher income brackets of those who are employed.

There is therefore a great need for the creation of employment opportunities for women because, as already indicated, their agricultural production does not yield enough for marketing. The women themselves, 54,8% of the respondents, have indicated that they were not satisfied with their agricultural occupation and that they would rather be engaged in wage-employment.

It is mostly widows, divorcees and unmarried mothers who suffer because they do not have male wage-earners.

7.5 Women Participation in General Health Care, Family Planning and Social Welfare Services in the Rural Areas of Lebowa.

7.5.1 General Health Care and Family Planning Services.

7.5.1.1 Health

Without doubt health is one of the most important aspects of national development. Each family, however simple it may be, has its own way of promoting health and happiness, of preventing illness and treating diseases. Women as wives, mothers, grand-mothers and aunts play a key role in

determining the standard and level of family health. The areas in which women can make a particularly significant contribution include the following:

- (a) Environmental hygiene: Through their responsibilities women directly and indirectly influence the standard of health in their homes by taking decisions on certain health habits, cleanliness of the home and its surroundings, protection and conservation of food and water supply.
- (b) Nutrition: Women prepare food for children and other members of the family. In this connection mothers who are well-informed about health matters - mothers not fettered by ineffective and sometimes harmful traditional habits and taboos in child-rearing, child-feeding and related activities can play a vital role in the promotion of balanced diets for children and other members of the family.
- (c) Medical care: Through their responsibilities women provide elementary first-aid and home medical care by discouraging indiscriminate use of proprietary medicines and herbs.
- (d) Child care: Pre-natal and post-natal clinic attendance and proper utilization of child-welfare medical service by mothers promote the general welfare of their children.

Seeing that women play a predominant role in determining family and national health it is imperative that they have access to adequate advice and tuition in order to cause them to adopt new attitudes.

In Lebowa, the Ministry of Health and Welfare provides health and family planning services with the intention of promoting health, combating malnutrition, improving maternal and child health and slowing the rate of population growth. A comprehensive health plan places the emphasis on health rather than illness. It must be provided for individuals, families and communities. At primary level attempts are made to control epidemics, to control and improve health and to prevent illness and injuries. Clinics fulfil this important function at present. At the secondary level diagnosis and treatment of illnesses are made and here hospitals play an important role. The tertiary level involves the rehabilitation and support of patients while taking the environment into consideration. Although the respondents in this study mentioned that clinics are not available in each village, they are situated in such a manner that services are easily accessible to all. Health services that are provided at district clinics include treatment of minor ailments, ante-natal clinics, confinement facilities, post-natal clinics, immunization and health education.

The provision of health services such as those mentioned above which benefit women most, testifies to a recognition of the vital role that women can play in building manpower for development by promoting the general health of their children. All the respondents in this study mentioned that they make use of the available health services. This implies that correct advice and tuition in health matters are gradually spreading among people in the rural areas of Lebowa. However, great shortages in environmental health facilities such as clean water supply, proper latrine system and proper housing still affect rural families most. For example, because women usually travel long distances to obtain water, it is usually used for cooking and drinking purposes and

seldom for ablutions. Clothes are also seldom washed. Women as mothers and wives often have to deal with health problems such as skin diseases which result from uncleanliness. It may therefore be concluded that the health needs of the family and the individual are not yet completely satisfied and that this situation affects women most because of their roles in the family.

7.5.1.2 Family Planning Services

Closely associated with nutrition and the promotion of general health is the aspect of family planning which combats frequent unwanted pregnancies, induced abortions and their repercussions on health. Family planning should not only be seen as limiting births, but should also be seen as protecting the health of the mother and the child by combating debilitating morbidity in mothers and children and infant mortality through proper spacing of births. Not only does slower population growth allow a higher standard of living and greater welfare for all, but where children have been well spaced, they and their mothers enjoy better health and infant mortality rates are lower. Not only does a smaller family size improve health conditions, but it also helps to improve the status of women by freeing them to expand their opportunities for education and a wider choice of occupational and intellectual pursuits. Concerning family planning services in Lebowa, free advice and contraceptives are obtainable from hospitals and clinics. Although the results show a widespread knowledge, 94,9% among the respondents, acceptance rates are however still low. It was discovered that only 45% of the women practice family planning as against 55% who do not practice it at all.

It would seem that traditional outlooks still prevail and there exists a

need for family planning advice which emphasizes the link between fertility, infant mortality and economic factors such as the ability to feed, clothe, educate and provide proper medical services for the family. This is confirmed by the fact that 76,4% of the respondents mentioned that in their opinion family planning advice should include both husband and wife seeing that in their culture the man is the one who still exercises authority and therefore is the one who decides on the number of children that they should have. Further, traditionally a woman's status is based in a great measure on her success as a mother, measured by the number of children she has borne. A high percentage of women who still believe in this traditional measure of a woman's status implies that more often than not pressure on traditional outlooks from relatives can be so strong that even women with some education may give in to it. The women further mentioned that they cannot practice family planning secretly because they do not understand how the methods work and fear that contraceptives may make them permanently sterile and thus degrade them in the eyes of their husbands and relatives. This apparent persistence of traditional outlooks in this regard signifies a need to free women from traditional injustices even in matters which concern them more such as child-bearing, by disseminating information which emphasizes the link between health, fertility and economic status. Such information may help women to realize that this traditional measure of status can no longer apply under the present socio-economic conditions.

7.5.2 Social Welfare Services

Freeing people from enervating social problems is without doubt one of the objectives of community development. The provision of social welfare

services should therefore be regarded as one aspect of community development.

One view of social welfare services is that they are called in like first aid when social problems occur due to the system's failure or when other traditional means can no longer cope successfully. They entail services and institutions which provide solutions to the resultant problems. This is the remedial approach. Helping people to develop and to share in the improvement of their environment so that it meets their needs is another view of social welfare. This is the preventive aspect of social welfare.

Although the provision of adequate social welfare services for the solution of social problems may be seen as a sign of development, it is the latter view which stresses the development of people so that they cope more effectively with their problems which is particularly relevant in this study.

However, in the provision of social welfare services, the two approaches must be seen as complementary because, although the provision of adequate social welfare services may help to alleviate some of the individual or group problems, it often proves ineffective when it comes to problems that affect a large number of citizens and have reached serious proportions in which case the prevention of social problems would be more suitable. The remedial approach is often considered relevant to provide services for target groups with special social problems such as handicapped people, the aged, destitute children, broken families, etc. The preventive approach, on the other hand is considered to be a process with the goal of reaching most of the people in a given area. Its aim is to encourage people to define their

problems and to work towards their solutions with as much reliance on their own initiative as possible. Women in their roles as wives, mothers, friends and in so many other roles, have to support, to encourage and sometimes to protect their family members in and against all kinds of life's mishaps. They have to exercise wisdom, reasoning, understanding and loving at all times, always behaving in a responsible way, coping with and avoiding at all times things which may damage their family lives. Undoubtedly, women need to be well informed about and have access to the existing supportive social welfare services to which they can resort when experiencing short-comings in their natural resources. In as far as preventive social welfare services are concerned, women as a special group with special common needs can make potential contributions in preventing social problems by jointly working towards the improvement of their socio-economic conditions. For example, they may work together towards providing better nutrition, safe drinking water and in organising supportive means to improve their socio-economic conditions.

It is therefore important when providing social welfare services to take into account women's needs and the potential contribution that they can make in preventing social problems.

In Lebowa, the Ministry of Health and Welfare provides social welfare services through district social welfare offices. These services are usually conceived in terms of providing specific services such as child and family welfare services, rehabilitation, institutionalization and pensions for the handicapped and the aged and material assistance for the destitute.

Before determining the coverage of the available social welfare services and the extent to which the womens' special needs and contribution have been catered for, it was deemed necessary to examine the nature of the most common social problems in the rural areas of Lebowa.

Presented in table 7.15 below, and arranged in their order or prevalence are the findings in this respect:

Table 7.15 Common Social Problems in Lebowa 1979/80

Problems	Sample	Distrubtion
	No	%
Unemployment	300	100
Poverty	292	99,3
Malnutrition	220	88,5
Illiteracy	190	77,5
Infant Mortality	173	76,2

These problems affect women most because in the majority of cases, women who usually play the roles of mother and father due to the absence of the husband, depend entirely on the minimal cash provided by the husband's migratory employment. In most cases the money is not enough for the needs of the family and should the husband desert the family or neglect to send the money regularly, the woman's problems become aggravated to such an extent that she is unable to buy even the minimum necessities. The problem

is usually compounded by the fact that the woman, not being able to find local employment, cannot leave the family to go and seek employment elsewhere. As poverty sets in, survival of the family depends entirely on how the woman handles the family's meagre resources. Should she fail to devise effective means, the problems of malnutrition and infant mortality usually follow. High percentages reflected in table 7.15 clearly reveal the magnitude of these problems to the extent that the effectiveness of short-term remedial services is highly questionable.

In attempting to determine the extent to which the provision of social welfare services in Lebowa has grasped the realities of the situation by providing adequate relevant services, the assumption that more often than not women will know about the availability of these services if such services actually reach them was adopted as a starting point. They were therefore requested to name services that they know are available in their communities. Findings in this regard are presented in table 7.16 below.

Table 7.16 Available Social Welfare Services

Services for	Sample Distribution	
	No	%
The Aged	213	97,3
Cripple Care	135	73,8
Blind Care	114	65,5
Child and Family Welfare	50	36,2
Deaf and Dumb	49	33,6
Mental Health	40	29,8

Figures in the above table indicate a wide coverage of services which consist of material assistance in the form of social pensions and a very limited coverage of services such as child and family welfare which would benefit women most. Although such services do exist, the impression created by these findings is that they reach a very limited number of the masses of the women.

The preventive aspect of social welfare services offers ample professional alternative for social workers to make effective contributions by motivating and encouraging women to form new organizations, or by improving the viability of existing groups through which experts can reach and educate them in subjects of better living. Organized as dynamic and flexible instruments for promoting socio-economic development such organizations can effectively contribute towards the prevention of social problems. Findings in this study have revealed that although there are several established women's organizations in the rural areas of Lebowa, their role in the promotion of socio-economic development is very much limited. The majority of women, 98,5% of the respondents, belong to mutual aid groups, called burial societies. Group members make monthly contributions which are put into a fund for funeral expenses of members. On the day of the funeral group members also help to prepare food and drinks for the people. As they are, these societies may be described as static, restricted and not conducive to the promotion of socio-economic development. However, recognised as instruments for development, such groups may be utilized by social workers for making women more aware of themselves, their needs and their potentialities and qualities in meeting those needs, thereby expanding their effectiveness. The involvement of Lebowa social workers in the formation of women's groups or in the utilization of the readily available ones to help them become dynamic and flexible

is not clearly defined with the result that those social workers who get involved with such groups do so in a haphazard and fragmented manner and their involvement is not even documented in the official annual report.

The limited coverage reflected in the social welfare services clearly indicates that the majority of individual women who need social welfare services regarding their families, still live under such frustrating conditions that they are unable to give the necessary support, encouragement and protection that their children expect from them.

The fragmented involvement of social workers in community development also testifies to lack of effective contribution towards the prevention of social problems.

7.6 The Participation of Rural Women in Political Life

Participation in political life implies participation as voters, lobbyists, elected representatives, trade-unionists and public officials in the various branches of government including the judiciary. Although in some tribes women, particularly elders, assumed importance at public functions, traditionally African women were not active in public life. However, the struggle for independence mobilized women as well as men and they started to play a more active role in politics and community life.

Despite this mutual struggle even today, strong political participation is still the domain of men and only a small percentage of women are in leadership in various branches of government. According to Dr Haramsy of the

Arab Republic (42 p. 52) women's limited contribution to political leadership may be attributed to the recency of their entry into the political sphere of activities and their lack of "political maturity" and experience, their pre-occupation with domestic and family obligations which do not allow them the time nor the sustained effort needed to achieve a position of leadership in the highly competitive world of politics, and, above all, the cultural attitudes towards the role of women, which, in spite of the formal recognition of their political rights, still consider their place to be the home and their primary role to be wives and mothers. The impact of traditional upbringing on the women themselves makes them timid about assuming positions of leadership and makes them as reluctant as men to vote other women into responsible positions.

Women have to be deeply convinced of the importance of their political participation and of their ability to cope with political responsibilities if they are to contribute to any appreciable degree to the political leadership of a nation. Political education of women is of utmost importance so as not to reduce them to second class citizens. Further, educational and informational activities should be undertaken to also enlighten the public at large on the indispensable role of women in the political processes, and on the need to promote their greater political participation and leadership. Findings in this study have revealed that the traditional political position of women in Lebowa is undergoing gradual changes although the process is very slow.

According to 90,2% of the respondents, a woman can stand for election into parliament while 75% of them indicated that women have the right to vote

for members of parliament. A disturbing situation however still exists. A high percentage of the respondents, 91,8%, mentioned that a women cannot stand as a member of the chief's council and that normally women do not have the right to enter the chief's court unless on matters directly concerning them. This clearly indicates that while women participation in politics and in government is accepted at the national level, it is not so at the local government level. Although in several African countries women were successfully drawn into participation in community life through women's organizations, it seems that this is not the case in Lebowa as already indicated by the static nature of the existing women's organizations.

Despite the fact that numerically women constitute more than half the rural population of Lebowa, only a small percentage of them are in positions of leadership in the various branches of governemnt. Consequently women are not involved in the decision-making and their views and needs are often overlooked in planning for development. As already mentioned, many women also lack the education, training, civic awareness and self-confidence to participate effectively in political life. As the majority of women do not participate in the formulation of development plans and programmes, they are frequently unaware of their implications and less inclined to support their implementation and changes that the programmes seek to bring about.

7.7 Conclusion

The situation depicted by the findings of this study clearly indicates that in several significant aspects women's crucial role in the development process has generally been neglected and overlooked. There is therefore a need to probe and analyse this trend and the attitudes behind it. There is a parallel need for studies on both the micro and the macro levels on how to integrate women into the development process.

CHAPTER 8

SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study has been to highlight facts about the circumstances of women in the rural areas of Lebowa, especially their socio-economic needs and aspirations, and to provide data on their significance as a particularly valuable human resource for rural transformation and development because of their traditional socio-economic roles. Further, through this study it was intended to reveal that the prevailing socio-economic conditions in the rural areas of Lebowa are such that social workers in these regions need to be more development oriented than to emphasize remedial services if they hope to contribute to the amelioration of real social problems.

This dissertation is concluded by first summarizing salient facts revealed by this study in order to enable the reader to grasp the logic of the recommendations made thereafter.

8.2 Summary of Conclusions

8.2.1 From the official reports on the available socio-economic resources in Lebowa it is deduced that Lebowa has all the characteristics of underdevelopment. Economic conditions are poor, with the majority of the population in the rural areas still dependent on subsistence agricultural production. This study has revealed that rural production is so poor that

families cannot depend, even for home consumption, on what they produce annually. It has further been pointed out that women are the most hit by this poor production because they still constitute the group most responsible for agricultural crop production. The fact is that although the masses of women continue to spend more than half of their working hours on various economic activities, such as cultivation of land, weeding, harvesting, etc., their productivity is far from commensurate with their labour input. Their activities continue to remain tradition-bound because they lack the necessary training and agricultural mechanical implements.

8.2.2 In the rural areas of Lebowa, there are no sufficient alternative employment opportunities with the result most families depend on commuters or migrant labourers. Perhaps the prevailing conditions were clearly depicted by E. Letsoalo when she stated that ".....with the exception of betterment rural villages, the residents of all types of settlements in Lebowa have no planned sources of income. The available sources provide very low incomes for people. Less than 15% receive monthly incomes equivalent to the minimum monthly requirements. Indeed some people have no income whatsoever" (89 p.130). Data from this study has indicated that the percentage of female salaried workers in the rural areas of Lebowa is very insignificant. Only among women with secondary or higher education are there significant increases in salaried employment in such fields as teaching, nursing, clerical work etc. But as revealed in this study, semi-literacy and illiteracy among rural women are still widespread. The result is that it is a very small proportion of rural women who possess a background of formal education adequate enough to facilitate their full participation in wage employment. On the other hand the proportion of females engaged in casual wage employment has been much larger. Thus women tend to be concentrated in the lowest income groups.

8.2.3 When these facts are viewed in terms of their social implications one can only come to one disturbing conclusion, that there is mass poverty in Lebowa. With such slender resources the Lebowa Government cannot afford to provide all the necessary social services that ensure comprehensive social well-being. Adequate provision of constructive and creative social services in the fields of health, education, welfare and recreation is positively prohibitive at the current level of economic development. Thus need and deprivation are reflected in the people's way of life. The majority of needy rural populations live in conditions of appalling poverty and deprivation. Most rural communities have no safe drinking water, roads and sanitary services are poor and they live under poor housing conditions. Their standards of nutrition and health are poor and life expectancy is low. It is not surprising, therefore, to find that the occurrence of such socially deleterious problems as unemployment, malnutrition, illiteracy, poor health and physical conditions, etc., is considerably high in the rural areas of Lebowa. All these facts provide ample support for the former part (Government being more development oriented) of the first hypothesis of this study. (Par. 1.3(a) P. 4.)

Women in the rural areas of Lebowa are the most directly or indirectly affected by the occurrence of the abovementioned problems. This is so because, as already indicated in this study, due to the migratory labour system, the majority of men in the rural areas are absent from home for long periods. Women in these households have to provide for daily necessities for themselves and their children. It is often deserted women, widows and unmarried mothers who have no male bread-winner who must budget for the needs of the entire family with the minimum amount available.

8.2.4 Although the Lebowa Government has initiated some rural development programmes to improve the economic conditions of the people, development measures seem to be making no headway due to obstacles intrinsic in the

strategy itself. For example, as also pointed out by E. Letsoalo, (89, p. 130) commercial agriculture is on a very small scale. This is mainly done on agricultural projects which are undertaken by The Department of Agriculture and Forestry and also by the Agricultural Section of the Lebowa Development Corporation (L.D.C.).

The disturbing feature of this strategy is the minimal citizen participation in such projects. For example, although L.D.C. offers loans, this is based on certain requirements, such as a sound financial background, which the majority of the people cannot afford to satisfy and full legal capacity in order to enter into a contract which most women, because of their minority status, cannot satisfy.

The result is that even when such big enterprises report progress in their projects, the majority of the people still do not benefit from such progress. The majority of those who do benefit do so as unskilled labourers and seasonal workers and not as independent farmers.

On the other hand, the Department of Agriculture and Forestry is running some agricultural training centres where people are offered free training on modern agricultural methods. Such centres seem to be serving very little of the intended purpose. In the first place, as revealed in this study, very few people are aware of such centres, and secondly, those who manage to attend such training courses, fail to implement their acquired knowledge when they reach their homes because of such problems as poor rainfall and lack of irrigation schemes, poor soil, lack of fertilizers, mechanical implements and the money to acquire all that is needed.

8.2.5 Social work has always claimed to be committed to the remedy of poverty, need and deprivation. But from the haphazard and fragmented involvement of Lebowa social workers in development measures as revealed in this study, it is evident that in so far as the development of communities as a whole is concerned, the contribution of social work in Lebowa has probably been restricted to sporadic isolated efforts. In his study, M. Bopape made the following observation: "What is apparent is that the bulk of the cases are predominantly of a remedial nature.....only a very small number of cases fall under preventive services". (18 p. 61).

One significant fact in this respect is that statistical data reflecting the annual total number of cases that are handled by social workers in their offices indicate a low coverage of the available social welfare services. It is evident therefore, when taking into account the prevailing poor socio-economic conditions, that social workers in Lebowa are primarily concerned with providing limited casework services for the few when the masses remain suffering under serious conditions of need and deprivation. Here the significance of the latter part (the involvement of social workers in development) of the first hypothesis is proved. (Par 1.3(b) P. 4.)

8.2.6 Under the prevailing socio-economic conditions individual curative measures of social problems cannot be effective. What is needed is an overall development of the living conditions so as to ensure a basis for social well-being among the people. Information thus far expounded has revealed that effective development of the economy and social transformation of rural communities in Lebowa are dependent upon the women of these areas playing a significant part not only because they are the most affected by the prevailing social problems, but also because they constitute the most available human resource in the rural areas of Lebowa due to the migratory labour system. Many aspects of improved living such as nutrition, medical and child care

and environmental hygiene are dependent on women. Women usually have more contact with children than men do and it is their influence which can facilitate or hinder the children's healthy growth and development, thus determining the quality of future manpower. Thus, it is important to help women become better mothers and home-makers as well as to provide increasing educational and training facilities for them and to encourage their participation in community life. The retention of their traditional agricultural activities makes women the backbone of rural economy in Lebowa.

8.2.7 The apparent lag on the part of women with regard to their participation in national development may be attributed to the following factors:

- (a) The majority of women in the rural areas are legally minors by virtue of the nature of their marriage. As minors they cannot make independent serious decisions and they cannot enter into contracts without being aided by their husbands or any male relative. Their legal status is such that they are constantly subjected to unnecessary limitations, injustices and frustrations.
- (b) On community and public life level, women rarely occupy leadership positions with the result that they have limited influence on serious national decisions even those regarding matters of their concern.
- (c) Illiteracy and semi-literacy make rural women resistant to change because they are uninformed and ignorant. They are further unequipped to find satisfactory jobs and lack the necessary entrance qualifications to enrol for vocational

training. Lack of basic training in agriculture, their main economic activity, makes their work laborious, time-consuming and unscientific.

8.2.8 Finally, unlike their counterparts in other African countries whose traditional economic role in the modern sectors of agriculture, industry and commerce development measures are alleged to have been neglected, it was not possible in this study to ascribe the circumstances of rural women in Lebowa entirely to the neglect of their potential contribution to national development. Their circumstances may also be ascribed to the fact that no extensive rural development has been embarked upon in Lebowa. This study has however revealed that women are the most affected by the prevailing conditions and that, recognized and utilized as a target group, they can make significant contributions to progress and development in their communities. Thus, the second hypothesis of this study has also been verified and it is hoped that data presented here will serve to prevent the same neglect of women's roles as that experienced in other African countries.

8.3 Recommendations

Not expecting to exhaust the various aspects and angles of community development, suggestions made here, even when adopted, can only give direction to the working out of detailed strategies and techniques of community development which will be related to local realities in the rural areas of Lebowa.

8.3.1 Specific Government Involvement in Rural Community Development

Community development is concerned with a variety of practical activities as wide as the needs of the people. Indeed a community does not divide

its way of life into neat bureaucratic compartments in order to deal with their needs. The key word in community development organization therefore should be co-ordination. Although it is possible for a voluntary organization to undertake community development projects in a limited area, ultimately only the national Government can co-ordinate and control all the services which a community may need.

Further, some programmes may involve technical knowledge, professional skills or expertise and larger material and monetary resources which only the government can provide from central revenues.

Accordingly, if community development is to be taken seriously as a means of national development, it is best that the Lebowa Government establish a separate Government Department of Community Development as a token of its involvement in the organization, promotion and co-ordination of community development in Lebowa. Such a department would be responsible for the formulation of a development strategy and the determination of a budget for development projects.

8.3.2 The Need for Development Oriented type of Social Work in Lebowa

The nature of social welfare services should be based on the prevailing socio-economic conditions of Lebowa. Seeing that the greatest need is for the overall development of its people on a wide spectrum, with particular attention to economic development health matters, adult education and the use of leisure time, it is contended here that it is mainly through community work that social workers in Lebowa can make a more meaningful contribution to development.

In order to make this contribution social workers need to have representation in the above suggested Government Department of Community Development, so as to have a share in the formulation of the development policy.

At community level social workers need structures which will provide them daily and continued contact with members of the community. For example, M. Bopape (18 p.143) suggested the utilization of some tribal institutions and structures to do community work as one possibility. Social workers, in closer co-operation with other relevant professionals, can make use of existing community groups and organizations, or take the responsibility for the organization and development of such action groups through which community members may be assisted to recognize their needs and potentialities and be motivated to work towards their satisfaction. Action groups may be multi-functional or be organized for each of the major needs identified in a community. Such action groups should be actively involved in definite development projects.

If Lebowa regards this type of social work as worth trying, there will be a need for re-modelling and co-ordinating two types of social work, namely, the individualized work as comprised in casework and the developmental social work comprised in community work and community development. Social workers doing community work should operate under the Department of Community Development.

8.3.3 National Machinery for the Integration of Women in Rural Development in Lebowa

The significant role that women can play in rural development in Lebowa needs

to be officially recognized and articulated in the Government's development measures. Government acceptance means, among others, provision for funds and staff. Accordingly, if the Lebowa Government creates a department of Community Development there should be a special section concerned specifically with the integration of rural women in the development process.

Such a section would be responsible for the following:

- (a) Assisting the Government in formulating policies which guide planning in relation to the needs of rural women and help in the development of human resources.
- (b) Co-ordinating the activities relevant to women of various bodies, governmental and non-governmental.
- (c) Monitoring the implementation of national plans and programmes for the advancement of women and their integration in development.

8.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, it must be mentioned that the suggestions made here should not be regarded as final nor as being all inclusive and exhaustive. It can only be hoped that the ideas expressed will stimulate thought and subsequent action.

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APPENDIXINTERVIEWING SCHEDULECONFIDENTIAL

To be answered by the female spouse.

Make an X in the relevant column.

Areas to be covered: Mathabatha
Dikgale

DATE: _____

1	
2	

1. PERSONAL AND HOUSEHOLD/FAMILY PARTICULARS

1.1 MARITAL STATUS

Married

Unmarried

Widow

Separated

Divorced

Other/Specify

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

1.2 NATURE OF MARRIAGE

Civil/Christian Rites

Customary Union

Other - Specify

1	
2	
3	

1.3 IF CUSTOMARY UNION NUMBER OF SPOUSE

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

1.4 AGEHUSBAND

Age unknown

20 - 29 years

30 - 39 years

40 - 49 years

50 - 59 years

60 and above

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

WIFE

Age unknown

20 - 29 years

30 - 39 years

40 - 49 years

50 - 59 years

60 and above

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

1.5 NUMBER OF OWN CHILDREN UNDER YOUR CARE

BOYS

0	1	2	3	4	5	6+

GIRLS

0	1	2	3	4	5	6+

1.6 NUMBER OF CHILDREN OTHER THAN YOURS UNDER YOUR CARE

BOYS

0	1	2	3	4	5	6+

GIRLS

0	1	2	3	4	5	6+

1.7 HOW MANY OF THE BOYS UNDER YOUR CARE ARE:LESS THAN
1 YEAR?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6+

BETWEEN 1-5
YEARS?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6+

BETWEEN 6-10
YEARS?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6+

BETWEEN 11-15
YEARS?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6+

16 YEARS AND
ABOVE?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6+

1.8 HOW MANY GIRLS UNDER CARE CARE ARE:LESS THAN
1 YEAR?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6+

BETWEEN 1-5
YEARS?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6+

BETWEEN 6-10
YEARS?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6+

BETWEEN 11-15
YEARS?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6+

16 YEARS AND
ABOVE?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6+

1.9 HOW MANY OTHER ADULTS ARE STAYING WITH YOU?

MEN

0	1	2	3	4	5+

WOMEN

0	1	2	3	4	5+

1.10 AGE OF ADULTS STAYING WITH YOU

MEN

Age unknown
 20 - 29
 30 - 39
 40 - 49
 50 - 59
 60 and above

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

WOMEN

Age unknown
 20 - 29
 30 - 39
 40 - 49
 50 - 59
 60 and above

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

2. RELIGIOUS AFFILIATION

Anglican Church
 Lutheran Church
 Methodist Church
 Roman Catholic Church
 Presbyterian Church
 Other - specify
 None

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	

3. RESIDENTIAL DATA3.1 FOR HOW MANY YEARS HAS YOUR FAMILY BEEN STAYING IN THIS COMMUNITY?

Below 1 year
 1 - 5 years
 6 - 10 years
 11 - 15 years
 16 - 20 years
 21 years and above

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

3.2 DOES YOUR HUSBAND LIVE WITH YOU?

YES	NO

3.3 IF NO, DOES HE LIVE AWAY?

In another area of Lebowa?

In any of the towns/cities of the RSA?

Outside the RSA?

Other - specify?

1	
2	
3	
4	

3.4 IF HUSBAND IS AWAY HOW OFTEN DOES HE VISIT THE FAMILY?

Never

Less than 1 week per year

Between 1-4 weeks per year

Between 5-8 weeks per year

9 weeks and above

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

4. EDUCATIONAL STATUS4.1 HUSBAND

Uneducated

Primary education

Secondary

Matric

University

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

4.2 IF UNEDUCATED STATE REASON WHY

Lack of educational facilities

Parental indifference towards education

Financial difficulties

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	

4.3 IF LEFT SCHOOL AT PRIMARY LEVELSTATE REASON WHY

Lack of facilities for further education

Parental indifference towards education

Financial difficulties

Lack of progress

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

4.4 WIFE

Uneducated

Primary education

Secondary

Matric

University

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

4.5 IF UNEDUCATED STATE REASON WHY

Lack of educational facilities

Parental indifference towards education

Financial difficulties

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	

4.6 IF LEFT SCHOOL AT PRIMARY LEVELSTATE REASON WHY

Lack of facilities for further education

Parental indifference towards education

Financial difficulties

Lack of progress

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

4.7 CHILDREN (OWN AND OTHER IN YOUR CARE)

4.7.1 NUMBER OF CHILDREN AT PRESENT
ATTENDING SCHOOL

BOYS	0	1	2	3	4	5	6+

GIRLS	0	1	2	3	4	5	6+

4.7.2 NUMBER OF CHILDREN OF SCHOOL GOING
AGE PRESENTLY NOT IN SCHOOL

BOYS	0	1	2	3	4	5	6+

GIRLS	0	1	2	3	4	5	6+

4.7.3 IF ANY STATE REASON WHY

Lack of educational facilities

Parental indifference towards education

Financial difficulties

Lack of progress

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

4.8 OF THE TWO SEXES WHO DO YOU THINK
EDUCATION IS MORE IMPORTANT TO?

FEMALE	MALE

4.9 ARE THERE EQUAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES FOR
MALES AND FEMALES IN YOUR COMMUNITY?

YES	NO

4.10 ARE YOU IN FAVOUR OF ADULT EDUCATION?

YES	NO

4.11 IF YES:

For men only?

For women only?

For both?

1	
2	
3	

4.12 ARE THERE FACILITIES FOR ADULT EDUCATION
IN YOUR COMMUNITY?

YES	NO

4.13 WHO DO YOU THINK SHOULD BE RESPONSIBLE
FOR THE PROVISION OF EDUCATION FACILITIES?

The Community

The Chief

The Church

The Government

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

4.14 WOULD YOU ENROL FOR ADULT EDUCATION
IF NECESSARY?

YES	NO

4.15 WOULD YOU HAVE TO OBTAIN YOUR HUSBAND'S
PERMISSION BEFORE ENROLLING FOR ADULT
EDUCATION?

YES	NO

5. ECONOMIC ASPECTS5.1 CASH INCOME5.1.1 WHAT IS THE SOURCE OF YOUR FAMILY CASH INCOME?

Husband's local employment

Wife's local employment

Husband's employment away from home

Selling agricultural products

Selling livestock

Business

Pension

Other (specify)

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	

5.1.2 ARE YOU EXPECTED TO CONTRIBUTE TOWARDS FAMILY CASH INCOME?

YES	NO
1	2

5.1.3 IF YES IN WHAT WAY?

Employment

Producing and selling agricultural products

Producing and selling handicrafts

Other (specify)

1	
2	
3	
4	

5.1.4 DO YOU CONTRIBUTE TOWARDS FAMILY CASH INCOME?

YES	NO

5.1.5 IF YES, IN WHAT WAY?

Earning wages

Selling agricultural products

Selling handicrafts

Other (specify)

1	
2	
3	
4	

5.1.6 WHAT IS YOUR FAMILY CASH INCOME PER MONTH?

Husband's contribution	None	Below R30	R31-R50	R50-R70	R71-R90	R91 and above
	1	2	3	4	5	6

Wife's contribution	None	Below R30	R31-R50	R50-R70	R71-R90	R91 and above
	1	2	3	4	5	6

Other contributions (specify)	None	Below R30	R31-R50	R50-R70	R71-R90	R91 and above
	1	2	3	4	5	6

5.2 AGRICULTURE5.2.1 AGRICULTURAL FIELD CROP PRODUCTION5.2.1.1 IS YOUR FAMILY ENGAGED IN AGRICULTURE?

Yes	No
1	2

5.2.2.2 IF YES TO WHAT EXTENT?

Producing to sell	Producing for household	Both	Other (specify)
1	2	3	4

5.2.1.3 WHO IN YOUR FAMILY IS ENGAGED IN AGRICULTURE?

Husband	Wife	Both	Parent(s) and children
1	2	3	4

5.2.1.4 WHAT IMPLEMENTS DOES YOUR HOUSEHOLD USE FOR AGRICULTURE?

Tractor and plough

1

Plough and animals

2

Hoe (iron) and hands

3

Hoe (wooden) and hands

4

Other (specify)

5

5.2.1.5 IS THE AREA IN WHICH YOU ARE LIVING A?

Trust land

1

Someone's private farm

2

Own private farm

3

Communal land

4

Other (specify)

5

5.2.1.6 HOW LARGE IS THE HOUSEHOLD LAND?

Standard size (1 mg)

1

Specific size (more than 1 mg)

2

Other - specify

3

5.2.1.7 IS YOUR CHIEF INVOLVED IN THE AGRICULTURAL ACTIVITIES OF YOUR COMMUNITY?

Yes

No

1

2

5.2.1.8 IF YES, IN WHAT WAY?

Allocates arable land
 Decides when to plough
 Advises on agricultural problems
 Provides agricultural implements
 Decides when to sell
 Other (specify)

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

5.2.1.9 WHAT CROPS DO YOU GROW?

Maize
 Corn
 Beans
 Wheat
 Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

5.2.1.10 HOW MANY BAGS OF CROPS DID YOU PRODUCE DURING THE LAST THREE YEARS?

1976
 Below 10 bags
 10-30 "
 31-50 "
 51-70 "
 71-90 "
 91 and above

	MAIZE	CORN	BEANS	WHEAT	OTHER
1	1	1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4	4	4
5	5	5	5	5	5
6	6	6	6	6	6

1977		MAIZE	CORN	BEANS	WHEAT	OTHER
Below 10 bags	1		1		1	
10-30 "	2		2		2	
31-50 "	3		3		3	
51-70 "	4		4		4	
71-90 "	5		5		5	
91 & above	6		6		6	

1978		MAIZE	CORN	BEANS	WHEAT	OTHER
Below 10 bags	1		1		1	
10-30 "	2		2		2	
31-50 "	3		3		3	
51-70 "	4		4		4	
71-90 "	5		5		5	
91 and above	6		6		6	

5.2.1.11 DO YOU SELL SOME OF YOUR CROPS?

Yes	No

5.2.1.12 HOW MANY BAGS OF CROPS DID YOU SELL DURING THE LAST THREE YEARS?

1976		MAIZE	CORN	BEANS	WHEAT	OTHER
Below 10 bags	1		1		1	
10-30 "	2		2		2	
31-50 "	3		3		3	
51-70 "	4		4		4	
71-90 "	5		5		5	
91 and above	6		6		6	

1978	MAIZE	CORN	BEANS	WHEAT	OTHER
Below 10 bags	1	1	1	1	1
10- 30 "	2	2	2	2	2
31-50 "	3	3	3	3	3
51-70 "	4	4	4	4	4
71-90 "	5	5	5	5	5
91 and above	6	6	6	6	6

5.2.1.13 WHAT IS THE APPROXIMATE ANNUAL AMOUNT
MADE OUT OF SALE OF CROPS?

Below R10

R10 - R50

R51 - R100

R101 - R150

R151 - R200

R201 - R250 and above

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

5.2.1.14 WHERE DO YOU SELL YOUR CROPS?

Co-operative

Individuals

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	

5.2.2 ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

5.2.2.1 DOES THE FAMILY OWN ANY LIVESTOCK?

Yes	No

5.2.2.2 IF YES, WHO OWNS THE FAMILY LIVESTOCK?

Husband	Wife

5.2.2.3 WHAT LIVESTOCK DOES THE FAMILY OWN?

Cattle

Sheep

Goats

Donkeys

Poultry

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

5.2.2.4 HAS THE FAMILY BEEN GRANTED GRAZING LAND?

Yes	No

5.2.2.5 IF NO, WHERE DO THE LIVESTOCK GRAZE?

Yes	No

5.2.2.6 DO YOU SELL YOUR LIVESTOCK?

Yes	No

5.2.2.7 IF YES, HOW MANY OF YOUR LIVESTOCK DID YOU SELL DURING THE LAST THREE YEARS?

1976	CATTLE	SHEEP	GOATS	DONKEYS	POULTRY	OTHER
Below 10	1	1	1	1	1	1
10 - 30	2	2	2	2	2	2
31 - 50	3	3	3	3	3	3
51 - 70	4	4	4	4	4	4
71 - 90	5	5	5	5	5	5
91 & above	6	6	6	6	6	6

1977	CATTLE	SHEEP	GOATS	DONKEYS	POULTRY	OTHER
Below 10	1	1	1	1	1	1
10 - 30	2	2	2	2	2	2
31 - 50	3	3	3	3	3	3
51 - 70	4	4	4	4	4	4
71 - 90	5	5	5	5	5	5
91 & above	6	6	6	6	6	6

1978	CATTLE	SHEEP	GOATS	DONKEYS	POULTRY	OTHER
Below 10	1	1	1	1	1	1
10 - 30	2	2	2	2	2	2
31 - 50	3	3	3	3	3	3
51 - 70	4	4	4	4	4	4
71 - 90	5	5	5	5	5	5
91 & above	6	6	6	6	6	6

5.2.2.8 WHAT IS THE APPROXIMATE AMOUNT MADE ANNUALLY OUT OF SALE OF STOCK?

Below R10

R10 - R50

R51 - R100

R101 - R150

R151 - R200

R201 - R250

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

5.2.2.9 WHERE DO YOU SELL YOUR LIVESTOCK?

Co-operative

Auction

Individuals

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	

5.3 HAVE YOU HAD ANY TRAINING IN AGRICULTURE?

Yes	No

5.4 IF NO STATE REASON WHY

Lack of facilities for training

Not interested

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	

5.5 IS THERE ANY AGRICULTURAL OFFICER FOR CONSULTATION IN YOUR AREA?

Yes	No

5.6 IF YES HAVE YOU CONSULTED THE OFFICER WITH YOUR AGRICULTURAL PROBLEMS?

Yes	No

5.7 IF NO WHO DO YOU DISCUSS YOUR AGRICULTURAL PROBLEMS WITH?

Nobody

Friends

Chief

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	

5.8 IF THERE IS AN AGRICULTURAL OFFICER BUT YOU HAVE NEVER CONSULTED HIM STATE REASON WHY

Not easily available

Not accepted in your community

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	

5.9 WHAT ARE YOU AGRICULTURAL PROBLEMS?

Irrigation

Poor soil

Pests

Lack of mechanical implements

Sickness of livestock

Lack of fertilizers

No grazing land

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	

5.10 IF YOU ARE ENGAGED IN AGRICULTURE ARE YOU SATISFIED WITH YOUR OCCUPATION?

Yes	No

5.11 IF NO, WHAT OTHER OCCUPATION WOULD RATHER DO?

Business

Domestic employee

Industrial occupation

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	

6. ROLE STRUCTURE WITHIN THE FAMILY :
WHICH ROLES ARE REGARDED AS SUITABLE FOR THE HUSBAND AND FOR THE WIFE IN THE FAMILY6.1 AUTHORITYMaintenance of order and discipline
Head of family

Control over household property

Important decisions concerning family

	Husband	Wife	Both
1			
2			
3			
4			

6.2 CARE AND UPBRINGING OF CHILDREN

	Husband	Wife	Both
Responsibility for washing, feeding and caring for children	1		
Responsibility for children's elementary education	2		
Provision for food, clothing, medical care and accommodation	3		
Chastisement of children	4		

6.3 ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES

Provision for family income	1		
Decision for family expenditure	2		
Provision for arable land	3		
Provision for livestock	4		
Cultivation of land	5		
Weeding	6		
Threshing and storage of crops	7		
Sale of crops	8		
Herding of livestock	9		
Sale of livestock	10		

6.4 HOUSEHOLD DUTIES

Cleaning the house	1		
Washing and ironing family clothing	2		
Fetching water	3		
Collecting wood	4		
Preparation of food	5		
Shopping household necessities	6		
Caring for the sick in the family	7		

6.5 IF YOUR FAMILY IS ENGAGED IN AGRICULTUREWHO DECIDES ON:

	Husband	Wife	Both
Time when to sow?	1		
Place where to plant?	2		
Types of crops?	3		
When to harvest?	4		
How much for food?	5		
How much to sell?	6		
What livestock to sell?	7		
Where to sell livestock?	8		
Price for livestock sale?	9		
When to buy livestock?	10		

6.6 WHO DECIDES HOW MUCH MONEY SHOULD BESET ASIDE FOR:

	Husband	Wife	Both
Saving	1		
Clothes	2		
Food	3		
School fees	4		
Medical fees	5		
Furniture	6		
Household utensils	7		
Agriculture	8		

6.7 IN CASE YOUR HUSBAND IS WORKING AND STAYING AWAY FROM HOME, WHO DO YOU CONSULT ON SERIOUS MATTERS CONCERNING:

Money (e.g. buying or selling livestock, buying furniture, etc.)

Decide alone	Consult parents	Consult male relative	Write to him	Wait until he comes	Other (specify)
1	2	3	4	5	6

Children (e.g. children's marriage, education, etc.)

Decide alone	Consult parents	Consult male relative	Write to him	Wait until he comes	Other (specify)
1	2	3	4	5	6

Any other problem (specify)

Decide alone	Consult parents	Consult male relative	Write to him	Wait until he comes	Other (specify)
1	2	3	4	5	6

7. HEALTH AND SOCIAL WELFARE ASPECTS

7.1 HEALTH SERVICES

7.1.1 ARE THERE HEALTH SERVICES IN YOUR COMMUNITY?

Yes	No

7.1.2 IF YES, WHO PROVIDES HEALTH SERVICES IN YOUR COMMUNITY?

Government

Church

Private doctor

Chief

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

7.1.3 WHAT FORMS OF HEALTH SERVICES ARE AVAILABLE IN YOUR COMMUNITY?

Treatment of minor ailments

Treatment of major ailments

Ante-natal clinic

Confinement facilities

Post-natal clinic

Immunization

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	

7.1.4 ARE HEALTH SERVICES WITHIN YOUR EASY REACH?

Yes	No

7.1.5 IF NO, IS THERE A REGULAR TRANSPORT BETWEEN YOUR HOME AND WHERE HEALTH SERVICES ARE AVAILABLE?

Yes	No

7.1.6. DO YOU AND YOUR FAMILY USE THE AVAILABLE HEALTH SERVICES?

Yes	No

7.1.7. IF NO STATE REASON WHY

Not easily reached

Against tradition

Against religion

Financial difficulties

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

7.1.8 DO YOU KNOW ABOUT FAMILY PLANNING?

Yes	No

7.1.9 IF YES, DO YOU PRACTICE FAMILY PLANNING?

Yes	No

7.1.10 IF YES, STATE REASONS WHY

Economic reasons

Health reasons

Limit number of children

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	

7.1.11 IF NO TO QUESTION 9, STATE REASON WHY

Against my culture

Against my religion

Husband not in favour

Health reasons

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

7.1.12 SHOULD FAMILY PLANNING ADVICE INCLUDE HUSBAND AND WIFE?

Yes	No

7.1.13 IF YES STATE REASON WHY

So that he must give permission

Maintain harmonious relationship

No secrets between husband and wife

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	

7.1.14 IF NO STATE REASON WHY

Woman's concern alone

Maintain harmonious relationship

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	

7.1.15 IS YOUR HUSBAND IN FAVOUR OF FAMILY PLANNING?

Yes	No

7.1.16 IF YOUR HUSBAND IS NOT IN FAVOUR WOULD YOU PRACTICE IT IN SECRET?

Yes	No

7.1.17 WHERE DO YOU GO FOR YOUR FAMILY PLANNING ADVICE?

Local clinic

Hospital

Private doctor

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	

7.2 WELFARE SERVICES7.2.1 DO YOU KNOW ABOUT WELFARE WORK?

Yes	No

IF YES,

7.2.2 WHICH WELFARE SERVICES ARE AVAILABLE IN YOUR COMMUNITY?

None

Child and family welfare

Cripple care

Blind care

Deaf and dumb

Care for the aged

Mental health care

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	

7.2.3 WHO PROVIDES YOUR WELFARE SERVICES?

Church

Government

Private welfare organization

Chief

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

7.2.4 ARE THE AVAILABLE SERVICES WITHIN YOUR REACH?

Yes	No

7.2.5 IF NO, IS THERE TRANSPORT BETWEEN YOUR HOME AND WHERE WELFARE SERVICES ARE OBTAINED?

Yes	No

7.2.6 WOULD YOU ENROL FOR WELFARE SERVICES IF IT WERE CONVENIENT FOR YOU?

Yes	No

7.2.7 NAME FIVE SOCIAL PROBLEMS COMMON IN YOUR COMMUNITY

Unemployment

Poverty

Infant mortality

Malnutrition

Illiteracy

Illegitimate children

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	

7.2.8 OF THE TWO SOLUTIONS WHICH DO YOU THINK WOULD BE MORE SUITABLE IN SOLVING THE ABOVEMENTIONED PROBLEMS?

Individual treatment

Community development

1	
2	

7.2.9 ARE THERE WOMEN'S ORGANIZATIONS IN YOUR COMMUNITY?

Yes	No

7.2.10 IF YES, WHAT TYPES OF ORGANIZATIONS?

Burial Society

Homemakers' Club

Cultural Organization

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	

7.2.11 DO YOU BELONG TO ANY WOMEN'S ORGANIZATION?

Yes	No

7.2.12 IF YES, WHICH?

Burial Society

Homemakers' Club

Cultural Organization

Others - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	

7.2.13 IS YOUR ORGANIZATION CONCERNED WITH

Individual members' needs

Community needs

1	
2	

7.2.14 IF COMMUNITY NEEDS SPECIFY WHICH:

Health needs

Educational needs

Occupational needs

Child welfare needs

Other - specify

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

8. GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS8.1 CAN WOMEN STAND AS MEMBERS OF THE CHIEF'S COUNCIL?

Yes	No

8.2 DO WOMEN HAVE THE RIGHT TO ENTER THE CHIEF'S COURT?

Yes	No

8.3 DO WOMEN IN YOUR AREA CONTRIBUTE TO COMMUNITY AFFAIRS IN GENERAL?

Yes	No

8.4 DO WOMEN HAVE THE RIGHT TO VOTE FOR MEMBERS OF PARLIAMENT?

Yes	No

8.5 CAN A WOMAN STAND FOR ELECTION INTO PARLIAMENT?

Yes	No