

**SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICES RENDERED TO STREET CHILDREN IN
PRETORIA: PERSPECTIVES OF SERVICE PROVIDERS**

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DECLARATION

I, Rebecca M Skhosana, Student Number: 34077154 declare that the document **SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICES RENDERED TO STREET CHILDREN IN PRETORIA: PERSPECTIVE OF SERVICE PROVIDERS** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

RM Skhosana

SIGNATURE

DATE

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What a journey! It was mountainous, slippery and smooth at times but it was worth it. Reflecting back, I would like to shout many thanks to my Lord God Almighty and Saviour for His undivided love, care, forgiveness and most of all the encouragement and perseverance that He bestowed on me. He was always there for me against all odds no matter how many times I was tempted to give up. Amen!

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ABSTRACT

A qualitative study was undertaken to develop an understanding of the social welfare services rendered to street children and to ascertain how these social welfare services can be enhanced from the perspective of service providers employed by NGOs in Pretoria. An explorative, descriptive and contextual research design was utilised. The researcher used purposive and non-probability sampling methods to draw the sample. Semi-structured interviews were used to collect information from nine service providers working with street children. Data were analysed according to the framework provided by Tesch (in Creswell, 2009). Data was verified using Guba's model (in Krefting, 1991). The study highlights challenges faced by NGOs in providing social welfare services to street children. The study provides a critical analysis of some of the key social welfare service challenges that need to be addressed to ensure effective and sustainable delivery of social welfare services.

KEY CONCEPTS

Social welfare services, NGOs, service providers, street children, factors, prevention, early intervention, residential care, reunification, alternative care.

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ADB	Asian Development Bank
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
CBO	Community-based Organisation
CBD	Central Business District
CDW	Community Development Worker
CSC	Consortium for Street Children
DoJD	Department of Justice and Constitutional Development
DoE	Department of Education
DoH	Department of Health
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
DSD	Department of Social Development
FBO	Faith-Based Organisation
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HRW	Human Rights Watch
ISDM	Integrated Service Delivery Model
JASC	Johannesburg Alliance for Street Children
NACOSS	National Coalition of Social Services
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NPO	Non-Profit Organisation
SA	South Africa
TASC	Tshwane Alliance for Street Children
UN	United Nations
UNAID	United States Agency for International Development
UNCRC	[United Nation] Convention on the Rights of Children
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
UNISA	University of South Africa
USAID	United States Agency for International Development

CHAPTER 1

GENERAL OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a general overview of the study which guided the research process. A qualitative research method was used for the purpose of the study in order to answer the research question and to attain the goals and objectives of the study. The background and the rationale for the study focusing on social welfare services rendered to street children in Pretoria will be discussed in this chapter and particularly the goals and objectives of the research. Finally a brief outline of the research methodology, data analysis and chapter outline will be discussed.

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

According to Dybicz (2005) and Panther-Brick (2003), the street children phenomenon is alarming and escalating worldwide. Wargan and Dreshem (2009) as well as Motala and Smith (2003) identify the most commonly used two-dimensional definitions which focus on places where the children spend most of their time and on the intensity of their contacts with the family. According to the researchers street children are often grouped into “children of the street” (or children living on the streets full time, and having little to no contact with their families) and “children on the street” (those who spend most of their day time on the streets but return home at night).

Burr (2006) and the Asian Development Bank (ADB) (2003a) are of the view that the term “street children” creates a dilemma because it is an umbrella term that is subdivided in different ways by different authorities, policies and literature in attempts to distinguish between different types of street children. Feeny and Boyden (2003) stress that in the past decade it has been recognised that the labelling and categorisation of children into specific groups of street children like “trafficked children” and “orphans”, led to programming that focused mainly on the most visible

and socially notorious groups of children, while neglecting the rights and violations experienced by their often equally vulnerable peers, such as child domestic and agricultural workers, children living in absolute poverty, or those experiencing neglect and abuse within their families and communities.

According to United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) (2009); Staker (2005) and Ennew (2005), children are often forced out of their homes because of poverty, socio-economic crises, a dysfunctional family environment that includes high levels of conflict; physical, emotional, or sexual abuse and substance abuse. With no secure access to food, shelter, or other means to meet their basic needs, they are exploited by adults, including law enforcement personnel, who use them for illegal activities to the detriment of their health and welfare and in violation of their basic human rights. Sloth-Nielsen (2004) found that children are frequently orphaned or left without care givers on account of Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS), the migration of parents, abandonment, disputes and civil wars.

Little accurate information exists about the numbers of street children. It is debatable whether numbers of street children are growing globally or whether it is the awareness of street children within societies which has grown. Beazley (2011); Volpi (2003) and Asian Development Bank (2003a) allege that estimates by government, NGOs and researchers vary widely. The researchers reveal that the welfare agencies found it difficult to have official statistics on the number of street children because it is impossible to keep track of street children's records due to the fact that many do not have identity documents or birth certificates, so officially they do not exist. In addition Beazley (2011) as well as Ward and Seager (2010) verify that street children are difficult to count since they are highly mobile and they do not have a stable place in which to stay.

The Department of Social Development (2010a) and Dybicz (2005) classify social welfare services in terms of the level of intervention and include protection, prevention, early intervention, reunification and alternative care. Streak and Poggenpoel (2005) as well as the Department of Social Development (2009e)

describe social welfare services as services that traditionally form part of social development and include, to name only a few examples, interventions where children are victims of or at risk of abuse, neglect or exploitation, the running of children's homes, the provision of early childhood development, adoption services, services to provide assistance to street children, foster care placement and care for children affected by HIV and AIDS, the most vulnerable children in our society.

Meintjies and Hall (2011) maintain that the most prominent problem that the street children experience arises from the policy-makers, policy implementers and the child's lack of identity. There is an increasing number of street children orphans but there is no coherent strategy for dealing with this problem or the strategy that is used is not benefiting the street children. The protection of children's well-being requires sufficient resources and internal capacity for, among other actions, strategic planning, policy development and execution, programme implementation, as well as monitoring and evaluation as stipulated by UNICEF (2004). With little support from the government, the service providers have to raise the bulk of their funding from outside of government. Volpi (2002) underlines this by indicating that donors' funding to street children activities is needed not only to sustain and expand existing social welfare services, but also to assist NGOs in the monitoring and evaluation of their interventions, and to allow them to train staff and continuously increase their professionalism.

The rationale for the research will be discussed in the next section.

1.2 RATIONALE FOR THE RESEARCH

Through the researcher's exposure to the Bright Site Project of Sunnyside as a counsellor and supervisor she became involved with street children. The Bright Site Project is a strategic project that was developed in October 2008 under the auspices of the Department of Social Work at the University of South Africa (UNISA). The rationale for establishing the Bright Site Project was to create a service-learning context for UNISA student social workers, and for the benefit of the communities through community engagement (Department of Social Work - Unisa, 2008:11).

Furthermore during the researcher's collaborative consultation with the stakeholders and the community of Sunnyside it came to the attention of the researcher that there is a huge problem with street children in Pretoria and in particular in Sunnyside. During her involvement, the researcher noticed children roaming the streets in search of food and begging on the street corners around Pretoria and saw the difficulties the children experience.

The street children's courage and determination to leave their homes due to their different circumstances has always left the researcher with much curiosity. This urged the researcher to explore the social welfare services rendered by the service providers since much research has been conducted on general factors causing children to live on and off the streets and has examined the risks of street life to healthy development, but very little has focused on the social welfare services rendered to street children by the service providers (Loffel, 2008; Barnet, 2004 & Panther-Brick, 2003).

Dybicz (2005) and Panther-Brick (2003) indicate that the lifestyle of street children, their health and development have been studied but there is little research related to the services that are rendered for street children. The Department of Social Development (2006b) and the Department of Social Development (2009a) emphasise that what is required is a more sophisticated understanding of children's departure from the streets and long-term career outcomes, rather than the habitual focus of attention on the causes of their arrival or existence on the streets.

Patel, Hochfeld, Graham and Selipsky (2008) indicate that there is a need for further research to assess the nature and extent to which social welfare services have become more equitable, accessible and appropriate in their approach to meeting needs since the monitoring and evaluation of the overall transformation of welfare services are limited. Street Action (2010) as well as Ray, Davey and Nolan (2011) recommend that existing social welfare services for street children such as shelters, drop in centres, institutional care and reunification programmes should be reviewed.

The Street Action report (2010) showed that the social welfare services, though well meaning, fail the children they set out to protect and care for because of a lack of quality coordination, monitoring and evaluation of the services provided to the street children. Also the Department of Social Development (2010a) asserts that there is a need for integrated social welfare services that seamlessly join together parent education, psychosocial stimulation, health care, nutritional supplements, sanitation, hygiene and child rights as well as protection and this could be attained through research.

It could be concluded that to date, research on street children has typically paid attention to describing the phenomenon of street children while interventions have not been examined enough. Street Action (2010) in its report recommends that existing social welfare services for street children such as shelters, drop in centres, institutional care and reunification programmes should be reviewed. The report shows that the current social welfare services do not adequately meet the needs of the street children.

In similar vein, based on the afore-mentioned, the researcher became interested in conducting a study on the social welfare services rendered for street children by the service providers since millions of street children remain without the essential social welfare services to help ensure their survival as highlighted by UNICEF (2009). In order to address the gaps in the literature the researcher chose to explore the services rendered by the service providers for the street children.

In order to address the plight of street children, Pretoria will serve as an excellent exemplar as it is a home to organisations that look after the needs of a range of children including street children, abandoned babies, AIDS orphans, HIV positive children, and others. These organisations operate as Non-Government Organisations (NGOs), Faith-Based Organisations (FBOs) and Community-Based Organisations (CBOs). The study may assist all sectors including individuals, government, and NGOs to understand the circumstances of street children holistically and may change the way the NGOs render their services in relation to street children. It would also be useful to know to what extent and how many organisations are involved in helping street children and on which levels.

The researcher envisaged her involvement in the study in terms of providing some insight into social welfare services for street children. The study will further guide the NGOs in order to develop sustainable interventions that will secure and promote the well-being and rights of street children. The findings will not only benefit the street children around Pretoria but also the community at large.

The research question, goals and objectives will be presented in the following section.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTION

According to Babbie and Mouton (2010), the research problem should be formulated as a research question in order to direct the research process. Creswell (2009) points out that the central research question that guides the qualitative research process should be open-ended, evolving and non-directional and encoded in the tradition of inquiry. In order to explore the phenomenon of street children from the perspectives of service providers, the researcher formulated the following central questions derived from the afore-going literature review:

- What is the nature of the social welfare services that are being rendered to street children by NGOs in Pretoria?
- What can be done to enhance or change the social welfare service delivery to the street children?

The goals and objectives that were set by the researcher to provide a framework for this research will be discussed in the next section.

1.4 RESEARCH GOAL AND OBJECTIVES

The researcher has to know and understand what needs to be achieved in the study. According to Babbie (2009), an objective tells researchers what exactly needs to be investigated in practical terms and also serves as a means to achieve the aim or goal of the study.

1.4.1 Goal of the study

Babbie (2009) states that the concept “goal” refers to a dream one wants to realize while the concept “objective” in this context refers to the steps one has to take at grassroots level, within a certain time-frame, in order to attain the vision.

Fouché (in De Vos, Strydom, & Delport, 2005) state that the concept “goal” refers to a dream one wants to realize while the concept “objective” in this context refers to the steps one has to take, one by one, realistically at grassroots level, within a certain time- span, in order to attain the dream.

Based on the afore-mentioned definitions and to aid the process of answering them, the following **goal** of the study was formulated:

- To develop an in-depth understanding of the nature of services being rendered to street children and to ascertain how these social welfare services can be enhanced from the perspective of service providers employed by NGOs in Pretoria.

In order to attain the research goal the researcher formulated the research objectives of the study which are specified below.

1.4.2 Objectives

According to Mouton (2006), the goal of the research shapes the objectives of a study. Babbie (2009:114) indicates that an objective tells researchers what exactly needs to be investigated in practical terms. An objective serves as a means to achieve the aim or goal of the study.

The researcher took the following **research objectives** into account when conducting the study:

- To explore and describe the nature of social welfare services rendered to street children from the perspective of service providers.

- To explore and describe the gaps in social welfare services rendered to street children from the perspective of service providers.
- To explore and describe how the service delivery to street children can be enhanced focusing on how the programmes are developed and facilitated and their benefits in helping the street children from the service providers' perspective.
- To make recommendations relating to the nature of social welfare services rendered to street children by service providers in Pretoria and suggestions on how the social welfare services can be enhanced.
- To disseminate the findings in a report and present them to the participants and at professional association meetings. The report will be submitted for peer review and published in academic journals.

In order to reach the research goal, the following **task objectives** needed to be attained:

- To obtain a sample of service providers, employed by NGOs, who render the social welfare services to street children in Pretoria.
- To conduct in-depth semi-structured interviews in order to explore and describe the nature of social welfare services rendered to the street children from the perspective of service providers employed by NGOs in Pretoria.
- Furthermore, to analyse the data obtained according to the eight steps of qualitative data analysis constructed by Tesch (in Creswell 2009).
- To interpret and analyse data and conduct a literature control in order to verify the data and to draw conclusions.

In the following section the research methodology, research approach and the research design will be presented.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

According to Silverman (2005) and Burns and Grove (2007), research methodology includes the research method, research design, method of data gathering and the

type of data analysis that will be utilised by the researcher. Creswell (2009:17) and Silverman (2005:99) expand the definition by asserting that research methodology refers to a rational group of methods that are equivalent to one another and that have the reliability of delivering data and findings that will reflect the research report and suit the purpose of the study.

In order to answer the research questions posed above, the methodology employed will be described in the next section.

1.5.1 Research approach

The researcher opted to implement a qualitative research approach for the purpose of the study. According to Creswell (2009), qualitative research is meant for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to social or human problems since it allows the researcher to gain data through informal contact with the participants.

According to Creswell (2009) as well as Mack, Woodsong, MacQueen, Guest and Namey (2005), qualitative research concerns itself with the study of people in their natural setting with their full participation. The researcher considers this approach to be appropriate to gain holistic insight by exploring and describing the nature of social welfare services rendered by service providers to street children since the researcher had little initial information about the social services rendered to street children. Qualitative research has different characteristics which form the basis for research. The researcher will discuss the research approach and design in depth in Chapter 4 on Research Methodology. The researcher utilised the exploratory, descriptive and contextual design which will be described briefly in the next section.

1.5.2 Research design

Mason (2002) is of the view that the researcher should produce a research design at the beginning of the research process as it provides direction in attaining the aim of the study. Babbie (2011) as well as Monette, Sullivan and De Jong (2008) maintain that the research design always addresses certain key issues such as who will be

studied, how the participants will be selected, and what information will be gathered from or about them.

According to Babbie (2009), Neuman (2006), as well as Bless and Higson-Smith (2006), the classification of research is based on the demands of the research question and entails that the researcher should determine the purpose of the study, the specific meanings of the concepts to be used in the study, unit of analysis, and method of observation and data analysis. Babbie (2011) identifies the common purposes of research as exploration, description and contextual inquiry, which was also the purpose of this study. In explorative research, the researcher explores first before describing a phenomenon in order to gain clarity about the issues that the researcher is intending to address.

Babbie (2009) declares that in cases where the researcher experiences a lack or gap in knowledge about an existing phenomenon one speaks of **exploratory research**. According to Bless and Higson-Smith (2006), the purpose of exploratory research is to gain a broad understanding of a situation, phenomenon, community or person. Exploration is an attempt to develop an initial, rough understanding of some phenomenon and to become familiar with a new phenomenon or to gain new insight.

It was relevant for the researcher to employ the exploratory design since there was limited knowledge about the chosen study and such a design would grant the researcher a more extensive understanding of the phenomenon of street children. The nature of social welfare services rendered to street children had to be explored from the service providers' perspectives. The factors that hinder the delivery of the social welfare services to street children had to be explored with the service providers. Suggestions on how the social service delivery can be enhanced had to be explored in order to find solutions that might lead to sustainable services.

The researcher also decided to utilise descriptive research. Babbie (2009:89) defines **descriptive research** as research in which the primary purpose is to "paint a picture" using words or numbers and to present a profile, a classification of types, or an outline of steps to answer questions such as who, when, where and how. The researcher was interested in describing a phenomenon in order to gain a better

understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. This helped the researcher to describe what hinders the social welfare delivery to street children as well as how the delivery of services can be enhanced from the perspective of service providers.

Babbie (2009:89) mentions that the **contextual design** seeks to avoid the separation of participants from the larger context to which they may be related. Within this study's boundaries contextual refers to the fact that the study was conducted within its immediate context, in a specific geographical area (i.e. Pretoria, and respective offices of the participants) and the nature and the impact of social welfare services were investigated from the context of the service providers delivering social welfare services to street children.

With the above definitions in mind, the researcher explored, described and contextualised the perspectives of social service providers relating to the nature of the social welfare services rendered to street children in Pretoria and how they can be enhanced.

In the next section a brief discussion on the population and sampling for this study will be presented.

1.5.2.1 Population

According to Neuman (2006: 222), the term "population" can be defined as the theoretically specified aggregation of the elements from which the sample is actually selected in a study. Babbie (2009:113) defines the concept population as the group (usually people) that the researcher needs to study and draw conclusions about.

The study was conducted with the service providers that are working with street children under the auspices of the Tshwane Alliance for Street Children (TASC). The researcher chose TASC because of its easy accessibility and also due to the fact that the Unisa Bright Site Project is in collaborative consultation with the service providers and the community of Sunnyside in Pretoria.

TASC is the local representative of the National Alliance for Street Children, a government mandated body tasked with implementing the National Programme of Action for Children which was initiated when South Africa became a signatory to the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1995. This umbrella organisation draws its members from service providers of programmes for children and youth living and working in the streets.

According to The Tshwane Alliance for Street Children report (2005) The Alliance for Street Children was launched in September 1994 and has the Johannesburg Alliance for Street Children (JASC) and the Tshwane Alliance for Street Children (TASC) under its umbrella. The two organisations bring together many NGOs which are at present providing services to street children, and their priorities are education, health care, nutrition, ablution facilities and reconciliation with families, together with the ongoing care of the family.

For the purpose of the study the population is made up of:

- All NGOs in Pretoria rendering social welfare services to street children.
- All service providers employed by NGOs in Pretoria which fall under the umbrella of TASC and are rendering social welfare services to street children.

1.5.2.2 Sampling

De Vos, Strydom, Fouche` and Delport (2011) as well as Babbie (2011) view a sample as a subset of measurement drawn from a population in which we are interested in an effort to understand the population from which it was drawn. There are two categories of sampling in qualitative research, namely probability and non-probability sampling. In case of the present study non-probability sampling was utilised. Mack et al. (2005) identified three of the most common sampling methods of non-probability sampling used in qualitative research as purposive sampling, quota sampling and snowball sampling. In this study the researcher employed the purposive sampling technique for the selection of participants. Neuman (2006:223)

defines purposive sampling as a sample selected on the basis of knowledge of a population, its elements, and the purpose of the study.

From the above definitions, the participants were deliberately – purposely – selected from the wider population based on their experience and knowledge of the phenomenon of street children and their willingness to participate in the study. It is worth noting that the study was centred on the social welfare services provided to the street children. The street children were not interviewed for the purpose of the study since the focus of the study was to determine the available social welfare services rendered to street children.

According to Brick (2006:136), a sample size cannot be determined at the outset of the study, but the number of participants to be included in the sample can only be known once the data have reached a point of “saturation”, that is when the information being gathered becomes repetitive. In order to obtain a sample, the researcher first obtained permission to do research from TASC. The researcher had to identify the NGOs that are rendering social services to street children. The researcher obtained all the names of NGOs involved in rendering social work services to street children in Sunnyside from TASC. Initially the focus of the research was only around Sunnyside but the study expanded to other areas of Pretoria since TASC is working in and around Pretoria.

The researcher used a snowball technique starting with those on the list known to her and getting additional information about other organisations from the ones contacted. According to Neuman (2006), snowball sampling starts by identifying one participant who is then asked to provide names of individuals who might have knowledge of the research topic. These individuals were in turn asked for further names. Only organisations under TASC were selected. In this study ten out of thirty NGOs were accessible while some had closed down and some had changed their contact details. The service providers included managers, social workers, programme coordinators and care givers stationed at the different NGOs working with street children. Out of this number, only eight organisations qualified since they were working with street children. The other two worked with abandoned babies under the age of six years.

The researcher first had to determine what criteria were essential in choosing who was to be interviewed. The criteria for inclusion in the sample for the proposed study were as follows:

- NGOs in Pretoria under the umbrella of TASC rendering social welfare services to street children.
- The service providers within a selected organisation who were able to understand or are involved in the programmes and social welfare services rendered to street children.
- The service providers who were able to converse in English, Setswana and Zulu due to the fact that English is the medium language in South Africa and the researcher is familiar with speaking the Setswana and Zulu languages.

The following section will highlight the method for data collection, pilot study and the role of the researcher.

1.6 METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

Creswell (2009) and Babbie (2009) refer to data collection as an essential component of the research process. They further define data collection as a series of interrelated activities aimed at gathering information to answer emerging research questions. The principal methods of obtaining qualitative data are research interviews and group discussions. Data can be collected through surveys, interview guides, and unstructured or semi-structured and in-depth interviews.

In this research endeavour, the researcher decided to utilise semi-structured interviews which allowed her to gain insight into the perceptions, beliefs and experiences of the research participants about a particular research topic, or concern as described by Walsh (2001). Babbie (2011) and Mack et al. (2005) indicate that semi-structured interviews are conducted using a loose structure of open-ended questions which define the area to be explored and which the participant can answer in his or her own words, for example “What do you think leads to the success or failure of rendering good services to street children”, thus allowing the researcher and participants to be flexible. Mack et al. (2005) claim that flexibility in qualitative

research allows greater spontaneity and adaptation of the interaction between the researcher and the study participants thus leaving space for additional information that the researcher did not think of.

The researcher sought to use a digital voice recorder and note-taking techniques to record the information, with the consent of the participants, to ensure that all verbal and non-verbal articulations of the participants were recorded. Notes were also taken by the researcher based on the observations of verbal and non-verbal behaviour of the participants. The interviews were conducted in English, Zulu and Setswana. Data were then translated from Zulu and Setswana into English by the researcher.

The interview was guided by a set of predetermined questions or issues to be explored, and neither the exact wording nor the order of questions was determined ahead of time based on the literature studied. The following request and open-ended questions were formulated as the interview schedule:

Request: Tell me about the nature of social welfare services rendered to street children?

Questions:

- What do you think are the causes for children living on and off the streets?
- How many children do you cater for?
- How old are the children?
- Until what age do you cater for the street children and what happens when they leave?
- What gender are the children?
- What do you regard as the needs of children living on and off the streets?
- What services are you specifically rendering to children living on and off the streets? Do you have any process that must be followed?
- What programmes do you render for children living on the streets?
- How do you develop the nature of social welfare services – do you have any policy that you adhere to?
- How many cases do you handle per day, week or year?
- What resources do you have in place for the service delivery?

- How many staff members do you have?
- Do you have any service providers that you network with?
- In your view what helps and benefits the service delivery to children living on the streets?
- In your view, what hinders your service delivery to children living on the streets?
- What long-term solutions do you employ to help the street children?
- Any suggestions from your side, on how the service delivery to children living on the streets can be improved or enhanced?

In order to test the interview guide, a pilot study was conducted. The pilot study will be presented in the next section.

1.6.1 Pilot study

Van Teijlingen and Hundley (2002:1) explain that “a pilot study is a specific pre-testing of research instruments including interview guides or an interview guide which is done in preparation for their full-scale use to see if the envisaged methods are valid in the practical research environment”. In other words, a pilot study follows once the researcher has a clear vision of the research topic and questions as well as the techniques and methods which will be applied to conduct the study. Leedy and Ormond (2010) state that the pilot testing of the study provides an opportunity to identify any difficulties that might be experienced by the final participants.

In this research endeavour, the preparation for data collection began with the pilot study. The aim of the pilot study was to test the interview guide and the procedures or methods for data collection, to determine whether the proposed questions and procedures would be adequate and appropriate to elicit the data required to answer the research questions that prompted the study. The researcher tested the interview guide with two service providers rendering social welfare services to the street children. The first set of questions that were formulated as presented under 1.6 were found not to clear in addressing the research question and had to be reformulated. The interview guide was therefore revisited and changes were made. The

reformulated interview guide as indicated in Chapter 4 under 4.2.3 was used as the final instrument to collect the data for the final study.

The pilot study provided insight into the intensity and the complexity of the issues under investigation. The data also provided insight regarding the practicality of the envisaged research procedures which assisted in planning properly for the actual data collection phase. The researcher also used the pilot data to enhance her interviewing skills to allow for deeper exploration and to generate more information on any particular aspect under investigation.

1.6.2 The role of the researcher

Creswell (2009) declares that qualitative research is interpretative in nature and therefore the assumptions, values and judgments of the researcher are stated explicitly as part of conceptualisation in order to facilitate the conducting of valid, reliable research. Qualitative researchers strive to give a voice to participants. The use of the self as primary instrument for gathering and analysing data is an important factor in the process of giving a voice, and implies an openness of the researcher to examine new ideas.

In the following section the method of data analysis will be presented.

1.7 METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS

Creswell (2009) as well as Burns and Grove (2007) define data analysis as the process that involves making sense out of text and image data. It involves preparing the data for analysis, conducting different analyses, moving deeper and deeper into understanding the data, representing the data, and making an interpretation of the larger meaning of the data. Creswell (2009) further points out that data analysis is an ongoing process involving continual reflection about the data, asking analytical questions, and writing memos throughout the study involving the use of open-ended data.

To ensure that the above statement and definitions were employed, the researcher followed the eight steps as proposed by Tesch in Creswell (2009:186) to analyse the data as follows:

- The researcher read all transcripts carefully in order to get a sense of the whole, while jotting down some ideas that may come to mind.
- The researcher chose one transcript from on top of the pile to read and try to find an underlying meaning in what she was reading and then wrote thoughts in the margin as they came to mind.
- After several transcripts had been read, the researcher made a list of all topics identified. The topics were clustered according to similarities and were marked as “major topics”, “unique topics”, and “left-overs”.
- The researcher took the list of marked topics and reverted to the data. The topics were abbreviated as codes, and the codes were written next to the appropriate segments of the text. While using this preliminary organizing scheme, the researcher looked for new categories and codes that emerged.
- The researcher found the most descriptive wording for the topics and turned them into themes or categories. Topics that were related to each other were grouped in order to reduce the total list of categories. Interrelationships between categories were shown by lines.
- The researcher made a final decision on the abbreviation for each category and gave these categories alphabetical codes.
- Data material that belonged to each category was assembled in one place and a preliminary analysis was then performed.
- The researcher recoded the existing data if necessary.

The voice-recorded interviews were listened to and transcribed in Setswana and Zulu and thereafter translated into English by the researcher. An expert in language translation was consulted to ascertain whether the English translation reflected what the participants had articulated in the digital voice recorder. A literature review was conducted after data were collected and analysed to identify the similarities and differences between the research findings and the existing studies. The review of literature also helped in the verification of data.

The process of data analysis and the proposed steps by Tesch will be discussed in detail in Chapter 4, Research Methodology. The next section will present the method of data verification.

1.8 METHOD OF DATA VERIFICATION

Gibbs (2007) and Creswell (2009) define qualitative validity as the process whereby the researcher ensures the accuracy of the findings by employing certain procedures while qualitative reliability indicates that the researcher's approach is constant across different researchers and different projects.

The researcher wanted to describe accurately the experiences of the service providers in their natural settings from their own perspectives. To ensure reliability of the study, the researcher employed Gibbs (2007) procedures and to ensure validity the researcher employed the strategies in Lincoln and Guba (2000) as highlighted by Creswell (2009).

The procedures and strategies employed to ensure validity and reliability will be discussed in detail in Chapter 4 on Research Methodology. The following section will discuss the ethical considerations.

1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Banks (2006) clarifies the concept "ethics" as referring to moral philosophy including the study of morality, and the norms and standards of behaviour that are used by people in order to do what is right. Leedy and Ormond (2010) state that most ethical issues in research fall into one of four categories; protection from harm, informed consent, right to privacy and honesty with professional colleagues. The researcher, in agreement with the above submissions, found the following ethical conditions by Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005) relevant to be considered for the purpose of this study.

1.9.1 Informed consent

Neuman (2006) and Monette et al. (2008) describe informed consent as a written agreement to participate given by people after they have learned something about the research procedure. Informed consent is seen as a fundamental ethical principle of social research: never coerce anyone into participating; participation must be voluntary.

The researcher obtained written permission to conduct the study from the Research and Ethics Departmental Committee of the University of South Africa at the Department of Social Work after submitting the research proposal. The researcher obtained the informed and voluntary consent of all participants before involving them in the study. The researcher provided the participants with a letter containing information pertaining to the research project, as well as the consent form that they had to sign. The consent form and the letter on permission to conduct the study are included as appendices.

The researcher explained the purpose and significance of the study to the participants. The participants were notified and given the choice to participate with the help of the manager by sending emails to the participants. The participants were provided with sufficient information about the study to allow them to decide for or against their participation. The participants were made aware of the counselling facilities at the Bright Site Project that they could utilise should they experience any stress or anxiety arising from the interviews.

1.9.2 Confidentiality

Berg (2007) and Neuman (2006) define “confidentiality” as the ethical protection of those who are being studied by holding research data in confidence or keeping them a secret from the public; not releasing information in a way that permits linking specific responses to specific participants.

The participants were assured that data would be used only for the stated purpose of the research and that their names would not be mentioned and their privacy

ensured. Although the researcher knew who provided the information or was able to identify participants from the given information, she would in under no circumstances make the connection publicly known. The participants used pseudo-names that they felt comfortable with. The records of interviews were locked away in a locked cupboard in the researcher's office to which only the researcher had access. The voice records of the interviews were deleted after the final report was completed.

1.9.3 Anonymity

According to Babbie (2011) and Neuman (2006) anonymity of participants is crucial. The core of anonymity is that information provided by participants should in no way disclose their identity. In case of this study, the participants' identity was withheld and protected from disclosure.

The use of the tape recorder as the primary instrument to capture the data was explained to them and was kept secure at all times and recordings were destroyed after completion of the research. To ensure anonymity, names of participants were not written on the tapes, notes and transcripts. The researcher had to ensure that data were transcribed and edited by her before being analysed by the private coder. Alphabet letters were used instead of their names or any other personal means of identification to hide their identities.

The clarification of concepts will be highlighted in the next section.

1.10 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

Babbie (2009:124-125) defines "conceptualisation" as "a process through which researchers state precisely what is meant by the use of particular terms". The key concepts central to this study will be defined under this sub-heading in order to enhance the readability of this document:

- ***Street children***

According to the Department of Social Development (2010b) and UNICEF (2010), the Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005) defines a "street child " as "a child who (a) because of abuse, neglect, poverty, community upheaval or any other reason, has left his or her home, family or community and lives, begs or works on the streets; or (b) because of inadequate care, begs or works on the streets but returns home at night. Current legislation also defines any person under the age of 18 as a child. This means that any person 17 years or younger that lives, works, or begs on the street, for any period of time, is a street child. "

UNICEF (2007) defines children "on" the street as those engaged in the street but have regular contact with their families. Children "of" the street live, work and sleep in the street (Ennew, 2003). UNICEF (2009) became aware of the confusion and difficulties of the definition of children "on" versus children "of" the street and opted for a new definition. Children may be working or begging on the streets while living at home, they may not return home every night but still have frequent contact with their families, they may have lost contact with their families entirely, or they may move between these conditions (Panther-Brick, 2003).

For the purpose of the study "street children" means children on the street between the ages of 7-18 years who have been orphaned, abandoned or who have run away from home, and have [little] family or no family contact.

- ***Service Providers***

According to UNICEF (2009) and the Department of Social Development (2005), the term "service providers" includes the following civil society organisations: Non-Profit Organisations (NPOs) sometimes referred to as Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), Faith-based Organisations (FBOs) or Church- Based Organisations (CBOs) and Community-Based Organisations (CBOs) which operate in the non-profit sector or voluntary sector (Department of Social Development, 2009b). According to

UNICEF (2009), NPOs are, first and foremost, civil society organisations. They are one of the diverse organisational forms that exist outside of the state and the market.

The Department of Social Development (2005) declares that NPOs are, by definition, “organisations that are not for profit” and are “service oriented”: *Non-Governmental Organisations* are national or international bodies that operate outside of the state and the business sector. They are governed or managed by a group of elected or appointed members and are accountable to this governing body. NPOs tend to be larger and more developed than CBOs and have a larger proportion of paid, professional staff. The Department of Social Development (2005) states that they may or may not be based in the target community, They can demand and advocate for children’s rights and engage in dialogue at local and national level with the government, as well as provide effective and efficient services, extending government’s capacity through partnerships for implementation.

In the context of the study service providers refer to social workers, child care workers, programme coordinators and managers employed at NGOs that offer social welfare services to street children. According to UNICEF (2009), NGOs range from voluntary associations to charities, various foundations and professional societies, may have either a domestic or international responsibility, and cover a single issue or more general areas of interest. Pitzl (2006) concedes that NGOs emerged as prominent service providers who are actively addressing the plight of street children with limited resources.

According to Patel et al. (2008), Non-Governmental Organizations (service providers) are organised and represented nationally by NACOSS (National Coalition of Social Services) and referred to as the formal welfare service. The Department of Social Development (2009a) asserts that the total number of NPOs registered with the Department of Social Development as social services by 2008 was 48 772. The registration in terms of the NPO Act is voluntary and many organisations register in order to receive grant funding from the government.

- ***Social welfare services***

Streak and Poggenpoel (2005) as well as Lombard (2005) explain that social welfare services refer to interventions that help people to deal with social problems arising from social, economic or political changes which are delivered by departments of social development with the assistance of Non-Governmental Organisations.

According to the Department of Social Development (2010a) services can be classified as intervention (services for people who are already homeless) or prevention (services to stop people from becoming homeless). According to Sanchez (2010) and Patel (2007), social welfare services are rendered in a variety of contexts by a spectrum of practitioners. Services may focus on a total population in a specific community or only specific target groups in the community. Services may further address all the needs in the community or a specific focus area.

In the context of this study a social welfare service is a programme that provides assistance to needy individuals, families and communities to help them to address their social, economic and political ills through programmes such as outreach work, drop-in centres, intake shelters, full shelters, children's homes, alternative education programmes and prevention programmes.

- ***Programmes***

According to Babbie and Mouton (2010), the concept “programme” refers to any intervention or set of activities mounted to achieve external objectives, which is to meet some recognised social needs or solve an identified problem. According to Asian Development Bank (2003a), programmes for street children are multi-sectoral because the health, education, survival and emotional needs of street children are impossible to address separately.

The Department of Social Development (2010a), Gray (2006), Gray and Lombard (2008) as well as Asian Development Bank (2003b) describe the services that can be rendered through the developmental approach as non-formal education and

vocational training projects; programmes aimed at helping children return to their homes if they so wish, and efforts to build communities' capacity to manage and maintain long-term projects aimed at improving the lives of children, thus preventing them from abandoning their families in favour of street life.

The study had limitations which will be discussed in the next section.

1.11 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Mack et al. (2005) claim that researchers are almost never able to study all the members of the population that interests them, and they can never make every possible observation of them. However, from the population a sample could be selected from among the data that could be collected and studied.

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) find factors such as expense, time and accessibility as frequently preventing researchers from gaining information from the whole population. Therefore, researchers often need to be able to obtain data from a smaller group or subset of the total population in such a way that the knowledge gained is representative of the total population under the study.

Due to the qualitative nature of the study, the small sample size and the fact that the study was confined to a very specific setting, the research findings could not be generalised to other settings. This study focused only on the selected service providers employed at NGOs in Pretoria which offer services to street children and fall under the umbrella body of TASC; therefore the findings cannot be generalised to other NGOs in the country.

Time constraints in conducting the interviews were a hindering factor. The researcher had to work around the time schedule of the NGOs' staff due to their meetings and other commitments despite prior arrangements being made beforehand by the manager of TASC. Voice recorder mistakes that resulted in the voice recorder not working during the interviews resulted in rescheduling of the interview appointments with two participants. This was a setback since there was much turnover of the service providers, and as a result not enough information was

available due to lack of experience of new staff members. Two NGOs that were targeted for the study closed down due to financial constraints even before the research was conducted. After coding the researcher was forced to go back to the participants for clarification and exploration of the given information to make it richer. This was another setback since three of the service providers had resigned and one organisation was facing closure due to a lack of funding so that means four of the participants were not reinterviewed for more clarity.

The following section presents the chapter outline of the research report.

1.12 CHAPTER OUTLINE OF THE RESEARCH REPORT

The research report I comprises six chapters:

Chapter 1: General overview of the study

Chapter 1 reflects the general background of the study, rationale for the study, goals and objectives, the research methodology, ethical considerations, clarification of concepts and limitation of the study.

Chapter 2: Literature study on street children

Chapter 2 consists of literature referring to street children, causes of the phenomenon, legislation as well as policies pertaining to children.

Chapter 3: Social welfare services to street children

Chapter 3 reflects literature on social welfare services and programmes provided by NGOs to the street children.

Chapter 4: Research methodology

Chapter 4 covers a description of how the qualitative research methodology was employed during the execution of this research project in relation to the application of

the qualitative approach, methods of data collection, research design, data analysis and verification.

Chapter 5: Research findings and literature control

Chapter 5 highlights the research findings from the participants, complemented by a literature control to compare and contrast the research findings with relevant literature in the field.

Chapter 6: Summary, conclusions and recommendations

Chapter 6 presents a summary, conclusions and recommendations arrived at as a result of the employed methodology and the research findings that emerged from the process of data analysis.

1.13 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter briefly highlighted the general background, rationale, goals and objectives of the study. The research design and methodology, including the population, sample, data collection and analysis, ethical aspects as well as limitations experienced were described. The key terms were defined.

Chapter 2 focuses on the literature review conducted for the study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE STUDY ON STREET CHILDREN

2. INTRODUCTION

In order to develop a clear understanding of the research question, a review of the relevant literature is necessary. Creswell (2009) and Marshall and Rossman (2006) argue that the decision on whether literature findings and theoretical perspectives should be presented before or after data-collection depends on the strategy of the inquiry. The option could be put on a continuum of 'before-after' with the possibility of both. Creswell (2009), as well as Burns and Grove (2007), further states that in qualitative research, literature should be used inductively as the study is exploratory in the sense that the researcher will start with available data and then formulate interviews by moving from the general to the specific. The importance of the literature study is that it will also guide the research process and will inform the researcher on how to formulate the questions for the interviews.

Taking into account the above discussion of the purposes of a literature review, this chapter intends to explore and describe street children as a social phenomenon since little is known in terms of social welfare services rendered to street children. The chapter will further explore the street children's struggles, underlying factors that led children to end up on the streets including the economic and social factors affecting street children and coping mechanisms of street children. The subsequent section will focus on a more detailed discussion of the literature review.

2.1 THE PHENOMENON OF STREET CHILDREN

According to Ray et al. (2011), the street children phenomenon is an everyday social reality and varies between contexts and over time in many countries. Literature studies by Ray et al. (2011), Ward and Seager (2008), Thomas de Benitez (2007) as well as UNICEF (2006) characterise street children according to age, gender and their resilience in terms of their survival in the streets. The Department of Social

Development (Department of Social Development, 2005) in South Africa asserts that what is certainly required is a more sophisticated understanding of children's departure from the streets and long-term career outcomes, rather than the habitual focus of attention on the causes of their arrival or existence on the streets

2.2 DESCRIPTION OF STREET CHILDREN

It is important from the outset to stress that the task of defining or describing street children has been a daunting experience for the researcher since the literature has shown countless attempts to define the complexity and diversity of the phenomenon of street children. Ray et al. (2011) put emphasis on the discussions and controversies on how children who live and work on the streets are being viewed; the terminology and definitions that are used; and the magnitude of the problem of street children. According to Ray et al. (2011), the Consortium for Street Children (CSC) (2010) and Street Action (2010), there is no international agreement on the definition of street children and it has been an issue contested and debated for decades around the world.

Recent studies by Ennew (2004) and Panther-Brick (2003) argue that the definition of "street children" was seen to be difficult for the following four reasons. Firstly, it is demeaning to children's experiences and does not explain the children's actual circumstances and where they are coming from. Secondly, it does not correspond with the street children's experiences in that the term has been used to refer to children in a variety of circumstances, ignoring the children's identity and factors that caused them to be on the streets. Thirdly, it labels and stigmatises the street children with pitying connotations in that it is offensive and gives distorted messages about street children. Fourthly, it deflects attention from the broader population of children affected by poverty and social exclusion. Beazley (2011) adds that the biggest obstacle in understanding and defining the street children is that the children are stereotyped by the press, NGOs, community or the government and this makes life difficult for the street children.

Wargan and Dreshem (2009), Panther-Brick (2003) as well as Volpi (2002) accentuate that a classification of street children is useful as long as it is understood

that the groups and sub-groups are not necessarily uniform or separate from one another or homogeneous. The researchers further reiterate that the classifications of street children may not always coincide with the children's own views about their lives. On the other hand Makofane (2012) is of the opinion that any definition which labels, discriminates against and stigmatises children and at the end of the day makes the street children different from other children is humiliating in the children's experiences. Ray et al. (2011) underline that organisations such as UNICEF, Save the Children and Every Child use concepts such as "children on the move" rather than the narrow lens of "child trafficking"; "children without parental care" rather than "orphans"; and "children affected by conflict" rather than the focus just on "child soldiers".

According to Panther-Brick (2003), street children have received different nicknames in different parts of the world and a number of perceptions and definitions of street children will inform the study. Wargan and Dreshem (2009), UNICEF (2005) as well as Pitzl (2006) base their categorisation on the principles of the common definitions and distinguish three groups of street children as the following:

Children of the street – children who spend nights on the streets or in places not meant for human occupation for a period of one month or more. The children either do not have a family or have not had any contact with their family for a period of one month or longer. They provide for themselves, and spend the money to secure their own needs in their street surroundings.

Children on the street – those who sleep at home but spend most of the daytime on the streets. They may have regular or irregular contact with their family. They provide for themselves and usually bring at least a portion of their income back home to support their family.

Children of street families – those who spend nights in the streets or in places not meant for human habitation together with their adult family members for a period of one month or more. They contribute to providing for their family by generating income on the streets.

Ennew (2003) emphasises that the term “street child”, has now been recognised by researchers as a social construction reflecting society’s disquiet at children who are very visible, but who are deemed “out of place”. Wargan and Dreshem (2009) note that the term “street children” has come under increasing criticism as labelling and stigmatising due to its connotations of delinquency in many societies, and for this reason is disliked by children themselves. It has led to organisations starting using terms such as “street active children” or “street involved children”. Makofane argue that the concept indicate that the society do not want to embrace nor relate to the children .The concept has no place in South Africa, and a new concept which is palatable which links to "Ubuntu"¹ has to be developed. The researcher further argues that society cannot Westernise the label “street children” since no street has a child. For a better concept the researcher prefers to call them “our children” since they are not different from the children that stays at home.

Ray et al. (2011) stress that it is important not to regard street involved children as helpless victims. It is also important to recognise that different subgroups of street involved children have different experiences and face different risks, based on their age, sex, length of stay on the streets and the different street environments of which they are a part. In addition Makofane (2012) postulates that not all the children on the streets are “run-aways”, some have been placed there because of hardships from their families.

The general public’s definition of street children is harder to articulate perhaps because it is more overstated, for instance, in South Africa according to Makofane (2012) and Ennew (2004) the public view street children as a “*nuisance*” and as “*criminals*”. The labelling is devastating, discriminating and demoralising to the children thus leading to children to isolate themselves. According to Panther-Brick (2001a), the definition of street children has been reworked many times by UNICEF and Save the Children in order to develop a meaningful and appropriate identity of the children. The children themselves do not want to be called “street kids” as understood by Ennew (2004).

¹ Ubuntu – is a southern African ethic or humanist philosophy focusing on people's allegiances and relations with each other. It is the essence of being human. Ubuntu speaks particularly about the fact that you can't exist as a human being in isolation. It speaks about our interconnectedness. It goes with the saying that "I am what I am because of who we all are."

Wargan and Dreshem (2009) emphasise that when the street children are asked what name they would use to describe themselves, the children said "just kids." When prompted, children came up with other suggestions: "children who work," "begging children", or "cool boys." Thousands of children live on Southern Africa's city streets. These children have commonly been referred to as "street children" although NGOs and human rights organisations asked for this phrase to be rejected as negative labelling but it has nevertheless been retained (Makofane, 2012; Clacherty and Bludlender, 2010 & Kilbride, 2009).

2.3 TERMINOLOGY AND DEFINITIONS ADOPTED FOR THE STUDY

With all the limitations of grouping and categorisation of street children described above, it can be deduced that the understanding of the phenomenon of street children, differs from nation to nation and from culture to culture. Attempts to universalise the phenomenon of street children have resulted in both loose and broad definitions. Sanchez (2010) concludes by explaining that arriving at a simple definition is not easy, as there is usually no single or simple reason for an individual becoming homeless, since homelessness is often the final stage in a lifelong series of crises and missed opportunities plus the culmination of a gradual disengagement from supportive relationships and institutions.

The Department of Social Development (2010b) refers to the White Paper on Social Welfare (1997) which defines children in especially difficult circumstances as "those children who are denied their most basic human rights and whose growth and development are consequently impaired". Panther- Brick (2004) observes that homeless and street children are commonly portrayed in the academic and welfare literature as a prime category of "children at risk" who have attracted world-wide attention due to rising numbers in cities.

Against this background of definitions, Levy-Seedat (2002) urges that the definition of street children in South Africa does not differ much from the international definitions, all of which use a system of categorisation. In trying to classify a street child, many practitioners use the following definition, ascribed to UNICEF (2009) as "Any girl or boy who has not reached adulthood, for whom the street is place to stay

where they secure their livelihoods from the streets. Street children can be broadly seen as living or making a living on the streets but at the end of the day that forms part of their activity or their way of life”.

According to Ward and Seager (2010), recent South African legislation, the Children’s Act (Act 38 of 2005), defines “street children” as “children in need of care and protection”. The Department of Social Development (2010a) defines a street child as a child who because of abuse, neglect, poverty, community turmoil or any other reason, has left his or her home, family or community, and lives, begs or works on the street; or because of insufficient care, begs or works on the streets but returns home at night. For the purpose of the study, the researcher will adopt the South African definition of street children according to the Children’s Act (Act 38 of 2005). Current SA legislation also defines any person under the age of 18 as a child. This means that any person 17 years or younger that lives, works, or begs on the street, for any period of time, is a street child.

Given the debates and taking the various definitions into consideration, it can be asserted that the use of terms that label and stigmatise children should be avoided as much as possible in order to preserve the children’s dignity and to generate improved public and official attitudes towards them, (Makofane, 2012). For the lack of a better term and due to the fact that it is a the universal term; “street children” will be used as an umbrella term that includes children living on the streets, children living off the streets, street involved children, children of street families and children at risk or vulnerable children. The researcher is aware that the term can be criticised and would have preferred to call them by a more positive term. For the purpose of the study “street children” means children on the street who have been orphaned, abandoned or who have run away from home, and thus have little family or no family contact.

2.4 ESTIMATION OF THE NUMBERS OF STREET CHILDREN

Studies by Ray et al. (2011), Le Roux (2004) and Vogel (2001) reveal that the street child phenomenon as a social problem is experienced both locally and internationally. The global numbers of street children are not known and the

estimated numbers seem to be over-inflated. Ray et al. (2011) as well as Tripple and Speak (2009) note that the estimation of numbers of street children is an important contribution to policy, advocacy and programmes as numbers tend to drive investment and can enable officials to direct sufficient funding to address the problem.

According to Panther-Brick (2003) and Ennew (2004), very large estimates of the number of children in the street are produced to draw attention to the need for the work of organisations. The researchers argue that the estimates rest largely upon sketchy and vague definitions of homeless and working children which are being made up by the communities. Publications on street children by UNICEF (2006) highlight that the talk is of numbers, and the numbers cited are huge. Thus 100 million children are said to be growing up in the streets of urban centres world-wide. Such figures raise public concern about the protection and well-being of street children.

Consortium for Street Children, CSC, (2010), Thomas de Benitez (2007) and Asian Development Bank (2003) accentuate that conducting an accurate census of the number of street children is challenging due to the difficulties of definition. UNICEF (2006) supposes that estimations vary, in relation to how a mobile population of children is counted and, most importantly, exactly who is considered for inclusion, because the term street children has different meanings in different regions. The exact number of street children is impossible to quantify, nevertheless, UNICEF (2006) reports the numbers to run into tens of millions or higher. Department of Social Development (2010c) in the Strategy and Guidelines for Children Living and Working in the Streets declares that in South Africa national estimates currently available date from the early 1990s and there were then between 9 000 and 10 000 street children nationally.

The responses of international and national countries to the phenomenon of street children are far from sufficient considering the mounting number of street children on the rise in individual countries as pointed out above. From the above it can be deduced that the complexity of the street children phenomena is exacerbated by difficulty in determining an accurate count of street children due to the lack of

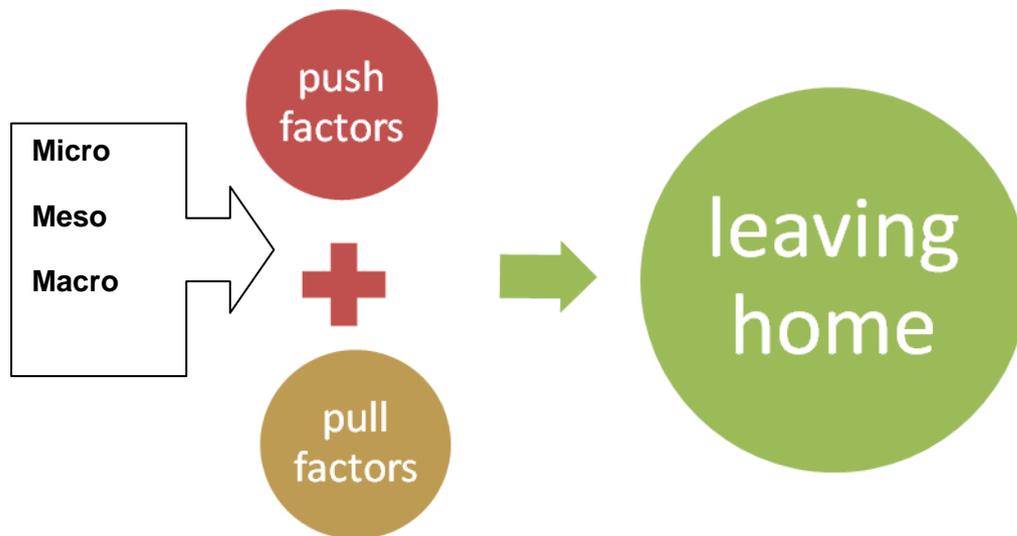
resources to count these children, the lack of agreement as to what defines street children and the fact that the street children are always on the move.

The factors leading to the phenomenon of street children will be discussed in detail in the next section.

2.5 FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO THE PHENOMENON OF STREET CHILDREN

There are many reasons for street children being on the street, most of which are outside the control of children or their families. Ray et al. (2011) have stressed that the causes of street involvement are complex, multi-faceted, context-specific and personal. West (2003) emphasises that the factors contributing to children being on the street are interconnected and vary at all levels from national to international, region to region, country to country, district, communities, families and the child. Dawes, Bray and Van der Merwe (2007) as well as Rizzini and Undi (2003) assert that the rationale for children leaving home and going onto the streets may involve both push and pull factors. Both practitioners and researchers commonly emphasise the push and pull model to describe the issues children face in moving to the streets. The authors highlight specific micro (individual and family), meso (groups and networks) and macro (community and society) factors associated with the moving of children to the streets as presented in the following Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Factors contributing to the phenomenon of street children (UNICEF, 2005)



The above Figure depicts the levels and factors that led to children leaving their homes. What makes children stay on the street is a combination of factors, possibly including an abusive stepfather or an alcoholic caretaker and the knowledge that parents will send them back to the streets. The factors leading to street life have also been highlighted in the study by Wargan and Dreshem (2009) in collaboration with USAID, UNICEF, Save The Children and other stakeholders and confirmed that street children in the country, Georgia, are a manifestation of socio-economic problems.

In the research by Ward and Seager (2010) the children described push factors as the cause of leaving home for the streets. Push factors include domestic violence and substance abuse, failure to progress at school, household homelessness, and lack of caregivers for HIV-affected children. Children described situations of abuse, domestic violence or poor family relationships that had made their home lives intolerable. Pull factors embrace seeking a better life, a need to join friends because of peer pressure and searching for a parent who has since left to seek employment.

2.5.1 Push factors

Ennew (2004), Lewis (2004), and Motala and Smith (2003) state that the socio-cultural factors, which include abuse of alcohol and drugs, financial problems, poverty, family violence and family break-up, poor family relationships, parental unemployment, physical and sexual abuse of children, parents' absence from home as a result of personal or financial reasons, collapse of family structure and HIV and AIDS, are the main causes of children leaving home. They further mention inadequate living space at home, unemployment and lack of means as socio-economic factors that lead children to roam the streets.

Ray et al. (2011) convey that movement from rural to urban areas caused by unemployment has been so great that it is estimated that half the world's population now lives in cities. Rural-urban migration of poor families increases children's vulnerability to school drop-out, exploitative work and street involvement at their destinations.

2.5.1.1 Abuse, domestic violence and poor family relationships

Wargan and Dreshem (2009) allude that children leave home because of a change in the family setup, such as a divorce or remarriage of a parent, family relocation, alcoholism and violence. According to the surveys by Ward and Seager (2010) and Thomas de Benitez (2007), during in-depth interviews with children girls described sexual abuse, typically by stepfathers or their mothers' boyfriends, while boys described vexed relationships with step-parents. The studies acknowledge that violence is the key trigger that precipitates children to move to the streets.

UNICEF (2006) add that street children are recognised internationally as being extremely vulnerable to violence, abuse and neglect of many kinds, including under-nutrition, health problems (including HIV and AIDS), drug abuse (glue sniffing), sexual exploitation, medical and educational neglect. UNICEF (2010) further points out that many families in South Africa face severe challenges in protecting and caring for their children. The country has inherited a legacy of violence, extreme inequality and social dislocation. The challenges have translated into many social ills

in the day-to-day lives of children, such as high levels of domestic violence, substance abuse, sexual abuse and neglect which create or exacerbate the conditions that precipitate children to opt for the streets.

2.5.1.2 Poverty, unemployment and loss of parents or caregivers

Research findings by Ray et al. (2011) indicate that South Africa has very high rates of child poverty. Poverty is most often associated with the lack of employment, which provides income through wage labour. In addition the authors describe poverty as one of the main factors that account for the number of street children in the majority of the world. Poverty and marginalisation make families particularly vulnerable to the social and economic stresses that result in children dropping out of school, engaging in hazardous and exploitative working situations or becoming involved in street life. Aptekar and McAdam-Crisp (2005) are of the view that despite the almost universal signing of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, as well as its wide ratification, children remains among the most marginalised and abused human beings in the world. Ward and Seager (2010) and Steiner and Alston (2000) further state that children are the most vulnerable to the effects of poverty and disease, not least of all in the context of HIV and AIDS and other health risk factors.

UNICEF (2009), Pare (2003) and Kopoka (2000) further highlight that the street child phenomenon has to do with poverty, rural-urban migration, rapid urbanisation and industrialisation. Rapid urbanisation has resulted in large informal, unplanned settlements and urban slums in many developing and developed countries. Wargan and Dreshem (2009) found that economic and social upheavals have led to the breakdown of traditional family structures and values through for example alcohol abuse, child abuse whether physical or sexual, or neglect. In addition Ward and Seager (2010) found the pressing factors to be a loss of caregivers, because both caregivers had died, or because one parent had died and the whereabouts of the other was unknown, or because parents had left home to find work and lost contact with their family. UNICEF (2007, 2010) and Aggraval (2002) reiterate that the economic and social effects of HIV infection and AIDS on children include malnutrition, migration, homelessness, reduced access to education and health care.

According to Ward et al. (2007) as well as Meintjies and Hall (2011), the HIV and AIDS pandemic is identified as a grave concern since being found as one of the contributing factors to the phenomenon of street children. The HIV and AIDS pandemic is said to increase the risk of acute poverty amongst affected households and communities by causing people to fall ill and no longer work. The statistics by UNAIDS (2010) and UNESCO (2010) reveal that a great number of these children have become the heads of households, have been forced to look after themselves, have dropped out of school, have become vulnerable to many forms of abuse and must look for work in order to take care of their siblings. In similar vein UNICEF (2008), Case and Ardington (2004) as well as Richter and Lewis (2005) speculate that orphanages increase dependency ratios as children move out to stay with their elders who cannot cater for them in some cases.

2.5.2 Pull factors

Pull factors include the influence of peers and kin that are on the streets, the freedom and the need to find a source of food and money. In the survey conducted by Ward and Seager (2010) with the street children, it was found that children nominated a pull factor (seeking a better life, employment, money, shelter or survival) as their primary reason for going onto the streets.

2.5.2.1 Seeking a better life

Wargan and Dreshem (2009) explain that in escaping dire conditions at home, children try to find ways to make their own living outside of their households and spend earned money on personal needs or on their friends. Many see income generation as a way to support their families and some are also expected or forced to make money and bring it back home.

Wargan and Dreshem (2009) further point out that street livelihood can be surprisingly effective, pulling in people from surrounding settlements by engaging them in piecework for local businesses and begging on the streets. Rosenthal, Mallett and Myers (2006) found conflict with parents as the only important reason for children to live in the streets. The desire for independence and adventure was rated

lower in the research though still a contributing factor in reasons for living on the streets.

2.5.2.2 Peer pressure

Ward and Seager (2010), Ward et al. (2007) as well as Pare (2003) observe that the children have been influenced by friends in thinking about making their own money and using it on themselves. The thought of having time for leisure, having friends who are in a similar situation and who seem to be the only ones not to reject them led the children to the streets.

2.5.2.3 Searching for a parent

Streak (2004) and Lewis (2004) held that children are forced to leave home, or may even be driven out by various factors including social disruption, relocation, overcrowding, unemployment and disintegration of families. In the study by Ward and Seager (2010) on street children, children when asked about the causes of their being on the streets reported that they had gone onto the streets to search for one of their parents, with remarks such as "My mother is deceased and I left home to search for my father".

According to UNICEF (2005), illegitimacy is a contributing factor to the street children phenomenon. The study claimed that children who were born out of wedlock were more prone to abandonment and neglect because of social pressures that were put on the mothers and fathers of such a child. In most cases the children will opt for the streets in search for the parent, protection and survival.

2.6 THE COPING MECHANISMS OF STREET CHILDREN

UNICEF (2009) indicates that life on the streets, coupled with the conditions that cause children to leave home, make street children vulnerable to a variety of risks to their physical, emotional, social and cognitive development. Inadequate nutrition, prolonged exposure to cold and damp, substance abuse and high levels of violence all compromise their chances of survival and development. They may be subject to

abuse from other street dwellers, as well as from the police and from members of the public who object to their presence or exploit them.

From the study by Ward and Seager (2010) it can be seen that the children face several challenges in their search for food, safety, employment, shelter and medical care. They commonly depend on their peers, Non-Governmental Organisations, and their own resourcefulness to survive on the streets. While the majority use positive mechanisms to cope with their daily stresses, some children also employ maladaptive strategies such as using alcohol, drugs, and visiting prostitutes. The study by also reveals that these "children of the street" are not entirely on their own but depend on various connections with substitute family members and/or their peers to cope with life. The survey found that the girls liaise with men for protection, as well as to access material goods.

Study findings by Beazley (2011) and Consortium for Street Children, CSC (2010) assert that street children develop skills on managing their earnings well, building up social support networks, forming groups to meet their basic physical and psychological needs, using safety measures to avoid danger faced on the streets, finding creative resources to entertain themselves as well as having hopes and dreams for the future. Once in the street, the children have to engage in a variety of jobs like collecting rubbish for recycling, shining shoes, washing cars, prostitution and begging to meet their basic needs which leave the street children to be exploited by adults.

2.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter examined the literature dealing with the phenomenon of street children. The chapter further explored the street children's struggles, underlying factors that led children to end up on the streets and their coping mechanisms.

Chapter 3 will elaborate on the social welfare services provided for the street children.

CHAPTER 3

SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICES RENDERED TO STREET CHILDREN

3. INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on a review of the literature on social welfare services to street children, the legal framework pertaining to street children and the nature of social welfare services provided by NGOs for the street children.

The legal framework pertaining to the street children phenomenon will be discussed in the next section.

3.1 LEGAL FRAMEWORK PERTAINING TO STREET CHILDREN

Patel (2007) asserts that the policy and legislation in South Africa have been formulated to be in line with the Constitution. It is worth noting that due to the multiple factors that play a role in street children's lives and the multiple deprivations they experience, there is a wide range of legislation relevant to them. Constitutional rights for protecting human rights, including children's rights, have so far been established for Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean, and Europe.

Ray et al. (2011) argue that the children's rights do not make specific reference to street children; and their rights and issues are not specifically addressed except in some national pieces of legislation. Thomas de Benitez (2011) and Patel (2007) are of the view that street children have the same rights as other children and the same laws should apply to them despite the fact that they are classified as "children at risk" or "children in need of care".

The following pieces of legislation are worth mentioning due to the fact that they were developed to meet specific needs of the street children, guide and enhance social welfare service delivery in a transforming South African context according to the Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005). Key policies and legislation that seek to address

the plight of street children in South Africa include the United Nation's Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), the South African Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) and the Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005) which will be discussed in the next section.

3.1.1 Convention on the Rights of the Child

UNICEF (2010) and Steiner and Alston (2000) recount that the United Nation's Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) was adopted by the UN in 1989, and came into force in 1990. To date it has 191 state parties, with only the United States and Somalia remaining outside of the convention. According to UNICEF (2010, 2009), the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) was ratified on 16 July 1995 and it was adopted by South Africa in the country's new constitution. The South African Parliament has been involved with the drafting and legislative processes of this landmark children's legislation since 1997.

UNICEF (2009), Dawes, Biersteker and Louw (2006) report that during the past two decades, the Convention has transformed the way children are viewed and treated throughout the world. The Convention has exerted a pervasive and insightful influence on national and international legislation, policy and programmes, public and private institutions, families, communities and individuals. In addition Manful and McCrystal (2010), Kiersey and Hayes (2010) as well as UNICEF (2009) state that the Convention has been part of the development, protection and participation of children's rights across the world and outlines the basic rights of children and the responsibilities of the governments to protect children worldwide.

Additionally Dawes (2006) and the Asian Development Bank (2003) underscore that the rights of the child are set out in the CRC as particularly relevant to the Framework for Children Living and Working on the Streets in South Africa. According to Naidoo (2010), the Department of Social Development (2009a) and UNICEF (2009; 2004), the Convention has the welfare of children at heart and calls for action to be taken in the best interest of the child (Article 3); for children to be protected from violence, abuse and neglect (Article 19); to protect children without family (Article 20); to accord them the right to health and medical and social welfare services (Article 24) and the right to education (Article 28).

Asian Development Bank (2003) maintains that the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) provides a rights-based framework for intervention in the lives of children and currently there has been a debate that has centred on the difficulty of accommodating street children in the legislation. Further evidence was provided (Asian Development Banks , 2003) that the CRC recognizes that children in street situations are human beings and rights holders entitled to be protected by the government.

3.1.2 South African Constitution (Act 108 of 1996)

The Constitution of SA is the supreme law of the country of SA. It provides the legal foundation for the existence of the republic, sets out the rights and duties of its citizens and defines the structure of the government (Republic of South Africa, 1996). According to Lombard (2008b), the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) places emphasis on equality in all spheres of life, human dignity, and the right to social security, respect and the security of children's rights. The Constitution is therefore the overarching document providing guiding principles for all the legislation and policies developed thereafter. The Constitution not only recognises the injustices of the past, but also depicts the new South Africa as an open and democratic society based on human dignity, equality and freedom.

Naidoo (2010), Streak, Dawes, Ewing, Levine, Rama and Alexander (2008) indicate that the Constitution requires that the child's best interests be considered of paramount importance in every matter concerning the child. UNICEF (2009), Streak et al. (2008) as well as Streak and Poggenpoel (2005) explain that the South African Constitution (1996:section 28 (1) (a,b,c,d)) makes provision for family care, parental care or appropriate alternative care if a child is removed from the family environment and the right to basic social welfare services. The Constitution (1996: section 12) guarantees the right to freedom and security of the person (regardless of age) and the right to basic nutrition, shelter, basic healthcare services and social welfare services.

3.1.3 Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005)

According to Department of Social Development (2010b) and Dawes (2006) the Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005) is a piece of welfare legislation that provides for the protection of children at risk and deemed to be in need of care, and makes provision for mandated reporting of abuse. Motala (2010) and UNICEF (2009) assert that the most comprehensive addition to the child rights framework is the 2005 Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005) which reinforces provisions in the Bill of Rights and details the responsibilities of parents and guardians. Dawes (2006) asserts that the Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005) takes into account the interests of the child including the protection of street children. The Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005) (2006: section 18(2)) clarifies ways to care for and protect the vulnerable group emphasising the parental responsibilities and rights that a parent has in respect of a child.

Blundlender, Williams, Saal, Sineke and Proudlock (2011) as well as the Department of the National Treasury (2011) articulate that the Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005) as amended covers many different areas of service to children. The responsibilities for providing and funding social welfare services are placed on the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development (DoJD), Department of Social Development (Department of Social Development), Department of Education (DoE) and Department of Health (DoH). The Department of Social Development plays a significant role in service delivery since the greatest responsibility lies with it.

The social welfare services will be discussed in detail under the nature of social welfare services rendered to street children.

3.1.4 Policy Framework for Street Children

According to the Department of Social Development (2010c) in the Strategy and Guidelines for Children Living and Working in the Streets, the plight of street children in South Africa became a key priority issue with the introduction of the Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005) which defined them as "children in need of care and protection". The Department of Social Development (2010b) points out that the Policy Framework for Children Living and Working on the Streets responds to challenges relating to

children at risk of living and working on the streets, as well as providing to effectively render social welfare services and programmes to those who are already surviving on the streets.

The Department of Social Development (2010b) further declares that the Policy Framework for Children Living and Working on the Streets requires functional and effective coordination in collaboration with other service providers to maximise the response to the needs and challenges faced by the children; to avoid duplication of efforts; to ensure optimal use of resources and ensure compliance with service delivery in terms of the Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005).

According to the Department of Social Development (2010b) and Ward (2007), the Policy Framework for Children Living and Working on the Streets intends to provide different stakeholders at national, provincial, and local levels with a guideline to develop their own programmes for the management of street children. The Department of Social Development (2010b) alludes to the fact that the Policy Framework for Children Living and Working on the Streets allows the service providers to be flexible and utilise elements of the framework that are relevant, efficient and effective regarding the street children since the needs of the street children are different from those of other children.

The following section will present the social welfare services rendered to children in South Africa.

3.2 SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICES TO CHILDREN IN SOUTH AFRICA

Streak et al. (2008) postulate that the national and provincial departments of social development have a key role to play in the delivering of social welfare services, to protect and promote development of vulnerable children though faced with several obstacles to funding of the service providers. According to the Department of Social Development (2010a), the social sector delivers its social welfare services in the context of the major challenges presented by poverty, unemployment and inequality. In order to respond adequately to these challenges, the Department (Department of Social Development) has committed itself to implementing a number of interventions,

including comprehensive social security, social welfare services, and community development services. For the purpose of the study only social welfare services will be discussed in detail.

Sanchez (2010), Streak and Poggenpoel (2005) as well as Lombard (2005) describe social welfare services as interventions that help people to deal with social problems arising from social, economic or political changes, which are delivered by departments of social development with the assistance of Non-Governmental Organisations. According to Littell and Shlonsky (2010) as well as Patel and Hochfeld (2008) the type of social welfare delivered in SA is prescribed in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) and shaped by local values, beliefs of the community in the interest of the child and available resources. The social welfare services are designed to ensure the safety of children. Primary responsibility for delivering child welfare social welfare services rests with the national, provincial and local governments and NGOs.

The Department of Social Development (2011a, 2010a) alleges that the level of service delivery will be determined by the specific developmental needs and social challenges that must be addressed. The service provider determines the intervention strategy that will enable the beneficiary to reach the optimum level of social functioning and self-reliance. In order to facilitate standardisation of social welfare services, the Department commenced with the development of operational norms and standards for social welfare services (Department of Social Development, 2009c).

The social welfare services targeting street children will be discussed in detail in the next section.

3.3 SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICES TARGETING STREET CHILDREN

The nature of social welfare services rendered for street children will be discussed in detail in the next section.

3.3.1 The nature of social welfare services rendered for street children

According to Motala (2010) as well as Ward and Seager (2010), NGOs employ a wide variety of programmes to address the needs and rights of street children such as advocacy; preventive programmes; institutional programmes which entail residential rehabilitation programmes and full-care residential homes as well as street-based programmes or outreach programmes which entail inter alia feeding programmes, medical social welfare services, legal assistance, street education, financial social welfare services, family reunification, drop-in centres or night shelters and outreach programmes.

The Asian Development Bank (2003) stipulates that programmes for street children are multi-sectoral because the health, education, survival and emotional needs of street children are impossible to address separately. The Department of Social Development (2010a) and Dybicz (2005) assert that street children are in need of unique interventions that are distinct from those of other children in need of care. Dybicz (2005) categorises the possible interventions into three broad groups:

Primary prevention interventions: Aimed at children who live in absolute poverty but have not yet entered street life, the goal is to reduce the influence of “push” and “pull” factors through improving conditions at home, and putting a focus on community development.

Secondary prevention interventions: These are aimed at children who have already entered street life, and who maintain regular contact with their families. The goal is to develop interventions before the situation becomes critical.

Tertiary prevention interventions: Aimed at street children and abandoned children who have little or no family contact. The focus is on intervention, healing, rehabilitation and the prevention of further problems or possible removal of children for placement in alternative care.

The following Table 3.1 represents the core levels of interventions in social welfare services for children including street children as indicated by the Integrated Service Delivery Model (ISDM) (Department of Social Development, 2010b).

Table 3.1: Levels of interventions of social welfare services (Department of Social Development, 2010b)

Categories of interventions	Nature of social welfare services	Levels of intervention
Primary intervention	Promotion and prevention	Prevention
	Protection	Early intervention
Secondary intervention	Rehabilitation, therapeutic, restorative	Statutory, residential and aftercare
	Mental health	Reconstruction and aftercare social welfare services
	Continuous care	
Tertiary intervention	Reintegration and after care	
	Social support and relief social welfare services	

From the Table 3.1 above, it may be seen that the social welfare services are delivered according to three levels of intervention and also have different natures of service. According to the Department of Social Development (2010a) social welfare services are delivered at three levels of intervention depending on the nature of the developmental need or social challenge to be addressed. The emphasis is on prevention and early intervention services. The social welfare services not only focus on the child, but also on the family and the community from which the child comes. The services imply a good understanding of the reasons which bring children to the

street. Reunification with the family where it exists and reintegration in the community are an important aspect of the service delivery to street children. According to Ray et al. (2011), the Department of Social Development (2010a) and Patel (2007), the levels of interventions that address the phenomenon of street children are generally categorised according to the programme phases. The levels of intervention will be discussed in detail in the following section.

3.3.1.1 Early prevention and intervention

Early intervention is a level of intervention which includes intensive support, capacity building, social relief; home-based developmental support and therapeutic programmes. These social welfare services are rendered by multi-disciplinary teams across a variety of stakeholders (Integrated Service Delivery Model 2006:20).

According to the Department of Social Development (2010a), prevention social welfare services can be defined as the social welfare services that would lead to the improvement of individuals, groups and communities by the promoting their wellbeing. The aim of prevention services is to strengthen and build the families' capacity and self-reliance to address problems that they face. The Asian Development Bank (2003) adds that through protection measures as a form of intervention method, street children should be protected from danger, abuse and exploitation. The Department of Social Development (2009a) adds that the initiatives to support families comprise the following; income generation or employment assistance, family violence interventions, parent training, substance abuse interventions, and support for children to receive an education.

The Department of Social Development (2006b) and Terreblanche (2003) indicate that the implementation of the prevention social welfare services creates transformational challenges for practising social workers as some of the poor communities' needs still remain unmet and leave social workers feeling powerless in terms of rendering social welfare services. The Department of Social Development (2006b) emphasises a gap in the delivery of developmental social welfare services for prevention and early intervention programmes. More focus has been placed on implementation of statutory services rather than on prevention and early intervention

services. Ward and Seager (2010) conclude that the number of children on the streets can only be reduced through preventative initiatives such as by reducing the numbers of families who live in poverty, supporting families in order to raise the children in safe, loving environments, and helping children stay in school.

3.3.1.2 Alternative care, residential care and statutory services

The Department of Social Development (2010b) asserts that this level includes the rehabilitation and continued care social welfare services, which do not necessarily require statutory intervention. They can also be referred to as restorative social welfare services or tertiary prevention that aims to reduce the negative impact of an existing challenge or problem by restoring the children to an improved level of social functioning.

According to UNICEF(2010) as well as Dunn and Parry-Williams (2008), there are many issues worldwide that influence the need for alternative care and alternative care practices, among other factors the authors mention poverty; high HIV-prevalence; poor access to social welfare services; migration; violence; abuse, neglect, abandonment and also lack of education and health care. Poverty is seen as a major factor that undermines parents' and relatives' ability to care for children and makes them resort to residential care by Dunn and Parry-Williams (2008). McDaniel, Braiden, Onyekwelu, Murphy and Regan (2011) emphasise that the key aim of the alternative care service is to provide long-term quality placements for children, who, for a variety of reasons, are unable to live with their birth families which is achieved through robust recruitment, comprehensive fostering assessments, ongoing support and training.

Schmied, Brownhill and Walsh (2006) recognise residential care as a term used to describe a number of service modalities, including institutional care, group care, congregate care and residential treatment centres. Residential care, places of safety and children's homes are used as primary resources in SA to protect abused children. Social welfare services at the residential care facilities generally include counselling, education, recreation, health, nutrition, daily living skills, and advocacy social welfare services. Buist and Whyte (2004) highlight that the primary purpose of

residential care is to address the unique needs of young people who require additional social welfare services above those available to them within a family setting. It also involves identifying and reducing key risk factors, such as antisocial peers, substance abuse, poor family functioning and school failure.

The vulnerable children can be placed in formal care depending on their circumstances. Shelters are for children who find themselves on the street after running away from a bad situation at home or being kicked out of home. Children's homes are for children who have been removed from their family homes because they were being abused, neglected or exploited. Places of Safety offer short-term care for both children who have been abused, neglected or exploited as well as children who have violated the law and are awaiting an inquiry. Abandoned babies and young children are placed in children's homes. Drop-in centres fall under the facility of partial care thus need the social welfare services of a social service professional to assess the needs of children, reintegrate them with parents or place them in alternative care (Department of Social Development, 2010c; Dawes, 2006).

Extended family placements are the preferred method of care for orphans, and nearly half of informal orphan placements are with grandparents. Foster care is a formal placement based on a social work assessment that the child is in need of an alternative care plan and on a court order the Department of Social Development (2010c). According to UNICEF (2010) and the Save the Children Fund (2007), half a million children are placed in foster care with relatives due to a policy in 2000 that legalised the placement of children with extended family members.

3.3.1.3 Reunification and after care

According to the Department of Social Development (2010a), this level of service delivery aims to enable service beneficiaries to regain self-reliance and optimal social functioning within the least restrictive environment possible. It facilitates reintegration into family and community life after separation.

Ward and Seager (2010), and the Save the Children Fund (2007) as well as Pare (2003) are of the opinion that the programmes addressing street children's needs

come with gaps and shortcomings. Most NGOs have begun to consider family reunion as an ultimate solution, but have not changed their structures to achieve that; children refuse to return to their families, and sometimes the family situation appears very difficult to deal with; there is an oversight of programmes defining the responses for children without thinking about the different realities for girls and boys due to their different needs and experiences.

Reunification social welfare services are essentially non-existent. Because of the shortage of social workers and the high caseload that they carry, there has been a neglect of adequate reunification social welfare services by social workers. Placements of children in alternative care are meant to be temporary placements and the child and family should be reunified. However, these placements have tended to become permanent because the child–family relationship has not been restored (Padayachee, 2005).

3.3.2 Challenges experienced in rendering social welfare services to street children

According to Street Action (2010), the Department of Social Development (2010a) and Panther-Brick (2003), children are still living on the streets and are urgently in need of interventions and protection by government and NGOs. Cross, Seager, Erasmus, Ward and O'Dovon (2010) warn that it is vital to note that homelessness remains a problem for developed countries and only a few developed nations have succeeded in eliminating homelessness despite the social welfare services they have in place to eradicate poverty.

Loffell (2008) argues that in South Africa protective service delivery to street children has remained largely the responsibility of NGOs with funding from volunteers given that the government alone cannot possibly address the global crisis. The Department of Social Development (2011a, 2010d) and Pitzl (2006) concede that NGOs have played a significant role in street children's programmes, in many cases providing social welfare services that local and national governments cannot afford. Yet NGO programmes alone are not enough to reduce significantly the number of children in the street. The Department of Social Development (2011b) further claims that the

NPO (NGO) sector is central to the delivery of social welfare services in South Africa. The NPO sector is made up of more than 100 000 organisations which primarily contribute to activities and social welfare services required at community level. The NPO database indicates that over 76 000 NPOs are currently registered with the department, with over 23500 dealing with social welfare services.

Grundling and Grundling (2005) declare that despite all the efforts and programmes aimed at addressing the plight of street children, the needs of these children are simply not being met and their numbers are ever increasing due to the lack of sufficient resources, such as funding and trained staff, as well as a lack of proper planning and government policies. The Department of Social Development (2009b) like the Department of Social Development (2005) articulates that the NPO sector has a lack of capacity to manage its affairs, and to deliver quality social welfare services. In most cases, money is often diverted to administrative social welfare services rather than addressing the needs of children. Earle (2008) and Lombard (2005) are of the view that the partnership between the government and NGOs comes with numerous challenges including increasing governmental control and a lack of recognition of the efficacy of the NGOs.

Lombard (2005) adds that the challenges include high caseloads which indicate a lack of resources, discrepancies in salaries between NGOs and government social workers, and a mass departure from the profession to further careers either in another country or outside of the social welfare sector. Giese (2010) and Lombard (2005) further highlight that a very high percentage of social workers' caseloads entail statutory work and therefore focus on children and families which results in social workers being charged with unprofessional conduct due to the fact that they cannot cope with the demands arising from unmanageable case workloads. Loffell, et al. (2008) describe the following as challenges to the delivery of social welfare services: a shortage of social workers, poor recognition of other social service practitioners, a lack of funding and high staff turnover. Velaphi (2012) highlights that lack of funding makes NGOs vulnerable to collapsing, losing experienced staff and senior leadership to government where conditions of employment and remuneration are better. The NGOs experience a staff turn-over as a results of frustration, lack of job satisfaction or low salaries.

Analyses conducted by Budlender and Proudlock (2010) and Barberton (2006) indicate that the government budget allocations for social welfare services covered for the Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005) are insufficient. Low budget allocation for the implementation of the Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005) implies that the institutional capacity to carry out programmes and fund social welfare services for children especially street children is compromised and limited financially and human resource-wise. De Sas Kropiwnicki (2010) cautions that the financial implication means that NGOs, known to be champions in rendering social welfare services to children and programmes for street children in particular, are underfunded and thus the quality of the early intervention and prevention programmes and the social welfare services they offer are limited and undermined.

In order to address the challenges Giese (2010) as well as Proudlock and Jamieson (2008) state that child and youth care workers, social auxiliary workers and community development workers should provide statutory social welfare services such as assessing partial care centres, early child development programmes, drop-in centres, monitoring foster placement rather than mandating only social workers to do most of the work. Volpi (2002) claims that street children's programmes need funding to sustain and expand existing social welfare services. The funding will also help in the monitoring and evaluation of the interventions and training of staff members. Volpi (2002) further declares that lobbying, advocacy and networking is a way to assist NGOs to overcome their isolation, and to give a stronger voice to street children themselves.

3.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter explored literature on social welfare services rendered to street children, legislation that relates to the children and programmes that have been rendered to support and empower the street children.

Chapter 4 elaborates more on the research methodology applied during the study.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4. INTRODUCTION

This chapter elaborates further on the research methodology that was followed. The chapter then discusses qualitative research employed as a research method to explore and describe the social welfare services delivered to street children by service providers in Pretoria. The chapter discusses the research design used to achieve the aim and objectives of the study as well as the process for data collection and analysis, methods employed to ensure validity and reliability as well as ethical considerations adhered to during the study. Creswell's eight steps which were utilised for data analysis will also be discussed in detail.

4.1 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Creswell (2009) as well as Burns and Grove (2007) describes research methodology as the complete plan for the study starting from conceptualising the research problem to the final strategies for data collection. These authors further elaborate that research methods include the application of all steps, strategies and procedures for gathering and analysing data in a research investigation in a logical and systematic way.

According to Cohen et.al.(2007) and Polit and Beck (2004), methodology in research involves various steps of gathering and analyzing data from a given population so as to understand a phenomenon and to generalise facts obtained from a large population with the aim of increasing the quality of the research. Burns and Grove (2007) add that procedures and instruments for data collection may include population, sampling frame, data collection and analysis and the rationale for the application of specific techniques in each phase of the research.

4.1.1 Research approach

For the purpose of the study, the researcher opted to employ the qualitative approach. Punch (2005) emphasises that very often, the point of a qualitative study is to look at something holistically and comprehensively, to study it in its complexity, and to understand it in its context. Burns and Grove (2007), Maree (2007) as well as Denzin and Lincoln (2005) define qualitative research as a systematic approach that locates the observer in describing life experiences and situations and gives them meaning through a series of field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings, and memos. Qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret phenomena in terms of the meaning people bring to them.

The researcher used the qualitative approach due to its characteristics as described by Creswell (2009), as well as Mack, et al. (2005):

- Qualitative researchers are interested in meaning – how people make sense of their lives, experiences, and their structures of the world. In this research endeavour, the researcher was mainly interested in the perspectives of service providers in relation to the nature and impact of the social welfare services they are rendering to street children.
- The qualitative researcher is the primary instrument for data-collection and analysis. Data are mediated through this human instrument (i.e. the researcher conducting the interviews and doing participant observation), rather than through inventories, interview guides or machines. In this study the researcher personally visited the organisations to conduct the interviews. Data were collected by examining the organisational documents, participant observation, interviews, tape recordings and field notes.
- Qualitative research involves fieldwork. The researcher physically goes to the people, setting, site, or institution to observe or record behaviour in its natural setting. The researcher started by building relationships with the identified organisations in their settings. In the study, the researcher visited different

service providers that render social welfare services to street children with the aim of interviewing them regarding the nature of social welfare services rendered and how the social welfare services can be enhanced.

- Qualitative research is explorative by nature; the researcher wants to explore the phenomenon under investigation. In this study the phenomenon was explored in the hope of gaining knowledge and insight from the participants. In pursuing this research project with a qualitative approach the researcher was continuously aware of the emerging nature of the qualitative information and tailored her methodology to best fit the realities she encountered.
- Qualitative research is descriptive in that the researcher is interested in the process, meaning and understanding gained through words and pictures. Participants were encouraged and facilitated to speak and analyse their situations as they see them, decide what their problems are and suggest solutions. The phenomenon of street children was described from the participants' frame of reference, the meaning they attach to it and their understanding since they are the experts in the field.
- The process of qualitative research is inductive in that the researcher builds the patterns, categories and themes from the words or narratives of the participants. From the data collected, the meaning attached to every comment, the themes and theories that relate to the content was also identified.

4.1.2 Research design

According to Burns and Grove (2007:223), a research design is “a blueprint for conducting a study, including methods for maximising control over factors that might interfere with the trustworthiness, validity and reliability of the study and the end result of a series of decisions made by the researcher on how to implement the study”. Burns and Grove (2007) assert that the research design guides the researcher in planning and implementing the study in a way that is most likely to

achieve the intended goal. Babbie (2011) and Burns and Grove (2007) further define a research design as a set of decisions regarding what topic is to be studied, among what population, with what research methods and for what purpose. Babbie (2009) further provides the following questions to be answered by the researcher while focusing on the research design:

- Where and when should the research be done?
- What information should be collected?
- From whom or what can it best be obtained?
- How should it be collected?
- How should the information collected be organized and analysed?
- How will the research findings be disseminated?

Research designs applicable to this study include explorative, descriptive and contextual designs. The study began by exploring the research project first and then describing the phenomenon in order to give clarity around other things that the researcher was intending to address, such as the basic facts, people and problems. Babbie (2011) mentions the most common purposes of research as explorative and descriptive. Babbie (2009) and Neuman (2006) describe exploratory research as research in which the primary purpose is to examine a little-understood issue or phenomenon to develop preliminary ideas and move towards refined research questions by focusing on the “what” question.

According to Babbie (2011) exploratory research design is mainly used to satisfy the researcher’s curiosity and desire for a better understanding, to test the feasibility of undertaking a more extensive study, and to develop the methods to be employed in any subsequent study. In view of the fact that little was known about the social welfare services rendered to street children by NGOs, the exploratory design was chosen as the study attempted to discover and develop an in-depth understanding of the experiences of service providers rendering social welfare services to street children, to explore the types and nature of social welfare service rendered for street children, and how the services are being delivered for street children. Suggestions

on how to overcome these barriers from the aforementioned participant groups also had to be explored.

In order to gain a better understanding of the phenomenon and to describe how things are happening within the selected phenomenon a descriptive design was utilised. Neuman (2006) and Babbie and Mouton (2010) declare that descriptive research is the research in which the primary purpose is to “paint a picture” using words or numbers and to present a profile, a classification of types, or an outline of steps to answer questions such as who, when, where and how. Through this design, the researcher could then describe what hinders the effective rendering of social welfare services to street children and the participants could also provide suggestions as to how social service delivery to street children can be enhanced.

Neuman (2006) postulates that evidence about a person’s social world cannot be isolated from the context in which it occurs. According to Babbie (2009), contextual studies seek to avoid the separation of participants from the large context to which they may be related. Neuman (2006) explains that a contextual research design is employed in a qualitative research study to understand the social meaning and significance of an event or social action from the social context in which it appears. Within this study’s boundaries “contextual” refers to the fact that the study was conducted within its immediate context, in a specific geographical area (Pretoria) and respective offices of the participants. The researcher’s intention was to gain an in-depth understanding of the nature of social welfare services within the context of service providers working with street children; to understand the service providers’ barriers and solutions in delivering the social services to street children within their context.

In relation to the above description, the researcher employed an exploratory, descriptive and contextual research design as not much has been written about the topic within the said geographical context. Exploration helped the researcher to become familiar with the phenomenon of street children, to gain new insight into it and build an understanding by reviewing literature, annual reports, publications, NGOs’ documents, records, books, journals and interviewing the service providers rendering social welfare services for street children in Pretoria.

4.1.2.1 Population

According to Babbie (2011), “population” is a term that sets boundaries on the study units. Polit and Beck (2004:289) describe the population as “the entire aggregation of cases in which a researcher is interested; the group of people that meet the sample criteria for inclusion. The members of a population need to be accessible because they are the intention of the investigation”. Babbie (2009) declares that a population is any group of individuals that relates to a group that has one or more characteristics in common that interest the researcher and meets the sample criteria of inclusion.

The population for the study consisted of all service providers in NGOs delivering services to street children in Pretoria. The street children were not interviewed for the purpose of the study since the focus of the study was to determine the type of social welfare services rendered to street children. The study did not include an evaluation of the quality of the social welfare services.

4.1.2.2 Sampling

Sampling was used since it is not possible to study every case in a targeted population. Monette, et al. (2008), Babbie (2009) and Neuman (2006) view a sample as a subset of measurements drawn from a population in which we are interested. The primary purpose of sampling is to represent the elements of the population from which the researcher seeks to collect data by investigating specific cases, events, or actions that can clarify and deepen understanding.

According to Strydom and Delport (2011), Babbie (2009), as well as Burns and Grove (2007), a distinction can be made between non-probability and probability sampling. Probability sampling occurs when the population can be determined and non-probability sampling is used when the population is unknown. For the purpose of this study a non-probability sampling method was employed because the researcher did not have any knowledge of the population size.

(a) Non-probability sampling

According to Babbie (2011) and Monette et al. (2008), non-probability sampling is used to understand the social processes and meaning of a particular group. Non-probability sampling was preferred in this study because it involves the selection of a sample from a population by means of a non-random process whereby the researcher was able to gain insight from selected people. The method of non-probability sampling applied in this study was a combination of purposive and snowball sampling. To be included in the study, the participants had to be working with NGOs that render social welfare services to street children in Pretoria under the umbrella of TASC.

(b) Purposive sampling

Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), Monette et al. (2008) as well as Neuman (2006) define purposive sampling as a “non-random sampling method in which the researcher uses the previous knowledge to select participants who have experienced the central phenomenon explored in the study”. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), Babbie (2011) as well as Burns and Grove (2007) assert that purposive sampling can be used in three particular cases. Firstly, purposive sampling is appropriate when the researcher wants to select unique cases that can provide special information. Secondly, a purposive sample is often used where the members of the population are difficult to get hold of or are specialised. Thirdly, purposive sampling is used to identify specific cases for deep analysis.

The researcher used her judgement to select the sample from the previous knowledge of NGOs that worked with the street children. The selected participants met the pre-established criteria for inclusion in the study.

(c) Snowball sampling

According to Babbie (2011), Monette et al. (2008) and Mack et al. (2005) snowball sampling is appropriate when participants with whom contact has already been

made, use their social networks to refer the researcher to other people who could potentially meet the eligibility criteria.

Considering the above, the researcher opted for purposive and snowball sampling for the following reasons:

- The researcher did not have accurate knowledge of how many organisations were involved with street children under TASC in Pretoria.
- The researcher obtained all the names of service providers involved in rendering social work social welfare services to street children in Pretoria from the internet and the manager of TASC which is the umbrella body that is working with street children in Gauteng. An application was presented to the manager of TASC for ethical approval. The ethical approval was granted by the management of TASC within two weeks of the request being submitted.
- It was not easy to get hold of the participants. The researcher used the snowball technique due to the fact that some organisations had changed their names and relocated while some had closed down.

The researcher was then introduced to ten organisations. Out of the ten organisations only eight were accessible because they were in the vicinity of Pretoria. From the identified ten, two had relocated to areas outside Pretoria and changed their staff members. The researcher had to ask the participants to help her to identify the organisations rendering social welfare services to street children that they networked with and provide their address and telephone numbers. Two extra organisations were identified through the snowball technique. The service providers were then contacted and an appointment was scheduled. Two of the previously identified organisations did not meet the criteria for inclusion since one worked with toddlers and the other with the youth in general.

Since this study was qualitative in nature, the sample size was not determined at the outset of the study, but the principle of “data saturation” was applied to determine the sample size in the end. Fossey, Harvey, McDermott and Davidson (2002:72)

maintain that it is customary, in qualitative research, not to determine the sample size at the outset of the study; the principle of “saturation of data” determines the size. This means that the researcher will continue with the collection of data from multiple participants until the information becomes repetitive. According to Strydom (2011), a researcher might reach the point where data become repetitive and few new insights come to the fore, and then he or she can withdraw from the field.

4.2 METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

According to Burns and Grove (2007), data collection is the precise and systematic gathering of information relevant to the research purpose, objectives, question or hypothesis of the study. Creswell (2010) identifies the approaches that can be used in collecting data through open-ended questions such as interviews and group discussions. There are three main types of interviews, namely; structured, semi-structured and in-depth interviews.

In this research endeavour data were collected by means of semi-structured interviews. An interview is the face-to-face research method, which exposes the researcher to the practical reality of the research topic and is hands-on and outcomes based in nature (Babbie, 2009). Burns and Grove (2007) maintain that a semi-structured interview guide sets the agenda but does not presuppose the nature of the response in that semi-structured interviews can be used to gain a detailed picture of a participant’s beliefs about, or perceptions or accounts of, a particular topic, thus giving the researcher and the participant much more flexibility.

According to Creswell (2009) and Babbie (2009), semi-structured interviewing might include several main questions to direct the discussion; main questions focus on topics or subject areas that are to be explored as part of the interview guide or protocol. The interviewer decides on the sequence and wording of questions in the course of the interview. Semi-structured interviews are conducted using a loose structure of open-ended questions which define the area to be explored and which the participant can answer in his or her own words, for example, “what do you think leads to the success or failure of rendering good social welfare services to street children,” thus allowing the researcher and participants to be flexible. The researcher

found it difficult to conduct the interviews as scheduled since most of the participants had other commitments and had to reschedule for another meeting. There were continuous disruptions during the interviews because some NGOs had a shortage of staff members and had to answer the phone, sign documents and attend to the street children at the same time. Despite the difficulties experienced, the participants were very accommodating and would offer the researcher some lunch or something to drink after the interview.

4.2.1 Pilot study

In this research endeavour, the preparation for data collection began with the pilot study. According to Strydom and Delpont (in de Vos et al., 2011) as well as van Teijlingen and Hundley (2002), pilot studies can be based on quantitative and/or qualitative methods and large-scale studies might employ a number of pilot studies before the main survey is conducted. Thabane, Chu, Cheng, Ismaila, Rios, Robson, Thabane, Giangregorio and Goldsmith (2010) as well as Arnold, Burns, Adhikari, Kho, Meade and Cook (2009) define a pilot, or feasibility study, as a smaller version of a larger study that is conducted to prepare for the larger study in order to improve the latter's quality and efficiency. A pilot study can involve pre-testing a research tool, such as a new data collection method.

Arnold et al. (2009) maintain that a pilot study may address a number of logistical issues prior to the main study. The main purpose for the researcher in conducting a pilot study was to test the interview guide and the procedures or methods for data collection prior to the main study since the researcher had little information about the phenomenon under investigation. The researcher pilot tested the interview guide with two known social workers rendering social welfare services to street children in Pretoria. The pilot study helped to determine whether the proposed questions and procedures would be adequate and appropriate to elicit the data required to answer the research questions that prompted the study. The researcher also used the pilot data to enhance her interviewing skills to allow for deeper exploration and to generate more information on any particular aspect under investigation.

The pilot study helped the researcher after supervision to understand the meaning that the participants attach to the phenomenon of street children. The participants' ideas, meanings and values are essential parts of the situations and activities under investigation (Maxwell, 2005). Initially the focus of the study was to have interviews with only social workers but then after conducting the pilot study with two participants, the researcher realised there are only a few social workers employed by NGOs and had to shift the focus of the interviews to include other staff members employed by the NGOs offering social welfare services to the street children, such as managers, co-ordinators and child and youth care workers.

The interview guide and criteria for inclusion were also revised to be in line with the experiences of the participants with regard to the phenomenon under investigation. New questions were added on issues that the researcher had never thought were important in order to yield more meaning. Repetitive and irrelevant questions were deleted and restructured. The participants were asked to elaborate more by describing specific social welfare services rendered to street children. The improved interview guide was therefore used as the final instrument to collect the data for the final study. It should be noted that the two participants who were initially interviewed in the pilot study, were included as part of the sample since the questions were completely changed. The participants were re-interviewed after changes were made on the interview guide to increase the efficiency of the main study (Thabane et al., 2010).

4.2.2 Preparation for data collection

The researcher began the process of data collection by making contact with the respective service providers and meeting with the potential participants. The first meeting was arranged with the Manager of TASC, who acted as the gatekeeper, to gain a holistic view of the organisation. She was understanding and very helpful in that she selected organisations that work with street children from the list and scheduled appointments on the researcher's behalf with different organisations under the umbrella of TASC. She made sure that the researcher had access to all the organisations. Organisations that do not work with street children were excluded from the study.

Though arrangements were made for the researcher, it was still difficult to actually get hold of the participants. Several telephonic attempts were made to secure the appointments and there was often no response due to old numbers, relocation of organisations, resignation of staff members and staff not being available at the organisation. The researcher decided to pay personal visits for the appointments. The researcher had a close involvement with the participants in their natural environment. The purpose of the visits was to build rapport and trust by creating a warm atmosphere in which the participants were able and willing to take part in the study voluntarily. The researcher achieved this by listening, empathising and being non-judgmental.

The purpose and the criteria for inclusion in the research were explained to the participants. The researcher further explained the envisaged use of the results and their dissemination. Regarding the ethical issues, the participants were assured of confidentiality and were presented with the consent forms asking for permission to participate in the study. Once the participants had received all the information about the proposed study, had their questions answered, and queries cleared up, and they had agreed to participate in the study, they were requested to sign a consent form, indicating their willingness to participate in the study. The consent form is added as an addendum to this research report. Upon agreement to participate, an appointment was scheduled for the interview. It took the researcher four weeks to make arrangements since the researcher was not familiar with the organisations and it was difficult to get hold of the relevant participants.

4.2.3 Data collection

The researcher conducted nine semi-structured interviews with the service providers including two social workers, two site managers, three programme coordinators and two care workers. The structure of the interview was explained and open-ended questions were asked to assist the participants to substantiate and elaborate on their answers (Burns and Grove, 2007). The proposed length of the interview and the use of the tape recorder were communicated to the participants and their permission to use this device was sought.

The questions which were formulated initially are presented in Chapter under 1.6 on page 15, and following feedback from the two participants who participated in the pilot study, the questions were restructured as indicated in Chapter 4 under 4.2.3 on page 68. Therefore, the latter set of questions is a product of the pilot study.

Request: Tell me about the social welfare services rendered to street children?

Questions:

- What social welfare services do you specifically render for street children in Pretoria?
- What do you think are the causes of street children?
- How many children are catered for?
- What do you regard as the needs of street children?
- What are the barriers to addressing the needs of street children?
- How many staff members do you have and what are their responsibilities?
- What nature of programmes do you render for street children?
- What nature of social work services do you provide in terms of prevention and early intervention programmes?
- Tell me more about the outreach programmes that you run.
- How do you reintegrate the street children back into the community or their families?
- In your view what helps and benefits the social welfare service delivery to street children?
- In your view, what hinders your social welfare service delivery to street children?
- What long-term solutions do you employ to help the street children?
- Any suggestions from your side, on how the service delivery to street children can be improved or enhanced?

The use of the interviews enabled the researcher to access knowledge directly from the experts on the topic. The aim of the interview was to gain a detailed picture of participants' beliefs about, or perceptions or accounts of social welfare services that are rendered for the street children in Pretoria. With the permission of the participants, the semi-structured interviews were tape-recorded. All interviews were

conducted in English, Zulu or Setswana. The interviews were digitally recorded with the consent of the participants because tapes contain the exact words of the interview inclusive of questions.

During the interviews the participants did most of the talking and were welcome to introduce an issue the researcher had not thought of while the researcher listened with empathy. In this relationship, the participants were viewed as “experts on the subject” and were allowed maximum opportunity to tell his or her story. The participants were encouraged to talk more as the credibility of qualitative methods depends on the skill, competence and attitude of the researcher as the primary data collection instrument. During all the interviews, the researcher made a conscious effort to establish an atmosphere of trust and build rapport and tried at all times to ask questions that were only related to the study.

The questions helped the researcher to identify the gaps in what is being done to meet street children’s needs. More insight was provided also on how social welfare services are rendered to street children. The interview guide remained flexible and was in line with qualitative research guidelines. The answers evoked by the initial questions shaped the subsequent ones. Interview duration varied according to the participants. Initially each interview was set for 45 minutes per participant but went to 60 minutes for some participants. After conducting the interviews it was clear that the same themes were repeated by the participants and that data saturation had been reached. The field notes, interview records and digital voice recorders were stored in a safe locked place to ensure confidentiality. The ethical issues including confidentiality were addressed during the interview. Participants were asked to give their inputs and ask any questions.

The researcher was very well accommodated and found it easy to build rapport due to the fact that our Department (UNISA) networks with the chosen organisations. The participants felt that they had nothing to lose in participating and were not afraid that they might be reported to the government or managers; instead they embraced this as an opportunity to assist them with overcoming the obstacles in their service delivery.

4.3 DATA ANALYSIS

Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) as well as Burns and Grove (2007) assert that data collection and analysis typically go hand in hand in order to build a consistent understanding of the data. The researcher is guided by initial concepts and interpretations in the process of reducing, organising and giving meaning to the collected data.

Punch (2005) asserts that methods of data analysis need to be systematic, disciplined and able to be analysed and described. To ensure that the above statement and definitions are employed in the context of this study, the researcher followed the eight steps as proposed by Tesch (in Creswell, 2009) to analyse the data. The tape-recorded interviews were listened to and transcribed in Setswana and Zulu and thereafter translated into English by the researcher. The researcher did not make use of a professional transcriber but transcribed the interviews herself as she felt the need to protect the participants' privacy and anonymity as well as to be able to really understand the transcripts in order to get a complete view of what happened during the interview. However an English language expert was consulted to ensure the consistency of the terms used in interviews and transcripts. The proposed steps according to Tesch (in Creswell 2009:186) entail the following:

- The researcher got a sense of the whole by reading the transcripts carefully, organising, sorting and jotting down along the margin some ideas as they came to mind in connection with the topic.
- Choosing the transcript on top of the transcribed interviews, the researcher read through the transcript, asking herself what it is that she was reading. This step involved thinking about the underlying meaning, rather than the "substance" of information.
- The process was repeated until a list of all the topics was acquired. The topics were then clustered together into baskets that could be labelled as "major topics", "unique topics" and "left-overs".

- With the list at hand, the data were revisited. An abbreviation for each of the topics was made in the form of codes and the codes were written next to the appropriate segments of the texts. The preliminary organising scheme was used to see if new categories and codes emerged.
- The researcher found the most descriptive wording for the topics and turned them into categories. Efforts were made to reduce the total list of categories by grouping together topics that related to each other. Lines were drawn between categories to show interrelationships.
- The researcher then made a final decision on the abbreviation for each category and alphabetised the codes.
- The data material belonging to each category was assembled in one place and a preliminary analysis was performed.
- The researcher recoded the existing data if necessary.

According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), qualitative data analysis involves coding the data, dividing the text into small units, assigning labels and grouping the codes into themes. An independent coder was appointed to study the transcripts and identify the major themes and sub-themes that became apparent in the interviews. Graneheim and Lundman (2004) claim that when researchers are generating patterns or themes from qualitative data, they can enhance the validity of the categorisation method and safeguard against researcher bias by enlisting the assistance of an experienced or expert colleague.

The role of the researcher was to transform data into findings. Data were gathered by reading more on similar topics with the aim of finding the similarities and differences between the research findings and the available literature or other research studies from the internet and library. During interviews and observations common themes in the participants' description of their experiences were identified as well as after the interview when listening to the tape recordings.

Subsequent to the data been analysed, the researcher, supervisor, co-supervisor and the independent coder sat down to discuss the results. The exercise provided the opportunity to probe further so that trustworthy data could be developed. The supervisor and the independent coder needed some of the responses to be clarified and explored further. After coding the researcher was had to go back to the participants for clarification and exploration of the given information to make it richer. For this reason, appointments for follow-up interviews (i.e. collecting the data) were made and the interviews were conducted. Out of nine participants, five participants were reinterviewed while the other four were not reinterviewed because three had resigned and in one case the NGO had closed down therefore the participant were never tracked down by the researcher.

During the second round, the researcher, co-supervisor and a colleague sat down together to read the analysed data for verification. The researcher's data analysis was more or less similar to that of the independent coder. After multiple readings, some of the themes were rephrased as they were confusing and some were deleted since there was a lot of repetition of sub-themes and sub-categories. This helped in order to avoid duplication and to ensure trustworthiness. Consensus was reached to consolidate the emerging themes in the analysed data but the final decision was left to the researcher to decide on what should be included or excluded (McAdam-Crisp, Aptekar & Kironyo, 2005).

4.4 DATA VERIFICATION

According to Creswell (2009), McBrien (2008) as well as Gerrish and Lacey (2007), qualitative researchers should strive to achieve reliable and valid results while considering the validity which represents the extent to which what is observed truly represents the variable under investigation and external validity which represents the extent that the results of a study can be generalised to other contexts and populations.

The researcher sought to use Guba's model of trustworthiness of qualitative data as outlined by Krefting (1991:215-222) to verify the data. The four aspects to ensure validity are truth-value, applicability, consistency and neutrality.

4.4.1 Truth-value

Truth-value asks how confident the researcher is with the truth of the findings based on the research design, participants, and the context in which the study was undertaken. It is concerned with the issue of whether the findings of the study are a true reflection of the experiences of the study participants (Krefting, 1991). Truth-value is established by the strategy of credibility, and for the purpose of this research, the researcher used the following methodological credibility strategies to achieve the truth-value of the findings:

4.4.1.1 Interviewing techniques

The researcher used various interviewing techniques during the interviews such as probing, verbal and non-verbal expressions, restating and summarising in order to enhance the credibility of the study. Rapport was built in relation to the participants prior to the interviews. The researcher was introduced to the NGOs by the manager of TASC who is known to the participants. The researcher used her communication skills learned as a social worker during facilitation of the interviews. The ethical issues were considered and a letter regarding informed consent which included information on the study was hand-delivered to the participants before the scheduled interview date.

4.4.1.2 Triangulation

Jones and Bragge (2006) and Babbie and Mouton (2010) state that triangulation is generally considered to be one of the ways to enhance validity and reliability in qualitative research. Neuman (2006) casts further light on the concept as observing something from different angles or viewpoints, and getting a true location. It allows the researcher to be more confident of the results since more than one data-gathering method is used to establish the validity of findings.

In this study triangulation of data sources was employed by using multiple data collection devices, sources and analysts to establish the validity of the findings. Different service providers working with street children were interviewed and different

types of data resources, were used, namely an interview schedule, digital voice recorders, field notes and literature review. This assisted the researcher to ensure conformability and completeness of the findings of data from different sources to confirm the truth. All interviewed participants were involved in rendering social welfare services to street children at different NGOs. Triangulated data for this study were collected from eight semi-structured interviews, audio-taped interviews, field notes, annual reports and newsletters from NGOs and government, journals, books and articles. The researcher used different methods for the interviews including semi-structured interviews and participant observation. The researcher used a digital voice recorder with the permission of the participants to capture the interviews, while non-verbal communication was also noted.

According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) as well as Creswell (2009), qualitative research is a type of social research that is interpretive in nature. It allows the researcher to make his/her own interpretation of collected data. Comparisons and contrasts of participants' perceptions, understanding and knowledge of the phenomenon of street children were made on the basis of the collected data. The data were then transcribed by the researcher to ensure accuracy. Transcripts were given to an independent coder who had experience in qualitative research methods, to conduct a qualitative data analysis to ensure the trustworthiness of the study. Common themes were identified and then grouped into codes by the independent coder. Data were analysed by an independent coder and discussed with the researcher, supervisor and co-supervisor.

4.4.1.3 Peer examination

Graneheim and Lundman (2004) assert that when researchers are generating patterns or themes from qualitative data, they can enhance the validity of the categorisation method and safeguard against researcher bias by enlisting the assistance of an experienced or expert colleague.

The researcher requested input from her supervisor, co-supervisor and colleagues who are well-versed qualitative researchers and who shed light on the study by asking questions and making suggestions. Credibility addresses the issue of

consistency between participants' views and the researcher's representation of it (Neuman, 2006 & Creswell, 2009). Tape recordings for the study were transcribed word-for-word and translated into English to allow for critical assessment of the interpretations from the direct quotations. An independent coder was used to analyse the data.

To enhance the credibility of the research study, the researcher used a tape recorder and data were drawn from the participants' own perceptions and experiences with the aim of seeking the participants' views on the honesty and consistency of the research findings. The transcribed data were sent to the English language expert before being analysed. Researchers do this, by summarising, repeating or paraphrasing the participants' words. Subsequently, the subjects are asked if the interpretation is a true and fair account of their experiences (Holloway & Wheeler, 2002). The researcher had an expert qualitative researcher as a study leader. Feedback was also requested from colleagues.

4.4.1.4 Authority of the researcher

Krefting (1991:220) indicates that authority is a strategy that views the researcher as a measurement tool to ensure that data are presented as portrayed by the participants. The researcher as a social worker and a lecturer had the honour of attending forum meetings with the NGOs in Sunnyside on a monthly basis. The contact allowed the researcher to gain more knowledge on how the NGOs operate and what kinds of social welfare services they offer. The researcher was also involved with the Bright Site Project through community engagement which formed a collaborative relationship with the Sunnyside NGOs.

4.4.2 Applicability

Krefting (1991:216) defines "applicability" as the degree to which the findings can be applied to other contexts and settings or to other groups. Findings are considered trustworthy to the extent that they adequately represent a particular cultural, economic or social group. Applicability is established through the strategy of transferability. "Transferability" is the alternative to external validity and refers to the

degree of applicability of the finding to other contexts and settings or with other groups as described by de Vos (2011).

In order to achieve transferability, the researcher had to produce convincing explanations by making direct links between the research question and research design. Transferability was achieved in the following ways: the researcher was clear about the methods used, where and when the findings might apply; the researcher employed non-probability, purposive and snowball sampling for selection of the participants; the study utilised an explorative, descriptive and contextual design for the detailed exploration of the phenomenon under investigation and conclusion of the study presented sufficient descriptive detail about the setting and the participants.

4.4.3 Consistency

“Consistency” of data refers to “whether the findings would be consistent if the enquiry were replicated with the same subjects or in a similar context” (Guba in Krefting, 1991:216). “Conformability” captures the objectivity of the study. Asking whether the findings of the study will be confirmed by another study will attain this (de Vos, 2011). The replication of testing procedures should not alter the findings.

Consistency is established through the strategy of dependability and in this study it was achieved by using the independent coder. Conformability took place in the following ways: Firstly, all the procedures followed to collect data were clearly indicated, i.e. the researcher presented the exact research methodology, that is, research approach, research design, sampling procedures, methods of data collection, data analysis, and data verification. Secondly, the researcher had a clear method of data collection as the research approach and design were identified. Thirdly, evidence from voice recording interviews was used to support the findings. Fourthly, data were transcribed and analysed by an independent coder and the context was acknowledged by the participants and the researcher. Lastly, the participants reported from their own frame of reference with the context they are working in.

4.4.4 Neutrality

The fourth criterion of validity is “neutrality’. It refers to the extent to which the study findings are free from bias. Guba (1985 in Krefting 1991:217) proposes that neutrality in qualitative research should consider the neutrality of the data rather than that of the researcher and this suggests confirmability as the strategy to achieve neutrality. Neutrality was established through the strategy of triangulation.

To ensure neutrality for the study, the researcher employed Gibbs (2007) procedures:

- Check transcripts to make sure that they do not contain obvious mistakes made during transcripts.
- Make sure that there is not a drift in the definition of codes, a shift in the meaning of the codes during the process of coding. This can be accomplished by constantly comparing data with the codes and by writing memos about the codes and their definitions.
- For team research, coordinate the communication among the coders by regular documented meetings and by sharing the analysis.
- Cross-check codes developed by different researchers by comparing results that are independently derived.

4.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the research design and methodology employed in this research study. The researcher utilised the qualitative research method to explore, describe and contextualise the phenomenon of social service delivery to street children. The research design took the form of purposive and snowball sampling since the researcher found it difficult to get hold of the participants. Out of the 30 NGOs under TASC, ten were identified but only eight participated in the study while two did not meet the selected criteria. Semi-structured interviews and a voice recorder were instruments used to collect data from the participants. In the context of this study, the researcher undertook to employ the eight steps as proposed by Tesch to analyse the data. The themes and sub-themes were identified then grouped into

codes. Data verification was done by applying the proposed four alternative constructs by Lincoln and Guba (1985) in Krefting (1991:215-222).

Chapter 5 covers the research findings and literature control.

CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS AND LITERATURE CONTROL

5. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, Chapter 5, the research findings emanating from the interviews conducted with the service providers rendering social welfare services to street children in Pretoria are presented mainly in a theme-wise fashion, with direct quotations from the transcriptions of the interviews conducted with the participants to support the themes (and sub-themes and categories where applicable). The themes (sub-themes and categories) with the supporting storylines are introduced by way of a literature introduction or are verified by means of literature control.

In order to lend clarity to the data collected, it is essential that the profile of the participants should be clearly described as the participants' backgrounds and personal experiences affect how the participants responded to the research questions from their own context.

The demographic profile of the participants will be discussed in the next section.

5.1 DEMOGRAPHIC DATA OF THE PARTICIPANTS

The following demographic profile of the participants as service providers is provided to help the reader have an understanding of who the participants were and what kind of NGOs are involved in offering social welfare services to street children. The demographic data of the participants is presented in table form, with a subsequent discussion of the demographic data.

5.1.1 The demographic data of the participants as service providers rendering social welfare services to street children

Prior to data collection the researcher first had to determine what criteria were essential in choosing who was to be interviewed. The street children were not interviewed for the purpose of the study since the focus of the study was only on the social welfare services rendered to street children. The criteria for inclusion in the sample for the proposed study were as follows:

- NGOs in Pretoria rendering social welfare services to street children.
- NGOs in Pretoria under the umbrella of TASC rendering social welfare services to street children
- The staff members within the organisation who were able to understand or were involved in the programmes and social welfare services rendered to street children.
- The staff members who were able to converse in English, Setswana and Zulu due to the fact that English is the medium language in South Africa and the researcher is familiar with speaking the Sotho and Zulu languages.

A total of nine service providers rendering services to street children were purposively selected as a sample for participation in the study. A follow-up interview was conducted with five service providers who were available at the time. During the follow-up interviews it was found that three of the previously interviewed participants had resigned while one NGO had to close down due to lack of funding. Thus the four participants were not reinterviewed since their whereabouts were unknown. With reference to Table 5.1 overall five participants were interviewed twice. The information gathered before was different from that of the second interviews in that the second data were more comprehensive and clear in terms of the feedback provided by the participants.

In order to ensure confidentiality and anonymity, alphabetical codes were used instead of names of participants and NGOs. The demographic data (presented in the Table below) reflect the participants' gender, race, professional status, years of experience and the number of interviews conducted with them. The demographic

details of the nine participants who participated in this study are displayed in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Demographic data of the participants

Participant	Gender	Race	Professional status	Years of experience	No of Interview
A	male	Black	Site-manager	5 years	2
B	female	Black	Programme coordinator	2 years	1
C	female	Black	Care worker	2 years	2
D	female	Black	Site manager	1year	2
E	female	Indian	Manager	10 years	2
F	male	White	Programme coordinator	2 years	1
G	female	Black	Social worker	4 years	2
H	female	White	Social worker	6 months	1
I	female	Black	Social worker	2 years	1

A discussion of the demographic information of the participants will be provided in the section to follow.

5.1.1.1 Gender distribution of participants

The gender representation of the participants was seven females and two males. The gender distribution of this study's sample reveals that the majority of participants were females while a minority were males. This was not surprising as this unequal distribution between the genders suggests that women are dominating the social welfare profession. The gender distribution of participants correlates with a statement made by Whalley (2012) in A General Social Care Council report that social work has been seen traditionally as a "caring" profession with a majority of women and minority of men. According to Dewane (2008) and Mc Lean (2003), social work is a profession largely dominated by women due to the fact that its roles are perceived as "caring" and salaries have not been as high as in other careers.

5.1.1.2 Racial distribution of participants

The race distribution according to Table 5.1 reflects that the participants represented three race groups. There were five black participants, two white participants and one Indian involved in the study. The coloured population was not represented in the sample since none of the organisations selected had coloured staff members.

5.1.1.3 Professional status of participants

It was found that three of participants were social workers, responsible directly for rendering social welfare services to street children. Two of the participants were working as site-managers in their NGOs, managing the organisation. There were two programme coordinators who were responsible for overseeing the daily management of the NGOs. The programme coordinators' responsibilities were the same as those of the managers. One of the participants was a social work manager whose responsibility was to oversee and manage the work of the other categories of workers (i.e. social auxiliaries, care givers) and the affiliated NGOs.

One inclusion criterion for participants in this study was to include the staff members within the organisation who had an understanding and/or or were involved in the programmes and social welfare services rendered to street children. The presence of

the different levels amongst the participants allowed the researcher to obtain the views of social welfare service providers and their assistants since they are responsible for taking care of the street children.

5.1.1.4 Years of work experience of participants

Table 5.1 also shows that one of the participants in the study had ten years of experience in the field of social work service rendering to street children within the context of different NGOs. In this regard his/her broader knowledge and experience of rendering social welfare services added value to the credibility of the findings of this study. The participants had working experience ranging from six months to five years.

The identified themes, sub-themes, categories and the substantiating story lines from the interviews will be discussed and compared with the available literature in the subsequent section.

5.2 DISCUSSION ON THEMES, SUB-THEMES AND CATEGORIES IN RELATION TO THE LITERATURE

This section describes the various themes, sub-themes and categories as they emerged from the analysis of the data collected.

After the interviews were conducted all the data were transcribed verbatim, and analysed and the major themes that emerged were categorised. Seven themes with accompanying sub-themes, categories and where applicable sub-categories emerged from the data gathered from participants during the in-depth semi-structured interviews and the resultant processes of data analysis by the researcher and the independent coder, as well as the consequent consensus discussion between the independent coder, the study's supervisor, the researcher and a colleague who is the head of the research committee. The colleague verified the data as he had not been involved previously in the discussion and thus he was not biased.

From the participants' responses in the above mentioned transcriptions and the resultant processes of data analysis the following main themes emerged:

Theme 1: The service providers' perceptions of beneficiaries and services delivered and needed

Theme 2: Service providers' perceptions of reasons for children being on the streets

Theme 3: A profile of NGOs rendering social welfare services to the street children

Theme 4: Types of social welfare services rendered to street children in Pretoria by NGOs

Theme 5: Factors enabling the service providers in their social welfare service delivery to street children

Theme 6: Factors hindering social welfare service delivery to the street children

Theme 7: Suggestions to improve social welfare service delivery to street children

An overview of the themes, sub-themes and categories is presented in Table 5.2 in the next section.

Table 5.2: Themes, sub-themes and categories

THEME 1: THE SERVICE PROVIDERS' PERCEPTION OF BENEFICIARIES AND SERVICES DELIVERED AND NEEDED		
Sub-themes	Categories	Sub-categories
1.1: The beneficiaries are street children		
1.2: The beneficiaries include males and females		
1.3: Geographical areas the street children originated from: rural areas, other provinces and other African countries		
1.4: Participants' perceptions of the service needed by street children.	1.4.1: Street children have educational needs	
	1.4.2: Street children are in need of skills development	
	1.4.3: Street children need love, protection/shelter spiritual support and psychological support	
	1.4.4: Street children have a need to belong.	
	1.4.5: Street children need freedom/independence	
THEME 2: SERVICE PROVIDERS' PERCEPTIONS OF REASONS FOR CHILDREN BEING ON THE STREETS		
2.1: Social and economic poverty as a reason for the street child phenomenon.		
2.2: Neglect and abandonment by parents or extended family members		

as a reason for the street child phenomenon.		
THEME 3: A PROFILE OF NGOs RENDERING SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICE TO STREET CHILDREN		
3.1: The Non-Governmental Organisations providing services to street children		
3.2: Most of the organisations included in this study came into being with the aim of rendering social welfare services specifically to street children		
3.3: Policies guiding the service providers in rendering social welfare services to the street children in Pretoria.	3.3.1: The Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005)	
	3.3.2: Constitution of South Africa (108 of 1996)	
3.4: Service providers registered with Department of Social Development as NPOs.		
3.5: Staff employed by the NGOs rendering social welfare services to street children.		
THEME 4: TYPES OF SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICES RENDERED TO STREET CHILDREN IN PRETORIA BY NGOs		
4.1: Prevention and early	4.1.1: Most NGOs deliver	

intervention.	prevention and early intervention services.	
	4.1.2: Prevention and early intervention is delivered through outreach programmes.	4.1.2.1: Some organisations deliver outreach programmes.
		4.1.2.2: Outreach is delivered through awareness campaigns in the community.
		4.1.2.3: Outreach involves going out and befriending children on the street.
		4.1.2.4: Outreach entails drop-in centres where basic care is provided for the street children.
		4.1.2.5: Outreach is done by community development workers and social auxiliary workers.
	4.1.3: Service providers' perceptions on prevention and early intervention programmes	
4.2: Reunification	4.2.1: Some NGOs perform reunification	
	4.2.2: Procedure and assessment for reunification in temporary residential care.	

	4.2.3: Service providers' perceptions on reunification	
4.3: Residential care	4.3.1: The service providers in this study offer temporary or permanent residential care	4.3.1.1: Placement of street children into residential care.
		4.3.1.2: Monitoring and review of placement in residential care
	4.3.2: Residential care provides education, educational support, recreational, vocational training and skills development	
	4.3.3: Residential care includes counselling, psycho-social support for the street children	
	4.3.4: Residential care includes rehabilitation of the street children.	
4.4: Alternative care		
4.5: After care		
THEME 5: FACTORS ENABLING SERVICE PROVIDERS IN THEIR SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICE DELIVERY TO STREET CHILDREN.		
5.1: Financial and human resources enabling service providers to render social welfare services to street children in Pretoria	5.1.1: The Department of Social Development	
	5.1.2: Financial support	

	from churches, individuals, companies or businesses	
	5.1.3: Paid staff and volunteers enabling the organisations to render social welfare services to street children in Pretoria.	
5.2: Networking with other NGOs in the vicinity enabling service providers to render social welfare services to street children in Pretoria		
THEME 6: FACTORS HINDERING SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICE DELIVERY TO STREET CHILDREN		
6.1: Lack of sufficient funds/resources		
6.2: High staff turnover		
6.3: Limited number of social workers		
6.4: Insufficient collaboration with Department of Social Development		
6.5: Inadequate social welfare service delivery by Department of Social Development		
6.6: Ineffective legal restrictions		

THEME 7: SUGGESTIONS TO IMPROVE SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICE DELIVERY TO STREET CHILDREN		
7.1: Expansion of social welfare services		
7.2: Better government funding and opting for alternative ways of funding social welfare services.		
7.3: Better collaboration between government and NGOs		
7.4: Recognition and recruitment of social welfare practitioners		

In the following section, the themes, sub-themes, categories and sub-categories (where applicable) mentioned in the Table above are presented by providing direct quotations from the transcribed interviews.

THEME 1: THE SERVICE PROVIDERS' PERCEPTIONS OF BENEFICIARIES AND SERVICES DELIVERED AND NEEDED

This theme related to the service providers' perceptions of beneficiaries of the services delivered and the services needed by beneficiaries. This theme emerged amongst others from the responses to the following request: *Tell me about your organisation.* Following the process of data analysis and the aforementioned consensus discussion conducted on the outcome of the data analysis the decision was taken to divide and present the theme under discussion according to the following sub-themes:

Sub-theme 1.1: The beneficiaries are street children

In substantiating the sub-theme: “The beneficiaries are street children”, the following story lines are quoted in support:

“We provide care for orphans and vulnerable children, including street children, refugees and child-headed households”.

“... the beneficiaries in this case the children that are living on the streets”.

“The beneficiaries of services are mainly orphaned and vulnerable children ...,who have been working and living on the streets ...”.

From the above excerpts it can be deduced that the recipients of the services delivered by the participants are mainly street children who are either refugees, vulnerable, orphans or abandoned. Ward and Seager (2010) in their study “South African street children: A survey and recommendations for services” allude to the fact that the NGOs are responsible for taking care of the socio-economic needs of the street children and at the same time dedicated to advocating, promoting and campaigning for the rights of street children. Ray et al. (2011) accentuate that most of the NGOs are working with street children in order to provide for their basic needs and advocate for their rights.

Sub-theme 1.2: The beneficiaries include males and females

The participants assert that street children may be identified as any boy or girl who has not reached adulthood, for whom the street is a place to stay where they endure their daily struggles. In support of this sub-theme the following quotations from some of the transcribed interviews are provided:

“...abandoned and neglected children on the streets ... boys”.

“This organization works with street children..., the boys only”.

“... girls living and working in the streets”.

In turning to the literature to confirm the previously presented sub-theme and storylines, it can be seen that Ward and Seager (2010;2008) and Human Rights Watch (2006) indicate that worldwide 90% of the children between the ages of 8 to 17 living on the streets are boys and that the situation for South Africa is in no way different. The fact that street girls “are invisible” and amount to only 10% of the street child population is due to the fact that the mothers teach girls how to cope with the vagaries of poverty by staying at home and learning household tasks (Aptekar & McAdam-Crisp, 2005; Aptekar, 2000). Kok, Cross and Roux (2010) as well as Ray et al. (2011) point out that there are fewer female than male children in the streets and further maintain that should a girl be on the street that means she was compelled to move there by circumstances beyond her control.

What is noteworthy, is that Oyeniya and Ibukun (2010), Ward and Seager (2008) as well as Veale and Donà (2003) observe that the street children were predominantly adolescent boys; most of them were homeless, and a high proportion of the children who were living on the streets were either orphaned children or children who had lost at least one parent, and ones who had been abandoned and neglected with no family ties.

Sub-theme 1.3: Geographical areas the street children originate from: rural areas, other provinces and other African countries

The participants interviewed mentioned (see quotations below) that the beneficiaries of their services come from rural areas, other provinces and other African countries:

“...most of our beneficiaries come outside the province... most of them are from Limpopo... Some come from as far as Eastern Cape”.

“... some come from different places including rural areas and war-stricken African countries”.

“...we have a lot of foreign children that come from Congo, Burundi, Zimbabwe, and Mozambique coming to South Africa hoping for a better life”.

“...The girls that are being placed here come from different backgrounds and cultures. We have refugees too”.

The street child phenomenon originates from rural-urban migration, rapid urbanisation and industrialisation (UNICEF, 2009; Pare, 2003; Kopoka, 2000). Kok et al. (2010) declare that rapid urbanisation has resulted in large informal, unplanned settlements and urban slums in many developing and developed countries. Economic and social upheavals have led to the breakdown of traditional family structures and values, resulting in alcoholism, child abuse (physical or sexual), or neglect.

Kok et al. (2010) assert that the street children move from the rural areas to urban areas in search of employment and a better life. Ennew (2005) adds that factors contributing to children being on streets include rapid urbanisation, the growing gaps between rich and poor, poverty, the influence of consumerism, conflict, famine, natural disasters, family breakdowns, and the increase in domestic violence.

Sub-theme 1.4: Participants’ perceptions of the service needed by street children

The answers provided to these questions pointed to the fact that the children on the streets are in need of education, skills development, love, protection/shelter, and spiritual and psychological support. They have the need to belong and the need to be free or independent. Each of these needs will now be presented as categories in the next section of this chapter.

Category 1.4.1: Street children have educational needs

In underscoring this category the following storyline is provided: “we [referring to the service providers] *have large challenges with the children who, because of the time*

spent on the streets have fallen behind with their education. Many of them cannot go to an academic school before having done some basic literacy and numeracy first”.

“Some of them have never been to school at all. We take most of them to ABET (Adult Based Education and Training)”. Some do skills training since they cannot cope with the demands of the school. We advocate for the rights of the children...we also take them for outings, trips and support them with their school work”.

“yeah, I can just say that they need more empowerment, which is education and more development because sometimes the kids cannot cope in education setup like in schools. I think if they can get skills to be developed for instance if they can study mechanic, engineering then they can do panel beating, those skills, you know.”

A study by UNICEF (2008) shows that most street children are not in school and have either had no education, or have dropped out of school during the primary school years. Poverty and marginalisation make families particularly vulnerable to the social and economic stresses that result in children dropping out of school, engaging in hazardous and exploitative working situations or becoming involved in street life as highlighted by Ray et al. (2011). The majority of street children have no formal education. Street children have challenges in attending school because they simply do not enter primary school or drop out of school at a later stage since they have to take care of their families or siblings (Oyeniya & Ibukun, 2010; Human Rights Watch, 2006). Such crises may cause children to drop out of school and go to work to help support the family and parents to reduce the level of poverty or suffering (Ray et al., 2011).

According to a report by Human Rights Watch (2006), children and adolescents in juvenile detention, very often street children, are basically excluded from any form of education as many detention centres do not appropriately offer classes, although it would be of particular importance for them. In addition Department of Social Development (2010a), Gray and Lombard (2008) and Asian Development Bank (2003) declare that non-formal education and vocational training projects should be offered to street children in order to capacitate their skills and improve their lives, thus preventing them from abandoning their families in favour of street life.

Category 1.4.2: Street children are in need of skills development

The need for skills development is essential for street children as acknowledged by the participants. In confirming this category, the following utterances made by the participants are provided:

“skills development because sometimes the kids cannot cope in education setup like in schools. I think if they can get skills to be developed for instance if they can study mechanic, engineering then they can do penal beating, those skills, you know”.

“...we have craft centre at the back. Saturday they do their craft work and washing....We also offer them programmes that is sustainable so that when they leave here they can be able to provide for themselves. We teach them value of respect and how to stand up for themselves.”

“After the skills training, we do job placement and now with the rate of unemployment that we have we are trying to encourage them to be self employed. To start their own business...we make sure that they leave this house equipped with knowledge, skills and resources what is available from the government”.

According to Sanchez (2010) and Asian Development Bank (2003) in many cases, long-term programmes need to be combined with short-term service projects to fulfil the provision and protection rights of children living on the streets; meeting their immediate needs and protecting them from danger, abuse, and exploitation to help the street children to adapt to their difficult environment. This may include providing food, shelter, health services, vocational skills training and counselling opportunities. Filkelstein (2005) is of the opinion that street children need vocational training, or job skills training in order to develop themselves.

Category 1.4.3: Street children need love, protection/shelter, spiritual and psychological support

The participants announced that the street children are most of the time emotionally and psychologically fragile though they pretend to be tough. The street children find

it difficult to trust authority figures. The mistrust is based on previous discriminatory and abusive relationships with adults. This is affirmed by UNICEF (2009) that many of the children who live on the streets left their homes due to multiple factors – violence, abuse, poverty, the death of their parents – they are traumatised and afraid, and there are many deep-seated psychosocial issues which need to be addressed in assisting them to leave the streets.

This category was derived from the following comments made by the participants interviewed:

“To be given love and shelter...Love, protection, spiritual support and psychological support”.

“Some have that need to be loved and protected by us. Some come here just for the meals and bathe. We give them counselling and refer them to relevant organization pending on their status.”

“We try very hard to assure them that whatever happens outside has nothing to do with them. We have to support them because they are already vulnerable and it becomes difficult to trust people especially adults. Sometimes the girls are lured by what is happening outside.”

“We do have educational support since it is important to provide education for the girls....mmm...we have family reunification whereby we try to reintegrate the girls with their families or communities. We offer them social and emotional support and that is being done by volunteers or social worker. We have advocacy and lobbying as one of the services.”

Mutezva (2010) proposed that the community should change its attitude towards street children and instead show them love and support. In addition Xingwana (2011), the Minister for Women, Children and People with Disabilities, indicated that many street children need professional counselling and emotional support for their well-being. She asserted that therapeutic services should be easily accessible to the street children. Furthermore, the provision of counselling and other care services,

which provide emotional nurture for street children, may be beneficial to both the child and the family of the street child.

Category 1.4.4: The street children have the need to belong

The participants in this study highlighted that the street children need to belong. Beazley (2011) maintains that in order for the street children to survive on the streets, they must adhere to certain norms, ideals and ethics related to the streets. The street children form relationships by developing collective strategies as a form of resistance to the perceptions held of them by the outside world. The children will do anything to conform if their families do not meet their (children's) need of belonging and they will seek for "belonging" outside the home.

The street children's need to belong was supported with the following storylines:

"What they normally do is that they prefer to form gangs to protect one another. They have names for this gang and they like being part of these groups... They long for a sense of belonging ... I would say that because they know all the gangs and they also know very well who belongs to which gang".

"They are attracted by so many things. They have groups that they form. There is a sense of conformity. Sometimes they get along but sometimes they do not."

"...the main thing is to belong, is to have that sense of belonging".

Category 1.4.5: Street children need freedom or independence

From the qualitative data conducted by Ward and Seager (2010) it seems that peers who were already living on the streets, or who knew someone who was, made them think that life in the big city would be easier and fun, and that it would provide access to material goods or the means to move away from poverty. The participants had the following to say about the need for freedom or independence by the street children:

"The fact that most of the children need freedom, they find it difficult to stay in a shelter where they do not control themselves".

“[The street children want independence] ...where they do not have to account to anybody. They also want to proof that they can stand on their own...they have minds...they can decide what is best for them...yeah make their own decisions and take care of themselves”.

“Yes, isolated the child will be thinking about going somewhere to get help. You can do anything because there is no one to show guidance. Meet some friend in town. Friend tell them that in town it is happening and they join the friends in town and end finding themselves on the streets. Some it peer pressure and some it just for freedom.”

In supporting the latter storyline, the findings of the studies undertaken by UNICEF (2008) and Ungar, Dumond and McDonald (2005) around the topic of street children, revealed that street children exhibit strong resilience in their efforts to survive the harsh circumstances of street life, by engaging in various job-related activities, managing their earnings well, developing social support networks, forming groups to meet their basic physical and psychological needs, using safety measures to avoid danger faced on the streets, finding creative resources to entertain themselves, as well as having hopes and dreams for the future and yet less is done to help them in this case.

THEME 2: SERVICE PROVIDERS’ PERCEPTIONS OF REASONS FOR CHILDREN BEING ON THE STREETS

Literature on street children documents a range of reasons why children leave home. The reasons are consistent with the findings of the study. The reasons for leaving home reported in this study do not seem to have changed much from reasons mentioned in earlier studies of the street child phenomenon (Ward & Seager, 2010; Panther-Brick, 2003; Asian Development Bank, 2003a).

During the interviews, the participants highlighted that children end up on the street for countless reasons, including parental landlessness, domestic violence, rural-urban migration, family homelessness, unemployment, natural disasters, civil unrest, and family disintegration; which is increasingly the result of parental illness or death

from AIDS-related illnesses. Wargan and Dreshem (2009) and the Asian Development Bank (2003b) point to the fact that it is well documented in the literature that children living in poverty and being vulnerable to family, social and economic crises are driven to a life on the street.

This theme is divided into the following sub-themes to be presented in the next section of this chapter:

Sub-theme 2.1: Social and economic poverty as reason for the street child phenomenon

In confirming this sub-theme and the substantive storylines, Pare (2003) and Kopoka (2000) report that the street child phenomenon has to do with poverty, *inter alia* urban poverty and the urban way of life which lead to the dilution of social values, to stress within the family and family break-up. In addition Proudlock and Jamieson (2008) as well as Earle (2008) highlight the impact of poverty and high rate of unemployment resulting in a vastly increased number of street children who are in dire need of social welfare services. The following storylines are provided:

“... poverty at home. You know when there is nothing at home, other kids opt for the streets; think that they can do better than their parents. Others think that they need to help their parents. You see there is nothing. They come to the streets and they find that there is nothing; they cannot find a job and end up being on the streets.

“...poverty at home, the kids think that maybe they can make their own means by coming to the city to make a living by getting some money and they get stuck thus ending up on the streets”.

“I would say we have a lot of foreign children that come from Congo, Burundi, Zimbabwe, and Mozambique coming to South Africa hoping for a better life. They end up with nothing...end up on the streets.

“ Number two is poverty at home. You know when there is nothing at home, other kids opt for the streets; think that they can do better than their parents. Others think

that they need to help their parents. You see there is nothing. They come to the streets and they find that there is nothing; they cannot find a job and end up being on the streets”.

Poverty and the need to earn a living are stated as the main reason for being on the streets by street children in the study by Ray et al. (2011). Slight development has been made in the fight against unemployment and poverty in SA as revealed by the Department of Social Development (2005), thus exacerbating the plight of street children who are in need of care, support and developmental services due to poverty, unemployment and crime. According to Lombard (2010) as well as Lombard and Wairire (2010), such realities contribute to the prevailing poverty, unemployment and inequality, coupled with wide ranging social problems such as crime and violence and the impact of HIV/AIDS leaving many vulnerable. Unemployment and poverty have also contributed to the vulnerability of the youth to drug addiction and criminal activities.

Sub-theme 2.2: Neglect and abandonment by parents or extended family members as reason for the street child phenomenon

Participants indicated neglect and abandonment as the factors contributing to children being on the streets. In South Africa, poverty, HIV and AIDS, abuse, neglect and abandonment are the major immediate reasons for children entering homes as indicated by Meintjies, Moses, Berry and Mampane (2007). Ennew (2004) claims that children are abandoned while still young by their mothers who are unable to take care of them due to multiple factors. The participants made the following observations with regard to the reasons that lead children to be on the streets:

“And some of the reasons are neglect, other parents neglect their kids, you find that the mother and father are drinking, they spent more time drinking come back late drunk and when they come back the child is always alone at home”.

“And...neglect by families. ...Some run away from their alcoholic families, lack of care and love by parents”.

“Children are abandoned or neglected by parents like this one [referring to a specific child]”.

An observation is further made by Meintjes and Hall (2011) that it is not uncommon for children to live separately from their biological parents, due to labour migration and care arrangements that involve extended families. Dunn and Parry-Williams (2008) declare that poor populations, particularly in South Africa, historically suffer from family separation because of unemployment and migrating to urban areas to seek employment.

Sub-theme 2.3: Physical and sexual abuse of children by parents or extended family members as a reason for the street child phenomenon

Physical and sexual abuses of children by parents or extended family members were identified as another reason for the street child phenomenon:

“... most of the boys are sexually abused they are abused by uncles, and not only from the family also people from the community and the child after that will be exposed...that he was raped by this man and he cannot take it anymore, it is like an embarrassment and has to go somewhere. There was a case that I handled before that was similar to that”.

“Some of the girls have been victims of rape, abuse, sexual exploitation, human trafficking and neglect...homeless, abandoned, neglected and so on. Some are on the streets because they do not have any person to look after them. Some are from abused families....and then some are foreigners...they came to this country hoping for better lives”.

In referring specifically to orphan sisters from DRC, one participant stated“...: *aunt was abusing them, she did not want them to go to school and they had to do the house chores everyday ... The older sister went to the social worker to report about the abuse. So the case was opened and the girls were placed here”.*

According to Plummer, Kudrati, Yousif Dafalla and Hag Yousif (2007), children come to the street because of maltreatment by parents, step-parents or extended family members. These researchers claim that beatings of children in some homes is a norm and this makes children grow in fear and that is why the children end up being on the streets.

Most families first become involved with their local child welfare system because of a report of suspected child abuse or neglect, domestic violence and broken families. Dunn and Parry-Williams (2008) caution that protecting children against violence and abuse is becoming an increasing feature of NGO and state social workers' workload, especially where justice against the perpetrator is hard to achieve. South Africa is using its residential care places of safety and even children's homes to protect abused children.

Sub-theme 2.4: Being orphans due to the HIV/AIDS pandemic as reason for the street child phenomenon

In underscoring the sub-theme under discussion, the following utterances made by the participants are quoted:

"HIV/AIDS pandemic which has torn many families apart. Children also end up on the streets for various reasons and come from different places because they are orphans.

"...being orphans of HIV/AIDS".

"There is also HIV/AIDS pandemic which has torn many families apart"

The HIV and AIDS pandemic has been indicated as one of the contributing factors to the phenomenon of street children (Ward et al., 2007; Sloth-Nielsen, 2004; Booysen and Bachmann, 2002). HIV and AIDS are said to increase the risk of acute poverty amongst affected households and communities by causing people to fall ill with the result that they can no longer work. Mutezva (2010:19) reiterates that "HIV and AIDS

is wrecking havoc in our country, putting more pressure on the children as they have to take charge of the parental role”.

In similar vein, UNICEF (2008), Case and Ardington (2004), as well as Richter and Dawes (2008) note that orphanage placement increases dependency ratios as children move to stay with healthy kin (often the elderly) who cannot cater for them in some cases.

Sub-theme 2.5: War-stricken countries contributing to the street child phenomenon

Participants indicated that war-stricken countries contribute to the street child phenomenon:

“two ... from DRC...their aunt took them from DRC to South Africa because of war. They do not have parents...they are sisters...”

“The other two from Burundi, they said that when their father was killed in Burundi...they left their mother with their brother and came to South Africa”. “... war from other countries because we have foreigners too”.

“Some [referring to the children’s reason for living on the streets] are refugees. The foreigners are a real problem because when you try to find out why they are here, they will tell you so many sad stories and that they are orphans and have nobody left in their families. Only to find that their parents or siblings are around the town, staying in a different shelter and they have contacts. We work with international social workers, in fact it is an organization called IOL that helps to trace the families of children who are from places like Zimbabwe and Congo. They help with the transportation of the girls from South Africa to their countries of origin”

“Some are on the streets because they do not have any person to look after them. Some are from abused families....and then some are foreigners...they came to this country hoping for better lives...Burundi, Republic of Congo... (Trying to recall) no they are six my dear, not five... And Zimbabwe. It is two from each country”.

According to Human Rights Watch (2006), the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) is experiencing a growing number of street children. Conflict, abuse, abandonment of children accused of sorcery, internal displacement, unemployment, poverty and war were cited as reasons fuelling the increase in the number of street children. Sloth-Nielsen (2004) found that children are orphaned or left without care givers on account of migration of parents due to family disputes and civil wars.

Sub-theme 2.6: Peer pressure with the sense of belonging as reason for the street child phenomenon

The participants voiced the opinion that if the children do not receive love from their families, they opt to search for it in other places such as with their friends:

“Some [referring to the children’s reason for living on the streets] indicate peer pressure and better life.

“I would say... peer pressure and the desire to be with their friends”.

“Some came here just because they are naughty... I would say peer pressure and the sense of being independent. Actually there are so many reasons and the crucial fact is for the community not to assume that all the street children are the same.”

“The fact is that most of the children need freedom. They find it difficult to stay in a shelter where they do not control themselves. They are...also used to having money...so they rather go on the streets and beg or work for somebody else by selling drugs or their bodies.”

In supporting this sub-theme and storylines, Pare (2003), Ward and Seager (2010) and Ward et al. (2007) confirm that the children have been persuaded by friends to come and live on the streets in that their peers convinced them that they would be making their own money and using it on themselves, having time for leisure, having friends who are in a similar situation and who seem to be the only ones not to reject them and getting used to a new way of life that is both hard and fun.

According to Ward and Seager (2010), during their research with street children they found that children selected 'peer pressure' as a reason for leaving home. The children ran away with friends, while some were influenced by friends to run away. From the qualitative data, it seems that peers who were already living on the streets, or who knew someone who was, made other children at home think that life in the big city was easier and more fun, and that it would provide access to material goods or the means to make a living.

THEME 3: A PROFILE OF NGOs RENDERING SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICES TO STREET CHILDREN.

The responses discussed in this theme, originated from the following request directed to the participants: *Tell more about the organisation...* This theme was subsequently divided into the following sub-themes:

Sub-theme 3.1: The Non-Governmental Organisations providing services to street children

Streak and Poggenpoel (2005) explain that social welfare services refer to interventions that are delivered by the Departments of Social Development with the assistance of Non-Governmental Organisations to help people to deal with social problems arising from social, economic or political changes. Naidoo (2010), the Department of Social Development (2010b), Streak and Poggenpoel (2005) and West (2003) emphasise that the CRC has established universal standards for children's rights. All vulnerable children need to be catered for and protected by South Africa from harm, assisted during and after trauma, and given opportunities to develop through development and strengthening of community structures to help care for and protect children as described in section 2(e) of the Constitution.

The national and provincial Departments of Social Development together with the NGOs have a key role to play in the delivering of services, to protect and promote development of children. With specific reference to the NGOs, Table 5.3 below shows the demographic profile of the NGOs working with street children in Pretoria. The data included in this Table refer to the type of organisation, the status of

registration as a NGO with the Department of Social Development, the nature of social welfare services rendered to street children, the beneficiaries of the social welfare services delivered and the sources of funding.

Table 5.3: Demographic profile of the NGOs rendering social welfare services to the street children in Pretoria

NGO	Type of organisation	Status on registration with the Department of Social Development	Nature of social welfare services to street children	Beneficiaries of the social welfare services	Sources of funding
A	NGO	Registered	Residential care and drop-in centre	Boys	Donors Department of Social Development
B	NGO	Have applied for registration	Temporary residential care	Girls	Donors
C	NGO	Registered	Permanent foster home	Girls	Donors, Department of Social Development
D	NGO	Registered	Temporary residential care	Girls	Donors, Department of Social Development
E	NGO	Not registered	Outreach: prevention and early intervention	Vulnerable children	Department of Social Development

F	NGO	Registered	Shelter and drop-in centre	Boys	Donors, Department of Social Development
G	NGO	Registered	Shelter and drop-in centre	Boys	Donors
H	NGO	Not registered	Residential care	Girls	Donors

The nature of social welfare services offered by the NGOs referred to in the Table above ranges from residential care, to being a shelter and drop-in centre, and offering outreach, early intervention and prevention programmes for boys and girls. According to the Department of Social Development (2010), social welfare services can be classified along the divide of prevention and intervention services with intervention implying services for people who are already homeless or prevention such as services to stop people from becoming homeless. The Department of Social Development (2010a) and Dybicz (2005) further classify social welfare services in terms of level of intervention and this can include protection, prevention, early intervention, reunification and residential care.

Streak and Poggenpoel (2005) as well as the Department of Social Development (2009a) refer, with specific reference to children, to social welfare services as the kinds of services that traditionally form part of social development and include, to name only a few examples: interventions (including children's court services) where children are victim to or at risk of abuse, neglect or exploitation, the running of children's homes, the provision of early childhood development, adoption services, services to provide assistance to street children, foster care placement and care for children affected by HIV/AIDS, the most vulnerable children in our society.

Sub-theme 3.2: Most of the organisations included in this study came into being with the aim of rendering social welfare services specifically to street children

The participants reported that their organisation was started in view of a need to cater for the vulnerable and abandoned children who were roaming the street without anyone to take care of them:

“The organization was started due to the plight of street children”.

“... the home was started as a joint initiative between the Pretoria mayor and the National Department of Social Development due to the plight of girls living and working in the streets”.

“... a number of churches that came together to address social issues... it was established as a shelter for the girls. Later it was found that some of these children were too young, or could not be re-united with their families and needed a more permanent home and that is how this organisation was born”.

“The organisation started with the main focus of children living and working on the streets. We cater for children from 0-18 years. Due to the HIV/AIDS pandemic our organization was extended... and now includes a Child Headed Households. We now have a further development trying to address the plight of vulnerable children. We have started a Haven to accommodate little babies and toddlers”.

In connection with the afore-presented sub-theme and storylines, a survey conducted by McAdam-Crisp et al. (2011) indicated that there has been a growing demand for programmes that can address the needs of street children worldwide with the aim of decreasing the number of street children by enhancing their potential for survival and future prospects.

Sub-theme 3.3: Policies guiding the service providers in rendering social welfare services to the street children in Pretoria

This sub-theme emerged from answers provided by the participants and will be presented under two categories in the discussion below:

Category 3.3.1: The Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005)

The Department of Social Development identifies numerous challenges in respect of implementing the new provisions of the Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005), which were compounded by the lack of social work service professionals as described in the Department of Social Development (2011d) Annual Report. Lombard and Wairire (2010), as well as Patel and Hochfeld (2008) assert that the progress made in providing policy and a legislative framework on children, still has challenges ahead in shaping and institutionalising policies for the effective implementation of developmental social work and now serve as a burning issue to be tackled as soon as possible to ensure effective delivery of social welfare services to street children.

When participants were asked to comment on the policy that they use, participants were of the opinion that the policies were not adequately addressing the problem of street children in the country and had the following to convey:

"We do abide by the Children's Act (Act No 38) of 2005 for everything that we do ... the most important is the Children's Act (Act No 38) of 2005 ... The programmes that we offer do link with the Children's Act (Act No 38) of 2005). ... We take the interest of the children at heart.... We serve the best interest of the children. Whatever problem the child has, we have to assess the needs and the circumstances of the child. ... We have to protect and prevent the recurrence of the social issues that surrounds the children. We cannot just try to reunify a child who has suffered due to abuse without assess the problem and the family too. If reunification is not possible often we seek residential care for the child".

“Most of the programmes are in relation to the Children’s Act (Act No 38) of 2005 and the Constitution. We try to abide by that though we are not consulted when such policies are drafted. It seems we do not exist in the eyes of the government”.

“We are guided by the Children’s Act (Act No 38) of 2005. The legislation and policy of the present government deals with the issues such as the best interest of the child, participation...even though it looks good on paper but not in practice...the legislation also guide us about parental responsibilities”.

According to Budlender, et al. (2011) as well as the Department of the National Treasury (2011), the Children’s Act (Act 38 of 2005) places the primary responsibility on government to ensure that the social welfare services are delivered. Naidoo (2010) and the Department of Social Development (2010c) declare that the new children’s legislation, with specific reference to the Children’s Act (Act 38 of 2005), introduces a number of paradigm shifts that need to be made in the care and protection of children. The first is that the services to children must comply with legislation and policy while the prevention and early intervention paradigm must be the first response to the problems affecting children, and that the principle of “family preservation” must be upheld when working with children. Secondly, the said Act provides grounds for the removal of children in need of residential care and procedural mechanisms for the placement of such children and it also lays down provisions for prevention and early intervention services.

When participants were asked to comment on the policy that they use, participants were of the opinion that the policies were not adequately addressing the problem of street children in the country. In support of this suggestion presented as a sub-theme the following utterance was made by one of the participants in this regard: *“Some amendments [to the Children’s Act (Act No 38) of 2005]] need to be made address the gaps and implementation challenges. I think the Act needs to be revisited especially in terms of work allocation. For example, our outreach workers often work in Sunnyside and when they meet the child on the streets they cannot remove the child because they do not have the capacity. Our own social worker can also not remove the child because she also does not have the capacity. They have to call the Social Development to remove the child and they will take forever before coming and*

sometimes they never show up. With the children who are being trafficked ...it is very difficult. This is not practical what will happen with the child because we cannot keep the child safe”.

According to participants, among others, the Children’s Act (Act 38 of 2005), the Constitution of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) and the Bill of Rights, as well as the White Paper of 1997 on Developmental Social Welfare and the Integrated Service Delivery Model (ISDM) are being adhered to. However, the policy environment also imposed constraints on practitioners as stated by one participant. Ngwenjah (2008) in a study of “South African government responses to the plight of street children” announced that interviewed respondents were of the opinion that the developed policies were not adequately addressing the problem of street children in the country as the policy documents lacked a proper implementation strategy and guidelines for programmes.

Category 3.3.2: Constitution of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996)

The following storylines testify to the fact that the service providers’ social welfare services rendered to street children are underpinned by the Constitution of the Republic South Africa (1996):

“...we are expected to do everything according to the Constitution ...”

“Most of the programs are in relation to the... the Constitution”.

Giese (2008) proclaims that the Department of Social Development has since made strides in reforming its policies in line with the Constitution of South Africa in order to support the large numbers of vulnerable children and their families more effectively through both social security (social grants) and social services. The Department of Social Development (2010a), UNICEF (2008), and Streak et al. (2005) declare that the SA government has committed itself to developing programmes with the aim of assisting the poor and vulnerable. According to the Department of Social Development (2009a), the provision of services is informed by the constitutional,

legal and international obligations as well as policies and programmes that are central to the mandate of the Department of Social Development. The services seek to give priority to the social, emotional and intellectual development of street children.

According to the Department of Social Development (2010d) Annual Report, the Department of Social Development derives its core mandate from the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996). Section 27(1) (c) of the Constitution provides for those unable to support themselves and their dependants with the right to access appropriate social assistance. In addition, section 28(1) of the Constitution sets out the rights of children with regard to appropriate care, basic nutrition, shelter, healthcare, social services and detention.

Sub-theme 3.4: Service providers' registration with the Department of Social Development as NPOs

In order to provide the services, the NGOs are expected to register with the Department of Social Development in accordance with the Non-profit Organisations Act (Act 71 of 1997). From the Table 5.3 it can be noted that of the eight NGOs only five are registered with the Department of Social Development, one has applied for registration and is still awaiting approval, while two of the organisations have not registered.

In supporting the former observation, the following storylines:

"... we are registered with the Department of Social Development"

"...we are not yet registered with Social Development"

"...we have registered with Social Development"

According to Wyngaard and Hendricks (2010), the Non-profit Organisations Act (Act 71 of 1997) mandates the Department of Social Development to contribute towards an enabling environment within which Non-Profit Organisations (NPOs) can flourish.

One of the objects of the Act is to encourage NPOs/NGOs to maintain adequate standards of governance, transparency and accountability, as well as improve those standards.

In relation to the fact of non-registration, Martin (2010) confirms that not all NGOs rendering social welfare services are registered with the Department of Social Development. The registration process for these centres is inefficient, cumbersome and difficult to navigate. Not only is it difficult for poorly resourced centres in vulnerable communities to navigate the registration process, it is also costly for them to comply with the statutory requirements prescribed as a prerequisite for registration.

The Department of Social Development (2011b) further asserts that for the period of 2010, a total of 10 230 NPOs rendering social welfare services were registered, bringing the total of registered NPOs to 76 000. Xingwana (2011) encourages the NGOs to register with Department of Social Development in order to safeguard the centres providing an environment and services that contribute to the development of children. According to the Department of Social Development (2010/11:2) report, the registration and reporting of non-profit organisations has increased substantially owing to the increase in demand on the NPO registration facility.

Sub-theme 3.5: Staff employed by the NGOs rendering social welfare services to street children

Table 5.4 introduces the staff employed by the NGOs.

Table 5.4: Staff employed by the NGOs

NGO	STAFF COMPONENT	RESPONSIBILITIES
A	6 1 full time 5 part time	Co-ordinator, psychologist, 4 volunteers
B	3 2 full time 1 part time	Co-ordinator, psychologist, administrator
C	1 full time	Child and youth care worker
D	4 2 full time 2 part time	Co-ordinator, social worker(resigned), volunteers
E	4 2 full time 2 part time	Manager, social worker, social auxiliary worker, psychologist
F	3 2 full time 1 part-time	Psychologist Volunteers1 Social worker –
G	14 6 full time 6 part time	Centre manager, social worker, administrator, advice officer, two care givers, house father, two cleaners, three kitchen assistants, manager of the kitchen and the security officer.
H	5	One social worker, two child care workers, cooker and cleaner

From Table 5.4 it seems that the number of staff varies from one to twelve, staff includes full and part time workers; some organisation have social workers while some do not have social workers. All except one service provider usually include social workers in their staff, some organisations include house mothers and some

organisations include child and youth care workers. Out of eight, four NGOs had psychologists who helped with counselling the street children.

THEME 4: TYPES OF SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICES RENDERED TO STREET CHILDREN IN PRETORIA BY NGOS

According to Child Welfare Information Gateway (2012), and Martin (2010) as well as Streak and Poggenpoel (2005), social welfare services are generally classified according to levels of intervention, and include prevention; early intervention; residential; reunification and alternative care. 'Social services' is therefore a composite term for a broad range of interventions – delivered through state and non-governmental social service practitioners and volunteers – to support individuals, families and communities who are at risk.

Martin (2010), Motala (2010) and Giese (2008) claim that the programmes and services provided by the Department of Social Development to realise and protect the rights of children and their families fall into three categories, namely: comprehensive social security, developmental social welfare services, and community development services. The services are provided through sustainable development programmes in partnership with NGOs, CBOs and FBOs.

The following sub-themes were identified by participants.

Sub-theme 4.1: Prevention and early intervention

Martin (2010) reports that the Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005) dedicates an entire chapter (Chapter 8) to prevention and early intervention services. Prevention services are, in terms of this Act, to be 'provided to families with children in order to strengthen and build their capacity and self-reliance to address problems that may or are bound to occur in the family environment which, if not attended to, may lead to statutory intervention' (section 143(1)).

According to the participants early intervention includes a detailed assessment of both the child's and the family's strengths and needs and extends through the

provision of appropriate services to active monitoring and evaluation as the child develops. In all cases, early intervention is crucial in order to support the child and the family. The importance of early intervention is highlighted, with an emphasis on family participation in the decision-making processes related to education and rehabilitation of individuals with disabilities. This is facilitated by a professional team, which informs the families about the possible options and services available to them.

Based on the information obtained from the participants, this sub-theme on “prevention and early intervention” was broken down into the following categories to be discussed in the next section of this chapter:

- Most organisations deliver prevention and early intervention services
- Prevention and early intervention are delivered through outreach programmes
- Prevention and early intervention are delivered by providing reunification
- Service providers’ perceptions on early intervention and prevention programmes

Category 4.1.1: Most NGOs deliver prevention and early intervention services

The Department of Social Development (2010a) and the Integrated Service Delivery Model (2006) suggest that early intervention programmes are to be ‘provided “to families where there are children identified as being vulnerable to or at risk of harm or removal into residential care”. Early intervention is a level of intervention which includes intensive support, capacity building, social relief; home-based developmental support and therapeutic programmes. While prevention programmes seek to ensure the wellbeing of all children in a community, the services are rendered by a variety of stakeholders, from various disciplines. In underscoring this category, the following storylines are provided:

“We also do prevention. The aim is to prevent abuse and neglect and also to help the girls prevent further deterioration in existing crisis situations, such as poverty”.

“Our two focus areas are prevention and early intervention”.

“We have all the services... when prevention services have not been successful... and then intervention will be through early intervention services”.

The Department of Social Development (2010a) and Dunn and Parry-Williams (2008) mention that developmental social welfare services are classified in terms of levels of intervention which, although distinct, in practice overlap and are provided as a continuum. The services are divided into prevention; early intervention; statutory, residential and residential care; and reconstruction and aftercare services with the aim of promoting the optimal functioning and the reunification of beneficiaries into mainstream society.

Category 4.1.2: Prevention and early intervention are delivered through outreach programmes

This category has been divided into the following sub-categories which will be presented, underscored by confirming storylines and applicable literature in Table 5.5 on the next page.

Table 5.5 Prevention and early intervention are delivered through outreach programmes		
Sub-category	Story-line	Literature
4.1.2.1 Some organisations deliver outreach programmes	<p><i>“The outreach programme forms part of the prevention and early intervention services that we render to vulnerable children ...”</i></p> <p><i>“we have early intervention where we do outreach...”</i></p>	<p>Most street children organisations carry out outreach programmes which open up avenues for the organisations to get in contact with street children and to build or gain their trust to work with these children especially the newcomers in the streets by providing basic needs, health facilities and food to them (Payne, 2005).</p> <p>According to Ward, Seager and Tamasane (2007:3) a range of services is essential in working with street children, including outreach work, soup kitchens, drop-in centres, shelters, and homes for children who cannot be reintegrated into their families.</p>
4.1.2.2 Outreach is delivered through awareness campaigns in the community.	<p><i>“...we provide them [referring to the street children] with information about the government services, where they can get basic needs like food, social grants and other things that they may need”.</i></p> <p><i>“The outreach workers go out to schools and the streets and to</i></p>	<p>Ray et al. (2011) point out that NGOs provide more broad-based psychosocial counselling and practical advice, designed to assist street children in managing their situations and the challenges they face in their everyday lives. The authors further allege that street children typically describe feelings of low self-esteem, lack of self-</p>

	<p><i>the awareness campaign. They talk with the community about issues that affect the children”.</i></p>	<p>confidence, a sense of worthlessness, shame and stigmatisation, and it is important that they are supported, through individual inputs and participation in programmes which are designed to increase their life and coping skills, to develop a positive self-image and the capacities to manage their situation.</p> <p>Grundling and Grundling (2005) are of the view that this requires an emphasis on education and awareness programmes that will enable communities to prevent children from turning to the streets, rather than managing the symptoms.</p>
<p>4.1.2.3 Outreach involves going out and befriending children on the street.</p>	<p><i>“The first step ... is to get the girls through the outreach programme... we reach out to the children, build relationships with them and if they are comfortable with us they can come to the drop-in centre”.</i></p> <p><i>“What we do is that we have staff that go out to the streets to do outreach... When we do the outreach we try to build relationships with the children first because it is difficult for them</i></p>	<p>In confirming this category and the storylines provided, the Department of Social Development (2010a) notes that within the outreach programme, outreach workers aim to visit hotspots where street children spend most of their time on a daily basis. During these visits, information is gathered regarding needs, new children on the street and the problems they are experiencing. In a situation where a child is arrested, the outreach worker acts as the child’s</p>

to trust adults. Sometimes they just need us to provide food for them and they do not see how we could help them in any way. They think we have a motive for whatever we do for them... until they are free to trust us. Sometimes it is much better if...we just... provide basic needs like food and clothes and we at the same time let them where we are located in case they need anything”.

guardian during court hearings and attempts are also made to trace any of the child’s relatives. This effort is linked to the family preservation programme - which is aimed at building up families in order to prevent the children from running to the streets, or reuniting children with their family (Department of Social Development, 2010b).

Street outreach work involves staff and volunteers engaging with children where they are, in order to build trust and develop relationships. Teams provide support and advice to children on the streets and may conduct educational and recreational activities with them. They support them in accessing health care and also refer them to other services, such as drop- in centres and residential shelters (Ray et al., 2011).

Van Kraayenberg (2011) as well as Oyeniyi and Ibukun (2010) highlights that the involvement with street children makes it easier to build relationships with them thus taking them off the streets and

		<p>putting them into different programmes according to their needs.</p>
<p>4.1.2.4 Outreach entails providing drop-in centres where care for the street children's basic needs is provided.</p>	<p><i>"We also have a drop-in centre in the inner-city. The drop-in centre that we are working with is open every day and provides assistance for street children and homeless people who are in need of food, bath, emotional development, vocational training, bible study group and life skills. We offer educational programs, primary health care, art and sport as a drop-in centre. Since the drop-in centre is closer to the children, it is our responsibility to report the cases to social workers. The centre has more than 40 boys coming every day for food and bathing.</i></p> <p><i>"The first step ... is to get the girls through the outreach programme... we reach out to the children, build relationships with them and if they are comfortable with us they can come to the drop-in centre for food and clothing [where] we provide the children with counselling and we also orientate them about the services that we</i></p>	<p>In underscoring this category, the Asian Development Bank (2003) reports that NGOs provide food, shelter, health services, and shorter-term training opportunities and counselling services in drop-in centres in response to the basic needs of the street children.</p> <p>Sanchez (2010) reasons that interventions particularly in Gauteng, SA, are of paramount importance and should encompass a variety of related programmes that will respond to specific needs and difficult social environments.</p> <p>The Department of Social Development (2006a) confirms that the aim of prevention services is to ensure that identification of vulnerable communities, families, groups and youth takes place and intervention is effected before crisis status is reached while early intervention is a level of intervention after assessment, which includes intensive support, capacity building, social relief; home based developmental</p>

	<p><i>offer. We establish why the girls are on the streets”.</i></p> <p><i>“Services that cover all the basic needs of children like clothes and food are also provided. There is further development due to several needs that arise from the kids”.</i></p> <p><i>“If they are comfortable with us they can come to the drop-in centre for food and clothing [where] we provide the children with counselling and we also orientate them about the services that we offer. We establish why the girls are on the streets”.</i></p>	<p>support and therapeutic programmes.</p> <p>Dybicz (2005) indicates that provision of basic needs includes drop-in centres where there is provision of food, shelter, a place of safety, outreach programmes bringing food to the street children.</p>
<p>4.1.2.5 Outreach is done by community development workers and social auxiliary workers.</p>	<p><i>“We have four staff members that are responsible for the outreach programme. They were trained as community development workers.</i></p> <p><i>“The social auxiliary workers that help with the outreach programme”.</i></p>	<p>In regard to this category and its accompanying storylines, Loffell et al. (2008) assert that in order to implement the Children’s Act (Act 38 of 2005) through various programmes require a range of social service practitioners to deliver social services to children in the areas of partial care, early childhood development, prevention and early intervention, protection, foster care, adoption and child and youth care centres. Categories of social service personnel needed to implement the Children’s Act (Act 38 of 2005) include: social workers,</p>

		<p>probation officers, social auxiliary workers and child and youth care workers, early child care workers, community development workers, social security personnel, managers and volunteers.</p> <p>Goode (2005) identifies the child care workers, social auxiliary workers and outreach workers as being responsible for managing the outreach programmes.</p> <p>According to the Department of Social Development (2011a, 2010a) and Loffel (2008), social welfare services are delivered by government, NGOs (as indicated in the table above), social service professionals and volunteers with the aim of supporting individuals, groups and communities who are at risk as stipulated in section 107 of the Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005).</p>
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Category 4.1.3: Service providers' perceptions of early intervention and prevention programmes

The participants complained that early intervention and preventative services remain unattended and are almost non-existent despite the fact that they are a priority according to the Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005). There is a lack of capacity and funding to provide social services, especially prevention and early intervention

services and this creates an inability to implement many of the family support programmes required in terms of the prevention and early intervention:

“The prevention and early intervention programmes that we have also help though they are costly”

“For me the prevention and early intervention programme is not taken into consideration or is not being done at all”.

“When prevention services have not been successful... and then intervention will be through early intervention services though demanding because of lack of funding”.

Solomons (2012) and Mathias (2005) claim that providing prevention and early intervention to address the needs of street children and to provide better social welfare services for children and their families have proved to be difficult to achieve in practice. Martin (2010) observes that the implementation of prevention and early intervention services not only saves lives, but saves costs too. In the long run, intervening early reduces the likelihood that the State will have to take full responsibility for the residential care and/or rehabilitation of a traumatised child, which is more costly than prevention services which keep children safely in the care of their families.

Dutschke (2008) asserts that NGOs /NPOs recognise that prevention services are crucial in the developmental social welfare system. Their concern is about raising the necessary funds to provide such services. There is a lack of prevention and early intervention services within communities. The NGOs face severe financial and other challenges which impact negatively on the quality, continuity and sustainability of the prevention and early intervention services they provide (De Sas Kropiwnicki, 2010; Budlender & Proudlock, 2010).

Sub-theme 4.2: Reunification

This sub-theme has been divided into the following categories:

Category 4.2.1: Some NGOs perform reunification

The participants when asked about their responsibilities in relation to reunification had the following to say:

“We have family support services that one we use more when we try to build the relationship with the families for reunification.

“The main aim like I said is to reintegrate them with their families and finding a way to reintroduce them to their respective communities”.

“That is where we involve the parents by informing them about the programs with the aim of strengthening the bond between them. There is a preparation done with parents and children that can be re-united in society to adapt. Each child that is re-united with their parents is monitored carefully”.

“We have...mm...family reunification and family preservation. That is where we involve the parents by informing them about the programs with the aim of strengthening the bond between them. There is a preparation done with parents and children that can be re-united in society to adapt. Each child that is re-united with their parents is monitored carefully”.

There is general agreement according to James-Wilson (2007) that the overall aim of organisations working with street children should be to make every effort to reunite the children with the systems of care available to them within their families and communities. Ray et al. (2011) state that programmes of prevention should be implemented in an integrated manner in which families and communities are supported to care adequately for their children to prevent street involvement in order to accept the reunification of children who have already been active on the streets. Van Schalkwyk (2007) asserts that for the placement to be sustainable, additional support has to be offered to the whole family.

Preparation of a family and community to receive back a young person who has spent time on the streets is an important opportunity to raise awareness of the rights of all children, and the dangers of the street (Schwinger 2007). In this case according to Schwinger (2007) parents were contacted and involved with the aim of supporting them to find their way out of street life. During this phase, however, the parents and families had been relegated to the role of extras in the process of planning assistance, then were consulted and asked to take back their children for a weekend in order to start a reintegration process.

Category 4.2.2: Procedure and assessment for reunification in temporary residential care

This sub-category was derived from the following utterances made by the participants interviewed:

“What happens is that when the child comes here, we complete form 36 and deliver it to the Department within 48 hours... whoever has been allocated our case will have [the social worker from Department of Social Development] to come to the organization and investigate. She will talk to the child ...”

“The reunification is the responsibility of the social worker from Social Development. The social worker has to do the assessment to check whether the child will be cared for or not [at home] and the court will rule that. If the conditions back home are not good, the court will stop the reunification”.

“After the approval the child can stay there and the other option is to place the child there for six months without the court order while working on the case”.

“That is the responsibility of the social worker to do the assessment. He has to make sure that the child is returning to or placed in a safe environment and the court must also be involved... assessment of the place that the child is going to live in. If the child does not stay with the parents but other relatives, they must also be assessed”.

Dunn and Parry-Williams (2008) claim that street children are placed by designated government or NGO social workers whereby the children's care situation is assessed; care plans are developed and court orders and placements are reviewed. Where possible, contact may be established with families and communities, and attempts made to strengthen family and community participation in improving their own situations.

Foster care is a formal placement based on a social work assessment that the child is in need of an alternative care plan and on a court order. The importance of early interventions for children's protection, and in order to take advantage of their willingness to consider returning to their families or accepting other care options is highlighted by Ray et al. (2011). According to Proudlock and Jamieson (2008:39), social workers and courts are still required for the first placement decision. The backlog in foster care placement is therefore set to continue. The result is that families caring for orphaned children will continue to wait for a long time while services for children who have been abused or exploited will also be delayed as social workers and the courts struggle under a heavy case load.

Category 4.2.3: Service providers' perceptions of reunification

The following storylines are provided by the participants who indicated the complexity of reunification services:

"Once they have conformed to life on the street; it is not easy to get them out of it". But from my experience it is sometimes working. I can say 50/50 because we have the children who are reunified and are well today, we have kids that are back on the streets again, others came back to the shelter again. But it works since we have kids that are back home and are doing ok. Through re-unification we aim to invest in the families of these children. It is not possible to just take a child off the streets and expect them to stay at the care centre if it is by force".

"... reunification programmes. Which we found very much difficult to implement because most of our beneficiaries come outside the province. So it is the people that come they end up on the streets because they do not have any one they know in

Pretoria since most of them are from Limpopo. When we do our reunification you will find that we have housed 90% of the non-Gauteng children and that causes conflict between our funders which is Social Development. They emphasize that they cannot rehabilitate people from other provinces they need to go back to their provinces to be assisted”.

“There is a pressure on shelters to reunify them with their families and communities. We have children that have been here for three years and we do not know where their parents are, they do not make contact, they do not want to make contact. They are happy to know that their kids are being cared for by someone else; they do not want the responsibility”.

“You find that in some cases it [referring to reunification] is difficult [not feasible] and the child is then sent to shelters or care centres. It happens many times that the child is not comfortable going back home, due to different kinds of abuse he went through. Then the social worker has to find a residential care for the child”.

The participants expressed their concerns about the lack of commitment by parents and government in efforts to respond to the problems of street children especially in terms of reunification. Also mentioned by them was the lack of follow-up and monitoring of street children in shelters for evaluation of progress in projects. All these comments go to show that there is little cooperation and coordination of activities and programmes between the government and NGOs.

Dunn and Parry-Williams (2008) in their research recommend that governments, with support from UNICEF and NGOs, need to reunify and support children who are inappropriately placed in homes to live with parents and relatives. Van Schalkwyk (2007) recounts that some NGOs have achieved successful reunification of street children with their families or admitted them to shelters through outreach programmes. According to Ray and Carter (2007) as well as Feeny (2005), reunification does not necessarily mean that children will return to live with their parents, as this may not be feasible or appropriate. Feeny (2005) adds that both the child and the family need to be prepared, and progress be followed after the child is placed with a family. It is time consuming, requires specialist skills, and in practice is

often not managed well on the ground. Some organisations establish family homes where children can stay for as long as they need until they are either reunited with their families or can become independent.

Given the above statement, some participants highlighted the challenges that come with reunification when asked “whether reunification does work”. Not all participants were proponents of reunification. A few felt that reunification is possible for only a small proportion of children who are living on the street. Some children cannot or do not want to return home or be provided with an alternative family-type environment. In these circumstances children, they argue, should be supported to continue to live independently.

Furthermore the participants indicated that there is a lack of capacity in that social workers are swamped by foster care grant applications. In support of the former the following storylines are provided:

“[monitoring and support] seldom happens because of lack of social workers. There is clearly not enough social workers to deal with the demands of social services”.

“It has been a long time since she [referring to the social worker from Department of Social Development] has been here. Her last visit was on August when she was doing a case study. She is supposed to come here once a week but that never happens. We have to take the cases there. Like now I have to go there because there is a girl who has been placed here for quite some time now”.

“On the other hand you will find that the very same social worker from Social Development is faced with many cases from her line of work... while we are also awaiting her services. Really to tell the truth it is not working. That means social worker has little time or no time at all to deal with reported cases of our side. And we become disadvantaged now because we are stuck with a child who needs to be placed and we cannot do anything about it. For me the prevention and early intervention programme is not taken into consideration or is not being done at all”.

“...the social worker from the Social Development brought the child here and she has never made a follow-up. The girl has never been to school for three months now. We cannot take her to school because it is too far and we do not have the means to do that. So up to date nothing has been done and we have never seen the social worker again. That is the challenge that we have. This means that social workers have little or no time to deal with reported cases of abuse. We need to always run after them because if we sit and wait for them, nothing happens. So we have someone from our organization that does the follow-up with the cases and contact the Social Development to investigate the process”.

Xingwana (2011) highlights that reuniting the child with families is the most desirable outcome but is not an easy task to implement. Ray et al. (2011) in their research “Still on the street – still short of rights” found that the NGOs in some instances operate either individually or through a network of partners or government bodies to assess the possibilities of a child returning home, and then implement an after-care service, for example, by helping families access social protection or providing basic support directly. Xingwana (2011) reports a success rate of 20% of children being reunited with their families.

Sub-theme 4.3: Residential care

Mentjies et al. (2007) in the study “Residential care in South Africa” deduced that poverty and HIV and AIDS were often both background factors though not always the direct cause of admission into residential care. According to Dunn and Perry-Williams (2008), residential care of children is divided into informal care and formal care (residential care and foster care). The Department of Social Development (2009d) in the study entitled Situation Analysis of Children in South Africa alludes to the fact that the Children’s Act (Act 38 of 2005) makes provision for foster care as an alternative form of care for children who cannot be cared for by their biological parents.

The categories will be presented, underscored by confirming storylines and applicable literature in the next section.

Categories 4.3.1: The service providers in this study offer temporary or permanent residential care

This category has been divided into the following sub-categories:

Sub-category 4.3.1.1: Placement of street children into residential care

The participants maintain that they offer a holistic range of social welfare services including foster care, shelter and child and youth care centres. This statement is affirmed by the Department of Social Development (2010a) as well as Dunn and Parry-Williams (2008) who indicate that the child and youth care centres (CYCC) are the new umbrella term for all children's homes, places of safety, schools of industry, reform schools and secure care facilities. The participants declared that the services are designed to promote the well-being of children by ensuring safety, achieving permanency, and strengthening families to care for their children successfully:

"We aim to provide a holistic range of services like residential care, educational and developmental assistance to the girls on the streets who have been abused, neglected or exploited somehow".

"Residential care centres are meant for temporary placements and the child has to be reunited but this does not normally happen. The children end up staying there for more than six months without a follow up from the social worker. Most of the residential care centres have now turned into permanent homes for the children because of lack of capacity. This is a residential care for street children".

"It is the responsibility of the social worker to remove and place the child through the court order. We cannot do it ourselves. The social worker has to be designated from the Department of Social Development".

Ray et al. (2011) assert that children stay in residential facilities in the short or long term while they participate in activities that develop their skills to engage with the

mainstream of society, and while reunification with their families or alternative living arrangements are sought. McDaniel et al. (2011) emphasise that the key aim of the residential care service is to provide long-term quality placements for children, who, for a variety of reasons, are unable to live with their birth families, this being achieved through robust recruitment, comprehensive fostering assessments, ongoing support and training. The aim according to Hall and Proudlock (2011) is to build resilience in children and to prepare them to be reunified with their own family or to become part of a safe and secure foster care family.

The Department of Social Development (2010a) concurs with UNICEF (2008) that given the fact that residential care of children is divided into informal care and formal care (residential care and foster care), guidelines to ensure the effectiveness of the implementation of the programmes and a database on the formal care, standardised indicators, profiles of children's homes, training programmes for district and provincial need to be put in place. Dawes (2006) posits that the Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005) offers a wider range of placement options for children found to be in need of care, such as shared care, facilities for persons with disabilities, and rehabilitation centres. The vulnerable children can be placed in the formal care depending on their circumstances.

According to Mahery, Jamieson and Scott (2011) as well as Dunn and Parry-Williams (2008), government and NGO service providers deliver social welfare services to children who need residential care. If a child is found in circumstances that indicate that he or she is in need of care and protection the person who finds the child can bring this to the attention of a children's court. The presiding officer (the magistrate) must make an order that a designated social worker investigate the situation. Then the child may have to be removed from his or her normal place of abode, either by court order or on the recommendation of a service provider, to alternative care (e.g. foster care) or placed in a residential facility (Department of Social Development, 2010a: 45).

Sub-category 4.3.1.2: Monitoring and review of placement in residential care

The following statements made by the participants are provided in support of the sub-category:

“According to the Children’s Act (Act No 38) of 2005 it [the period that the child remains in alternative care] should be until the child reaches 18 years of age. Then if the child goes to school he can stay until 21 years. Like in our case we have boys that are over 18 years and attending school. Some are working part time and we have found accommodation for them because they cannot be returned home”.

“The social worker does the monitoring and after two years there is a review being done. It is another process of going to the court for decision making and the term could be extended or not”.

“The family has to receive support in order to cope with the new changes. The process has to be monitored by the social worker”.

The participants alluded to the fact that after two years, the social worker has to review the case to determine if the child is still fit to be placed in residential care pertaining to the courts’ decision. Mahery et al. (2011) assert that the court order lapses after two years unless the order indicates that the placement will be for less than two years. The court must review the order every two years and decide to extend the order or release the child. The authors state that according to the Children’s Act (Act 38 of 2005), the orders cannot extend beyond a child’s 18th birthday though under some circumstances provisions can be made in the Act where a child can remain in alternative care after turning 18.

The Department of Social Development (2010c) explains that the goal of assessment is to determine the least restrictive, most empowering environment and programme suitable for the child or family. Mahery et al. (2011) explain that a child who is in residential care could be provisionally transferred into the care of his or her parents as the start of a family reunification process. The assessment and transfer must be managed by a designated social worker to determine if it would be feasible to reintegrate the child with his or her family or into another family, or to transfer the

child to another centre or placement. However, the transfer must be withdrawn if the child so requests and the social worker agrees to it.

Category 4.3.2: Residential care provides school education, educational support, recreational, vocational training and skills development

The following statements made by the participants are provided in support of this category:

“We give them educational support...such as providing education and placing them in schools according to their circumstances... vocational training”.

“We have development of potential and empowerment in respect of arts, culture and skills we have skills development...recreational, culture programs”.

“We have education and training for the girls. We do have educational support since it is important to provide education for the girls”.

“According to the Children’s Act (Act No 38) of 2005 it [the period that the child remains in alternative care] should be until the child reaches 18 years of age. Then if the child goes to school he can stay until 21 years. Like in our case we have boys that are over 18 years and attending school. Some are working part time and we have found accommodation for them because they cannot be returned home”.

In confirming this category, Patel (2005) and the Asian Development Bank (2003) identify non-formal education and vocational training projects as programmes offered by service providers rendering services to street children, aimed at helping children to return to their homes if they so wish, and efforts to build communities’ capacity to manage and maintain long-term projects aimed at improving the lives of children, thus preventing them from abandoning their families in favour of street life.

Van Schalkwyk (2007) points out that there are programmes that work toward equipping the street children with life skills that will enable them to integrate back into society and enter the job market for example training in pottery-making, silk-screening, woodwork, beadwork and life-skills.

Category 4.3.3: Residential care includes counselling, psycho-social support for the street children

The following statements made by the participants are provided in support of this:

“...we have ... trauma counselling services for the children”.

“We have ... counselling for the girls individually and in groups”.

“We offer counselling to the girls...group session...psycho-social....social welfare support...”

“Presently we ... offer counselling since most of them have ... undergone some sort of challenges in their lives”.

The participants declared that the street children are offered support in terms of counselling after being traumatised. In their remarks UNICEF (2010) expressed that many abused, neglected and abandoned children land up in children’s homes with psychological problems that need to be healed. The Department of Social Development (2010a) reports that children’s homes provide counselling for children who have been removed from their family homes because they were being abused, neglected or exploited. The psychological support offered by residential facilities to street children as stipulated by Ray et al. (2011) can assist children to develop self-esteem and a level of social interaction that will support their overall development. According to the Asian Development Bank (2003), programmes for street children are multi-sectoral because the health, education, survival and emotional needs of street children are impossible to address separately.

Category 4.3.4: Residential care includes rehabilitation of the street children

Participants indicated that residential care includes rehabilitation of the street children:

“We have rehabilitation for sex workers”

“We generally aim to provide a phased approach to rehabilitation and reintegration by supporting them to “stabilize” their lives and find alternative life options”.

“With rehabilitation and counseling and we try to take the children back to their families by preparing them first”.

“They need to go back home after rehabilitation. For example we had one boy of years and we have to evaluate and assess his progress against all the programs that he was involved in. We can then safely place him back to the community after being empowered”.

Ward and Seager (2010) stipulate that Non-governmental Organisations employ a wide variety of programmes to address needs such as rehabilitation. Ray et al. (2011) declare that organisations working with street children generally aim to provide a phased approach to rehabilitation and reunification by supporting them to stabilise their lives and find alternative life options.

Sub-theme 4.4: Alternative care

According to UNICEF(2010) and Dunn and Parry-Williams(2008), there are many issues worldwide that influence the need for alternative care practices, including among other factors poverty; high HIV-prevalence; poor access to services; migration; violence; abuse, neglect, abandonment and also the lack of education and health care. The number of children requiring alternative care has grown due to increasing numbers of orphaned children in South Africa. Thus insufficient residential facilities also make it difficult to place a child in alternative care due to a lack of funding and resources. The participants mentioned that a child is placed in an alternative care centre through a court order:

“Alternative care centres are meant for temporary placements and the child has to be reunited but this does not normally happen. The children end up staying there for

more than six months without a follow up from the social worker. Most of the alternative care centres have now turned into permanent homes for the children because of lack of capacity”.

“[alternative care means] (In this case) the child will be placed in foster care; child and youth care centre or temporary safe care”.

“It is a process that needs court order for the removal of the child”.

Alternative care refers to children’s homes that are run as family-type group homes, and accommodate a number of children of no relation to the person running the home. The child and youth care centres (CYCC) are the new umbrella term for all children’s homes, places of safety, schools of industry, reform schools and secure care facilities (Department of Social Development, 2010; Dunn and Parry-Williams, 2008).

Sub-theme 4.5: After care

The following statements made by the participants are provided in support of this sub-theme:

“We do after care services in which we do a follow-up on whatever they do in their communities. We gave them the starter packs for their business so we want to see how they are progressing. For example one would love to do tiling business and we help them to do the marketing and until we are sure that they will make it outside...then we eventually release them because they can now stand up on their own and do something for them”.

“Some that finished school...we help them to look for work....Others are getting some sponsor and funding from donors, others they go back home and study there”.

“Some we refer them to a commune house. There is a commune house, it is a youth development in town, then we took some there where they can be assisted to look

for a job, they do some development skills that skills development ... And they get a job after training”.

“What we do is that we have started an independence programme. We have two of the 18 year olds that are living in a flat closer to us. We have someone that sponsor the flat... and we have a sponsor for their pocket money. They can buy groceries and toiletry and they come here to get their food. They live independently. They also have a volunteer that takes them to school”.

Van Schalkwyk (2007:23) reports that “after care caters for those children who are placed back home after they have completed their individual rehabilitation programme at the shelter.”

THEME 5: FACTORS ENABLING SERVICE PROVIDERS IN THEIR SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICE DELIVERY TO STREET CHILDREN

This theme emerged from the responses provided by the participants and the sub-themes are discussed in the section below:

Sub-theme 5.1: Financial and human resources enabling service providers to render social work services to street children in Pretoria

With reference to financial aid enabling the service organisations under study, participants referred to the Department of Social Development, churches and individual, companies or businesses as financial resources. The funders mentioned will now be the focus of discussion in the next section of the chapter.

Category 5.1.1: The Department of Social Development (Department of Social Development)

The following quotations point to the funding provided by the Department of Social Development and the challenges related to the funding received:

“Our main source for now is Department of Social Development subsidy, even if it is not a 100% subsidy... I think it is 70% and need to raise funds for the 30% ... they

allocate a certain amount to a child. It is R400 and something a month but I cannot remember the exact figures very well. It is R45, 00 a day for a child if I am not mistaken here”.

“We do not get any subsidy from government presently since we are still awaiting approval of registration from Social Development”.

“We get funding from the churches and the Department of Social Development. Every child gets money from social development as part of a subsidy”.

“We also get subsidy from the government though little because there is a lack of coordination, quality, monitoring and evaluation of the services provided to street children from our side as NGOs and the government. The lack of coordination between and among government agencies and civil society organizations leads to competition for funding”.

The participants seemed to appreciate the support from Department of Social Development but at the same time were not satisfied with the help. The NGOs are only partially funded by government and they still have to raise the bulk of funds to make ends meet through fundraising, and international and South African donors. The participants were of the view that while they are known to be champions in rendering services to children and programmes for street children in particular, the reality of being underfunded compromises, limits and undermines the delivery and quality of early intervention and prevention programmes and services.

NGOs assist the government to deliver social welfare services in both urban and rural settings and therefore receive significant government funding, (Department of Social Development Annual Report, 2010/2011). Governments have the primary responsibility to establish the conditions in which the rights of all children can be realised, and in which families and communities are able to care effectively for children as indicated by Ray et al. (2011). These authors further assert that the wide range of preventive measures depends largely on government funding to establish effective, proper poverty reduction programmes and social services that are inclusive of poor and marginalised children, families and communities.

The Policy on Financial Awards to Service Providers (Department of Social Development, 2011b) states that social welfare services in South Africa are rendered through both government and civil society organisations. Government acknowledges that organisations have the skills, expertise, infrastructure and other resources that could contribute to reconstruction, development and the provision of social welfare services. The registered organisations receive financial support through subsidisation from the South African government. Some of these NGOs have made strides in realigning their services with government policies and priorities despite the challenges emanating from the policy.

Category 5.1.2: Financial support from churches, individuals, companies or businesses

In support of this category the following storylines are provided:

“We get our funding from... individual people who sponsor us...”

“...City Property... Pick n Pay, they provide funding for us”.

“Most of the funding is from the donors, churches, fund raising and private volunteers. Much of the money is from overseas sponsors”.

“The rest is from donations... We rely a lot on donors for food, clothes, stationery.. they are really involved and they do a lot. People just drop in and offer whatever they have at least a day does not go by without somebody coming to our rescue”.

The participants expressed that NGOs try to overcome the problem of inadequate funding by embarking on fundraising on an on-going basis and by negotiating contacts and contracts for financial support from individuals, corporate, and foreign donors, trusts and foundations. By so doing they are able to generate funds for projects and can complete their programmes.

Giese (2008) claim that NGOs rely on government funding and their own fundraising to render the social welfare services. This means that the organisations have to look

for additional donor funding. Budlender et al. (2011) affirm that NGOs are delivering services mandated by the Act; the money paid to them does not cover the full cost of providing the social welfare services. Instead the NGOs need to find donors to make up the shortfall. Thomas de Benitez (2011) and Patel (2010) add that some NGOs have international funding to assist them with delivery of social welfare services whilst others are dependent on government funding. The lack of adequate and consistent funding raises questions about the consistency of the availability of these services and their long-term sustainability. Pitzl (2006) concedes that NGOs and CBOs emerged as prominent service providers which are actively addressing the plight of street children with limited resources. The church also does support the NGOs in terms of funding.

Apart from the financial support (discussed above) that enables the organisations (under scrutiny) to render social work services to street children in Pretoria, the participants also made mention of the fact that the human resources (i.e. the paid staff and volunteers) make their service delivery possible. This aspect will now be presented as a category in the section below:

Category 5.1.3 Paid staff and volunteers enabling the organisations to render social welfare services to street children in Pretoria

Participants referred to the role of staff and volunteers in rendering services to street children:

“We have dedicated staff members”.

“Our staff members provide the services...”

“We have volunteers that make sure that the girls are well provided for, with school clothes...trauma counselling... one, who is the office administrator. People just drop in and offer whatever they have at least a day does not go by without somebody coming to our rescue”.

“We have volunteers that help the children with their studies, soccer... .. few volunteers from USA embassy ... The volunteers help with the minor things at the organization...like fixing a broken door, repairing here and there”.

According to the Earle (2008), most of the individuals volunteer to help the vulnerable children because of their desire to help and their love of children. Loffel et al. (2008) declare that volunteers are often initially the direct providers of a service before organisations become professionalised and most NPOs continue to rely to some extent on their help. Voluntary service is now being seen as a stepping stone to future formal employment, with skills development an essential component. The Department of Social Development (2009a:7) views social workers as the key strategic resources in addressing the needs and challenges of society with their diverse knowledge and skills. Social workers are attracted to the profession because they care about people; they enjoy helping and working with them, as reported by Dybicz (2012).

Sub-theme 5.2: Networking with other organisations in the vicinity enabling service providers to render social welfare services to street children in Pretoria

The participants acknowledged the fact that NGOs have played a significant role in street children’s programmes, in many cases providing services that local and national governments cannot render. Yet individual NGOs and NGO presented programmes alone are not enough to reduce the number of children in the street significantly. In enabling them to do their work, the NGOs have networked with local government, as well as with other civil society service providers at the local level:

“We actually have shelters around the city that we network with. Other youth development programmes from different organizations. We work hand in glove with them because when they have enough food they give us and when we also have enough we give to them. We share resources. We do refer some of the clients to them and they also do so”.

“We also work ... in conjunction with civil society organisations and government institutions. We need people to help us. We have UNICEF, the Alliance...TASC, SAPS, Children’s Rights Centre, Human Rights Lawyers, Pretoria Child protection, Metro police...”

“We network with other organisations for things like food, funding and referrals. We get funding from donors, fund raising.... Department of Social Development provide subsidy for each girl. We have churches, supermarkets and private sponsors that help us with the funding”.

According to Lombard (2010) and the Department of Social Development (2006b), strong partnerships depend on partners and role players understanding their roles and contributions related to their specific fields of expertise or experience. Various departments must work together to ensure the delivery of effective child protection services, including the departments of Social Development, Justice, Education, Health, the National Prosecuting Authority (NPA) and the South African Police Services (SAPS) (Giese & Sanders, 2008). These authors further caution that poor coordination between these different departments impacts negatively on the provision of effective and comprehensive child protection services so that networking, capacity building, and joint funding between service providers need to be systematically promoted.

Martin (2010) recounts that the NGOs operate on a smaller scale and are only able to offer particular services as alluded to by the participants. As a result, when services are not being offered at one organisation, special arrangements are made with other organisations for the children to receive other skills or services needed. Ray et al. (2011) state that coordination between organisations working in the same locality helps to expand the range of services that organisations can offer together to different groups of children also in helping one another to facilitate the safe return of children to their families which may be many miles away.

THEME 6: FACTORS HINDERING SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICE DELIVERY TO STREET CHILDREN

Pare (2003) explains that the programmes addressing street children need exist, though not without gaps and shortcomings. The programmes are adopted and carried out on a voluntary basis. They are therefore without guarantees and are often short lived due to difficulties in funding, shortage of staff members, marginalisation of early intervention and prevention programmes and monitoring of the services provided.

In the next section various factors hindering social welfare service delivery to street children will be presented and discussed.

Sub-theme 6.1: Lack of sufficient funds / resources

The participants referred to a lack of funds or resources as an important factor hindering the rendering of social welfare services to children:

“I think it is finance; finance is one of the main, main problems that we have because what we have is not enough... the financial award policy has much effect on the allocation of funds to the NGOs...there are so many challenges”.

”Lack of resources especially the funds. ... The money that we get from Social Development is not enough to run the organisation. ... We have to do fund raising... and that take a lot of our time because we cannot focus on one thing only. The issues are mainly with salary because this place is donor funded and we do not have enough funds”.

“The biggest drawback is funding... Government budgets for children’s care and protection is extremely small or constrained. Lotto does not help anyway...there are also delays in the transfer of funds”.

The findings from the semi-structured interviews support the fact that street children are not receiving enough support from the government. Participants (as earlier noted

in this chapter) made reference to the fact that NGOs are largely dependent on government and other funding in order to survive. Some rely on Lotto and the international funds and while NGOs are competing for money, funds are becoming more and more limited. Furthermore, the participants expressed extreme frustration regarding the Policy on Financial Awards to Service Providers (PFA) for NPOs and the effect it has on the delivery of services to the street children. The participants were also concerned about their inability in the NGO sector to render services because of inadequate remuneration for these services and time, cost and resource constraints in terms of fund-raising, resulting in services either reverting back to the government or collapsing.

The above sentiments are supported by Solomons (2012) who asserts that international funding is drying up. No budget is set aside for the NGOs. He cautions that should the organisations not be funded in 2013, they will be faced with closing down. Thomas de Benitez (2011) as well as Dunn and Parry-Williams (2008) argues that the NGOs responsible for delivering social welfare services are poorly funded and the staff underpaid. Madonsela, the Director General of the Department of Social Development, admitted in the Annual Report (2010/2011:8) that “Department of Social Development is confronted with the challenge of addressing major socio-economic issues with limited human and financial resources. The challenge has become more acute in the wake of the global financial crisis, which has resulted in widespread budget cuts. Among other things, this has resulted in reduced funding for some NGOs which provide services on behalf of the Department”. Budlender and Proudlock (2011) remark that the subsidies provided by the Department of Social Development to NGOs do not cover the full cost or scope of the social welfare services.

Sub-theme 6.2: High staff turnover

The following quotations from the transcribed interviews of the participants support this sub-theme:

“We are experiencing high staff turnover because remuneration is not equal, the government pays their professionals higher salaries than us”.

“There is clearly not enough social workers to deal with the demands of social services. First, there is a scarcity of appropriate skills to provide social services, which impacts significantly on the delivery of prevention and early intervention services”.

The participants stated that there is a shortage of social workers to render the services, let alone implement the Children’s Act (Act 38 of 2005). They also pointed to the fact that governmental social workers spend a lot of time at the court and doing foster care placements and qualified social workers are absorbed by the Department of Social Development because of the better remuneration provided by the latter, thus leaving the NGOs trapped and poor. According to the participants, this situation is exacerbated by the fact that child and youth care workers are not fully recognised by the South African Council for Social Service Professions causing them to rely only on the social auxiliary workers to help with the bulk of the work and thus making it difficult for social workers to meet the needs of vulnerable children.

NGOs have a limited ability to refuse government referrals for fear of losing their funding subsidies (Lombard & Klein 2006; Lombard 2005). At the same time the NGOs suffer from a high turnover of staff as social workers seek to move – either into the government sector where workloads are not only slightly lighter but salary packages are also considerably better, or to careers in another country or outside the social welfare sector (Lombard, 2008a; Earle, 2008; Department of Social Development Annual Report, 2010/2011).

Contributing to the high staff turnover are high caseloads, inefficiency, workplace stress and anxiety, emotional burnout, and even incidents of malpractice as social work is reduced to an activity of crisis management (Lombard, 2008; Earl, 2008). According to Ray et al. (2011), working effectively with street children requires experience and skills, but there is a lack of resources for staff training, which leads to burn out and high turnover.

Sub-theme 6.3: Limited number of social workers

Lack of in-house social workers exacerbates the matter for the delivery of services to the street children as recounted by participants:

“There are clearly not enough social workers to deal with the demands of social services”.

“It is difficult because the social workers do not stay for a long time and other staff members also do not stay because they often look for greener pastures. You find that this person will be appointed to run the programmes and suddenly he resigns or lacks passion. The main problem I think it is because we do not have people that stay longer. One person cannot do everything...Lack of staff members is also a problem”.

“... We still do not have a social worker but there is a post that has been advertised and the appointed person will start on the 3rd of December this year. The previous one left for greener pastures. Hope things will change because as a site manager I am restricted to do some of the things. My main focus now is to facilitate the programmes and manage the progress of the organisation, make sure that the boys are safe and their needs are addressed. The Children’s Act (Act No 38) of 2005 allows only social workers to undertake most of the tasks and that is why my hands are tight and that makes it also difficult because I cannot answer some of your questions clearly because of lack of information or having no knowledge of what the responsibilities of the social worker entails. This on the other hand causes many delays in the service delivery to the boys. The lack of social workers is a huge dilemma for our organization. I have no guidance from any social worker”.

“The previous social worker has resigned and we now have appointed new one. But since her appointment she only came twice. She is residential social worker”.

In acknowledgement of the above, the participants stated that the salaries need to be equalised in order to retain the professionals across the provinces in the private and public welfare sectors. They further pointed to the fact that this dilemma of

limited numbers of social workers impacts heavily on the provision of prevention and early intervention services since the lack of capacity in the system forces social workers to prioritise the most urgent cases, neglecting prevention and early intervention services. This leads to a greater number of children requiring protection, further reducing capacity (Giese, 2010). The acute shortage of social workers and social auxiliary workers has resulted in a severe lack of capacity to respond to the demand for social welfare services by vulnerable children and their families (Loffell et al., 2008). The other factor coupled with this sub-theme and impacting on the service delivery as mentioned by the participants is the loss of South African qualified social workers to emigration.

Various authors (Sanchez, 2010; Giese, 2010, Proudlock & Jamieson, 2008; Dunn & Parry-Williams, 2008) identify the following as major challenges to social service delivery in South Africa: Firstly, there is a shortage of social service practitioners; in particular social workers, social auxiliary workers and child and youth care workers, community development workers, probation officers, social security personnel, and social care workers; secondly, the NGOs are under-resourced and struggle to work for the most vulnerable groups in a weak policy environment and many practitioners are overburdened, particularly by foster care work.

Sub-theme 6.4: Insufficient collaboration with the Department of Social Development

In underscoring this sub-theme the participants stated:

“Poor collaboration especially with government is a major problem. Work allocation is not distributed equally and they have so many restrictions especially on our part”.

“I must say that the collaboration between us and the government is very poor”.

The participants stressed the lack of coordination and cooperation that exists on multiple levels especially between the government and NGOs which was contributing to serious difficulties experienced by NGOs. The participants insisted that the roles of government versus the NGO sector in respect of service delivery need to be

clearly stipulated and defined. Schenck (2004) concurs and calls for the roles, functions and responsibilities of the social service practitioners in the public and private sectors to be clearly spelled out and defined since this issue adds to role confusion thus causing the staff to shift responsibilities.

Sub-theme 6.5: Inadequate service delivery by government/the Department of Social Development

The participants felt that government is not doing enough to address their grievances and plights. They have to do the bulk of the work without being given enough power to implement some of the programmes. They pointed out that only social workers are expected by the Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005) to deliver the programmes whilst it is impossible due to lack of capacity. The participants articulated their frustration with the subsidies they receive from the government. They pointed out that the services they make available to street children are expensive and enormous. The participants believed that active use of other social services practitioners like child and youth care workers, social auxiliary workers and community development workers can help in the delivering of social welfare services to the street children. The participants had the following to say:

“The government is failing the children. There is a widespread failure to provide children with basic health care services and social services despite this being their legal right according to the constitution and the Children's Act (Act No 38) of 2005.

“You will find that sometimes there is power struggle because our organisation does appoint its own residential social worker but the Social Development at the same time designates its own social worker to work in the same organisation”.

“In this particular case placement was not done because there was no social worker and the Department of Social Development ignores the problem. They know about this since they are the ones that dump the children here”.

Streak et al. (2003) point out that the NGOs have been hard hit by the insufficient priority being given by government in allocating funds to NGOs for the provision

and/or continuation of providing social welfare services. According to the authors mentioned, a financial crisis currently exists, due to years of under-funding, the dishing out of diminishing funds to more and more organisations and the growing demand for services. Many organisations are struggling to deliver services in their domain, let alone expand service delivery to new areas or build capacity in previously disadvantaged organisations.

According to Loffel (2012), Ray et al. (2011) as well as Patel and Hochfeld (2008), there is still much to be done to transform welfare services in South Africa. The researchers caution that NGOs are poised to cut back their services or close their doors while retrenchments are already taking place in alarming numbers. It seems the government has so far been helpless in the effort to resolve the problem of street children and has to date failed to prescribe possible solutions and funding to the NGOs.

Sub-theme 6.7: Ineffective legal restrictions

The participants spoke about ineffective legal restrictions along the following lines:

“The social worker here is not allowed to do some of the work required by the organisation because of the restriction from the Social Development or the Children’s Act (Act No 38) of 2005)... The residential social worker is limited in doing some of the services because she has to focus more on the programmes. She cannot refer or remove a child according to the Children’s Act (Act No 38) of 2005”.

“I cannot appoint social auxiliary workers because they have to be supervised by the social worker and our social workers do not stay long”.

“We have to comply with the norms and standards of the Social Development. The Children’s Act (Act No 38) of 2005 is good on paper but when you have to put in practice it comes with many gaps or loopholes. For example, our outreach workers often work in Sunnyside and when they meet the child on the streets they cannot remove the child because they do not have the capacity. Our own social worker can also not remove the child because she also does not have the capacity. They have

to call the Social Development to remove the child and they will take forever before coming and sometimes they never show up. With the children who are being trafficked ...it is very difficult. This is not practical what will happen with the child because we cannot keep the child safe”.

“It is the responsibility of the social worker to remove and place the child through the court order. We cannot do it ourselves. The social worker has to be designated from the Department of Social Development. We cannot use our residential social worker to do that. That is another hindering factor for service delivery because we end up waiting for someone from the outside to render services to our organisation. It can take a period of three months or more just waiting for the response from the Department of Social Development to remove or place the child. They do the assessment and the whole procedure according to the Children’s Act (Act No 38) of 2005”.

The participants referred to the scarcity of appropriate human resources as the main culprit hindering them in the delivery of social welfare services. Challenges in accomplishing the objectives of the Children’s Act (Act 38 of 2005) have been identified in the area of human resources, funding and collaboration within government departments and between government and NGOs working with street children. It was pointed out by most participants that limited consultations are made with regard to policy formulation and that staff needs to be trained on how to properly implement these policies since the problem of street children is a complex one and requires a multifaceted approach.

The problems regarding street children, according to Martin (2010), are not a result of a lack of knowledge about which policies address their condition but arguably, partly the result of failing policy processes or policy gaps within the system. In order to have effective policy processes all the stages in the policy cycle from agenda setting to evaluation are equally important and so is the participation and contribution of government, stakeholders, NGOs and the targeted population in the entire cycle. The problems encountered with these programmes do not stem from a lack of initiative, but rather from a lack of sufficient resources, such as funding and trained staff, as well as a lack of proper planning and government policies as stipulated by

Martin (2010). Budlender and Proudlock (2011:13) declare that “a social welfare service continues to be a poor third cousin despite the constitutional and legislative obligations. This is reflected in small increases in allocations, limited narrative relating to Children’s Act (Act 38 of 2005) services in the budget books, and in the ongoing funding challenges facing NGOs delivering Children’s Act (Act 38 of 2005) related services”.

It is however revealed in this study that inadequate specific attention is being given to the needs and circumstances of street children; the practice shows that the implementation and monitoring stages of policy process are weak. Not only are there unclear guidelines and standards on how to proceed but this aspect is also not effective due to the financial and staff constraints. As a result some of the programmes and projects are brought to a halt, delayed or terminated thus forcing the NGOs to close down.

THEME 7: SUGGESTIONS TO IMPROVE SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICE DELIVERY TO STREET CHILDREN

This theme was born from the responses of the participants. Their responses led the researcher to the decision to divide this theme into the following sub-themes to be discussed next:

Sub-theme 7.1: Expansion of social welfare services

This sub-theme is consistent with findings by Dutschke (2008) that urban-based NPOs need to expand their services to rural areas though this is impossible for urban-based organisations that are struggling to access funding to expand services into rural areas without the necessary support from government. Dutschke (2008) and the Earle (2008) reiterate that the NGOs need to continue to provide the majority of social services especially prevention and early intervention. For the social welfare services to be successful, the NGOs have to be funded by government.

The participants voiced visions of having their services expanded to other areas and had the following to suggest:

“...we are planning to have our own school, register for the youth development project, have facilities for the youth development, have our own commune as well with the aim of monitoring the children because sometimes they act irresponsibly, they finish school and get a job but end up being alcoholics.”

“Our dream as the organisation is to have more efficient premises and services to cater for more vulnerable children. There is the need for professional intervention programmes to address substance abuse and trauma caused by prostitution, drug addiction and neglect. We would love to move to Sunnyside if we could... because that is where more street children are. They are accessible and there are more resources there”.

“Maybe if we could expand to rural areas...”

“To expand the reunification services...no child is an island. We have to try our best to remove the children from the streets, provide them with skills and training...educations so that they can be better people tomorrow. Though we are expanding in terms of building more shelters and homes, we do not encourage them to stay here...we believe that every child should grow in their own communities surrounded by their own cultures and values”.

When speaking about current social services, Cross and Seager (2010) are of the view that these services are uncoordinated and fragmented. This becomes a major impediment in efforts to help children, who have multiple needs, as is characteristic of all homeless, runaway or expelled from home children. According to Ward et al. (2007), a range of services is essential in working with street children, including outreach work, soup kitchens, drop-in centres, shelters, and homes for children who cannot be reintegrated into their families. The key ingredients for success in working with children include the following: accessible shelters, preferably placed in communities the children came from, in order to intervene as early as possible; collaboration between shelters, so that children cannot play one shelter off against another; warm relationships with children, that enable limit-setting within a bond between the child and the programme; thorough assessment of a child's mental and physical health needs, educational needs, and of his or her family; education appropriate to the child's needs and psychiatric care, for those children who need it.

Sub-theme 7.2: Better government funding and opting for alternative ways of funding social welfare services

The following quotations refer to suggestions made by the participants for better government funding:

“One other thing is that we provide the bulk of the social services to the street children and the organisation is not fully subsidised”.

“We need to get more funding as NGOs from the government”.

“The other problem that we have is that we are underpaid and we work abnormal hours. The government needs to provide equal remunerations of NGOs staff to be on the same level as its own staff in order to avoid losing staff members”.

Ward and Seager (2010) maintain that whilst social welfare services are already being provided by non-governmental organisations; local and provincial government should pay attention to ensure that the necessary range of services is provided and by providing cooperation, innovation and equitable funding across provinces ensure accessible service to rural children and their families.

The participants indicated that though they are often under-funded and overworked, they have developed ways to work with street children as highlighted by the following story line:

”To set up an income generating project for our organization because we cannot rely on the international donors for funds. We need to have something that belongs to us that we can use to generate some money from”.

“To look for local churches and donors because it is difficult to get international donors. Maybe to network with local government”.

“The policy on funding should be revisited by all the stakeholders”.

Volpi (2002) concurs with the viewpoints mentioned and underscores the fact that funding is required to sustain existing street children's programmes and to further expand existing services. The funding will also help in monitoring and evaluation of the interventions and training of staff members. Volpi (2002) further declares that lobbying, advocacy and networking is a way to assist NGOs to overcome their isolation, and to give a stronger voice to street children themselves.

According to Budlender and Proudlock (2011), Schmidt (2012) as well as the Asian Development Bank (2003), in order for the NGOs to function effectively, overcome isolation, avoid duplication and competition, the service providers have to network with local government, as well as with other civil society service providers at the local level. The Department of Social Development is obliged to provide and fund a range of social welfare services for children including ECD, drop-in centres, prevention and early intervention, foster care, adoption and child and youth care centres.

Sub-theme 7.3: Better collaboration between government and NGOs

The participants suggested better collaboration with government as a means to improve services to street children:

“There should be collaboration between different government departments at national, provincial, local levels and the NGOs”.

“Poor collaboration especially with government is a major problem. This must be addressed”.

The participants in this research study indicated that service delivery is seen to be constrained by the poor quality of partnership between the national Department of Social Development and NGOs. There is acknowledgement that there needs to be a more systematic engagement between government and NGO service providers and that the two sectors have complementary roles to play in the process of developing and implementing programmes for the street children.

The Department of the Presidency, National Planning Commission (2011:336-337) in its National Development Plan Vision for 2030, clearly states that: “the government has adopted a partnership model of service provision and relies mainly on NGOs to provide social welfare services. However, the funding of these organisations has declined steadily since 1994, reducing the range and compromising the quality at the same time as the demand for such services has increased”.

The government, as the largest provider of funds for social services, is an important partner of the NGOs in addressing the needs of street children. NGOs can offer their experience in developing innovative community-based approaches to advocating and protecting street children while government can provide funding for the running of the services (Bhanji, 2004). The author further stresses that it is imperative that the Department should have an operational policy framework to respond adequately to the likely challenges relating to children at risk of living and working on the streets, as well as to effectively rendering services and programmes to those who are already surviving on the streets.

The participants reported that the failure of government reflects incompetency in delivery of social welfare services. The government needs to play a role by providing direct services to children by channelling funds to NGOs and by facilitating coordination. The following are extracts from the transcribed interviews, substantiating this sub-theme:

“The social development need start to capacitate themselves. They need more human resource. If they have designated a social worker to work with us, he or she must comply with that and do his job otherwise we have to lodge a complaint with them and this is not about an individual but the department. Not doing their job put the lives of the children in danger and our services also suffer because of their negligence”.

“In this particular case placement was not done because there was no social worker and the Department of Social Development ignores the problem. They know about this since they are the ones that dump the children here. The government has to find ways to engage with the NGOs”.

“The government is failing the children. There is a widespread failure to provide children with basic health care services and social services despite this being their legal right according to the constitution and the Children’s Act (Act No 38) of 2005 which is our responsibility while government is not doing anything about the situation. They [government] need to come to the grassroots level to see the social realities”.

To this extent Ray et al. (2011) caution that government does not have the systems or capacity to work directly with street involved children, though it does have ultimate responsibility for monitoring their situation, developing action plans to address their rights and coordinating their implementation, and setting standards for services with street children.

Sub-theme 7.4: Recognition and recruitment of social welfare practitioners

The participants feared that none of the challenges that they face in relation to the social welfare delivery is being addressed hence it has now become chaotic and ultimately unhelpful to address the dire human resource shortage and articulated the suggestion for the recruitment and appointment of more social workers along the following lines:

“We need to have more social workers in the NGOs sectors to help us because it is difficult to work with people whom you are not sure as to when they will leave”.

“The government has to appoint social workers on behalf of the organisation and give them better salaries”.

“[The] shortage of social workers needs to be addressed. There are clearly not enough social workers to deliver the social services to vulnerable children.”

The Department of Social Development (2005, 2009b) mentions that the NPO sector has a lack of capacity to manage its affairs, and to deliver quality services. In most cases, money is often diverted to administrative services rather than addressing the needs of children. Ray et al. (2011) reported that staff needs training, both in working

with street children generally, and specifically in positive methods of discipline. The establishment, application and training of staff on child protection policies by street children organisations is critical.

The participants felt that there is still a gap between the need for and the supply of such workers. The shortages of social service professionals needed for effective, countrywide implementation of programmes must be addressed urgently and efficiently through enhanced deployment and capacity building. The participants articulated their suggestions related to this sub-theme along the following lines:

“The other professionals like the outreach workers and community development workers need to be acknowledged and recognized for the work that they do. This matter was raised at the conference held by NASC has to be looked into by both stakeholders”.

“You will find that sometimes there is power struggle because our organization does appoint its own residential social worker but the Social Development at the same time designates its own social worker to work in the same organization”.

“Work allocation is not distributed equally and they have so many restrictions especially on our part”.

In order to address the challenges, Proudlock and Jamieson (2008) propose that child and youth care workers, social auxiliary workers and community development workers should provide statutory social welfare services such as assessing partial care centres, Early Child Development programmes, drop-in centres, monitoring foster placement rather than mandating only social workers to do most of the work. UNICEF (2009) proclaims that the shortage of social workers needed for effective, countrywide implementation of programmes targeting the most vulnerable calls for urgent measures to build capacity especially at local implementation level.

The different categories of practitioners needed to provide social welfare services include social auxiliary workers; probation offers; child and youth care workers; social workers; ECD workers and community development workers. All these practitioners are crucial in providing programmes of early intervention and prevention

as suggested by Loffel, et al. (2008). The Department of Social Development (2009b) confirms that the NPOs or NGOs are seen as playing an important role in facilitating socio-economic growth and development, influencing policy formulation as well as strengthening political stability and accountability, within their respective countries.

5.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter the researcher presented the research findings. In order to achieve the goal and objectives of this research as described in Chapter 1, nine semi-structured interviews were conducted with service providers who render social welfare services to the street children in Pretoria. The perceptions and experiences of participants were recorded, documented and analysed. The researcher firstly provided the demographic data of participants (i.e. the service providers who render services to street children in Pretoria) in order to orientate the reader to the study. Secondly, the collected and transcribed data coded then categorised into topics were presented. Thirdly, an overview of the eight themes with related sub-themes, categories and where applicable the sub-categories which emerged during the data analysis processes were presented, namely:

- The service providers' perceptions of beneficiaries and services delivered and needed.
- Service providers' perceptions of reasons for children being on the streets.
- A profile of NGOs rendering social welfare services to the street children.
- Types of social welfare services rendered to street children in Pretoria by NGOs.
- Factors enabling the service providers in their social welfare service delivery.
- Factors hindering social welfare service delivery to the street children.
- Suggestions to improve social welfare service delivery to street children.

Fourthly, the story lines were quoted and substantiated with relevant literature. The findings were compared with the existing body of knowledge by means of a literature review. The findings of this study have confirmed those of other researchers, as

discussed in the literature review that the social welfare services are faced with several challenges including lack of resources, lack of funding, high staff turn-over, low salaries for personnel and legal restrictions in implementing the services. The findings indicated the dissatisfaction of service providers with regard to the lack of collaboration and coordination from the government. The NGOs provide the bulk of the work without funding.

The following chapter will present the conclusions and recommendations in relation to the research findings as well as the research process

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6. INTRODUCTION

The aim of the study endeavour was to develop an in-depth understanding of the nature of social welfare services being rendered to street children in Pretoria and to ascertain how these services can be enhanced from the perspective of service providers employed by NGOs in Pretoria. This chapter will provide a brief summary of the previous chapters, followed by the conclusions arrived at as well as recommendations arising from the qualitative research methodology which guided this study.

In this study Chapter 1 presented the overview background of the research topic and the rationale for the study focusing on the goals and objectives. Justification for undertaking the study was also provided. Based on a literature search undertaken for the topic under investigation (refer to Chapters 2 and 3 respectively), the researcher arrived at the conclusion that literature focusing specifically on social welfare services rendered to street children was lacking and the topic had not been explored in detail. Finally a brief outline of the research methodology, data analysis and chapter outline were also discussed. The ethical considerations proposed to be observed during this research study were also covered in the chapter.

Chapter 2 explored and described street children as a social phenomenon since little is known in terms of social welfare services rendered to street children. The chapter further explored the street children's struggles, underlying factors that led children to end up on the streets including the economic and social factors affecting street children and coping mechanisms of street children.

Chapter 3 explored the social welfare services and, legislation that relate to the children and programmes that are being rendered to support and empower the street children. The chapter further looked at the role of the service providers, their

responsibilities and how they operate in terms of rendering social welfare services to street children within the mandate of the SA government. The social welfare services provided to street children were identified; and the relevance and sufficiency of the social welfare services were also explored in order to assist in contextualising the social welfare services delivered to street children within the NGO sector.

Chapter 4 elaborated on the research methodology employed. The chapter discussed the qualitative research employed as a research method used to explore and describe the social welfare services delivered to street children by service providers in Pretoria. The chapter discussed the research design used to achieve the aim and objectives of the study as well as the process of data collection and analysis, methods employed to ensure validity and reliability as well as ethical considerations utilised during the study. Creswell's eight steps which were utilised for data analysis were discussed in detail.

Chapter 5 presented the research findings emanating from the interviews conducted with the service providers rendering social welfare services for street children in Pretoria. The biographical information of the participants and the NGOs were presented. The findings were presented according to themes, with direct story-lines from the transcriptions of the interviews conducted with the participants to support the themes and were verified by means of a literature control.

Chapter 6 will elaborate further on how the goal of the study was attained. The chapter will first present the conclusions arrived at on the basis of the qualitative research process and findings presented in the previous chapters. This will be followed by conclusions relating to the research findings which emerged as eight themes from the process of data analysis. The researcher will conclude this chapter by making specific recommendations pertaining to the qualitative research process, future research as well as recommendations relating to the social welfare services rendered to the street children in Pretoria.

6.1 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS PERTAINING TO THE QUALITATIVE RESEARCH PROCESS

The section discusses the summary of the research process and methodology utilised for the study. The researcher will also highlight the conclusions drawn during the various phases of the process. The specific recommendations with regard to the methodology which was implemented will also be presented.

6.1.1 Summary relating to the qualitative research process

In order to explore the phenomenon of street children from the perspectives of service providers, the researcher formulated the following research questions for the purpose of the study:

- What is the nature of social welfare services that are being rendered to street children by NGOs in Pretoria?
- What can be done to enhance or change the social welfare service delivery to the street children?

The following goal was set by the researcher to provide a framework for this research:

- To develop an in-depth understanding of the nature of social welfare services being rendered to street children and to ascertain how these services can be enhanced from the perspective of service providers employed by NGOs in Pretoria.

The researcher took the following **research objectives** into account when conducting the study:

- To explore and describe the nature of social welfare services rendered to street children from the perspective of service providers.
- To explore and describe the gaps in social welfare services rendered to street children from the perspectives of service providers.
- To explore and describe how the service delivery to street children can be enhanced, focusing on how the programmes were developed, facilitated and

their benefits in helping the street children from the perspective of service providers.

- To make recommendations relating to the nature of social welfare services rendered to street children by service providers in Pretoria and suggestions on how the social welfare services can be enhanced.
- To disseminate the findings as a report and to present it to the participants, TASC, and at meetings of the professional associations. The report will be submitted for peer review and be published in the academic journals.

In order to reach the research goal, the following **task objectives** needed to be attained:

- To obtain a sample of service providers, employed by NGOs, who render the social welfare services to street children in Pretoria.
- To conduct in-depth semi-structured interviews in order to explore and describe the nature of social welfare services rendered to the street children from the perspective of service providers in Pretoria employed by NGOs.
- Furthermore, to analyse the data obtained according to the eight steps of qualitative data analysis constructed by Tesch (in Creswell, 2009).

In view of the fact that the researcher wanted to develop an in-depth understanding of the nature of social welfare services being rendered to street children and to ascertain how these services can be enhanced from the perspective of service providers employed by NGOs in Pretoria, qualitative research was employed for the purpose of the study. It was relevant for the researcher to employ an exploratory, descriptive and contextual design since there was limited knowledge about the chosen study and that would grant the researcher a more extensive understanding of the phenomenon of street children.

In this research endeavour, a sample was recruited using a non-probability, snowball and purposive sampling method. The researcher selected the sample from her existing knowledge of the population and snowballed for more participants. The researcher chose to utilise semi-structured interviews which were guided by a set of predetermined questions from the interview guide. Nine semi-structured interviews

were conducted with the service providers rendering social welfare services to street children in Pretoria. The semi-structured interviews allowed the researcher to gain insight into the perceptions, beliefs and experiences of the research participants about the research topic. The interviews were recorded and confidentiality was assured to the participants.

The pilot study was used to test the interview guide and the procedures or methods for data collection to determine whether the proposed questions and procedures would be adequate and appropriate to elicit data required to answer the research questions that prompted the study. To analyse the collected data, the researcher followed the eight steps as proposed by Tesch in Creswell (2009). Seven themes with their sub-themes, categories and sub-themes were identified from the transcribed interviews. Data verification was done by applying Guba's model (in Krefting, 1991: 214-222). An independent coder was used to analyse the data. Findings from the independent coder's report were compared with the researcher's findings during a consensus discussion facilitated between the supervisor, co-supervisor, the independent coder and the researcher.

6.1.2 Conclusions relating to qualitative research process

The researcher arrived at the conclusion that the qualitative research approach adopted for this study proved to be an effective means as it allowed her to gain an in-depth understanding of the participants' perceptions, expectations, fears, needs and the meaning they attach to the social welfare services rendered to street children. The use of the qualitative approach with an exploratory, descriptive and contextual design provided rich data and the research afforded the researcher the opportunity to explore and describe the perceptions of the service providers rendering social welfare services to street children. The researcher concludes that the study was able to answer the research questions which were articulated in goals and objectives in Chapter 1. The study has shown that semi-structured interviews indeed allowed the researcher and participants to be flexible and to freely express their experiences.

The results of the investigation show that the pilot study provided insight into the intensity of the study under investigation. It helped to determine whether the interview guide was appropriate to elicit data. The data also provided insight regarding the practicality of the envisaged research procedures which assisted in planning properly for the actual data collection phase. The follow-up interviews helped the researcher to enhance her interviewing skills to allow for deeper exploration and to generate more information by probing further in order to develop trustworthy data.

The researcher can conclude that the method of data analysis was suitable for the data gathered from the participants as it provided a coherent, logical and systematic approach to data analysis. The researcher arrived at the conclusion that data verification strategies employed by the researcher enabled her to enhance the trustworthiness of the research.

6.1.3 Recommendations relating to qualitative research process

It is recommended that when a researcher aims to develop an in-depth understanding of a phenomenon under investigation and obtain an insider perspective the qualitative research approach should be utilised. The researcher recommends the use of an explorative, descriptive and contextual research design as it allows flexibility and acknowledges the perspective of the participants from their own understanding in their own context.

The researcher wants to propose the use of semi-structured interviews to researchers who aim to obtain rich information about the topic under investigation. The use of this type of interview allows the researcher to probe the participants' responses and to view the participants' non-verbal responses. It also enables the researcher to understand the participants' world and the meaning they attach to it.

It is recommended that a pilot study be conducted as preparation to test certain questions and also to compile an interview guide. The researcher suggests that a number of data verification techniques should be employed in an attempt to provide a rich and trustworthy description of the phenomenon under investigation and that

qualitative researchers should seek the knowledge of an expert in the subject matter that is being researched in order to get clarity and advice to establish the accuracy on the emerging themes.

It is recommended that qualitative researchers should adhere to ethical principles when they conduct qualitative studies to create an enabling environment for the participants in which to share accurate information about their life experiences.

The next section of the chapter will proceed with a summary and conclusion on the research findings followed by recommendations. The section closes by presenting recommendations for future research.

6.2 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS PERTAINING TO THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

In this section, the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the research findings will be presented according to the seven themes that emerged during the data analysis processes.

6.2.1 Summary of the research findings

The data from the semi-structured interviews were divided into seven main themes with accompanying sub-themes, categories and sub-categories where applicable and discussed in detail in Chapter 5. In the ensuing discussions each of these themes will be summarised and the conclusions as well as recommendations arrived at on a particular theme will be presented.

Theme 1: The service providers' perceptions of beneficiaries of and services delivered and needed

The theme indicated that the beneficiaries of the social welfare services delivered by the service providers are mainly street children who are either vulnerable, orphans or abandoned. The study indicated that 90% of children on the streets are boys. The

findings suggested that should a girl be on the street that means she was probably compelled to move there by circumstances beyond her control.

The participants asserted that street children can be described as any boy or girl who has not reached adulthood, for whom the street is a place to stay where they endure their daily struggles. The study has shown that the beneficiaries of the services come from rural areas, other provinces and other African countries. One of the significant findings of the study is the fact that the children on the streets are in need of education, skills development, love, protection/shelter, and spiritual and psychological support. They have both the need to belong and the need to be free or independent. The participants announced that the street children are most of the time emotionally and psychologically fragile though they pretend to be tough which makes it difficult to trust adults since they are vulnerable.

Theme 2: Service providers' perceptions of reasons for children being on the streets

Participants highlighted several factors they perceive as contributing to the children being on the streets, as the need to belong, a need to be independent, peer pressure and a need to be loved. Among others, the participants highlighted that children are forced to leave home, or may even be driven out by various factors including social disruption; relocation; overcrowding; unemployment and disintegration of families. Due to unemployment people flock to the city from rural areas or war-stricken countries in the hope of getting a better life. One of the significant findings to emerge from this study is that children may end up on the streets also because of human trafficking. This factor has not been previously described in the literature.

The findings indicate that the children end up on the streets as a result of several integrated factors such as increasing poverty levels and the impact of HIV and AIDS which has an effect on the children thus leaving them as orphans or leaving them with extended families who continuously abuse them. The street children have no formal education and some have never been to school at all.

From the qualitative data, it seems that peers who were already living on the streets, or who knew someone who was, made other children at home to think that life in the

big city was easier and fun, and that it would provide access to material goods or the means to make a living.

Theme 3: A profile of NGOs rendering social welfare services to the street children

The study has found that the nature of social welfare services offered by the NGOs ranges from residential care, being at a shelter or drop-in centre and offering outreach, early intervention and prevention programmes. Some of the NGOs identified in this study operate as overnight shelters, drop-in centres, outreach and residential care for children from 0-18 years.

It is worth noting that not all of the NGOs involved in the study are registered. Out of the eight NGOs contacted only five are registered with the Department of Social Development, one has applied for registration and is still awaiting approval while two of the organisations have not registered. Some participants indicated that they did not want to register in order to be able to choose which programmes to deliver without being pressurised by the Department of Social Development.

The study indicated that the number of staff at participating NGOs varied from one to twelve, staff included full and part-time workers, some organisation had social workers while some did not have social workers; some organisations included house mothers and others included child and youth care workers.

Theme 4: Types of social welfare services rendered to street children in Pretoria by NGOs

According to the participants, early intervention should include a detailed assessment of both the child's and his or her family's strengths and needs. The importance of early intervention is highlighted, with an emphasis on family participation in the decision-making processes related to education and rehabilitation of street children. This should be facilitated by a professional team, which informs the families about the possible options and services available to them. However the participants complained that early intervention and preventative services remain

unattended and that they are almost non-existent despite the fact that they are a priority according to the Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005).

The study highlighted the services under prevention and early intervention as outreach, education, therapeutic, skills development, reunification and temporary residential care.

Given the above statement, some participants highlighted the challenges that come with reunification. A few participants felt that reunification is possible for only a small proportion of children who are living on the street. Some children cannot or do not want to return home or be provided with an alternative family-type environment. In these circumstances children, they argue, should be supported to continue to live independently.

Furthermore the participants indicated that there is a lack of capacity in that social workers are swamped by foster care grant applications and formal Department of Social Development investigations were delayed while placing children at significant risk. There is a lack of capacity to provide social services, especially prevention and early intervention services and this create an inability to implement many of the family support programmes required in terms of the prevention and early intervention.

One of the significant findings is that the prevention and early intervention service seems to be neglected thus not properly funded or not funded at all by the Department of Social Development. There is a lack of prevention and early intervention services within communities especially in the rural areas in that these kinds of services are seen as less critical than statutory protection services or residential care and are therefore the first to be cut. This leads to a greater number of children requiring protection and residential care, further reducing the capacity of social workers to deliver prevention and early intervention services.

The second challenge identified by the study is that the prevention and early intervention programmes have faced many setbacks because of the insufficient allocation of funding and human resources. The social welfare practitioners lack sufficient funding to carry out the outreach programmes which will help in most cases

to reunite the children with their families. Social workers designated by the Department of Social Development do not have time to reunite the children with their families due to the backlog of foster care.

The findings of the study revealed that some organisations offer a holistic range of social welfare services including foster care, shelter and child and youth care centres. It was also shown that some NGOs offer temporary residential care while others are permanent residential care centres. The services are designed to promote the well-being of children by ensuring safety, achieving permanency, and strengthening families to care for their children successfully. While a child is in foster care or a residential home, he or she attends school and receives medical care and other services as needed. The participants asserted that after two years, the social worker has to review the case to determine if the child is still fit to be placed in a residential care facility relating to the courts' decision.

The researcher acknowledged the fact that NGOs have played a significant role in street children's programmes, yet they cannot do this alone especially without sufficient resources.

Theme 5: Factors enabling the service providers in their social welfare service delivery

With reference to financial aid enabling the service organisations under study, participants referred to the Department of Social Development, churches, individuals, companies or businesses as financial resources. The study showed that the NGOs have primarily survived as a result of support from the donors, whether local or international and individuals. The participants seemed to appreciate the support from the Department of Social Development but at the same time were not satisfied with the help.

The NGOs are only partially funded by government and they still have to raise the bulk of funds to make ends meet through fundraising, and international and South African donors. The participants were of the view, that while they are known to be champions in rendering services to children and programmes for street children in

particular, the reality of being underfunded compromises, limits and undermines the delivery and quality of early intervention and prevention programmes and services.

Theme 6: Factors hindering social welfare service delivery to the street children

Participants (as earlier noted in the previous theme) made reference to the fact that NGOs are largely dependent on government and other funding in order to survive. Some rely on Lotto and the International funds and while NGOs are competing for money, funds are becoming more and more limited. Furthermore, the participants expressed extreme frustration regarding the Policy on Financial Awards to Service Providers (PFA) and the effect it has on the delivery of services to the street children. The participants were also concerned about their inability in the NGO sector to render services because of inadequate remuneration for these services and time, cost and resource constraints in terms of fund-raising, resulting in services either reverting back to the government or collapsing.

The findings emerging from this study indicate a lack of coordination and cooperation that exists on multiple levels especially between the government and NGOs which is contributing to serious difficulties experienced by NGOs. It was pointed out by most participants that limited consultations are made with regard to policy formulation and that staff needs to be trained on how to properly implement these policies since the problem of street children is a complex one and requires a multifaceted approach. The participants insisted that the roles of government versus the NGO sector in respect of service delivery need to be clearly stipulated and defined to ensure cohesion. The participants complained of the difficulties they are faced with when they have to await assistance from the Department of Social Development. The referred cases are not attended to and the designated social worker from the Department of Social Development takes much time to even come to or communicate with the NGOs.

The participants felt that government is not doing enough to address their grievances and plights. The findings articulated their frustration with the subsidies they receive from the government. They pointed out that the services they make available to

street children are expensive and enormous. The social worker salaries within the NGO sector are extremely low compared with those of social workers working at the Department of Social Development. The NGOs have experienced significant cuts in their budgets from the government and Lotto while some did not even receive one cent for funding. The NGOs are on the brink of closing down and retrenching their staff due to the lack of funding while some are struggling to keep open. The participants mentioned delays in funding from lotteries as one of the factors that exacerbate insufficient social welfare delivery to street children.

The researcher is of the opinion that there is a severe lack of capacity to respond to the demand for social welfare services. Not only NGOs are being forced to close down, but the street children are shown away with no-one to turn to.

Theme 7: Suggestions to improve social welfare service delivery to street children

The participants stated that the salaries paid need to be equalised in order to retain the professionals across the provinces in the private and public welfare sectors. They further pointed to the fact that the problem of limited numbers of social workers impacts heavily on the provision of prevention and early intervention services since the lack of capacity in the system forces social workers to prioritise the most urgent cases, neglecting prevention and early intervention services for others.

The findings indicate that social welfare service delivery is seen to be constrained by the poor quality of the partnership between the national Department of Social Development and NGOs. There is acknowledgement that there needs to be a more systematic engagement between government and NGO service providers and that the two sectors have complementary roles to play in the process of developing and implementing programmes for the street children. The government needs to play a role by providing direct services to children and by channelling funds to NGOs and by facilitating coordination.

It is evident from the participants' response that there is still a gap between the need for and the supply of social welfare practitioners. The shortages of social service

professionals needed for effective, countrywide implementation of programmes must be addressed urgently and efficiently through enhanced deployment and capacity building. The participants believe that active use of other social services practitioners like child and youth care workers, social auxiliary workers and community development workers can help in the delivering of social welfare services to the street children. The participants are of the opinion that funding should be allocated to NGOs and the Policy on Financial Award should be revisited as it does not cater for their needs and those of the street children.

The following conclusions were drawn from the themes, sub-themes, categories and sub-categories that emerged from the semi-structured interviews as pointed out in the above summary of the research findings.

6.2.2. Conclusions based on research findings.

The following conclusions are based on the research findings and indicate some of the gaps in social welfare services to street children:

- Most of the NGOs cater for street children who are boys or girls. The street children have little or no education at all. The underlying factors that push and pull children onto the streets are socio-economic factors which include poverty, unemployment, war, peer pressure, HIV and AIDS, abuse and neglect by parents or extended family members. The reasons for the children to be on the street vary from having to provide for their families by seeking employment in urban areas or just deciding to run away from their homes due to peer pressure or a need to belong and fear of trafficking.
- The NGOs are important resources for government since they can advocate for and protect the street children from abuse, neglect, abandonment and trafficking, but there are still some gaps e.g. the combination of factors like low salaries, insufficient staff, lack of resources and funding.
- There are NGOs that are surviving despite the challenge of funding while there are some which are really being hit by many challenges, from

retrenching the workers to closing their doors to the needy. The study has shown that the NGOs face severe financial and other challenges which impact negatively on the quality, continuity and sustainability of the prevention and early intervention services they provide. The programmes have been beset by many funding problems, forcing some of the former street children to go back to the streets, forcing NGOs to close down, retrench the workers and even face litigation trying to fight for funding from government.

- The study has shown that late funding exacerbates the challenges which included that salaries could not be paid, children went without food and practitioners could not travel to investigate cases, forcing NGOs to negotiate expensive overdrafts to pay staff salaries and continue critical service delivery, resulting in high staff turn-over. The staff will move either into the government sector where workloads are not only slightly lighter but salary packages are also considerably better, or outside the social welfare sector where there is less stress or emigrate to other countries. Added to this are other stumbling blocks such as high workloads, low salaries and the discrepancy in salaries between NGOs and government; constant staff turnover, political sidelining and scaling down of subsidies.
- The registered organisations receive financial support through subsidisation from the South African government. Some of these NGOs have made strides in realigning their services with government policies and priorities despite the gaps and challenges emanating from the policies. The participants asserted that NGOs try to overcome the problem of inadequate funding by embarking on fundraising on an on-going basis and by negotiating contacts and contracts for financial support from individuals, corporate, and foreign donors, trusts and foundations. By so doing they are able to generate funds for projects and can complete their programmes.
- The study indicated that NGOs are facing a challenge to deliver quality social welfare services to children due to limited human and financial resources. The participants recalled that there is a shortage of social workers to render the

services let alone implement the Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005). Lack of in-house social workers exacerbates the matter for the delivery of services to the street children. They also pointed to the fact that governmental social workers spend a lot of time at court and doing foster care placements: qualified social workers are absorbed by the Department of Social Development because of the better remuneration provided by the latter, thus leaving the NGOs trapped and poor. There is a lack of capacity to implement the social welfare services to street children due the overwhelming demands from statutory work. The social workers have to focus on statutory work and therefore have less time to deliver prevention and early intervention services such as parenting skills development, therapeutic programmes and managing family disputes, thus compromising the delivery of prevention and early intervention services.

- The participants declared that the programmes addressing street children's needs come with e gaps and shortcomings and are often short lived due to difficulties caused by marginalisation of early intervention and prevention programmes and poor monitoring of the social welfare services provided. There is thus poor delivery of prevention and early intervention services to street children. The neglect of social welfare service delivery is due to the focus on social security which leaves the social welfare sector challenged. It is partly as a result of failing policy processes or policy gaps within the government system
- The participants expressed their concern about the lack of commitment by parents and government in efforts to respond to the problems of street children especially in terms of reunification. Also mentioned was the lack of follow-up and monitoring of street children in shelters for evaluation of progress in projects designed to assist the children.
- The researcher argues that the weak collaboration between the government and NGO sector is affecting the work being done in delivering social welfare services to the street children so common ground needs to be found to negotiate funding. Without collaboration and coordination of the government

and NGOs, the delivery of social welfare services will always have challenges. Different government departments such as the Departments of Social Development, Department of Justice, Department of Education, Department of Health, the National Prosecuting Authority (NPA) and the South African Police Services (SAPS) need to come together to ensure better service delivery to street children. There is a need for coordination and cooperation between government and the NGO sector for policy making and securing the implementation of prevention and early intervention programmes.

- The participants pointed out that the prescribed policies documents, Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005) and the Policy on Financial Awards to NPOs currently followed lacked proper implementation strategies and guidelines for programmes and projects. Furthermore, the way in which the children's rights are articulated is too broad and the procedure to access these rights is undefined. The participants also cautioned that although the Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005) takes cognisance of the rights of the children the failure by the government to implement effective programmes makes these rights hollow and meaningless.
- According to participants, among others, the Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005), the Constitution of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) and the Bill of Rights, the White Paper of 1997 on Developmental Social Welfare and the Integrated Service Delivery Model (ISDM) are adhered to. However, the policy environment also imposes constraints on practitioners as stated by one participant. When participants were asked to comment on the policy that they use, participants were of the opinion that the policies are not adequately addressing the problem of street children in the country.
- The Policy Financial Award on NPO model does not prioritise the prevention and early intervention services. If prevention and early intervention services are not in place, more children will be on the streets. The statutory services are time consuming, costly and inefficient, placing great demands on the social welfare system. Increased demand for statutory intervention reduces

capacity for prevention and early intervention, creating a vicious cycle which undermines the effectiveness of South Africa's child protection system.

6.2.3. Recommendations based on research findings

Based on the findings, the researcher makes the following recommendations for policy, legislation, education, practice, programmes and further research.

6.2.3.1. Recommendations for policy

- The NGOs struggle with few resources and are affected by budget cuts. The policy for financial awards to service providers needs to be reviewed in order to meet the NGO sectors' concerns. The Financial Policy Award needs to accommodate all the NGOs irrespective of the kind of social welfare services rendered.
- The lack of collaboration between the government and the NGOs results in the street children not being served effectively thus exacerbating the phenomenon of street children because of the policies that do not cater for them. There should be collaboration between policy makers from government, NGOs and street children in order to develop realistic and practical policies.
- The Department of Social Development, NGOs, FBOs and CBOs who are catering for street children, should clarify their memorandum of understanding and/or service level agreements to enhance collaboration in order to clarify the roles of government and NGOs. There should be role clarification in order to alleviate the power struggle between organisations, poor collaboration between government and NGOs and appointment of social workers by the DSD for the NGOs.
- The Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005) appears to be good on paper but it is difficult for the social welfare practitioners to put it into practice. The government together with the NGOs need to review the Children's Act (Act 38

of 2005) to suit the implementation process for all the NGO sectors and accommodate all the street children irrespective of their origin.

- Foster care has been highlighted as a costly service. The time and money spent on foster care could be redirected to prevention and early intervention services by the Department of Social Development and the NGOs. The legislative and policy framework should prioritise prevention and early intervention.
- Human trafficking was identified as one of the factors that lead to children to be on the streets. Legislation on human trafficking should be developed by policy makers since trafficking also contributed to the street children phenomenon.

6.2.3.2. Recommendations for education

- Appropriate strategies in mobilising and organising academic staff on policy development especially with the reviewing of the policies on funding as part of their community engagement should be in place.
- Social welfare practitioners at large in both NGO and government sectors should learn more about prevention and early intervention services and how to implement them.
- The colleges and universities focusing on the training of social welfare practitioners should develop modules on the social welfare service programmes, including prevention, early intervention and foster care as part of their curricula or continuous professional development activities.

6.2.3.3. Recommendations for practice

- In-house social workers working at the NGOs and social auxiliary workers should be given more capacity in working with the street children to reduce

the caseload and ensure the smooth running of social welfare services. Appropriate training should be provided to social auxiliary workers and child and youth care workers to help social workers implementing prevention and early intervention as well as reunification services.

- NGOs should mobilise interested groups such as churches, child activists and advocates to lobby government on the improvement of subsidies for organisations to enable them to offer sustainable programmes for children who live on the streets.
- The prevention and early intervention programmes need to enhance family functioning and ensure secure families. The programmes should be delivered in rural areas where relationships with children and families can be easily developed. Street children should attend school in their communities to help facilitate the reconstructive process. The services provided to street children should not alienate them from their roots but should reintegrate them with their cultural groups, communities and families of origin.
- The street children in most cases need to be reunified with their families. More focus should be on reunification as the best practice. Separation of children from their families should not be encouraged and reunification services must be prioritised.
- The process of reunification of children with their families should be enhanced to ensure that the families are well supported so that the children do not go back to the streets.
- Sufficient time and adequate resources should be allocated for implementation of prevention and early intervention to ensure effectiveness and efficient social welfare service delivery to reduce the high number of street children and to strengthen the families.

- The social welfare programmes should be located in rural areas where most street children originate from to prevent the children from coming to the streets and also not to lose touch with their cultural roots.
- Some NGOs cannot function due to cuts in funding. The NGOs and Department of Social Development need to find new innovative funding resources and a variety of strategies to cope with the economic uncertainties in order to be sustainable.
- Prevention and early intervention programmes should be supported by policies on unemployment in order to combat homelessness. The programmes need to address the long-term employment needs and interests of children and their families by working in collaboration with business sectors for placement purposes.

6.2.3.4. Recommendations for government

- The salaries for social welfare practitioners need to be improved and be equal across all spectrums to avoid movement of social workers from NGOs to government departments. The shortage of social workers and work allocation should be taken into account.
- NGOs provide the programmes without government funding and those that do receive funding tend to report that the funding is only partial funding and does not cover the full costs of providing the services. NGOs should be provided with resources by government in order to function effectively and deliver sustainable social welfare services to street children. NGOs need to continue to provide the majority of social welfare services to street children so they need to be financially supported and funded by government in order to be sustainable.

- Lack of and poor funding of the programme for street children disadvantages the NGOs in that they fail to deliver the social welfare services as expected. More focus should be on prevention and early intervention services based on coordination with the NGO sectors and the government departments. There is, therefore, a definite need for prevention and early intervention services to receive more attention and be prioritised and more funding should be allocated to prevention and early intervention services to eliminate the number of children who take to the streets as their home and this could also reduce the placement costs.

6.2.3.6 Recommendations for further research

- This study has explored and described the social welfare services rendered to street children from the perspective of service providers in Pretoria, one city in Gauteng. The findings cannot be generalised to other contexts and settings. In view of this it is recommended that research should be conducted in all the provinces of South Africa, and in rural as well as urban areas.
- A cross-national study should be undertaken on job losses experienced in the NGO sector due to the lack of resources and funding. Data should be gathered on the scale of job losses in the NGO sector, how many NGOs closed down or had to cut services.
- There is a need for research to be conducted to fill the information gap on the effects of programmes rendered for street children and to focus on the effectiveness of service delivery.
- Further work needs to be done to establish how the process of applying for funding from the Lottery is affecting the NGOs and how it can be enhanced for all the organisations within the NGO sector.

- As part of monitoring and evaluation, research is needed to determine the best practice in the social welfare programmes in general in order to replace programmes that do not work or waste funding and are time-consuming.
- The challenges faced by NGOs in accessing funds especially from government should be further researched. The partnership between government and NGOs should also be investigated and roles should be clarified.
- Further research is needed to address the challenges faced by the NGO sector in relation to the Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005).

6.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This final chapter concluded the research project by demonstrating how the goal of the study was achieved through the qualitative research approach. The summary and conclusions on the qualitative research process applied to investigate the research topic under discussion were presented and are highly recommended for use by other researchers. The chapter included a summary, conclusions and recommendations arising from the research findings according to the seven themes that emerged during the data analysis process. The chapter closed by presenting recommendations for policy, education, practice, programmes and further research.

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APPENDIX A**A LETTER REQUESTING INDIVIDUALS' PARTICIPATION IN A RESEARCH PROJECT**

Dear Participant

I, **Rebecca M Skhosana**, am a social worker in service of the University of South Africa (UNISA) in Pretoria, and also a part-time master's student in the Department of Social Work at the University of South Africa. In fulfilment of requirements for the master's degree, I have to undertake a research project and have consequently decided to focus on the following research topic: **Social welfare services rendered to street children in Pretoria: perspectives of service providers.**

In view of the fact that you are well-informed about the topic, I hereby approach you with the request to participate in the study. For you to decide whether or not to participate in this research project, I am going to give you information that will help you to understand the study (i.e. what the aims of the study are and why there is a need for this particular study). Furthermore, you will be informed about what your involvement in this study will entail (i.e. what you will be asked/or what you will be requested to do during the study, the risks and benefits involved by participating in this research project, and your rights as a participant in this study).

This research project originated as a result of how the researcher noticed how the children of South Africa are supported and cared for by the government through children's grants and wondered if street children enjoy the same privilege equally since their numbers on street are increasing each and every day. The reality is that the street children live in terrible conditions with no one to protect them and often with no record of their existence. Lack of care for street children has become more alarming in recent years. There is a strong need to conduct research in the field that can affect the public policy and provide some insight on how the street children can be provided with relevant and effective services according to their needs. There is also a significant gap in the existing research, including a lack of research on the

services that are rendered for street children by NGOs. It can be deduced that extreme measures are needed to help the street children in the most effective ways in order to survive.

There has been no research that has fully explored the services rendered for street children by the NGOs as their main provider. The ability of the NGOs in helping the street children has not been assessed. More focus has been on understanding why the children are on the street and overlooking the organizations that are helping the street children.

Another reason to conduct research on this topic is that street children are in need of critical help that they are not receiving. The research may change the way the society perceives the street children. The negative notions of street children should be challenged and they be seen in a positive light as children who have power in themselves. The study may also inform the policy-makers and help them to see beyond the ability and self-determination of children.

The information gathered from this study will provide some insight as to how the increasing number of street children could be reduced and offered effective services that cater for their needs. The study may change the way the NGOs and Social Welfare render their services in relation to street children. It would also be useful to know to what extent and how many organizations are involved in helping street children and on which levels. The NGOs try very hard to help the street children with their immediate needs without giving them the effective tools that will be sustainable and enable them to integrate into society as they grow older.

Should you agree to participate, you would be requested to participate in one face-to-face interview that will be conducted at your organisation from 10:00 to 12:00. It is estimated that the interview(s) will last approximately 60 minutes. During the interview the following questions will be directed to you:

- What social welfare services do you specifically render for street children in Pretoria?

- What do you think are the causes for children being on the street?
- How many children are catered for?
- What do you regard as the needs of street children?
- What are the barriers to addressing the needs of street children?
- What nature of programmes do you render for street children?
- In your view what helps and benefits the social welfare service delivery to street children?
- In your view, what hinders your social welfare service delivery to street children?
- What long-term solutions do you employ to help the street children?
- Any suggestions from your side, on how the service delivery to street children can be improved or enhanced?

With your permission, the interview will be audio-taped. The recorded interviews will be transcribed word-for-word. Your responses to the interview (both the taped and transcribed versions) will be kept strictly confidential. The audiotape(s) will be coded to disguise any identifying information. The tapes will be stored in a locked office at Theo van Wyk Building 8-181 UNISA, Pretoria in a steel locked cabinet and only I will have access to them. The transcripts (without any identifying information) will be made available to my research supervisor, a translator (if they need to be translated into English), and an independent coder with the sole purpose of assisting and guiding me with this research undertaking. My research supervisor, the translator and the independent coder will each sign an undertaking to treat the information shared by you in a confidential manner.

The audiotapes and the transcripts of the interviews will be destroyed upon the completion of the study. Identifying information will be deleted or disguised in any subsequent publication and/or presentation of the research findings.

Please note that participation in the research is completely voluntary. You are not obliged to take part in the research. Your decision to participate, or not to participate, will not affect you in any way now or in the future and you will incur no penalty and/or loss to which you may otherwise be entitled. Should you agree to

participate and sign the information and informed consent document herewith, as proof of your willingness to participate, please note that you are not signing your rights away.

If you agree to take part, you have the right to change your mind at any time during the study. You are free to withdraw this consent and discontinue participation without any loss of benefits. However, if you do withdraw from the study, you would be requested to grant me an opportunity to engage in informal discussion with you so that the research partnership that was established can be terminated in an orderly manner.

As the researcher, I also have the right to dismiss you from the study without regard to your consent if you fail to follow the instructions or if the information you have to divulge is emotionally sensitive and upsets you to such an extent that it hinders you from functioning physically and emotionally in a proper manner. Furthermore, if participating in the study at any time jeopardises your safety in any way, you will be dismissed.

Should I conclude that the information you have shared left you feeling emotionally upset, or perturbed, I am obliged to refer you to a counsellor for debriefing or counselling (should you agree).

You have the right to ask questions concerning the study at any time. Should you have any questions or concerns about the study, contact these numbers **(012) 429-6388 / 082 864 0600**

Please note that this study has been approved by the Research and Ethics Committee of the Department of Social Work at Unisa. Without the approval of this committee, the study cannot be conducted. Should you have any questions and queries not sufficiently addressed by me as the researcher, you are more than welcome to contact the Chairperson of the Research and Ethics Committee of the Department of Social Work at Unisa. His contact details are as follows: Dr AH (Nicky) Alpaslan, telephone number: 012 429 6739, or email alpasah@unisa.ac.za.

If, after you have consulted the researcher and the Research and Ethics Committee in the Department of Social Work at Unisa, their answers have not satisfied you, you

might direct your question/concerns/queries to the Chairperson, Human Ethics Committee, College of Human Science, PO Box 392, Unisa, 0003.

Based upon all the information provided to you above, and being aware of your rights, you are asked to give your written consent should you want to participate in this research study by signing and dating the information and consent form provided herewith and initialling each section to indicate that you understand and agree to the conditions.

Thank you for your participation.

Kind regards

Researcher

R.M SKHOSANA

Contact details: (O): 012 429 3805
(Fax): 012 429 6973
(Email): skhosrm@unisa.ac.za

APPENDIX B**INFORMATION AND INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT****TITLE OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT:**

SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICES RENDERED TO STREET CHILDREN IN
PRETORIA: PERSPECTIVES OF SERVICE PROVIDERS..

REFERENCE NUMBER: 34077154

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR/RESEARCHER: Ms R.M SKHOSANA

ADDRESS: 16931 MAMELODI EAST, PO RETHABILE, 0122

CONTACT TELEPHONE NUMBER: (012) 429-3805

	<u>Initial</u>
<p>DECLARATION BY OR ON BEHALF OF THE PARTICIPANT:</p> <p>I, THE UNDERSIGNED, _____ (name), [ID No: _____] the participant or in my capacity as _____ of the participant [ID No _____] of _____</p> <p>_____ _____(address)</p> <p>A. HEREBY CONFIRM AS FOLLOWS:</p> <p>1. I/the participant was invited to participate in the above research project which is being undertaken by Rebecca Skhosana of the Department of Social Work in the School of Social Science and Humanities at the University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa.</p>	
<p>2. The following aspects have been explained to me/the participant:</p> <p>2.1 Aim: The investigator(s)/researcher(s) are studying Services rendered to street children in Sunnyside, Tshwane: Social Workers' perspectives.</p> <p>The information will be published in a journal and be used to change the way the society perceives the street children. The negative notions of street children should be challenged and they be seen in a positive light as children who have power in themselves. The study may also inform</p>	

<p>the policy-makers and help them to see beyond the ability and self-determination of children. It can further help the NGOs to render efficient and effective services to street children and at the same time receive support in the form of funds from the government.</p>	
<p>2.2 I understand that I am freely participating and that any time that I feel uncomfortable, I am free to withdraw from the study or inform the researcher of my discomfort.</p>	
<p>2.3 Risks: There will be no risk.</p>	
<p>Possible benefits: As a result of my participation in this study There will be no material benefit resulting from this study</p>	
<p>Confidentiality: My identity will not be revealed in any discussion, description or scientific publications by the investigators/researchers.</p>	
<p>Access to findings: Any new information/benefit that develops during the course of the study will be shared with me.</p>	
<p>Access to findings: Any new information/benefit that develops during the course of the study will be shared with me.</p>	<p><u>Initial</u></p>
<p>Voluntary participation/refusal/discontinuation: My participation is voluntary. My decision whether or not to participate will in no way affect me now or in the future.</p>	<p><u>Initial</u></p>
<p>3. The information above was explained to me/the participant by Rebecca Skhosana in /English/Sotho/ /Zulu/ and I am in command of this language/it was translated to me satisfactorily by _____ (name of the translator). I was given the opportunity to ask questions and all these questions were answered satisfactorily.</p>	<p><u>Initial</u></p>
<p>4. No pressure was exerted on me to consent to participate and I understand that I may withdraw at any stage from the study without any penalty.</p>	<p><u>Initial</u></p>
<p>5. Participation in this study will not result in any additional cost to me.</p>	<p><u>Initial</u></p>
<p>B. I HEREBY CONSENT VOLUNTARILY TO PARTICIPATE IN THE ABOVE PROJECT.</p>	

Signed/confirmed at _____ on _____ 20__	
_____	_____
Signature or right thumbprint of participant	Signature of witness

CONSENT FORM REQUESTING PERMISSION TO PUBLISH AUDIOTAPES AND/OR VERBATIM TRANSCRIPTS OF AUDIOTAPE RECORDINGS

As part of this project, I have made audio recording of you. I would like you to indicate (with ticks in the appropriate blocks next to each statement below) what uses of these records you are willing to consent to. This is completely up to you. I will use the records only in ways that you agree to. In any of these records, names will not be identified.	Place a tick [✓] next to the use of the record you consent to
1. The records can be studied by the research team and quotations from the transcripts made of the recordings can be used in the research report.	
2. The records (quotations from the transcripts made of the recordings) can be used for scientific publications and/or meetings.	
3. The written transcripts and/or records can be used by other researchers.	
4. The records (quotations from the transcripts made of the recordings) can be shown/used in public presentations to non-scientific groups.	
5. The records can be used on television or radio.	
_____	_____
Signature of participant	Date

APPENDIX C**IMPORTANT MESSAGE TO PARTICIPANT/REPRESENTATIVE OF PARTICIPANT**

Dear Participant/Representative of participant

Thank you for your/the participant's participation in this study. Should at any time during the study

- an emergency arise as a result of the research, or
- you require any further information with regard to the study, kindly contact **Rebecca Skhosana** at **0766992359**